Access to Achievement:

Enabling Students With Disability to Engage With Classroom Assessment

Submitted by

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Statement of Original Authorship

This thesis contains no material that has been extracted in whole or in part from a thesis that I have submitted towards the award of any other degree or diploma in any other tertiary institution. No other person's work has been used without due acknowledgment in the main text of the thesis. All research procedures reported in the thesis received the approval of the Australian Catholic University's Human Research Ethics committee.

Signature: 

Date: 19th September 2020

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Het is tussen mensen
onuitsprekelijk te verstaan
daar waar samen wordt geluisterd
over grenzen wordt gegaan
komt nieuw bronwater naar boven
wordt het goede werkelijkheid
en ontstaat een mogelijkheid

Wim Slager

Where the act of listening
is shared between people
and boundaries shift
a new spring emerges
good becoming reality
creating possibility.

Translation: Marijne Medhurst

I could not have written this thesis without the help of my study participants: Ms Naomi, Ms Daisy, the HoSE, and Harry, Seth, Charlie and their parents. They have given me a great gift by agreeing to participate in this study and letting me into their lives. Thank you also to the Principal, administration staff, Master teacher and support staff at Summerfield High School for enabling this PhD study.

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Abbreviations and Definitions

ACARA	Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority
Achievement standard	Statement related to what students are expected to have learned upon completing a Year level, representing the C standard
Adjustment	Actions or measures implemented to enable access and participation for students with disability on the same basis as their peers. Synonym of the American term "accommodation"
A–E reporting framework	Five-point reporting framework with scores ranging from E (*lowest*) to A (*highest*)
AfL	Assessment for learning
ASD	Autism spectrum disorder
APST	Australian Professional Standards for Teachers
Assessment task sheet	Document outlining assessment task instructions to students
Categorical resource allocation method	Using categories of diagnosed disabilities to determine the allocation of resources
Cognitive verbs	Description of the mental operations students are required to use to demonstrate skills and knowledge
CoIAP	Community of inclusive assessment practice
Criteria sheet	Detailed quality features of student work, used to inform student self-assessment and for teachers to make a reliable judgement of student achievement (see also: Marking guide)
DDA	Disability Discrimination Act

DLD	Developmental language disorder
DSE	Disability Standards for Education
EAP	Educational Adjustment Plan
HoD	Head of Department
HoSE	Head of Special Education
ICP	Individual Curriculum Plan
LANI	Literacy and Numeracy Intervention
LO	Learning objectives
Mainstream	Education settings that are designed for most, but not all, students. Differs from special education
Marking guide	Document outlining achievement standards as set out in the Australian Curriculum, against which teachers in Australia judge students' summative work. It also informs students' understanding of the required quality of their work and provides opportunities for self-assessment (see also: Criteria sheet)
Modification	Changes to the way students access learning, including lowering achievement standards
NCCD	Nationally Consistent Collection of Data on School Students with Disability
Pedagogy	Teaching (instruction) as well as curriculum and assessment processes
QCAA	Queensland Curriculum & Assessment Authority
Qld DoE	Queensland Department of Education
SEP	Special Education Program
SC	Success criteria

SLI	Speech–Language Impairment
UDL	Universal Design for Learning
UNCRPD	United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
UNGC4	General Comment No. 4 to Article 24 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
Verification/ verified disability	Procedure to determine eligibility for disability funding to schools. In Queensland, students with medically diagnosed disabilities in the areas of autism spectrum disorder, hearing impairment, intellectual disability, physical impairment, speech-language impairment and vision impairment—and who require significant education adjustments—can receive a verification. Schools receive additional funding based on the number of students with a "verified disability"
Year level	Synonym of Grade level

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Abstract

Students with disability have the right to an inclusive education on the basis of equal opportunity to their peers without disability. Despite this, students with disability internationally and in Australia continue to experience barriers in accessing inclusive education and demonstrating their learning. Australian students with disability underachieve compared with their peers without disability despite expectations of quality, accessible assessment practice for all students.

The aim of this study was to examine classroom assessment practice for students with disability. The focus of this study was on how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment within the sociocultural context of official and intended inclusive education policy and enacted classroom practice. The study adopted a case study approach and investigated how two teachers supported three focus students with disability to engage with classroom assessment in a Year 7 classroom. Both quantitative (survey data) and qualitative data (interviews, video-recorded classroom observation data, and assessment artefacts such as marked assessment tasks) were collected and analysed. Using a sociocultural lens, systematic analysis resulted in identified elements related to teachers' pedagogy and instruction and to enabling students' access to summative assessment. The study developed the concept "community of inclusive assessment practice" (CoIAP) to investigate how and to what extent features of classroom assessment, inclusive education and inclusive assessment come together to enable students with disability to enhance and to demonstrate their learning.

The findings revealed a tension between teachers' navigation of sociocultural factors (i.e., disability funding, historical non-inclusive approaches and institutional practices) and intended inclusive assessment practice. The study identified a fractured CoIAP, characterised by a lack of collaboration among teachers and support staff and barriers in classroom assessment processes. Students with disability were still being required to

demonstrate their learning through assessment processes that were not fully accessible to them. This is in contrast with official policy of inclusion and official expectations regarding teachers' assessment practice.

The study brought together the fields of quality assessment and inclusive education and confirmed that quality assessment practice cannot be implemented without coordinated consideration of the requirements and characteristics of students with disability. Similarly, inclusive education practice needs to consider features of quality assessment to ensure promotion of student autonomy. The study has highlighted that inclusive assessment practice cannot be established in a context that is not reflective of inclusive education values. The study further highlighted that inclusive assessment does not occur in a vacuum but is a social practice, where teachers, students with disability and support staff negotiate sociocultural factors, including historical and institutional factors, within a CoIAP. As these factors can enable or disable students to enhance and to demonstrate their learning, the sociocultural context within which teachers engage in classroom assessment practice needs to facilitate enactment of quality assessment practice and inclusive education policy.

Chapter 1: Introduction

> Hard words, I don’t know any of them. [If] they're, like, really hard words, I'm like, I really shouldn't bother about this as long as I can understand what the teacher is saying. But then when she says a hard word and, like, I can't really put my hand up because she's busy talking, then, like, I forget about it. It, like, goes into space. (Harry, interview, 26 June 2018, lines 160–165)

Imagine you are a 12-year-old student in a classroom where you are expected to listen to instructions, learn new content and engage with lesson activities in order to prepare for a summative assessment task. Now imagine that you also have limited working memory and limited receptive language processing skills. The verbal instructions may be difficult to process and the accompanying writing on the board uses complex vocabulary that you are not familiar with. You cannot ask questions, because the teacher is busy, and because your limited self-advocacy skills mean you have not yet developed confidence to ask for help. Your peers are starting their activities and you still do not understand what is expected of you, and how the activities prepare you to demonstrate your learning on the upcoming summative assessment task. Some support arrives when the classroom teacher or support staff notice your disengagement and you can commence your work, a little while after your peers.

This is the story of Harry[1], a 12-year-old student participant in this study. It is also the story of many more students with disability—including Seth and Charlie, the other two student participants in this study—who attend *mainstream* classrooms (i.e., not special education classrooms). International legislation prescribes the rights of children with disability to education without discrimination and on the basis of “equal opportunity” (United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities [UNCRPD], 2008, art. 24, para. 1). However, internationally, students with disability experience a significant

[1] All names of persons, classes and schools throughout this study are pseudonyms.

disadvantage when accessing education relative to students without disability (Mizunoya et al., 2016). In developing countries, there is a reported 30% school attendance gap between students with and without disability (Mizunoya et al., 2016), while in Western countries, including Australia, issues of segregation and gatekeeping persist to present barriers to the inclusion of students with disability in mainstream schools (Hehir et al., 2016; Iacono et al., 2019). Despite many countries having adopted anti-discrimination laws and national inclusive education policies, students with disability still face barriers to inclusion (de Bruin, 2019; Hehir et al., 2016). This study's focus is on barriers students with disability experience when they are required to demonstrate their learning through classroom assessment processes.

In Australia, research has identified "failures in inclusion of students with disability and the continuing existence of discrimination" (Duncan et al., 2020, p. 13), and reports have highlighted the lack of systematic and effective assessment adjustments for students with disability. Students with disability have recorded lower education outcomes and were less likely to finish Year 12 than students without disability (Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority [ACARA], 2012; Commonwealth of Australia, 2016; Victorian Equal Opportunity and Human Rights Commission [VEOHRC], 2012). The Australian state of Queensland review into the provision of education for students with disability (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017) also reported suboptimal policy on, and enactment of, inclusive education in state schools[2]. The research and these reports are in contrast with the federal goal that all Australian students should receive high quality education that does not discriminate based on disability (Disability Discrimination Act [DDA], 1992; Disability Standards for Education [DSE], 2005) while encouraging "parents, carers, families, the broader community and young people themselves to hold high

[2] State schools are government-funded schools and are the largest provider of education in Australia (ACARA, 2019b).

expectations for their educational outcomes" (Melbourne Declaration[3]; Ministerial Council for Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs [MCEETYA], 2008, p. 8).

The aim of this study is to examine classroom assessment practice for students with disability. The focus of this study is on how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment, interpreted broadly, within the sociocultural context of official and intended inclusive education policy and enacted classroom practice. Sociocultural theory assumes that learning is a product of social interaction that is situated in, and influenced by, historical and cultural factors (Vygotsky, 1978). This study views learning through a sociocultural lens, recognising that multiple elements influence practice and that learning is a social act (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 2003). Learning, as a social act, is also understood to involve three broad dimensions of mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998) taking place within a *community of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1991). As "an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98), community of practice is adopted as an analytical lens to the study. As discussed in Chapter 2, the establishment of a community of practice, characterised by collaboration and ongoing negotiation among members (Ainscow, 2005; Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016; Hehir et al., 2016; Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016; UNGC4, 2016) enables inclusive education.

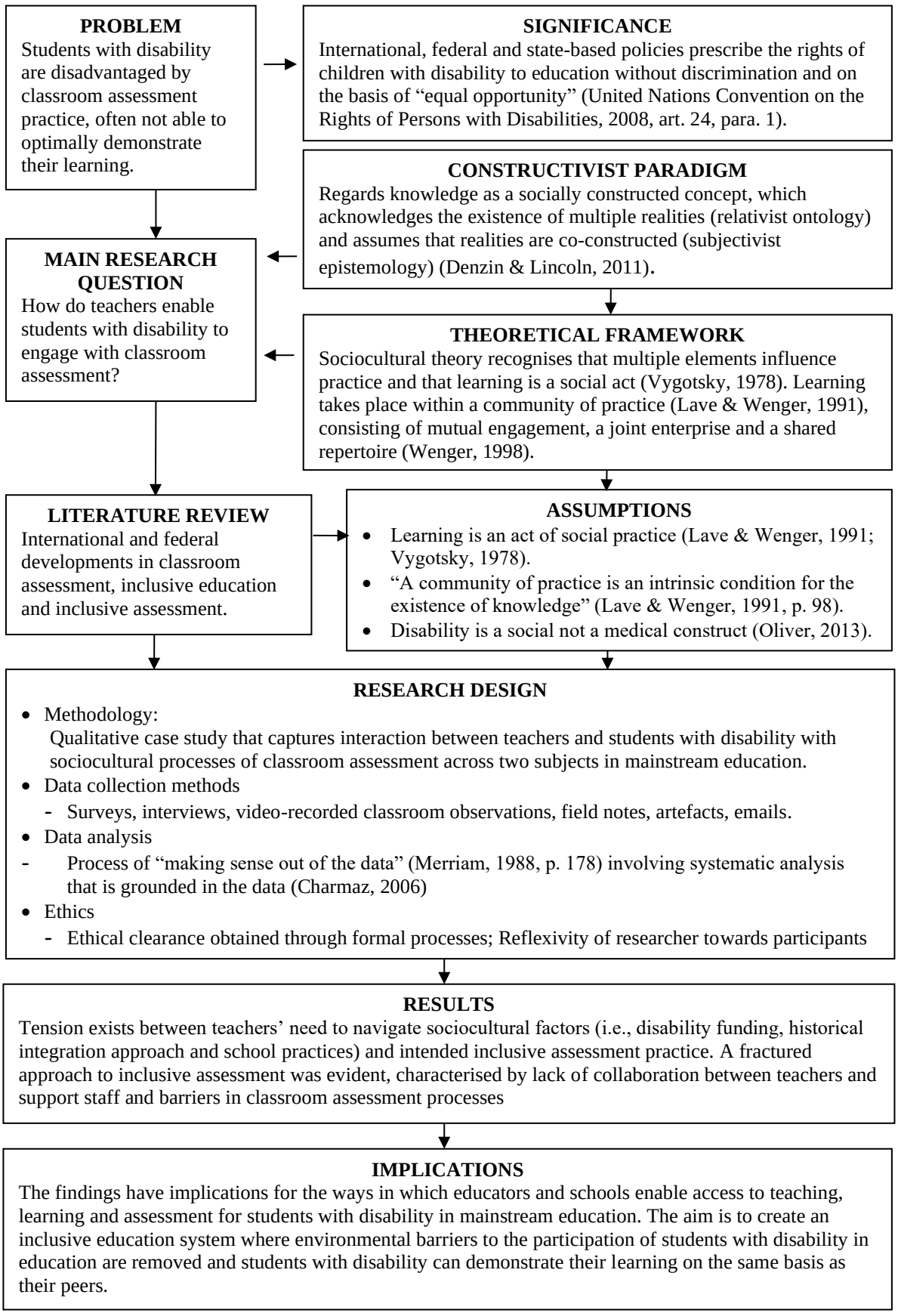
The study contributes to research exploring the enactment of inclusive education with a specific focus on classroom assessment practice for students with disability. As this study was conducted in Queensland, Australia, the study is positioned in a context where teachers are responsible for summative assessment practice in junior secondary education, and where inclusive education is based on international, federal and state education policy. A concept map showing the structure of this study is provided in Figure 1.1.

[3] In December 2019, the Melbourne Declaration was replaced by the Alice Springs (Mparntwe) Education Declaration (Education Council, 2019). As this study examined practices located in a particular time (2018), the Melbourne Declaration will be used as a frame of education policy reference.

This chapter first defines some commonly used terms of the study: disability, models of disability and classroom assessment. Second, the chapter provides an overview of international, federal and state legislation and education policy frameworks that outline the right to an inclusive education for students with disability. Third, the Australian and Queensland education context, within which this study takes place, is described. Fourth, a brief overview of relevant research in the area of classroom assessment for students with disability is discussed to establish the parameters of the study. Fifth, the research gap addressed by this study is identified. This leads to the presentation of the research questions and methods used in the study. The chapter concludes with brief synopses of the chapters in this study.

Figure 1.1

Concept Map Showing Structure of Study



Defining Terms Used in the Study

Disability

The DDA (1992) defines a person with *disability* as possessing one or multiple characteristics out of a detailed description of 11 characteristics:

> (a) total or partial loss of the person's bodily or mental functions; or
>
> (b) total or partial loss of a part of the body; or
>
> (c) the presence in the body of organisms causing disease or illness; or
>
> (d) the presence in the body of organisms capable of causing disease or illness; or
>
> (e) the malfunction, malformation or disfigurement of a part of the person's body; or
>
> (f) a disorder or malfunction that results in the person learning differently from a person without the disorder or malfunction; or
>
> (g) a disorder, illness or disease that affects a person's thought processes, perception of reality, emotions or judgment or that results in disturbed behaviour;
>
> and includes a disability that:
>
> (h) presently exists; or
>
> (i) previously existed but no longer exists; or
>
> (j) may exist in the future (including because of a genetic predisposition to that disability); or
>
> (k) is imputed to a person. (§4.1)

This definition also includes "behaviour that is a symptom or manifestation of the disability" (§4.1). Consistent with a sociocultural lens, in this study, the term *disability* is used to reflect the breadth of impairments identified in Australian legislation as well as the interaction between such impairments and barriers that are being put in place by society, as discussed next.

Models of Disability

The concept of disability has been discussed in relation to four models, of which the medical and social models widely relate to education and are most relevant to this study. Oliver's (2004) notion that "models are ways of translating ideas into practice" (p. 19) enables researchers to detect conceptualisations of disability in different educational practices. In a medical model, also called an individual model (Oliver, 2013), a person's impairment is seen as the source of disability (Graham et al., 2020) and the environment and culture surrounding the person with impairment is seen as "unproblematic" (Swain et al., 2003, p. 23). Graham et al. (2020) criticised this model for its focus on a person's limitations without regard for the environment within which a person acts. In education settings, a medical model of disability can be detected when resources are distributed to support children with disability in "special" units, under the assumption that "the child is 'the problem' and not the quality or accessibility of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment" (Graham et al., 2020, p. 31). This means that educators attribute a student's restricted ability to access buildings, participate in activities or engage with the curriculum, to their impairment.

In contrast, a social model of disability recognises that restrictions in social participation that may accompany persons with disability, are a product of society (Cumming, 2012; UNCRPD, 2008). The social model separates disability from impairment; impairment is seen as a person's characteristic and disability is the result of that person's interaction with environmental barriers (Oliver, 2013). This distinction implies that a student with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) would not be disabled if all education activities are implemented to remove barriers such as lack of structure in the classroom. While the complex mix of students' learning needs and education settings can make the removal of all barriers for all students a difficult proposition— removing a barrier for one may inadvertently pose a barrier for another—a social model argues that "barrier free enclaves" (Shakespeare, 2006, p. 202) are possible when students' requirements to access learning are addressed.

The other two proposed models of disability are the biopsychosocial model and the human rights model. The biopsychosocial model combines biological and social factors and is used by the World Health Organization's International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health. The language use in this model resembles medical language and its concepts have not yet been developed sufficiently for application in education (Graham et al., 2020). The human rights model considers impairments as a valued part of human diversity (Degener, 2016), but has been criticised for its limited usefulness in education due to lack of practical applications for educators (Graham et al., 2020).

The social model is a widely accepted perspective on disability and forms the foundation for international, national and state-based education policy and legal frameworks for education for students with disability, such as General Comment No.4 to Article 24 of the CRPD (UNGC4, 2016), the DSE (2005) and Queensland's Inclusive Education Policy (Qld DoE, 2018b). These frameworks all promote an inclusive education system, as distinguished from non-inclusive systems such as exclusion (no access), segregation (access to separate settings) and integration (access to and requirement to adapt to unchanged mainstream settings) (Graham, 2020). This study is therefore situated in a policy context promoting a social model of disability. It recognises that students with disability interact with environmental and contextual factors, and in turn these factors shape pedagogical practices including assessment. This interaction determines how students with disability can demonstrate their learning through classroom assessment.

The social model of disability implies that language is used "to convey what we mean by the concept [of inclusion]" and also "to make that very meaning" (Walton, 2016, p. 3). Perceptions of appropriate language use when referring to students with disability differ across cultural contexts—terms used in this study follow the Australian context. As such, the term "student with disability" is used, while, for example, the term "student with special needs" may be customary in other cultural contexts.

Classroom Assessment

Classroom assessment is conceptualised as a process involving teachers and students who gather, interpret, evaluate and use evidence of student learning for multiple goals and purposes, such as identifying learning strengths and difficulties, monitoring student performance relative to learning goals, grading, and enabling feedback to teachers, students and parents relating to students' learning progress and next steps in teaching (Andrade, 2013; Brookhart & McMillan, 2020; Rasooli et al., 2019). Classroom assessment incorporates both formative assessment and summative assessment purposes (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016; McMillan, 2013). This study focuses on assessment interactions and processes for both formative and summative purposes that teachers relied on to promote, and elicit evidence of, student learning, and how such practices enabled students with disability opportunities to enhance and to demonstrate their learning. As such, the study is embedded within sociocultural understandings of quality assessment and assessment for learning[4].

The Right to an Inclusive Education

International, federal and state legislation and education policy frameworks on inclusive education provide the context within which students with disability engage with classroom assessment practice in mainstream classrooms. Internationally, all students with disability have the right to access an inclusive education system, as stipulated through Article 24 of the UNCRPD (2008). Students with disability should be able to access quality, inclusive education "on an equal basis with others" (UNCRPD, 2008, art. 24, para. 2b) with support systems in place to accommodate a student's individual requirements and "maximize academic and social development" (UNCRPD, 2008, art. 24, para. 2e). In Australia, the right to inclusive education is framed by the DDA (1992) and the DSE (2005). The DDA (1992) states that persons with disability by law "have the same rights to equality" (§3.b) as other

[4] In the study, summative assessment refers to assessment that produces data to inform school reporting to parents at the end of a term or semester. It does not refer to assessments implemented as test preparation for external examinations.

people, and that students should not be denied enrolment to education, nor be excluded by being denied access to any benefit an education provider may offer, or by being required to engage with a curriculum that obstructs participation or disadvantages the student. This means that education providers may treat students with disability differently to ensure that education provisions that are planned for students without disability do not disadvantage students with disability. Under the DDA (1992, §11), such provision does not have to be made if it causes education providers unjustifiable hardship.

To clarify expectations of the DDA for students with disability accessing education, the DSE (2005) established the goal for the Australian education system to be an inclusive, non-discriminatory system. A key feature of this system is that it allows parents or carers to lawfully demand the right for their child to receive education "on the same basis" (§2.2.3) as students without disability, with reasonable adjustments to education matters such as admission, courses, and assessment. Educators are further required under the DSE (2005, §3.5) to consult the student or a student's associate (e.g., parent or carer) prior to making an adjustment in order to establish the reasonableness of the adjustment. However, reasonable adjustments are not necessarily required under the DSE (2005) if adjustments cause unjustifiable hardship or if adjustments affect the integrity of "courses or programs and assessment requirements and processes, so that those on whom it confers an award can present themselves as having the appropriate knowledge, experience and expertise implicit in the holding of that particular award" (§3.4).

In Queensland, where the study was conducted, students' right to an inclusive education is outlined in the Inclusive Education Policy (Qld DoE, 2018b), showing Queensland DoE's commitment to ensure all children can:

- attend their local state school or education centre and be welcomed
- access and participate in a high-quality education and fully engage in the curriculum alongside their similar-aged peers

- learn in a safe and supportive environment, free from bullying, discrimination or harassment
- achieve academically and socially with reasonable adjustments and supports tailored to meet their learning needs. (p. 4)

This policy further explicitly refers to UNGC4 (2016) as a guiding document to establish inclusion.

In Australia, schools are asked to record adjustments for students with disability through the Nationally Consistent Collection of Data on School Students with Disability (NCCD). While adjustments to assessment are included in the NCCD, they are not reported as separate from adjustments to pedagogy or setting. Four levels of adjustments are defined:

1. Adjustments as part of quality differentiated teaching practices (QDTP)
2. Supplementary adjustments
3. Substantial adjustments
4. Extensive adjustments

The first level consists of quality teaching practices that benefit all students rather than specific adjustments for individual students. As the levels progress, the level of support provided to students with disability increases (Education Services Australia [ESA], 2020). Schools also report the predominant nature of a student's disability for which the adjustment is implemented (physical, cognitive, sensory, or social/emotional). Related to assessment, examples of adjustments are a differentiated approach to assessment (e.g., QDTP), providing accessible forms of assessment and additional time to complete assessment (supplementary adjustments), modifying assessment to assess different outcomes (substantial adjustments), and personalised modifications to all assessment procedures (extensive adjustments) (ESA, 2020). In 2018, the year of data collection for the current study, 19.3% of all Australian students across primary and secondary education were reported as receiving an adjustment/s

through the NCCD, with 14.7% of students receiving an adjustment/s at either QDTP or supplementary level (ACARA, 2020).

International, federal and state education policy also conveys the need for students with disability to access assessment requirements. The UNGC4 (2016) prescribes accessible assessment practice as part of an inclusive education system complemented with adjustments where necessary, positing that traditional, standardised tests may pose barriers to students with disability and should therefore not be solely relied on to evaluate student learning. Quality assessment practice ensures that all students have opportunity to optimally demonstrate their learning. In Australia, the requirement to implement quality assessment is outlined in federal and state-based policy frameworks. At a federal level in Australia, the Melbourne Declaration (MCEETYA, 2008) and the recently announced Alice Springs (Mparntwe) Declaration (Education Council, 2019) stipulate the need for "world-class curriculum and assessment" (Education Council, 2019, p. 15), with a focus on assessment for learning, assessment as learning (i.e., self-assessment) and assessment of learning (i.e., summative assessment). The Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APST; Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership [AITSL], 2017) and the Queensland Department of Education (Qld DoE) further specify the need for teachers to implement quality assessment practice, as discussed in the next section. These international, federal and state policy and legislative frameworks provide the context framing this study; students with disability have the right to an inclusive education including assessment, and schools and teachers are required to provide such inclusive practices.

The Australian and Queensland Education Context

The Australian and Queensland legislation and policy frameworks on inclusion and quality assessment provide the policy reference for the context within which this study took place: the state school system in the state of Queensland, Australia. This context will be briefly discussed to familiarise the reader with the organisation of education in Australia and

Queensland, and with the federal and state-level expectations placed on teachers related to quality teaching and assessment and inclusion.

Education policy, in Australia, is a state and territory responsibility. However, states also receive funding from the federal government[5]. In Queensland, primary school comprises a preparatory year after which students attend Years 1 to 6, followed by secondary school for Years 7 to 12. For all schooling, a separation exists between *mainstream* and *special* schools. Mainstream schools comprise 95% of all schools in Australia and are attended by the majority of students. Special schools comprise 5% of all Australian schools and are attended by students with a "mental or physical disability or impairment, slow learning ability, social or emotional problems" (ACARA, 2019a, p. 115). While delivery of education and policy implementation are the responsibility of Australian state and territory governments, a number of national policy initiatives have been introduced in Australia through federal funding provision requirements, including professional standards for teachers and a national curriculum for all Australian education. Funding provisions also require all schools to report student achievement on a five-point scale, usually interpreted as A (*highest*) to E (*lowest*), to parents twice a year (Australian Education Regulation, 2013, §59).

Teachers in Australia are expected to meet seven professional standards (APST; AITSL, 2017) that identify the expectations of teacher knowledge and skill:

1. Know students and how they learn
2. Know the content and how to teach it
3. Plan for and implement effective teaching and learning
4. Create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments

[5] Australian schooling consists of government schools and non-government schools. Non-government schools comprise Catholic systemic schools (19.7% of the total student population) and secular and nonsecular independent schools (14.6% of the total student population; ACARA, 2019b). In 2018, 65.7% of students attended primary or secondary government schools and 24.3% attended non-government schools (ACARA, 2019b). Relevant to this study, state and territory governments are the major public providers of funding for government schools, complemented by federal support (Australian Government Department of Education, 2020a).

5. Assess, provide feedback and report on student learning
6. Engage in professional learning
7. Engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the community (AITSL, 2017, n.p.)

Several aspects of these standards relate directly to inclusive education and assessment, by specifying that teachers should know and understand "physical, social and intellectual development and characteristics of students and how these may affect learning" (Standard 1), including implementing "strategies to support full participation of students with disability" (Standard 1.6), "plan for and implement effective teaching strategies" (Standard 3, which involves setting learning goals), and "assess, provide feedback and report on student learning" (Standard 5) (AITSL, 2017, n.p.). As part of Standard 5, Australian teachers are required to formatively and summatively assess student learning, provide feedback, make reliable judgements, interpret assessment data from school-based as well as external assessments to identify interventions and adjust teaching accordingly, and report on achievement to students and parents. The Queensland *P–12 Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Framework* (Qld DoE, 2020b) also specifies requirements for teachers to implement summative assessment, formative assessment and moderation practices. Teachers are therefore expected to be able to implement assessment practice that progresses students' learning while considering student characteristics to enable full participation of students with disability.

The Australian Curriculum outlines expectations relating to knowledge, skills and understanding for students from Foundation (in Queensland: Preparatory) to Year 10 across eight learning areas (English, Mathematics, Science, Humanities and Social Sciences, the Arts, Technologies, Health and Physical Education, and Languages) and for students in senior secondary education (Years 11 and 12; 16 and 17 years of age) across four learning areas (English, Mathematics, Science, and Humanities and Social Sciences; ACARA, n.d.-b, n.d.-c). Each subject within these learning areas specifies each Year level's content

descriptors and the achievement standard (i.e., what students are expected to have learnt upon completing a Year level, representing the C standard; ACARA, n.d.-b). The Australian Curriculum focuses explicitly on thinking skills, by using *cognitive verbs* to "signal to students the type of mental operations they are to use when demonstrating what they know, understand and can do" (Queensland Curriculum and Assessment Authority [QCAA], 2019a, para. 2). The Australian Curriculum further specifies cross-curriculum priorities and general capabilities that teachers across all learning areas should address in their teaching. All Australian states and territories have endorsed the Australian Curriculum and are responsible for its implementation and assessment (ACARA, n.d.-a).

In Queensland, the QCAA provides educators with resources and advice related to how to teach and assess curriculum content as this aligns with the Australian Curriculum. For example, the "standards elaborations", based on the curriculum's expected achievement standard, describe student achievement at different achievement levels on a five-point A to E reporting framework and can be used to develop marking guides to evaluate the quality of students' work (QCAA, 2019b). Queensland educators are further provided with an overview of cognitive verbs commonly used in their learning area within the Australian Curriculum, to support "the explicit teaching of thinking" (QCAA, 2019a, para. 1). When data collection for this study was undertaken (in 2018), senior students in Queensland were required to complete school-based summative assessment tasks in order to graduate from high school. However, senior students graduating in 2020 are required to complete an external assessment in addition to school-based assessments for summative purposes. Cognitive verbs from the Australian Curriculum are commonly used in these external senior assessment tasks. Teachers across all Year levels are encouraged to explicitly teach students the meaning of these words throughout everyday teaching practices (QCAA, 2018a). The impact of this expectation on students with disability will emerge in this study.

Thus, Queensland teachers' sociocultural context is framed by national legislation and policy and a national curriculum and state-based policies, procedures and recommendations regarding the implementation of classroom assessment practice.

Classroom Assessment for Students With Disability: Identifying the Research Problem

Previous studies on assessment for students with disability have predominantly focused on assessment adjustments on standardised assessments rather than classroom assessments, including read-aloud accommodation, computer-based administration and additional time (Cawthon & Wurtz, 2010; Rogers et al., 2012) and the effects of those adjustments on student performance (Schulte et al., 2001; Sireci et al., 2003; Sireci et al., 2005). Other research has focused on accessible standardised assessment design to reduce the need for retrospective adjustments (Elliott et al., 2018; Johnstone et al., 2008). Failing to make assessments accessible can lead to direct discrimination—where students with disability are being treated less favourably than students without disability (Cumming & Dickson, 2013)—and indirect discrimination. Cumming and Dickson (2013) described indirect discrimination as the

> imposition of a condition that is facially neutral but which has an unreasonable discriminatory impact on a person with disability, that is, a person without disability can comply with the condition but a person with disability is not able to comply. (p. 8)

However, how adjustments for students with disability are to be developed in inclusive education can be misunderstood, therefore leading to discrimination (Poed, 2020). Misconceptions include expectations that students with disability need a full-time teacher aide (Poed, 2020) or that being in the same classroom as students without disability implies inclusion (Cologon, 2013).

The Australian Government in 2017 acknowledged the "considerable work ahead to ensure students with disability are able to achieve optimal educational outcomes" (Commonwealth of Australia, 2017, p. 71). Cumming (2012) posed the question "whether the

intentions of inclusion of the student with impairment in educational accountability versus the provisions of accommodations to standardized test formats are to allow optimal versus sufficient demonstration of achievement" (p. 70). Focusing on classroom assessment, Cumming et al. (2013) stated that, in order to meet the legal requirements for making assessment adjustments as set out by the DSE (2005), educators can implement minimal adjustments that "meet the letter of the law" (p. 299) but may not reflect principles of quality assessment practice. This can impact on how students with disability are enabled to demonstrate their learning in an equitable way. Queensland's Every Student with Disability Succeeding plan (Qld DoE, 2017), a supporting policy instrument within the Inclusive Education Policy (Qld DoE, 2018b), implied an intention to promote optimal demonstration of learning, stating that success of its plan can be measured by having improved the A to E scores of students with disability in Queensland.

Published research shows that inclusive education benefits for students with disability include better social and developmental outcomes (Foreman et al., 2004; Hehir et al., 2016; Oh-Young & Filler, 2015), better academic outcomes (Hehir et al., 2012; Hehir et al., 2016; Ruijs & Peetsma, 2009) and better post-education outcomes such as participation in the job market (Mazzotti et al., 2016). However, failure to design inclusive assessment tasks can deny students with disability equitable opportunities in their education (Australian Capital Territory Government Education and Training [ACTGET], 2013; New South Wales Ombudsman [NSW Ombudsman], 2013; VEOHRC, 2012). The reported underachievement of students with disability (ACARA, 2012; Deloitte Access Economics, 2017) is likely to be sustained if the call for implementation of strategies to improve learning outcomes for students with disability (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016; Deloitte Access Economics, 2017) is not answered.

Given the extent to which students with disability in mainstream classrooms are indicated to require adjustments in teaching, including assessment (19.3%; ACARA,

2020), it is important to consider the accessibility of teaching and assessment practices to ensure that this group of students can optimally demonstrate their learning. This study is thus situated in national and state contexts where students with disability achieved poorer outcomes than their peers without disability, warranting a focus on how such outcomes could be improved through classroom assessment practice.

Significance of the Study and Research Gap

Despite the attention to accessible, or adjusted, assessment practice in standardised testing, few studies have investigated classroom assessment practice for students with disability. Studies addressing classroom assessment for these students are often limited to theoretical considerations of such assessment practice (Cumming et al., 2013; Ravet, 2013; Rose et al., 2018; Tay & Kee, 2019) or focused on assessment task design (Graham et al., 2018). This study addresses this knowledge gap by providing ground-level data illustrating the realities of how classroom teachers enact classroom assessment practice in everyday teaching and learning to enable students with disability to enhance and to optimally demonstrate their learning.

Nearly a decade ago, ACARA (2012) pointed to "the absence of targeted research in Australia in respect of [Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting] for students with [special educational needs] and Disability" (p. 6), and further highlighted "a demonstrable lack of ground-level data which can help inform progression and transition" (p. 6). More recently, a gap was identified in Australia between "what has been proven to work in classrooms for students with and without disabilities and the extent to which it has been successfully implemented and sustained to enhance student success" (Grima-Farrell, 2018, p. 82). In Australia, the 2015 Review of the DSE (Urbis, 2015) identified the need for more "continuity and consistency of adjustments between classroom and assessment contexts" (p. ix), which was noted by the Australian Government Department of Education and Training (2015), and further urged for more teacher knowledge on adjusting classroom assessment.

The call for better support for students with disability has recently grown stronger through several government reports identifying limited inclusive practices in Australian schools (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016; Deloitte Access Economics, 2017; New South Wales Audit Office, 2016). Despite international, federal and state legislation and policy frameworks promoting inclusive assessment practice, it remains unclear what exactly takes place inside mainstream Australian classrooms when classroom assessment practice is implemented for students with disability. Questions such as "How can students with disability navigate and negotiate classroom assessment practice to demonstrate their learning?" and "What barriers do students with disability need to overcome to engage with classroom assessment?" remain unanswered. The research base on classroom assessment of students with disability is limited (as shown in Chapter 2) due to lack of studies containing ground-level data, and lack of research where classroom assessment practice for formative and summative purposes of students with disability is a specific focus (Blatchford et al., 2012; Bosanquet & Radford, 2019; Colbert & Cumming, 2014). The study addresses this existing lack of ground-level data by examining whether students with disability are enabled to optimally demonstrate their learning through classroom assessment practice.

Research Questions

To examine whether students with disability can optimally demonstrate their learning through classroom assessment practice, the main research question has been framed as:

How do teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment?

This question addresses teachers' everyday classroom practice and focuses on how their practice affords students with disability opportunities to engage with classroom assessment. As this study is grounded in sociocultural theory, it recognises the multiple elements that influence practice. Therefore, the study does not focus on teachers' actions alone, for these actions are influenced by the various contexts framing teachers' work. These include teachers'

experience and perceptions of their work, legislation and policy frameworks, as well as school practices and procedures. To address the contextual influences, the first research sub-question asks:

What elements impact on how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment?

This sub-question acknowledges that teachers do not act in a vacuum, but are always in interaction with their environment, shaping this environment and being shaped by it in return (Wertsch, 1985). Teachers' practice is shaped by the education system of which teachers are part, which is framed by policies and procedures at international, national, state and school level, as well as influenced by historical, societal and personal views of inclusion and disability.

Following the notion of assessment as a sociocultural process rather than an isolated product (Brookhart & McMillan, 2020), teachers' classroom assessment practice cannot be separated from pedagogy and instruction. Quality assessment aligns with curriculum and pedagogy (Wyatt-Smith, 2008), which provided the warrant for the second research sub-question:

How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?

This sub-question recognises the situated nature of learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and that assessment processes are influenced by the interplay between knowledge, learning and social interaction (Cowie, 2015). Teachers collect evidence of student learning through teaching and assessment activities for formative and summative purposes (Black & Wiliam, 1998a).

In Australia, the devolution of responsibility for assessment to classroom teachers (Cumming & Maxwell, 2014; Hill & McNamara, 2012), together with Professional Standard 5—Assess, provide feedback and report on student learning—(AITSL, 2017), includes the requirement that teachers are skilled in monitoring student learning and designing

and implementing summative assessments (assessment literacy; Looney et al., 2017; Stiggins, 1991; Willis et al., 2013; Wyatt-Smith & Gunn, 2009; Xu & Brown, 2016). In order to design or implement summative assessment practice that enables students with disability to demonstrate their learning, teachers need to consider aspects such as curriculum content, principles of quality assessment practice, school procedures and a diverse student population. Therefore, the third research sub-question asks:

How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?

This sub-question addresses the notion that teachers mediate assessment processes to gauge students' learning, and that students subsequently mediate assessment processes to demonstrate their learning. Research has shown how the design of tasks for summative assessment purposes can pose barriers to students with disability (Graham et al., 2018; Rose et al., 2018). Inaccessible assessment tasks require assessment adjustments, to ensure that students with disability can optimally demonstrate their learning (Cumming et al., 2013). This sub-question explores potential barriers inherent in assessment task design and implementation and how design and implementation elements can enable or disable students with disability to demonstrate their learning.

The main research question and three sub-questions are concerned with how teachers negotiate[6] elements in policy, educational contexts (i.e., school contexts), pedagogy, and assessment design and implementation, so they converge to enable students with disability to demonstrate their learning. This study adopted a case study approach (Merriam, 1988), focusing on "teachers' enactment of classroom assessment for students with disability in a mainstream secondary classroom" as the case. The study investigated how two teachers supported three focus students with disability to engage with classroom assessment in a Year

[6] The term *negotiate* takes a broad meaning in this thesis, meaning to manage, or interact with, factors in order to achieve an outcome.

7 classroom, the first year of secondary school. In order to answer the research questions, both quantitative (survey data) and qualitative data (interviews, video-recorded classroom observation data, and assessment artefacts such as marked assessment tasks) were collected and analysed. By using systematic analysis that was grounded in the data, the researcher constructed "theories 'grounded' in the data themselves" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 2) that enabled the research questions to be answered.

Thesis Outline

Chapter 1 introduces the study and provides an overview of the thesis including the main research question and sub-questions. It places the study in the research field of classroom assessment and inclusive education and introduces ongoing underachievement of students with disability in mainstream classrooms as the impetus for this study. Key terms are defined and key concepts presented in order to contextualise the study. It has also identified a gap in the research literature related to in-depth analysis of how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. Chapter 2 introduces and discusses sociocultural theory as the theoretical lens underpinning this study and a community of practice as framing possibilities for learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Sociocultural theory emphasises that a focus on an individual's learning should also include examination of social and cultural processes within which learning takes place (Wertsch & Tulviste, 1992). Chapter 2 further reviews literature on classroom assessment practice and inclusive education, and brings these fields together to examine inclusive assessment practice.

The study's research design is discussed in Chapter 3, starting with the methodology as the connection between the theoretical framework and the research methods. The concept of community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) is discussed as an analytical lens. Chapter 3 further outlines the research method (i.e., case study approach) as well as the sources of data collection to examine the case under investigation. Procedures

of data analysis are then discussed. Chapter 3 concludes with considerations of validity, reliability and ethics.

The study's participants and the site of the study, Summerfield High School (hereafter: Summerfield) are described in Chapter 4, including a brief overview of how support for students with disability is organised and implemented at the school. This chapter also includes an overview of inclusive education policy frameworks that frame the context of Summerfield's teaching and assessment practice. The results of the study are conveyed through Chapters 5, 6 and 7. Chapter 5 investigates the organisation of education and support for students with disability at Summerfield. The chapter examines how elements related to funding, communication and collaboration may influence the enactment of support provisions for students with disability at the school. Chapter 6 examines how Ms Naomi, an English teacher, enabled the three focus students to engage with classroom assessment in her classroom. It also includes an investigation of how Mr Harris, a preservice teacher, taught the focus students in preparation for a summative English assignment. Chapter 7 analyses the mathematics classroom and examines how Ms Daisy enabled the three focus students with disability to engage with classroom assessment, including a summative test. Both Chapters 6 and 7 investigate elements related to the teachers' classroom protocols, engagement with learning goals (i.e. broad goals of learning) and success criteria (detailed quality features of student work; ARG, 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008), teaching strategies, deployment of support staff, formative teacher–student interaction, how both teachers designed and/or implemented assessment tasks, and how the focus students interacted with these tasks.

Finally, Chapter 8 presents the conceptual contributions made by this study to the fields of assessment and inclusive education. The findings in relation to the main research question and sub-questions are presented and interpreted using the analytical lens of community of practice (Wenger, 1998). The three dimensions of a community of practice—mutual engagement, a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire—are examined to determine

how sociocultural factors, including historical and institutional factors, impact on teachers' inclusive assessment practice. The chapter further examines the extent to which these dimensions come together to form, what is conceptualised in this study as, a "community of inclusive assessment practice" (CoIAP) in the school to enable students with disability to demonstrate their achievement through classroom assessment. The chapter then identifies recommendations for practice, research, and policy to support the development of accessible classroom assessment practice for all students.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

As outlined in Chapter 1, the focus of this study is on how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. International and Australian legislation and policy frameworks outline the expectation for students with disability to be able to access education, including assessment, on the same basis as students without disability, to optimally demonstrate their learning. As the study investigates teachers, students with disability and assessment practice within a classroom, a sociocultural lens has been applied in the review of literature from the research fields of classroom assessment and inclusive education, to determine features of inclusive classroom assessment practice. Specifically, key ideas distilled from the review inform the introduction of the conceptual framework of the study, involving the interaction of classroom assessment, inclusive education and inclusive assessment to form a "community of inclusive assessment practice" (CoIAP). In this study, it is proposed that when a CoIAP forms, students with disability are enabled to demonstrate their learning.

First, sociocultural theory is introduced, including the concept of community of practice, providing the theoretical lens of the study. Second, features of quality assessment are examined through a sociocultural lens. Third, education for students with disability is discussed, including related policy frameworks and features of inclusive education. Fourth, classroom assessment and inclusive education are brought together through a sociocultural lens to discuss features of inclusive assessment practice. The chapter concludes by identifying and discussing the research gap that situates this study, and presents the conceptual framework of the study.

Theoretical Framework: A Sociocultural Lens

Learning can be understood from different research paradigms, encompassing various ontologies and epistemologies. This study understands learning from an interpretivist, or constructivist, paradigm where knowledge is seen as socially constructed (Lincoln et al.,

2011). Within this paradigm, constructivist, social-constructivist and sociocultural theories of learning have emerged. Constructivist theories of learning, stemming from Jean Piaget's work, among others, emphasise the individualistic nature of learning and argue that learning takes place within an individual (Gipps, 1999). While social-constructivist theories of learning place learning in a social context (Pollard, 1990), Gipps (1999) argued that they still consider learning to be an individual act.

Sociocultural theory has emerged, particularly, through work of Lev Vygotsky (1978), who stressed that "all the higher functions originate as actual relations between human individuals" (p. 57). This focus on interpersonal relations as the source of learning means that any examination of an individual's learning should also include examination of social and cultural processes within which learning takes place (Wertsch & Tulviste, 1992, p. 548). A "Vygotskian sociocultural approach" (Miller, 1994, p. 19) to learning assumes that thoughts and learning are a product of social interaction that is situated in, and influenced by, historical and cultural factors (Mercer & Howe, 2012). Four related aspects frame this thesis: (a) the social act of learning, (b) mediation, (c) the community of practice within which learning takes place, and (d) interactions which bind all aspects.

The Social Act of Learning

Vygotsky understood learning to take place primarily through social interaction with others in a cultural setting and later through internalising social processes, with language positioned as a tool for both those aspects of development (Vygotsky, 1978). Learning takes place in a cultural context through the "internalization of socially rooted and historically developed activities" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57). This situated notion of learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) implies that individual development can only be understood as part of the sociocultural context, instead of separate from it; children "learn to use the tools for thinking provided by culture through their interactions with more skilled partners" (Rogoff, 2003, p. 50). These interactive internalising processes take place in what Vygotsky (1978)

coined a “zone of proximal development” (p. 84). This zone entails the space between a learner’s actual and potential development level. While Vygotsky (1978) focused predominantly on children, Warford (2011) coined the term “zone of proximal *teacher* development” (p. 253, emphasis in original) to illustrate how teachers, like students, have an actual development level and interact with expert knowledge (e.g., evidence-based teaching practices) and experiences to develop their practice. Practice further develops as teachers’ “mastery of knowledge and skill” grows (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29) and when they can access necessary learning resources within their environment (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Mediation

Vygotsky (1978) viewed learning as a “mediated” (p. 26) process, with an indirect relationship between what he referred to as a stimulus and a response. This indirect relationship involves using artefacts to mediate a response to the world around us (Lantolf et al., 2015). *Mediation* is understood to be a process “in which individuals operate with artefacts … which are themselves shaped by, and have been shaped in, activities within which values are contested and meaning negotiated” (Daniels, 2016, p. 12). Vygotsky (1978) identified psychological tools as means of mediation, where the internal (psychological) environment is altered (e.g., use of mnemonic schemes to remember a procedure). This study discusses artefacts as mediational means, defined as being “embued with meaning and value through its existence within a field of human activity” (Daniels, 2016, p. 14). Mediating artefacts can be both objects and persons (Daniels, 2016). The context within which human activity takes place is transformed by any newly introduced mediating artefact (Wertsch et al., 1995) and transforms human activity. Similarly, mediating artefacts are not fixed, but rather shaped and reshaped through and by interactions with participants (Rogoff, 2003). Although mediation can be empowering in culture, it should be noted that it can also be restrictive. Wertsch et al. (1995) illustrated this by stating “we can never ‘speak from nowhere,’ given that we can speak (or more broadly, act) only by invoking mediational means that are

available in the ‘cultural tool kit’ provided by the sociocultural setting in which we operate” (p. 25). When new artefacts are introduced, participants in that setting can experience tension if artefacts do not match the cultural toolkit (Wertsch et al., 1995). Further, artefacts shape how participants can mediate them, depending on “the form of participation enabled by its use” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 101). For example, students could mediate assessment criteria (the artefact) to shape their understanding of expected quality on a task. However, if assessment criteria were not accessible to students (e.g., due to the use of complex vocabulary), then this artefact would only enable limited student participation.

Wertsch (2007) distinguished explicit and implicit mediation throughout Vygotsky’s writing. Explicit mediation involves introducing an artefact into activity in a way that is clear to participants. For example, students can explicitly mediate a provided formula sheet during a mathematics activity. Wertsch (2007) referred to implicit mediation as being “less obvious” (p. 180) and therefore “less easily taken as objects of conscious reflection or manipulation” (p. 180). Spoken language is an example of an artefact that is already present (and not explicitly introduced) and can be implicitly mediated to shape participants and the setting in which they act. Rather than being dichotomous, Wertsch (2007) pointed out that in both explicit and implicit mediation, the meaning attributed to artefacts develops through mediation; artefacts do not have to be completely understood to serve a communication and regulation purpose. For example, students may use provided checklists to progress through a learning activity before sharing their understanding with their teacher; in this way, checklists can promote self-regulation.

Expanding on Vygotsky, Ivic (1989) and Daniels (2013) argued that institutional structures are understood as cultural historical products that implicitly mediate social structures. Ivic (1989 as cited in Daniels, 2013, p. 106) stated that the institution of a school “implies a certain structuring of time and space and is based on a system of social relations (between pupils and teachers, between pupils themselves, between the school and its

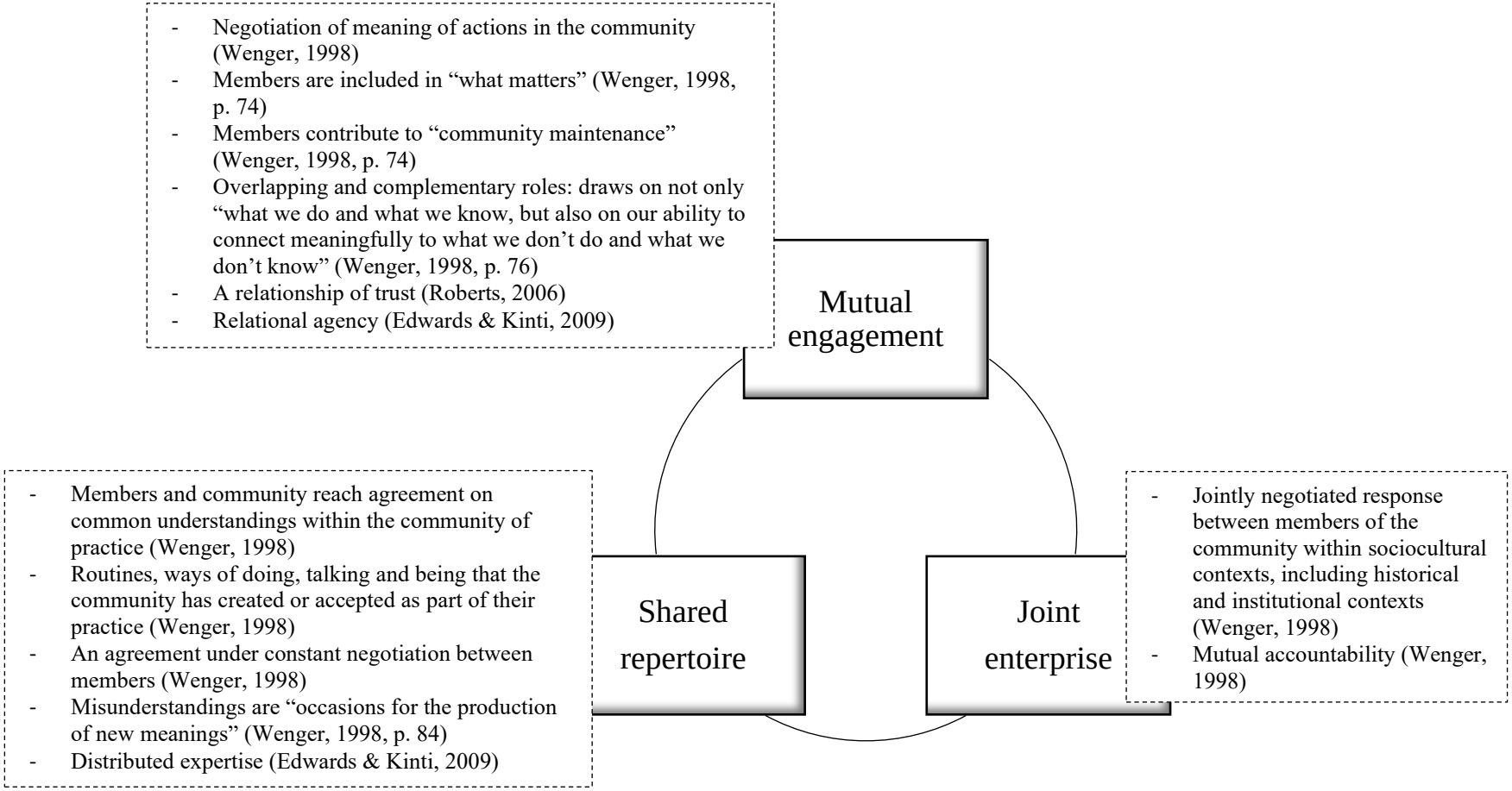
surroundings, and so on)". To address the question of how can analysis of co-construction of institutional aspects—grounded in history—and social actions of people within those institutions be conducted (Engeström et al., 2003), Daniels (2013) argued for analysis of "invisible or implicit mediational properties of institutional structures that themselves are transformed through the actions of those whose interactions are influenced by them" (p. 107). In this study, the organisational structure within the institution of the school, for example, the establishment of a support agency for students with disability, can implicitly mediate actions of teachers within the school and so is one focus of analysis.

Community of Practice

When participants in a group share a common way of *doing* and *being*, including shared language and knowledge, joint goals or concerns and common understandings of how to behave within the group, this has been described as a *community of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Lave and Wenger (1991) identified that a community of practice defines the possibilities of learning, making it an "intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge" (p. 98). Ongoing interaction between participants of a community is required to negotiate meaning within the community (Wenger, 1998). While it is recognised that people can hold knowledge outside a community, Wenger (1998) suggested it is the negotiation of meaning as part of participation that gives value to this knowledge. Practice is considered "the source of coherence in a community", and can be characterised by the three dimensions of "mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire of ways of doing things" (Wenger, 1998, p. 49). Figure 2.1 identifies the dimensions of a community of practice of significance to this study.

Figure 2.1

Dimensions of a Community of Practice



Note. Adapted from Wenger (1998).

Mutual engagement involves negotiating the meaning of actions in the community. This practice is the essence of being a member of a community, beyond membership of an institution or belonging to a social category. Wenger (1998) stated that mutual engagement is enabled if members are included in "what matters" (p. 74) and contribute to "community maintenance" (p. 74) by paying attention continuously to coordinate members' mutual engagement. Important to this study, which was conducted across two classrooms involving multiple teachers and other school-based staff, is Wenger's (1998) notion of mutual engagement in terms of complementary and overlapping roles. Mutual engagement draws on not only "what we do and what we know, but also on our ability to connect meaningfully to what we don't do and what we don't know" (p. 76). This illustrates how members may not share common knowledge of all aspects within the community but can still be mutually engaged within the community of practice. The expectation is that members become aware of why roles overlap and how they complement each other, and use that awareness to collaborate within their community. For example, classroom teachers and support staff have overlapping roles of supporting students with disability and complementary roles through their subject-specific knowledge and disability-specific knowledge. Mutual engagement further requires "a relationship of trust" among members of a community (Roberts, 2006, p. 628) to enable mutual understanding and effective knowledge exchange, including related to overlapping and complementary roles within the community.

A community of practice is therefore a joint enterprise, negotiated between members within sociocultural contexts, including historical and institutional contexts (Wenger, 1998). Although the community may be constrained through external policies and regulations to a higher or lower degree, the community is still the members' "negotiated response to their situation" (p. 77), which creates mutual accountability. Members develop a shared repertoire, where members and community reach agreement on common

understandings within the community of practice. This shared repertoire involves, for example, routines, and ways of doing, talking and being that the community has created or accepted as routine in their practice. Wenger (1998) stressed that this shared repertoire is not a fixed state, but rather an agreement under constant negotiation between members. Therefore, when misunderstandings arise within the community, they are "occasions for the production of new meanings" (Wenger, 1998, p. 84) that need to be addressed if they obstruct mutual engagement.

While Wenger's (1998) work identified different roles of members in a community of practice, Edwards and Kinti (2009) examined more closely how people with different roles and different knowledges collaborate across the boundary of their community of practice towards a common goal. Their notion of *distributed expertise* highlights the importance of cultural artefacts (for example, a policy or disability-specific knowledge) that are "loaded with intelligence" (p. 128) as part of the shared repertoire to enable use by other members of the community. Distributed expertise recognises that expertise does not need to be held by all members of the community; people can contribute to expertise and use it where necessary. This implies that members are able to recognise other experts' knowledge and how that applies to their own work (Edwards & Kinti, 2009).

Edwards and Kinti (2009) further defined *relational agency* as "a capacity for working with others to strengthen purposeful responses to complex problems" (p. 134), or the capacity of different professionals to mediate distributed expertise as a continuously developing skill. During this developmental process, professionals each bring their own motives and resources to the joint task and learn to recognise those of others, and how others interpret the joint task. They are mutually engaged when they expand the boundaries of their own practice by sharing this space with other professionals, and adjust their own interpretations to align with interpretations of other professionals (Edwards & Kinti, 2009). In other words, they negotiate a shared understanding of the task (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and

mediate cultural artefacts of knowledge and motives of professionals to shape their practice and be shaped by it in return (Edwards & Kinti, 2009).

Interaction

The role of interactions in sociocultural practices to structure learning is key to aspects of sociocultural theory discussed so far. *Interaction* is understood here as a broad term, encompassing engagement with each other and with artefacts within a sociocultural context, shaping the way people think about the context and develop the knowledge to act within the sociocultural context. Interaction occurs between members of a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), between professionals in collaboration (Edwards & Kinti, 2009), between students and teachers (Rogoff, 2003) and between people and cultural artefacts (Daniels, 2016; Edwards & Kinti, 2009; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Wertsch, 2007).

Understandings of the role of community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) and relational agency and distributed expertise (Edwards & Kinti, 2009), are important for a framework for the study's examination of teachers' and students' classroom assessment practice in an Australian school. The study investigates how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. A sociocultural lens frames the study and therefore warrants analysis of interactions at various levels. How teachers engage with curriculum, pedagogy and assessment cannot be separated from the sociocultural, and as part of that, historical, context within which teachers interact on a daily basis. This context includes policies on assessment and inclusion as well as the historical development of these policies over time.

Summary: Sociocultural Lens

This study is grounded in sociocultural theory which assumes that learning is a socially constructed practice among participants in interaction. Four aspects of sociocultural

theory are highlighted as critical to the study: the social act of learning, mediation, community of practice, and interaction (as binding the other three aspects).

In this study, the social act of learning is understood as occurring within a context that has been shaped through sociocultural processes, including historical processes. People's interaction with this context shapes them, and they shape the context in return. Second, within sociocultural theory learning is viewed as being mediated by artefacts, a process that is framed by cultural and historical factors. Mediation can be implicit, as everyday structures (school structures or language use) implicitly shape, and are shaped by, people's interactions. Mediation can be explicit when artefacts are recognised by participants as such. Third, learning is understood to occur within a community of practice, a group of people with joint concerns or goals, shared knowledge and language, and common understandings of how to behave within the group. Members of a community engage in mutual engagement to develop a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire of artefacts. They can have complementary or overlapping roles within the community or collaborate with others across communities through relational agency and distributed expertise.

Sociocultural theory calls for an exploration of larger sociocultural environments, including historical environments, framing the context within which students with disability and teachers negotiate learning and assessment. This therefore implies a focus on the role of interaction within a community of practice to examine, in this study, how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. Specifically, the focus is on interaction between teachers and students, between professionals in collaboration, and between research participants with cultural artefacts, such as school processes or assessment artefacts. Following, therefore, are examinations of research and literature on features of classroom assessment, inclusive education, and inclusive assessment as core literature informing an investigation into classroom assessment of students with disability. The review considers how features of assessment and inclusive education interact

to form, what is conceptualised in this study as, a community of inclusive assessment practice (CoIAP) that would enable students with disability to demonstrate optimally their learning.

Classroom Assessment

This study focuses on how classroom assessment processes are used to monitor student learning and progress and to enable students with disability to engage with a summative task. In keeping with the study's sociocultural lens, this section of the review explores research and writing on features of classroom assessment that shape quality assessment practice. These features are considered important to form the conceptualisation of a CoIAP. The section first discusses the assessment through a sociocultural lens and examines the purposes of classroom assessment. Then, the section introduces features of quality assessment, including (a) alignment of assessment with curriculum, pedagogy and reporting, (b) the ongoing, varied and balanced nature of assessment, (c) equity and accessibility, (d) standards and criteria, (e) teacher–student interaction, (f) validity and (g) reliability. Each feature is examined separately, after which teachers' skills and knowledge in implementing quality assessment are discussed.

As noted in Chapter 1, classroom assessment is conceptualised as a process involving teachers and students who gather, evaluate and use evidence of student learning for multiple goals and purposes. Such purposes include identifying learning strengths and difficulties; monitoring student performance relative to learning goals; grading; and enabling feedback to teachers, students and parents relating to students' learning progress and next steps in teaching (Andrade, 2013; Brookhart & McMillan, 2020; Rasooli et al., 2019). Classroom assessment incorporates both formative assessment and summative assessment (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016; McMillan, 2013). The process of classroom assessment should serve to enhance student learning (Brookhart & McMillan, 2020) and is therefore particularly important for students with disability; assessment should enable rather than disable students to demonstrate their learning (Rose et al., 2018).

Assessment Through a Sociocultural Lens

A sociocultural lens sees assessment as a part of teaching processes and "embedded in the social and cultural life of the classroom" (Gipps, 2002, p. 83). Classroom assessment processes were described by Gipps (2002) nearly two decades ago as being "constructive and enabling", instead of the "controlling and classifying" (p. 83) nature of psychometric assessments. Assessment viewed through a sociocultural lens does not align with traditional methods of using psychometric tests in which learning is regarded as a fixed trait inherent in a person. Assessment as a psychometric concept assumes that "assessment tasks are neutral and stable across learners and the testing system itself has no influence on the performances observed" (Elwood & Murphy, 2015, p. 185). In contrast, a sociocultural lens of assessment emphasises that learning is co-constructed between a person and their environment (Baird et al., 2014).

Classroom assessment viewed through a sociocultural lens is understood as taking place in "the dynamic intersections of classroom management, learning culture, pedagogy, curriculum, and the diversity of students and teachers with [the] classroom environment" (Rasooli et al., 2019, pp. 2–3). Assessment is therefore seen as a socially constructed practice between teachers, students and contexts at classroom, school, and society levels (Broadfoot, 2006; Colbert & Cumming, 2014). Assessment has impact across multiple levels (e.g., student, school, policy, global), and, in turn, factors at various levels influence teachers' capacity to implement assessment (e.g., personal, cultural, environmental, temporal) Webber et al., 2012). Elwood (2006) regarded assessment as a cultural activity, adding that assessment can only "describe the relationship between the learner, the teacher and the assessment task in the social, historical and cultural context in which it is carried out" (p. 230). Thus, assessment through a sociocultural lens emphasises the relational nature of assessment activities with teaching and learning, participants, an assessment task, and evidence of learning (Gipps, 2002). Learners can use an assessment task as a mediating

artefact (Daniels, 2016; Wertsch, 2007) to evidence their learning, but enactment of assessment will differ across different contexts with different students and teachers (Klenowski, 2009).

Purposes of Classroom Assessment

Overall, the core purpose of classroom assessment is to elicit evidence to allow teachers and students to gauge where students are in their learning, what next steps in learning are and how these next steps can best be reached (Australasian Curriculum, Assessment & Certification Authorities [ACACA], 2012; Assessment Reform Group [ARG], 2002; McMillan, 2013; Stobart, 2008). Literature has identified additional purposes of assessment, such as certification, evaluating the effectiveness of programs, accountability of students and teachers, grading, reporting, communicating of student learning, and decision making (Brown & Hirschfeld, 2008; DeLuca, 2012; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008).

To achieve the goal of improving student learning through classroom assessment, assessment needs to be fit for purpose (Mansell et al., 2009). This ensures that the evidence elicited through assessment is interpreted in relation to the right purpose, i.e., determining students' progression towards a goal (formative purpose) or summing up student learning (summative purpose) (Mansell et al., 2009). This emphasis on purposes of assessment represented a move away from a *formative* and *summative* assessment dichotomy (Black & Wiliam, 1998a), where formative assessment occurs during teaching to inform further teaching and improve student learning and summative assessment is administered to measure and report on student learning (Cizek, 2010). Black (2013) stated, "[t]here are only assessments—instruments and practices for evoking information about the knowledge, understanding and attitudes of learners. The information so produced can be interpreted and used for formative purposes, or for summative purposes, or for both" (p. 209). Assessment for formative purposes offers teachers the potential to use data "to adapt the teaching work to meet the needs [of students]" (Black & Wiliam, 1998b, p. 2). Evidence of learning can be

drawn from a broad range of information (Stobart, 2008). Quality summative assessment can serve a formative purpose when quality achievement expectations "are directly integrated in the talk and interactions of the classroom" and students are "given access to knowledge about quality … and how they can apply [standards] to their own work for improvement" (Klenowski & Wyatt-Smith, 2014, p. 198). This integration of summative assessment expectations into formative classroom practice is important in the Australian curriculum context, as teachers are responsible for ongoing classroom assessments. The expectation for teachers to use assessment evidence formatively to improve teaching and learning has been outlined in the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APST; Standard 5.4; AITSL, 2017), although this expectation has been identified as an area in which preservice teachers are underprepared (Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group, 2014; Wyatt-Smith et al., 2017).

Assessment for formative purposes is also identified as Assessment for Learning (AfL; ARG, 2002; DeLuca, 2016). In AfL, learning is understood to involve interaction across different sociocultural contexts, such that assessment is not an isolated, individual activity (Elwood, 2006; van der Kleij et al., 2015). The sociocultural lens framing this study also encompasses the social nature of assessment, warranting a focus on teacher–student interaction to determine how formative assessment interactions enable teachers to elicit evidence of student learning and use this evidence to determine next steps in teaching and learning. The social nature of assessment is further evident in the multiple influences on students' performance on summative assessment including classroom assessment practice that mitigates barriers to performance. To improve student learning through to assessment for formative and summative purposes, "quality" assessment practice is required.

Features of Quality Assessment

The review identified features of quality assessment as consolidated from international and Australian research and literature. Internationally developed sets of

principles of quality assessment mostly relate to assessment as a process. For example, in the UK, the ARG (2002) developed ten principles of AfL based on research over more than a decade into classroom assessment practice of primary and secondary teachers. These principles evolve around the centrality of assessment in classroom practice with a key role for teachers and students. Further in the UK, Black and Wiliam (1998a, 2009) and Wiliam and Thompson (2007) identified strategies for formative assessment, which aligned with the ARG's (2002) principles in that they emphasised, for example, embedding formative assessment into classroom practice through interactions between students and teachers.

In Australia, ACACA's (1995, 2012) principles of assessment show similar aspects of quality assessment to those formulated by the ARG (2002). Wyatt-Smith (2008) formulated principles of quality assessment as questions that teachers could consider while designing assessment tasks, aligning with ACACA's (1995) principles for assessment quality and equity. Wyatt-Smith and Klenowski (2014) distinguished elements of quality assessment, emphasising the integrated nature of assessment in everyday teaching and learning and strongly aligning with the QCAA's (2018b) principles of quality assessment.

For use in this thesis, principles of quality assessment from various frameworks are consolidated into seven features identified as:

a) alignment of assessment with curriculum, pedagogy and reporting
b) ongoing, balanced and varied assessment
c) equity and accessibility
d) assessment standards and criteria corresponding with curriculum and teaching and learning activities
e) interaction between teachers and students to develop common understanding of standards and criteria, elicit and evaluate evidence of student learning and use that evidence to inform next steps in teaching and learning
f) validity

g) reliability.

The conceptualisation of a CoIAP, as developed in this study, includes these seven features of quality assessment as expected practices of inclusive classroom assessment. These features are interconnected by the need for clarity, for example, of assessment purpose, instructions, standards and criteria, for focus on how students learn, and for identification of next steps in teaching and learning. Table 2.1 provides an overview of these features as drawn from each of the frameworks and other key advice on quality assessment, noting that validity and reliability are overarching features.

Table 2.1

Overview of Principles of Quality Assessment

	Principle	Principles of Assessment for Learning (ARG, 2002)	Considerations during assessment design (Wyatt-Smith, 2008)	Guidelines for assessment quality and equity (ACACA, 1995)	Principles of assessment (ACACA, 2012)	Principles of quality assessment (QCAA, 2018b)	Elements for better assessment practice (Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014)	Aspects of formative assessment (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Wiliam & Thompson, 2007)
Interpretation and use of evidence: validity, reliability	**Alignment**	Central to classroom practice	Alignment Scope and demand		Assessment is aligned with curriculum, pedagogy and reporting	Aligned	How assessment, curriculum and pedagogy connect in practice to bring forth evidence of learning and how it is occurring (p. 198)	
	Ongoing, varied and balanced	Part of effective planning	Performance contexts Intellectual challenge and engagement Literate capabilities involved in task	A range and balance of background contexts in which assessment items are presented, a range and balance of types of assessment instruments and modes of response, a range and balance of conditions	Assessment evidence may come from a range of assessment activities	Ongoing Evidence-based		Engineering effective classroom discussions and other learning tasks that elicit evidence of student understanding
	Equity and accessibility	Focuses on how students learn	Language used in task Literate capabilities involved in task	Clear and definite instructions and conditions Conditions substantially the same for all Conditions no barrier to equal participation Only involve reproduction of stereotypes where necessary	Assessment is underpinned by equity principles	Equitable Accessibility		

Principle	Principles of Assessment for Learning (ARG, 2002)	Considerations during assessment design (Wyatt-Smith, 2008)	Guidelines for assessment quality and equity (ACACA, 1995)	Principles of assessment (ACACA, 2012)	Principles of quality assessment (QCAA, 2018b)	Elements for better assessment practice (Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014)	Aspects of formative assessment (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Wiliam & Thompson, 2007)
Assessment standards and criteria	Promotes understanding of goals and criteria Develops the capacity for self-assessment Fosters motivation	Knowing what is expected both during and on completion of the task Student self-assessment for improvement	Assessed using clear criteria declared in advance	Collecting evidence about expected learning as basis for quality judgments Assessment practices and reporting are transparent	Transparent	Embedding assessment criteria and standards in pedagogy in productive ways (p. 197) Professional judgment and the changing role of the teacher in developing students' evaluative experience (p. 199)	Clarifying and sharing learning intentions and criteria for success Activating students as the owners of their own learning Activating students as instructional resources for one another
Interaction	Focuses on how students learn Sensitive and constructive Helps learners know how to improve Recognises all educational achievement				Informative		Providing feedback that moves learners forward Engineering effective classroom discussions and other learning tasks that elicit evidence of student understanding

Note. Summarised from ACACA (1995, p.3; 2012, p. 4), ARG (2002, p. 2), Black & Wiliam (2009, p. 8), QCAA (2018b, n.p.), Wiliam & Thompson (2007, p. 15) Wyatt-Smith (2008, pp. 77–79), and Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski (2014).

Alignment of Assessment With Curriculum and Pedagogy

Alignment as a feature of quality assessment informs the study's focus on classroom practice as well as on how students with disability demonstrate learning through assessment for summative purposes. As noted in Table 2.1, assessment alignment is a commonly discussed feature of quality assessment practice in the literature and in assessment guidelines (ACACA, 2012; Bennett, 2011; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014). Biggs (1996) posited "constructive alignment" (p. 360) to indicate how learning, instruction and assessment should match, using the term *instruction* broadly to include teaching as well as curriculum and assessment processes. This aligns with Alexander's (2004) notion of *pedagogy* as adopted in this thesis, which is understood as "teaching together with its attendant discourse. It is what one needs to know, and the skills one needs to command, in order to make and justify the many different kinds of decisions of which teaching is constituted" (Alexander, 2004, p. 11). Curriculum and assessment are embedded in pedagogy; studies on pedagogy that do not consider assessment processes "at best provide only a partial explanation of what is going on" (Black & Wiliam, 2018, p. 555).

Focus on the interconnectedness of pedagogy, curriculum and assessment (QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008) aligns with the sociocultural lens that frames this study, considering assessment not as an isolated activity but central to classroom practice (ARG, 2002), with formative and summative assessment data used to inform teaching and learning as well as judge student performance at different levels (Black, 2013; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). These practices are examined in this study to determine how formative assessment interactions enable teachers to elicit evidence of student learning and use this evidence to determine next steps in teaching and learning.

Ongoing, Varied and Balanced Assessment

Australian and international assessment principles have long argued the need for ongoing, varied and balanced assessments as a feature of quality assessment practice, to

elicit evidence of student learning (ACACA, 1995; ARG, 2002; QCAA, 2018b). Student learning can be assessed on different knowledges through a range of modes for a range of purposes and contexts (Wyatt-Smith, 2008), using both formal and informal assessment practices (Cowie & Bell, 1999). Teaching should therefore include both planned and flexible opportunities for teachers and students to elicit evidence of student learning (ARG, 2002; Black & Wiliam, 1998b, 2009).

The use of both formal and informal assessment activities (such as teacher–student interaction) to elicit evidence of student learning, as identified in the literature, is compatible with a sociocultural lens, which views assessment as "a socially constructed practice, value-laden and affected by the socially constituted nature of individuals in interaction with each other and within the assessment process" (Elwood & Murphy, 2015, p. 186). Assessment tasks should align with and be sensitive to students' own contexts and experiences (Hargreaves, 2012; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). As contexts and experiences differ between students and in relation to assessable content, one mode of assessment is unlikely to be suitable for all. Thus, implementation of a variety and balance of assessment instruments, forms and conditions is required (ACACA, 2012; DeLuca & Klinger, 2010; QCAA, 2018b) to enable students to demonstrate their learning.

Equity and Accessibility

Key to this study is accessibility as a feature of quality assessment, so students with disability can optimally demonstrate their learning, as noted in Chapter 1. However, the following review of assessment frameworks and literature on accessible assessment have discussed "general" classroom contexts without investigation into how assessment practice applies to students with disability. As the next section, Inclusive Education, shows, literature focusing on education for students with disability has discussed this topic in terms of application to general classroom teaching and has not included assessment practice as a focus of investigation. Thus a gap in research exists where the two concerns overlap.

Principles of equity and accessibility are seen to underpin quality classroom assessment (ACACA, 1995, 2012; QCAA, 2018b) and have been raised in the literature in relation to fairness as a key concept for some time (Deutsch, 1975). While accessible assessments are required for students with disability to optimally demonstrate their learning, equitable assessment processes ensure fairness of the practice and interpretation of assessment for all groups (Gipps, 1995). Teachers' perceptions of fairness have been discussed in terms of providing all students with the same assessment, providing differentiated assessments to identified students, or providing all students with differentiated assessments and learning experiences (DeLuca et al., 2019). Rasooli et al. (2019) conceptualised students' perceptions of fairness in relation to classroom assessment in terms of fair outcomes relative to a student's input, fair classroom procedures, fairness in interactions, and how students evaluate fairness overall. Thus, fairness is not a fixed concept, but a concept that differs across contexts, aligning with a sociocultural lens (Rasooli et al., 2019). Rasooli et al.'s conceptualisation of fairness in classroom assessment—focusing on assessment as a process and not solely on the task or a test—aligns with considerations of fairness in the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing (AERA/APA/NCME, 2014), as "responsiveness to individual characteristics and testing contexts" (p. 50). Student characteristics and contexts should not form a barrier to fairness. Rather, fairness needs to be considered in relation to accessibility, as "fairness in access[ing] opportunities both to schooling and to the curriculum provide the 'level playing field' that must precede a genuinely fair assessment situation" (Gipps & Stobart, 2009, p. 106). Thus, accessible classroom assessment is considerate of how students learn (ARG, 2002) and is understood to enable fairness. As a result, *universal design* in testing has been proposed (AERA/APA/NCME, 2014), whereby test design takes into account the construct and purpose of the test as well as characteristics of test takers and other contextual factors. The goal of universal design is to enable access for the widest possible audience, discussed further in the section Inclusive Education.

Accessibility of assessment is a recognised principle of assessment; assessment practice should not disadvantage students by "race, gender, ethnic background, disability, socio-economic status or other factors" (QCAA, 2018b, n.p.), or be biased (ACACA, 1995; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Currently, assessment research literature has related fairness predominantly to students' gender or cultural or language background (Elwood, 2006; Gipps, 1995; Gipps & Stobart, 2009; Klenowski, 2014; Wyatt-Smith, 2008), rather than disability. Accessibility, as discussed in the assessment literature, concerns students' ability to understand and use assessment to demonstrate their learning. This includes provision of clear instructions and conditions (ACACA, 1995), consideration of prior knowledge, terminology and curriculum literacies (i.e., discipline-specific literacy skills and knowledge students need to engage with tasks) the task draws on, as well as the use of thinking and learning processes in assessment as they are commonly used in the classroom (Gee, 2003; Shepard, 2000; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2003). Terminology and curriculum literacies need to be taught explicitly[7] to students (Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2003). This allows students to gain experience with "representational resources" (Gee, 2003, p. 44) as part of the assessment's semiotic domain, such as symbols and words used to confer meaning before assessment takes place. Gee (2003) identified that if students are not given equal "opportunity to learn" (p. 27), then the related assessment is not fair. This study's focus on classroom practice as well as assessment for summative purposes enables consideration of curriculum literacies and students' opportunity to learn, to determine whether students with disability can optimally demonstrate their learning.

Assessment Standards and Criteria

Critical to this study is transparency of assessment processes, which can be established by sharing task descriptions, learning goals and success criteria and exemplars

[7] Explicit teaching is understood as providing clear instructions and guiding students through a step-by-step approach while continuously checking for understanding (Rosenshine, 1986).

with students (ACACA, 1995, 2012; Black & Wiliam, 2009; QCAA, 2018b; Webb & Jones, 2009). Research literature on quality assessment places growing emphasis on transparency in assessment practice (DeLuca & Klinger, 2010; Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019) so students know what is expected of them, and teachers, students and other stakeholders are clear of procedures for judging students' work (ACACA, 2012; QCAA, 2018b). The underlying premise is that when students and teachers share understanding regarding expectations and indicators of quality performance, such as through stated criteria and standards of an assessment, students can develop autonomy (Black & Wiliam, 2009) and the capacity to use that knowledge to assess their own work to improve their learning (Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019). Self-assessment, embedded in principles of quality assessment (ARG, 2002; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008), has been found to contribute to student motivation, self-regulation and achievement (Shepard, 2000).

Through a sociocultural lens, shared understanding of assessment expectations is constructed through dialogue between teachers and students, as well as through use of artefacts, such as task sheets, or written instructions on the board or in a textbook. For standards and criteria to effectively guide teaching, learning and assessment, teachers need deep understanding of the features of quality related to specific tasks (Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014). Further, teachers need to ensure that students' cultural toolkits (Wertsch et al., 1995) include an understanding of features of quality. In this way, standards and criteria can be used to provide constructive guidance on next steps in students' learning (ARG, 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). This use of standards and criteria is reflected in Vygotsky's (1978) notion that shared understanding is gained through use of language and a post-Vygotskian view of "dialogical meaning-making" (Lyle, 2008, p. 224) where knowledge is a collaborative activity between people.

Teacher–student interactions are identified in sociocultural theory as critical in learning and shared meaning-making (Mercer & Howe, 2012; Wertsch & Tulviste, 1992). In

this study, teachers and students interact within classroom practices around aspects such as learning goals (i.e. broad goals of learning) and success criteria (or assessment criteria, i.e., detailed quality features of student work) to ensure that students can understand them (ARG, 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). For example, while marking rubrics can serve as a mediating artefact for students to develop an understanding of criteria (Panadero & Jonsson, 2013), teacher–student dialogue is needed to facilitate mediation of this artefact (Daniels, 2016) and avoid the situation when "guidelines offered to inform students about assessment appear daunting, even overwhelming" (Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2000, p. 26). Teacher–student dialogue further mitigates the vague, or *fuzzy* nature of standards (Sadler, 1987) where linguistic terms used to convey standards can be interpreted in various ways dependent on different contexts and users. Teachers' modelling of the meaning and use of assessment criteria can help students mediate this artefact (Webb & Jones, 2009).

Researchers have warned that over-specification of detail in assessment criteria and provision of extensive assistance to meet detailed criteria could lead to a culture of compliance rather than critical engagement with learning (Sadler, 2007; Stobart, 2008; Torrance et al., 2005). In response, Wyatt-Smith and Adie (2019) proposed embedding criteria into classroom dialogue to enable "teachers and students [to focus] on the meaning of criteria and so coming to see the criteria together" (p. 17). Bearman and Ajjawi (2018) similarly advised that students should not be required to "see through" (p. 6) criteria but rather see "with" (p. 27) them. The ARG's (2002) principle that assessment is part of effective planning and that teachers need to plan strategies so students can understand learning goals and assessment criteria aligns with this cited research. By foregrounding students' evaluative expertise (Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014), inquiry and critical engagement is promoted, rather than a culture of compliance (Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019).

The identified importance for teachers and students to develop a common understanding of standards and criteria warrants the study's examination of how teachers and

students use standards and criteria in everyday classroom practice and during engagement with summative assessment tasks.

Formative Teacher–Student Interaction

A key focus of this study, formative teacher–student interactions serve to advance student learning when teachers elicit evidence of student learning, interpret and evaluate that evidence to inform next steps in teaching and learning (ARG, 2002; McMillan, 2013; QCAA, 2018b; Stobart, 2008). Embedded in this process are scaffolding, feedback and questioning. Scaffolding concerns teacher support to enable students to complete a task that they could not yet complete independently (Wood et al., 1976). Expanding on this definition, van de Pol et al. (2010) proposed a conceptual model of scaffolding consisting of three elements: contingency, fading and transfer of responsibility. Contingency refers to responsiveness of support provisions; teachers tailor their support to students' current achievement and provide support at that level or just above. Formative assessment processes, identified as key to sociocultural assessment practice, enable responsiveness as teachers elicit evidence (i.e., students' achievement level) through planned or spontaneous teacher–student interaction or observation of students' work, and interpret this evidence to inform students' required support (Cowie & Bell, 1999). Fading involves slowly decreasing the level of intensity of support when students are increasingly capable of completing activities on their own. Finally, as fading takes place, responsibility of learning is transferred from teacher to student (van de Pol et al., 2010).

Scaffolding can provide direction to keep students on task, to provide "cognitive structuring" (van de Pol et al., 2010, p. 276) that supports students' organisation of knowledge, to reduce degrees of freedom by taking over parts of the task, to prompt students to engage with a task, and to support student performance and motivation through rewards and punishments (van de Pol et al., 2010). Formative teacher–student interactions involving

feedback, giving hints or questioning are considered scaffolding if contingency, fading and transfer of responsibility are evident (van de Pol et al., 2010).

Feedback can be described as "information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 81), in order to improve student learning (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Wiliam & Thompson, 2007). Within such interactions, a commonly used sequence is that of Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF; Hargreaves, 2012; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), where the teacher asks a student a question, the student responds and the teacher provides feedback after evaluating that response. Whether feedback improves learning depends on its quality (Gamlem & Munthe, 2014), leading Hattie et al. (2016) to emphasise *receiving* and acting on feedback, that is, scaffolding the response, instead of focusing on *providing* feedback. Effective feedback further needs to relate to the task, rather than the student (ARG, 2002; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Through a sociocultural lens, feedback should also consider students' own contexts and experiences (Hargreaves, 2012) and be sensitive to different students' requirements (ARG, 2002). These aspects are significant to this study, as students with disability may require a different feedback approach than their peers to progress their learning.

Teacher questioning can progress student learning—as illustrated by Mercer and Howe's (2012) review of empirical studies on teacher–student talk—if questions encourage students to explain their reasoning, rather than merely requiring students to give the correct answer. This aligns with a distinction between convergent and divergent assessment (Torrance & Pryor, 2001). Convergent assessment seeks to determine *if* students know something, illustrated by teachers asking closed questions and focusing on task completion without extending student learning. Divergent assessment focuses on *what* students know or can do and what their thinking processes were. This was observed to be more dialogic in nature (Florian & Beaton, 2017; Torrance & Pryor, 2001), recognising the

social construction of knowledge (Lincoln et al., 2011) between teachers and students. As Mercer and Howe (2012) demonstrated, questioning can serve as an artefact that students and teachers use to mediate and co-construct their knowledge as a key aspect of formative assessment processes (Black & Wiliam, 2009). Formative interactions, including scaffolding, feedback and teacher questioning, between teachers and students with disability are examined in the study to investigate whether they contribute to learning and optimal demonstration of this learning.

Validity

Validity, a somewhat contested term due to its differing definitions across different fields (Newton & Shaw, 2014, 2016), viewed through a sociocultural lens, incorporates not only the extent to which assessment is "measuring" the knowledge or construct it is intended to assess but also how assessment evidence is interpreted and used in context (Kane, 2016). In quality classroom assessment, validity is therefore related to interpretations based on classroom assessment evidence (Bonner, 2013) and whether these interpretations are appropriate for intended purpose/s (Stobart, 2012). The purpose of assessment (formative, summative, or both) and the alignment of assessment with curriculum and pedagogy need to inform the type of assessment activity used to collect evidence of learning at a certain point in time (ACACA, 2012; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008; Shepard, 2000; Wyatt-Smith, 2008).

Validity could be threatened if an assessment task is not accessible to a student due to factors unrelated to the knowledge or learning it is intended to access. It could also be threatened if formative assessment processes, such as classroom interactions, negotiating understandings of learning goals and standards, and the quality of feedback, are not used appropriate to context and the individual (Stobart, 2012). If classroom interactions do not facilitate a shared understanding of assessment standards and criteria for all students, then students are assessed on content they have not had equal opportunity to learn (Gee, 2003).

Such assessment is invalid if its results are judged under the assumption that equal opportunity was provided when in fact it was not. Use of those results can lead to inadequate instructional decisions, if invalid judgements are used to guide future teaching and learning (Baird et al., 2017; Bennett, 2011).

Reliability

Reliability, mostly discussed in the research literature in relation to large-scale assessment, concerns consistency of judgements (Brookhart, 2003; Shepard, 2000). Studies on teacher judgement-making in classroom assessment have highlighted practices such as using standards and criteria and social moderation[8] to contribute to reliability (Gipps & Stobart, 2009; Harlen, 2005; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014; Wyatt-Smith et al., 2010). Reliability is relevant to the study in relation to ensuring that students with disability are provided with sound judgement on their learning progress on the same basis as their peers. Studies have shown how teacher judgement can be influenced by their knowledge of "non-relevant aspects of students' behaviour or … by gender, special educational needs, or the general or verbal ability of a student" (Harlen, 2005, p. 213), illustrating the different tacit and explicit knowledges teachers bring to their judgements of student performance (Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014; Wyatt-Smith et al., 2010). The identified influences of disability factors on teachers' assessment of student learning are important; assessment information should be interpreted and used reliably (Cumming & Maxwell, 2014) to ensure teachers can effectively identify students' next steps in learning.

Enactment of Quality Assessment and Teachers' Assessment Literacy

Enactment of quality assessment related to assessment for formative purposes, as identified in the review, frame "the 'spirit' and 'letter'" of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006, p. 137). When teachers follow the "spirit" of AfL, they engage in practices that

[8] In Queensland, social moderation to establish common understanding of standards across contexts is strongly encouraged, but not compulsory, in junior secondary education (Qld DoE, 2018a). Social moderation practices are beyond the study's focus.

underpin the development of student autonomy, instead of merely applying rigid strategies as part of following the "letter" of AfL principles (Marshall & Drummond, 2006; Pedder & James, 2012). The latter has been associated with issues around compliance, for students to comply with prescribed standards and for teachers to be held accountable by a policy context (Heitink et al., 2016; Pedder & James, 2012). The letter of AfL was evident in Wiliam's (2018) observations of teachers sharing learning objectives with students at the start of a lesson by writing them on the board for students to copy down. This practice did not necessarily align with the purpose of clarifying learning objectives for students. Without meaningful engagement with those objectives beyond copying them down (the spirit of AfL), this practice becomes tokenistic, or as Wiliam (2018) stated, "a wallpaper objective" (p. 56).

Enactment of quality assessment related to assessment for formative and/or summative purposes in Australia is framed by the APST (AITSL, 2017), which outline the expectation that teachers have the skills and knowledge to implement quality assessment practice, as noted in Chapter 1. Various researchers have argued for teachers' assessment literacy; teachers should have assessment-specific knowledge, separate from subject domain knowledge (Abell & Siegel, 2011; Brookhart, 2011; DeLuca & Klinger, 2010; Stiggins, 1991; Willis et al., 2013; Wyatt-Smith & Gunn, 2009; Xu & Brown, 2016). They should use that knowledge to design assessment tasks and to take action when "built-in alarms … sound when an assessment target is unclear, when an assessment method misses the target … and when the results are simply not meaningful to them" (Stiggins, 1991, p. 535). Through a sociocultural lens, assessment literacy involves acknowledgement that meaning is given to assessment as it is enacted in context; as contexts differ, including the student population being assessed, the fitness for purpose of assessment differs too. Assessment literacy is therefore not a fixed concept, but rather a "context dependent social practice" where teachers, as part of assessment practice, negotiate "classroom and cultural knowledges with one another and with learners" (Willis et al., 2013, p. 242). Teachers' knowledge of theory and philosophy

underpinning measurement of student learning should also form part of this negotiation; assessment literacy thus concerns teachers' understandings of assessment and whether they use assessment appropriately (DeLuca & Klinger, 2010).

This situated nature of assessment literacy is reflected in Xu and Brown's (2016) "teacher assessment literacy in practice" (p. 150), conceptualised as the result of teachers' negotiations with different types of knowledge (e.g., knowledge of feedback and of assessment purposes), their conceptions of assessment, sociocultural and school contexts, their willingness to reflect and learn, and their identity as an assessor. Teachers develop assessment identity by engaging in "acts of communication" (Adie, 2013, p. 95), during which they convince themselves and others who they are and what they value (Penuel & Wertsch, 1995). This identity consists of teachers' knowledge, perception of role, confidence, beliefs, and feelings (Looney et al., 2017) and influences their responses to assessment as a practice (Adie, 2012; Looney et al., 2017). For example, teachers may have the required skills and knowledge of assessment, but other components of their assessment identity further define their assessment practice (Looney et al., 2017). Teachers make compromises as they negotiate different aspects of their assessment practice (Xu & Brown, 2016). For example, a school context promoting the same assessment task for all students may not fit with a teacher's conception of assessments tailored to provide access to different students. Therefore, teachers' implicit mediation of school structures (or cultural artefacts) to act within social structures (Daniels, 2013) shapes their engagement in the social process that is assessment.

Summary: Classroom Assessment

Taking a sociocultural lens, features of quality assessment as discussed in this section are proposed as essential elements within a CoIAP. Critical features of quality assessment for this study include alignment of assessment with curriculum and pedagogy, recognising that assessment should be embedded in everyday teaching and learning (ACACA, 2012; ARG, 2002; Black, 2013; QCAA 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Equity and accessibility

of assessment are further key to the study, as assessment processes should not form a barrier to students' demonstration of learning (ACACA, 1995; AERA/APA/NCME, 2014; Gee, 2003; Gipps & Stobart, 2009; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Sharing and understanding assessment standards and criteria are identified as important for teachers to guide teaching and assessment, and for students to develop capacity to self-assess and improve their learning (Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019). Finally, formative teacher–student interactions, including scaffolding, feedback and questioning, are highlighted as promoting student learning (ARG, 2002; Hattie et al., 2016; Mercer & Howe, 2012; Torrance & Pryor, 2001). These features of quality assessment inform the study's focus on teachers' classroom practices, including engagement with goals and criteria and formative teacher–student interactions, as well as design and implementation of assessment for summative purposes and engagement of students with disability with such assessments.

The review further highlights the negotiated nature of teachers' assessment practice, as part of their assessment literacy in practice (Xu & Brown, 2016). As in a community of practice, assessment practice reflects teachers' negotiated response (Wenger, 1998) to sociocultural factors that are part of their everyday practice. Further, although the review found quality classroom assessment features that are important for all students, the literature did not highlight considerations for students with disability. For example, if the literature discussed bias in assessment tasks, then this generally related to gender or cultural factors rather than disability. This omission shall be further explored in the section Assessment for Students With Disability.

Inclusive Education

As noted in Chapter 1, Australian and Queensland education legislation and policies promote an inclusive, non-discriminatory system including the DSE (2005) and Queensland's Inclusive Education Policy (Qld DoE, 2018), allowing parents or carers of students with disability to lawfully demand the right for their child to receive education on the

same basis as students without disability. This expectation of inclusive education frames the context within which teachers and students with disability engage with classroom assessment. As noted, the purpose of the review is to consider how elements of assessment and inclusive education can come together to form a CoIAP and enable students with disability to optimally demonstrate their learning. The following section identifies the elements related to inclusive education proposed as essential to a CoIAP. The section first briefly discusses the historical context of education for students with disability to examine historical factors influencing teachers' negotiation of inclusive practices. Second, current inclusion legislation is discussed to examine sociocultural factors teachers negotiate as part of their practice. Third, the section examines features of inclusive education that should be encapsulated within a CoIAP, including teacher attitudes and inclusive school practices (e.g., accessible teaching practices). The role of support staff as participants in these practices is also examined. The section concludes with an examination of the enactment of inclusive education in Queensland.

The Impact of Historical Practices on Education for Students With Disability

The concept of disability has historically been regarded through a medical model, where a person's impairment is seen as the source of disability (Graham et al., 2020) and the environment and culture surrounding the person with impairment is seen as "unproblematic" (Swain et al., 2003, p. 23), as noted in Chapter 1. Such a model focuses on a person's limitations without regard for barriers presented in the environment within which a person acts (Graham et al., 2020). A social model of disability, as adopted in the study, recognises that restrictions in social participation that may accompany persons with disability are a product of society (Cumming, 2012; Sharma et al., 2019; UNCRPD, 2008); impairment is seen as a person's characteristic and disability is the result of that person's interaction with environmental barriers (Oliver, 2013). The social model is a widely accepted perspective on disability, forming the foundation for international, national and state-based policy frameworks for educating students with disability, such as General Comment No.4 to Article

24 of the CRPD (UNGC4, 2016), the DSE (2005) and Queensland's Inclusive Education Policy (Qld DoE, 2018b). These policy frameworks promote an inclusive education system, as distinguished from non-inclusive systems such as exclusion (no access), segregation (access to separate settings) and integration. Integration—involving access to unchanged mainstream (i.e., non-special) settings—reflects a medical model of disability and is relevant to the study, as it remains common practice in Australia.

Integration is conceptualised as "a process of placing persons with disabilities in existing mainstream educational institutions, as long as the former can adjust to the standardized requirements of such institutions" (UNGC4, 2016, para. 11). This onus on persons with disability to adjust reflects a medical model of disability and restricts their full participation in education. Integration at a school level (i.e., students attend the same school as their peers) is common practice in the Australian education system, for example, when students with disability are in the same classroom as their peers, but with support staff (e.g., teacher aides [TAs]) as the main educators they engage with (as reported by Webster & Blatchford, 2013) or if students are being given assessment activities that provide a barrier to their learning (as reported by Graham et al., 2018). Therefore, integration is an historical practice that teachers and students negotiate as part of their everyday teaching and learning. Graham (2020) identified these practices as "business as usual with add-ons" (p. 14) to "fix" the problem that is perceived inherent in the child's disability. Since these practices take place within mainstream schools, they are often misunderstood for inclusion, paving the way for the argument that inclusive classrooms may not suit every child (Graham, 2020).

The global adoption of the term *inclusion* through the Warnock Report (Department of Education and Science, 1978) and the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (Salamanca Statement; 1994) recognised the right of all children with disability to attend mainstream schools. However, differing definitions of inclusion impacted on its implementation (Florian, 2008; Graham & Slee, 2008; Hyde, 2014;

Watkins, 2007), resulting in different understandings of the extent to which students with disability should learn alongside their peers (Watkins, 2007). Language, as a mediating artefact (Wertsch, 2007), influences "what we mean by the concept [of inclusion]" while also "mak[ing] that very meaning" (Walton, 2016, p. 3). As language is created "over the course of human history" (Vygotsky, 1978, foreword by Cole & Scribner, p. 7), language used in relation to inclusion still embeds historical terms grounded in a medical model of disability. For example, mainstream schools may establish "special education units" for "students with special needs". Such terms do not reflect a social model of disability and are not conducive to promoting inclusion (Graham et al., 2020). The impact of historical practices on education for students with disability points to a risk that inclusive practices may not be established, despite legislation requiring otherwise.

Continuation of Non-Inclusive Education

While Australian and international policy frameworks firmly ground the rights of students with disability to an inclusive education, non-inclusive practices remain (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016). As noted in Chapter 1, the Australian DDA (1992) states that persons with disability by law have "the same rights to equality" (§3.b) as other people. The DSE (2005) established the goal for an inclusive and non-discriminatory Australian education system, allowing parents or carers to lawfully demand the right for their child to receive education "on the same basis" (§2.2.3) as students without disability, with reasonable adjustments to education matters such as admission, courses, and assessment. The UNCRPD (2008), ratified by Australia, further outlines the rights of students with disability to an inclusive education system. These policy features frame teachers' and students' teaching and learning within a CoIAP. However, these policy frameworks lack clear definitions of inclusion, which affect their implementation.

As a result, in Australia, despite the broad support for inclusive education through policy and legislation, and the reported evidence of inclusive education (as noted in

Chapter 1), federal and state government reports have noted that many schools continue to be non-inclusive (Australian Government Department of Education Employment and Workplace Relations, 2012; Commonwealth of Australia, 2016; Deloitte Access Economics, 2017; Urbis, 2015). Adjustments as prescribed in the DSE (2005) do not always take place (ACARA, 2012), placing students with disability in a situation where disability—together with school size and location, low socioeconomic background, Indigenous background, and low English proficiency—has become one of the "key dimensions of disadvantage" (Gonski et al., 2011, p. 122). Two reviews of the DSE (2005) have highlighted the lack of clarity around making reasonable adjustments and inaccessibility of education for students with disability (Australian Government Department of Education Employment and Workplace Relations, 2012; Urbis, 2015). Students with disability were further reported to face many barriers, record lower education outcomes and were less likely to finish Year 12 than students without disability (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016). Inclusive education was not found to be established in many schools, due to

> failure of schools to provide the reasonable adjustments required by students, exclusion from school activities, a shortage of services in rural and remote areas of Australia and low expectations of students with disability from school staff and others, leading to a failure to take seriously the educational needs of students. (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016, p. 3)

These reports show that, despite the rights of children with disability to a non-discriminatory, inclusive education system (DDA, 1992; DSE, 2005; UNCRPD, 2008), barriers to accessing education are still present in Australian education for students with disability. This aligns with international studies showing a research-to-practice gap in inclusive education; while evidence-based inclusive education practices have been developed, limited implementation is evident in classroom practice (Grima-Farrell, 2018; Grima-Farrell et al., 2011; McLeskey et al., 2018).

Features of Inclusive Education

To provide clarity on what inclusive education should entail, the UN adopted General Comment No.4 (UNGC4, 2016). They defined inclusive education as

> a process of systemic reform embodying changes and modifications in content, teaching methods, approaches, structures and strategies in education to overcome barriers with a vision serving to provide all students of the relevant age range with an equitable and participatory learning experience and environment that best corresponds to their requirements and preferences. (UNGC4, 2016, para. 11)

This reference to "systemic reform" reflects the historical contexts of segregation and integration present in most countries including Australia. By emphasising education aspects beyond student placement (e.g., content, teaching methods, structures), GC4 prescribes an holistic approach to inclusive education. This approach emerges through their identified core features of inclusive education shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Core Features of Inclusive Education as Stipulated in GC4

Core feature	Implications
Whole systems approach	Governments should invest all resources to promote inclusion and make changes in institutional culture, policies and practices.
Whole education environment	Strong leadership at educational institutions is needed to establish culture, policies and practices of system-wide inclusion, including, for example, during teaching, meetings, teacher coaching, and budgetary allocations.
Whole person approach	Each person is capable of learning and should be subject to high expectations. Inclusive education involves implementing flexibility in curricula, teaching and learning methods to suit different strengths and requirements. Support is provided where necessary and reasonable adjustments are made so students can reach their full potential. Education is person-focused instead of content-focused and takes place in accessible learning environments. Education should respond to students' characteristics rather than the student needing to adjust to the system.
Supported teachers	Education and training should be provided to all staff in education environments to instil core values and competencies to enable inclusion. This involves collaboration, interaction and problem-solving.
Respect for and value of diversity	Schools should welcome all students equally, regardless of, for example, disability. Students should feel included, valued and respected and anti-bullying strategies should be in place. Students are treated as individuals.
Learning-friendly environment	Educational environments should be accessible and ensure students feel safe, supported, stimulated and able to express themselves, with attention to student involvement in creating a positive learning environment.
Effective transitions	Students with disability should be supported when they transition to post-secondary education or employment, and their skills being assessed and valued on an equal basis to others.
Recognition of partnerships	Partnerships between parents/carers, community members (e.g., associations) and education providers should be encouraged to utilise all resources and strengths. All stakeholders (e.g., teacher unions, school councils, parent-teacher groups) should develop a solid understanding of disability.
Monitoring	Monitoring and evaluation are necessary to ensure that segregation or integration is not enacted at any level instead of inclusion. This includes consultation with persons with disability and their parents/carers.

Note. This table is summarised from UNGC4, 2016, para. 12.

These core features of inclusive education bring to the fore the importance of a system-wide approach to inclusive education. Table 2.2 shows that governments and education authorities, school leadership and teachers are all responsible for providing inclusive culture and practice, in which high expectations are held for all students, teachers receive training, and teachers collaborate and interact with each other to develop inclusive values and competencies.

These core features are evident in research literature. An Australian review of studies, government reports and websites on inclusive education (Forlin et al., 2013) highlighted approaches at school and classroom level contributing to inclusion. For example, adjustments to school culture and school policies led to adjusted school practice. Further, collaboration within schools was found to enable structured ways of providing support and quality teaching. At classroom level, research shows that positive teacher–student relationships positively affect students' emotional well-being (Murray & Pianta, 2007) and student engagement (Quin, 2017). Forlin et al. (2013) from their review recommended practices such as differentiation, universal design for learning, technology use and a student-wide focus on quality teaching. However, a gap remains in Australia between "what has been proven to work in classrooms for students with and without disabilities and the extent to which it has been successfully implemented and sustained to enhance student success" (Grima-Farrell, 2018, p. 82). Constraints identified as possibly impeding realisation of inclusive education included limited applicability of research to practice, limited confidence of teachers to implement new practices, and lack of preservice teacher preparation (McLeskey et al., 2018), as well as lack of resourcing, inadequate leadership and lack of inclusion-oriented staff (Forlin et al., 2013).

Internalising Inclusive Values to Enable Inclusion

Teachers' internalisation of core inclusive values (i.e., all students have the right to inclusive education) is critical to establishing inclusive education (UNGC4, 2016). Acceptance of such values has been identified as key to "successfully implement inclusive

programmes" (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002, p. 140). Teachers holding negative perceptions of inclusive education were reported to see inclusion as additional burden and favour segregation (Van Reusen et al., 2001; Zambelli & Bonni, 2004). Three factors impacting on teachers' adoption of inclusive values have been identified in research: access to resources, perceived skills, and school factors.

Teachers' ability to access resources, including instructional resources, support staff, and disability-specific professionals, has been found to correlate with their willingness to teach students with disability (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Gibbs, 2007; Saloviita, 2020). While well-supported teachers reported positive attitudes towards inclusion (Ernst & Rogers, 2009; Saloviita, 2020), teachers perceiving lack of such support held more negative views of inclusion (Chiner & Cardona, 2013). Access to support staff is critical to this study and therefore explored further under School Practices Enabling Inclusion.

Teachers' perceived skills in inclusion were reported to positively correlate with their attitudes towards inclusion (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Saloviita, 2020). For example, a survey of 4541 Finnish teachers (Years 1–9) identified a positive correlation between self-efficacy and positive attitudes towards inclusion (Saloviita, 2020). Training in inclusive education skills, as recommended through policy and research (Forlin et al., 2013; McLeskey et al., 2018; UNGC4, 2016), further appears to lead to teachers' positive attitudes towards inclusion (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Ellins & Porter, 2004; Ernst & Rogers, 2009; Sharma & Nuttal, 2016; Van Reusen et al., 2001). Training can improve teachers' inclusive practices when it results in "feel[ing] confident in their instructional and management skills" (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002, p. 140). Such training in evidence-based inclusive practices can benefit all students (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016).

School factors, including leadership support for inclusive education (MacFarlane & Woolfson, 2013), teacher collaboration (Hwang & Evans, 2011) and accessible teaching practices (Center for Applied Spatial Technology [CAST], 2019; Forlin et

al., 2013; Tomlinson, 2017), have also been found to positively influence teacher attitudes to inclusion. Such factors were also identified as core features of inclusion in UNGC4 (2016). As this study examines teachers' classroom assessment practice for students with disability in a context where teachers and support staff are present in classrooms, collaboration and accessible teaching practices are particularly important to this study. These are examined in the following section.

School Practices Enabling Inclusion

Collaboration within schools is identified as a key enabler to inclusive education (Ainscow, 2005; Ainscow & Sandill, 2010; Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016; Curcic, 2009; Finkelstein et al., 2019; Hehir et al., 2016; Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016; Qld DoE, 2018b; Thurlow et al., 2016; Timothy & Agbenyega, 2019; UNGC4, 2016; Watkins, 2007). Effective inclusive schools are characterised by collaboration between teachers and other education professionals (Curcic, 2009; Timothy & Agbenyega, 2019), as part of whole-school collaboration between teachers, specialists and school leaders who share strategies and develop interventions (Hehir et al., 2016). Reviewing evidence of benefits of inclusive education across 280 studies from 25 countries, Hehir et al. (2016) found that such collaboration resulted in overall school improvement and benefits for all students. These collaborative settings were characterised by flexible structures that removed the isolated nature of classrooms and allowed for staff collaboration (Hehir et al., 2016).

While inclusion has been shown to be enabled by teachers' collaboration (Finkelstein et al., 2019), external factors can enable or hinder teachers' ability to collaborate. School dedication of time for collaboration can enable inclusive practices (Watkins, 2007), conversely time constraints can hinder practice (Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016). Time and flexibility are required to adapt centralised policies to a local context (Harris et al., 2017). A supportive school context in combination with positive attitudes towards inclusion, rather than a deficit-based understanding of disability, supports inclusion (Engelbrecht & Savolainen,

2017). A supportive context involves, for example, strong policies on inclusivity, professional support within the school, and a strong teacher education program focused on inclusion (Engelbrecht & Savolainen, 2017; Watkins, 2007). It provides an "environment that encourages all the stakeholders to share their diverse social knowledge and fully commit to constructive relationships based on trust and respect" (Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016, p. 791). Strong leadership in inclusive education is necessary, with school leaders having "moral responsibility to promote equity" (Harris et al., 2017, p. 157).

Three publications have identified community of practice as a framework for enabling the collaboration necessary to establish inclusion. Mulholland and O'Connor (2016) examined collaborative practice between 90 Irish primary school teachers and suggested that "collaborative practice is integral to effective inclusion" (p. 1070) with "successful teacher collaboration … rooted in the concept of communities of practice" (p. 1072). Similarly, a community of practice was identified through a literature review (Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016) as an inclusive model to provide support to students with disability and strengthen constructive partnerships between stakeholders. Ainscow (2005), analysing earlier empirical research (Ainscow et al., 2003), focused on how inclusive values need to be reflected in the joint thinking processes of people within schools, and the actions they informed. Such social learning processes within a community of practice are influenced by beliefs held by stakeholders as well as by external policies and priorities. Stakeholders within a community of practice should have a joint goal and negotiate their practice accordingly. Non-inclusive practices engrained within the community can be a barrier for inclusion to develop, despite discussion of inclusion taking place (Ainscow, 2005). For example, a "cultural resistance in schools [to inclusion]" (New South Wales Audit Office, 2016, p. 21) was reported to contribute to inadequate support for students with disability in some Australian schools. Practices within an inclusive school community of practice include accessible teaching practices—the review highlights differentiation and UDL—and deployment of support staff.

It should be noted that inclusive education literature has discussed inclusion in terms of application to "general" classroom teaching, without including assessment practice as a focus of investigation, despite suggestions that studies on pedagogy should also consider assessment processes (Black & Wiliam, 2018). As the section Classroom Assessment did not reveal studies addressing how assessment applies to students with disability, this identifies a gap in research where classroom assessment and inclusion overlap.

Differentiation. Differentiated teaching is an expected practice for teachers in Australia as stipulated in the APST (AITSL, 2017). Despite this, research evidence on its effectiveness is scarce, especially related to secondary education (Smale-Jacobse et al., 2019) and related to an Australian context (Frankling et al., 2017), as differentiation is "inherently challenging to research in context" (Jarvis et al., 2016, p. 77). In their systematic review, Smale-Jacobse et al. (2019) identified that there were "too few high-quality studies on the effectiveness of differentiated instruction in secondary education" (p. 17), so were unable to draw a conclusion.

This study adopts Tomlinson's (2017) internationally predominant approach to differentiation, recommending that "the teacher proactively plans and carries out varied approaches to content, process, and product in anticipation of and response to student differences in readiness, interest, and learning needs" (Tomlinson, 2017, p. 10). Tomlinson (2017) advised that differentiation should be enacted in effective learning environments, where students feel welcome and safe due to lack of physical and emotional danger; students should feel comfortable to ask for help and not be afraid to make a mistake. Differentiation of content is understood to relate to taught content that students should learn and how students can access this content (Tomlinson, 2017). When differentiation of process takes place, teachers adapt activities to enable students to learn content. Differentiation of product relates to demonstration of student learning—enabling each student to optimally demonstrate their learning to ensure "that the broadest range of students have the maximum opportunity to think

about, apply, and demonstrate what they have learned" (Tomlinson, 2017, p. 144). Differentiated assessment strategies are apparent when teachers use assessment to determine student knowledge and interest and use this evidence to inform teaching and learning (Black, 2013; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014). Summative assessment is differentiated when assessment design is flexible according to students' interests, readiness or preference (Tomlinson & Moon, 2013a). However, Tomlinson and Moon (2013b) identified a lack of empirical research on differentiated formative and summative assessments.

Tomlinson (2017) suggested the three strategies—differentiation of content, process and product—should be implemented alongside awareness of students' interest (are they interested in the content?) and readiness (is learning at or above their level?). The latter relates to Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development; differentiated tasks should extend students' learning beyond what they can independently manage (Tomlinson, 2017). As students' readiness changes, scaffolding practices can include fading of support and transfer of responsibility (van de Pol et al., 2010), so teachers can remove the "training wheels" (Tomlinson, 2017, p. 89). Differentiation should also consider learning profile (how do students prefer to learn?), which Tomlinson (2017) related to factors such as gender and preferences of learning and intelligence. It is proposed in this study that disability should also be considered.

Universal Design for Learning. Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is presented as a "scientifically valid framework" (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017, p. 45) for inclusive education (Al-Azawei et al., 2016; Capp, 2017), which can in part reduce the need to adjust teaching specifically for students with disability. UDL aims to create settings, pedagogy and assessment suitable for all learners (Meyer et al., 2014) by providing multiple means of engagement, representation, and action and expression (CAST, 2019). The focus is on providing "options that minimize barriers to learning and maximize the opportunities for every learner to grow" (Rose et al., 2018, p. 167). Minimisation of barriers aligns with the

social model of disability, as discussed in Chapter 1, and the UNGC4's (2016) definition of inclusion. Therefore, UDL is situated as a recommended approach in inclusive education (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017; Forlin et al., 2013; UNGC4, 2016).

Principles and values of UDL have been established by US organisation CAST, based on neuroscience research (CAST, 2018). First, providing multiple means of engagement addresses students' different interests and offers multiple ways to ensure they remain engaged (CAST, 2019). Engagement is not seen as a fixed construct but rather co-constructed, in line with sociocultural theory, when students interact with their environment (Meyer et al., 2014). Second, providing multiple means of representation ensures accessibility of content to all students (CAST, 2019), for example, by providing visual and auditory options as well as written materials (Cologon & Lassig, 2020). Third, offering multiple means of action and expression (CAST, 2019) is recommended, so students can express themselves and communicate through various modes (e.g., handwriting, typing or speaking) and navigate through content in different ways (e.g., turning a page or scrolling down; Meyer et al., 2014). Technology has been identified as a tool to facilitate these options for learning and communication (Cologon & Lassig, 2020). For example, providing all students with choice of using virtual, alongside manual, manipulatives during mathematics lessons was found to increase participation and engagement of students with disability (Friesen, 2016).

One meta-analysis on the effect of UDL (Capp, 2017) has concluded that UDL may benefit the learning of all students, not only students with disability. It should be noted, however, that the analysis included only 18 out of 924 identified studies on UDL, as only these had a pre- and post-test study design. This small sample size limits the value of Capp's (2017) findings.

Despite limited empirical evidence related to differentiation, as discussed earlier, and UDL, the need for teachers to design teaching, learning and assessment that suits and enables access to all students is critical to this study. This need is evident in the

requirement for Australian teachers to engage in "quality differentiated teaching practice" (ESA, 2020, p. 11) as a base level of quality teaching. The UNGC4 (2016) recommended "prompt introduction of Universal Design" (para. 21) to enable accessibility. Other literature positions UDL as a "starting point for making curriculum, pedagogy, assessment and the school environment more accessible" (Cologon & Lassig, 2020, p. 187) with layers of differentiation to be added to universally planned teaching and learning activities as a practical approach to enable each student in a particular class to learn (Cologon & Lassig, 2020).

Deployment of support staff. Government funding facilitates deployment of support staff across Australian classrooms. At the time of this study, Queensland schools received funding based on number of students with disability enrolled at their school on a set date at the start of the school year. This funding is determined through a process of *verification* through the Qld DoE Educational Adjustment Program (EAP; Qld DoE, 2020a) instead of following the DDA (1992) definition of disability, which includes disability "imputed to a person" (§4.k). Only students with medically diagnosed disabilities in areas of ASD, hearing impairment, intellectual disability, physical impairment, speech–language impairment (SLI) and vision impairment—and who require significant education adjustments as per EAP guidelines—can receive verification. The greater the number of "verified students" schools have enrolled on the census date[9], and the more adjustments they require, the more disability funding schools receive. Funding comes to the school attached to hours, to be used for "special education teachers" and TAs, similar to Webster and Blatchford's (2013) reported "currency" (p. 466) of UK Statements for students with disability.

Following work on NCCD (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2013), as noted in Chapter 1, a new disability funding system is being implemented in Australia, based on the

[9] In Queensland, census date coincides with day eight of the school year, forming the basis for allocating support staff to schools (Qld DoE, 2018d).

level of adjustments teachers report making for students with disability (regardless of verification). These adjustments are recorded in the NCCD (ESA, 2020) which informs education funding that State and Territory Departments of Education receive from the Commonwealth, which is then passed on to schools. However, the amount of NCCD funding that is passed on to schools is not published. Evidence to the Royal Commission into Violence, Abuse, Neglect and Exploitation of People with Disability initiated in 2019 included that the Qld DoE has yet to reform existing funding processes to align with NCCD (Commonwealth of Australia, 2019). Queensland's funding allocation at the time of this study therefore aligns with what de Bruin et al., (2020) referred to as a "categorical resource allocation method" (p. 122), where funding is determined based on categories of disabilities. This method is more closely aligned with a medical model of disability rather than a social model, where such emphasis on medical diagnoses is not prevalent. This alignment with the medical model of disability provides the context within which support staff are employed in Queensland schools.

As inclusive education is promoted internationally (UNCRPD, 2008), schools increasingly deploy support staff—support teachers, or special education teachers, and TAs—to support classroom teachers in teaching students with disability (Forlin, 2001; Giangreco et al., 2013; Sharma & Salend, 2016). In Australia, "learning and support teachers" (special education teachers, in some jurisdictions) who provide support for students with disability in classrooms are usually qualified teachers; in Queensland TAs have no specific qualifications and "interact with students under the direct or indirect supervision of a qualified teacher" (Qld DoE, 2019c, para. 1). Australian research identified that TAs provide instructional support, adjust lesson materials and manage student behaviour (Howard & Ford, 2007), with a survey of 361 TAs showing they predominantly assist students to complete tasks (Carter et al., 2019). However, international research indicates a potential negative impact of support staff deployment on teachers and students (Blatchford et al., 2012; Giangreco et al., 2013). As

support staff are a common presence in Queensland classrooms, analysis of research on the impact of support staff for students with disability is relevant to this study.

The impact of support staff. Several studies investigating the impact of support staff on teachers and students in mainstream classrooms have found positive effects; students benefitted from smaller student to teacher ratios (Masdeu Navarro, 2015), behaviour management in class improved (Blatchford et al., 2009; Blatchford et al., 2012; Masdeu Navarro, 2015), effective use of support staff reduced teachers' workload (Blatchford et al., 2012; Masdeu Navarro, 2015), and students stated their admiration for support staff, referring to them as "being like a mother" (Broer et al., 2005, p. 421). A large-scale study across 49 primary and secondary schools in the UK identified that support staff deployment led to more individualised teaching, increased student engagement in the classroom and an increasingly active role of students when communicating with adults (Blatchford et al., 2009). Research findings indicate that deployment of TAs can foster "positive approaches to learning" for students (Blatchford et al., 2011, p. 445), such as reducing disruptiveness and increasing independence, although Blatchford et al. (2011) found this result to be significant in Year 9 but not in Years 2 and 6 in the same year of data collection, or in Years 1, 3, 7 and 10 during another year. No details on strategies implemented as part of TA support were provided.

However, research evidence suggests that deployment of support staff, especially TAs, in mainstream classrooms may not support student learning. A large-scale study, based on observations of 686 students across 49 UK schools, concluded that students made less progress the more support they received from TAs (Blatchford et al., 2012). This lack of academic progress remained even when student characteristics (such as prior achievement and whether students were diagnosed with a disability) were taken into account. A conclusion was that TAs limited students' engagement with classroom teachers, replacing support from teachers instead of providing additional support (Blatchford et al., 2012). This aligns with findings highlighting TA proximity creating barriers to teacher–student interaction

(Giangreco et al., 2013; Harris, 2011). Presence of support staff may also impact on students' engagement with other students when they are socially isolated due to nearby presence of support staff (Giangreco et al., 2010, 2013; Harris, 2011; Sharma & Salend, 2016).

Analyses of interactions between teachers and students, and between TAs and students, have shown that TAs focused dialogue with students more on task completion, whereas teachers aimed to progress learning and understanding (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010). TAs were often observed to ask closed questions to check if students understood something, corresponding with Torrance and Pryor's (2001) notion of convergent assessment. Teachers used questioning to encourage thinking processes (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010), aligning with divergent assessment (Torrance & Pryor, 2001). This aligns with Australian TAs' self-reported roles which predominantly involved directing students to remain engaged with a task and providing performance-related encouragement (Carter et al., 2019). TAs were found to provide incorrect answers to students and lack understanding of subject content, bringing into question the need for subject-specific knowledge of TAs (Blatchford et al., 2012; Rubie-Davies et al., 2010).

Negative impact can in part be associated with issues related to deployment of TAs in mainstream classrooms. Various studies have shown lack of clarity among learning support staff and classroom teachers on role description and responsibilities expected of support staff. Studies highlighted issues with communication and collaboration between classroom teachers and learning support staff (Bourke, 2008; Howard & Ford, 2007; Vlachou et al., 2015), as well as suboptimal working conditions for TAs (Webster et al., 2011). Communication has been identified as a "central component in ensuring cohesiveness of the support provision offered in a school" (Colbert, 2011, p. 138). TAs who worked across different subjects were frustrated with relationships with classroom teachers, highlighting lack of instruction about curriculum content (stating a "learn-as-you-go" expectation), which resulted in students not trusting them to have sufficient knowledge to provide support

(Howard & Ford, 2007). Research has reported lack of preparedness of TAs (Basford et al., 2017) as well as lack of joint planning time between teachers and TAs (Blatchford et al., 2012). As a result, TAs have reported experiencing difficulty balancing teacher expectations to provide support to students and students' unwillingness to accept support from them (Howard & Ford, 2007). Finally, Blatchford et al. (2012) identified lack of training for classroom teachers in managing TAs, despite their reliance on them.

Webster et al.'s (2011) "wider pedagogical role model" (p. 12) addressed these issues by identifying components of TAs' work that come together to influence their practice, including student and teacher-aide characteristics and factors that school management directly or indirectly controls: preparedness, conditions of employment, deployment and practice. Through a sociocultural lens, TAs' practices are mediated by their environment, including collaboration with teachers, which can affect support to students with disability. Lack of alignment of these components led Webster et al. (2011) to question whether TAs should have a pedagogical role at all, given the negative effects of their support identified in the literature. Butt's (2016) "Teacher Assistant As Facilitator" model involves TAs facilitating teacher-prepared activities for students not in need of support, and classroom teachers focusing on students with disability. This model could address concerns that students requiring most support receive this from often unqualified TAs (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010). These issues highlight the importance for schools to purposefully deploy TAs.

Enacting Inclusive Education in Queensland

The 2017 review of enactment of inclusion in Queensland state schools (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017) identified obstacles to establishing an inclusive education system as prescribed by the UNGC4 (2016). A significant recommendation included aligning policies with federal and international legislation and translating these policies to guidelines that principals could access. The review identified lack of clarity across Queensland about the meaning of inclusion, stating "inclusive education is frequently used as a synonym for special

education" (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017, p. v). Therefore, Qld DoE was urged to share goals of inclusion and design a strategy to implement and achieve these goals, including a "culture change strategy" (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017, p. vi) to transform educators' perceptions and expectations of students with disability. This aligns with Ainscow's (2005) description of stakeholders negotiating common goals as part of social learning processes. At a classroom level, the review highlighted UDL as a strategy to consider every student when designing teaching and learning (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017). Finally, the review identified that Qld DoE should promote collaboration between teachers and schools to share good practice in educating students with disability.

In response to this review and as noted in Chapter 1, the Qld DoE implemented a new inclusive education policy in 2018 (Qld DoE, 2018b) and implicitly adopted UNGC4 (2016). The policy emphasised the rights of students with disability to inclusive education, stating students with disability should be able to achieve on an academic and a social level with their peers, assisted by adjustments, if necessary. This policy also placed value on a whole-systems approach, as recommended in GC4. Emphasis was placed on strong leadership, collaboration and accessibility (Qld DoE, 2018b), aligning with identified features of inclusive education within the conceptualised CoIAP.

Summary: Inclusive Education

Taking a sociocultural lens, features of inclusive education as discussed in this section are proposed as essential elements within a CoIAP. The review highlighted the concept of community of practice as an enabler of inclusion. Framing such a community are historical practices of integration that teachers and students negotiate as part of their everyday teaching and learning. Within a community, features of inclusion critical to this study include shared understanding of core inclusive values to establish inclusive school cultures, collaboration, accessible teaching practices (i.e., differentiation and UDL), and effective

deployment of support staff. As disability funding distributed to Queensland schools is used to fund support staff, these staff are therefore, like teachers, participants in the CoIAP.

This section identified a gap in research where classroom assessment and inclusion overlap; classroom assessment was not evident in the review of studies on inclusion and accessible teaching practices. While features of inclusive education have been considered, the identified lack of inclusive practices in Australia and Queensland through government reports points to a persistent practice of integration. It is within this context of historical factors, policy, and education practice that students with disability should demonstrate their learning. The following section addresses how assessment and inclusive education come together to focus on classroom assessment practice for students with disability.

Assessment for Students With Disability

The following section examines the limited literature on students' rights to inclusive education in relation to classroom assessment, and identifies how features of assessment and inclusive education can come together to form a CoIAP. The section first examines literature on assessment adjustments and on accessible assessment for students with disability related to classroom assessment. The section concludes with features of inclusive assessment practice, which form the final elements as part of the conceptualisation of a CoIAP.

Adjustments are defined as "actions or measures taken by a teacher that enable a student with disability to access and participate in learning *on the same basis* as their peers" (Swancutt et al., 2020, p. 211, emphasis in original), synonymous to the US term *accommodation*. Modifications refer to students accessing learning differently to their peers, and can involve different achievement standards (Kettler et al., 2009; Lane & Leventhal, 2015; Swancutt et al., 2020). For example, students in Queensland may be provided with an Individual Curriculum Plan (ICP), which means that they access a modified curriculum, including modified assessments, at a higher or lower level than their similar-aged peers (Qld

DoE, 2020c). However, this study focuses on students with disability engaging in classroom assessment of content and standards that are not modified but may be adjusted.

The sociocultural environment of the classroom impacts on how students with disability engage with classroom assessment. As noted, international and Australian policy frameworks promoting inclusive education underpin the rights of students with disability to inclusive education. How teachers offer and assess lesson content and how students respond to both teaching and assessment influence students' ability to demonstrate achievement.

The UNGC4 (2016) identifies accessible assessment practice as part of an inclusive education system complemented with adjustments where necessary. They posited that traditional, standardised tests may pose barriers to students with disability and should therefore not be solely relied on to evaluate student learning. In Australia, the DSE (2005, §6.3.f) requires educators to make reasonable adjustments for students with disability in assessment. These adjustments should take place after consultation with the student and/or their parent or carer and only be implemented if other students do not experience disadvantage as result of adjustments, or if adjustments affect the construct or standards of assessment.

These two frameworks differ in their approach to assessment for students with disability; while the UNGC4 (2016) predominantly emphasises assessment accessibility, which is proactive, the DSE (2005) reference to adjustments to assessment practice may be viewed as retrospective. Queensland's Inclusive Education Policy (Qld DoE, 2018b), however, does not mention assessment. The related education policy, Every Student With Disability Succeeding (Qld DoE, 2017) established the goal of raising A–E scores for students with disability, but does not discuss the role assessment plays in achieving this. Such lack of attention to assessment in Queensland inclusive education policy frameworks contradicts the quality assessment attribute of accessibility (QCAA, 2018b). Further, while a review into education for Queensland students with disability (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017)

recommended UDL as a strategy for "inclusive pedagogy, curriculum, and assessment" (p. 117), it also suggested the development of "approaches specific to assessment for students with disability" (p. 36), counter to UDL. Therefore, teachers' assessment practice for students with disability is framed by what appear to be disconnected policy frameworks.

In Australia, designing assessment for students in junior secondary education is the responsibility of teachers. This devolution of responsibility for assessment to classroom teachers (Cumming & Maxwell, 2014; Hill & McNamara, 2012) has significant implications for the assessment literacy of teachers and their capability to interpret assessment data to inform teaching (Standard 5; AITSL, 2017). If inaccessible assessment does not enable students to optimally demonstrate their learning, teachers cannot rely on sound assessment evidence to inform teaching, and students are denied an inclusive environment at school (ACTGET, 2013; NSW Ombudsman, 2013; VEOHRC, 2012).

Research on Adjustments to Classroom Assessment

Literature on adjusting classroom assessment is limited; most studies explore adjustments to standardised assessment. These studies have focused on various categories of adjustments related to presentation, equipment, response, timing, and setting (Rogers et al., 2012), diverse types of adjustments such as read-aloud accommodation, computer-based administration and additional time (Cawthon & Wurtz, 2010; Rogers et al., 2012) and the effects of those adjustments on student performance (Schulte et al., 2001; Sireci et al., 2003, 2005). However, Dembitzer and Kettler (2018) posited that "it is difficult to know … whether the adaptations are justified" (p. 227), due to complexity of generalising such conclusions. The variety of adjustments, different ways of implementation, accessibility and level of instruction received in preparation for tests, and diverse groups of students receiving adjustments all impact on the effectiveness of adjustments for students (Dembitzer & Kettler, 2018; Sireci et al., 2005).

Advice to Queensland teachers recommends adjustments to classroom assessment through time provided for assessment, scheduling and setting of assessment, presentation of assessment and students' responses to assessment (QCAA, 2018b). Davies et al. (2016) included adjustments during learning as well as assessment for different purposes, reflecting assessment as a process. They identified (a) motivational adjustments (e.g., encouragement), (b) scheduling adjustments (additional time or rest breaks), (c) adjustments to setting (e.g., removing distractions or giving students freedom to move), (d) adjustments regarding directions (e.g., reading out the task, highlighting important words), (e) providing assistance during assessment (e.g., defining difficult words, assisting with spelling), (f) pre-assessment adjustments (e.g., teaching students test-taking skills), (g) technological adjustments (e.g., text-to-speech converter, computer use), and (h) adjustments to the format of assessment (e.g., increasing spacing between text). These recommendations are important to this study, as they show that teachers need to consider adjustments beyond summative classroom assessment tasks, reflective of the embedded nature of assessment with teaching and learning. Therefore, these recommendations inform analyses of teachers' classroom practice for students with disability in this study.

This review identified one study providing principles of assessment adjustments for students with disability in classroom assessment; Cumming et al. (2013) presented three principles, which they aligned with principles of quality assessment as well as the DSE (2005). First, assessments and adjustments must be equitable, meaning not all students need to undertake the same assessment, to prevent indirect discrimination. Schools should have flexibility to adapt assessment to suit individual students (ACACA, 1995). Second, students with disability should be able to optimally—not sufficiently—demonstrate skills and knowledge against fit-for-purpose standards (Cumming, 2012; Cumming et al., 2013). Although the term "optimal" demonstration of learning is not formalised through the DDA (1992) or DSE (2005), the Melbourne Declaration (MCEETYA, 2008) promotes equity

and excellence in Australian schooling, and the Qld DoE aims to "improve the A–E performance for students with disability" (Qld DoE, 2017, p. 2). These systemic statements imply that all students should be able to access assessment to optimally demonstrate learning. Third, educators need to take the student's perspective when deciding on assessment adjustments; non-participation in assessment, for example, can affect the need of students with disability to not be treated differently from their peers (Cumming et al., 2013).

While assessment adjustments are warranted when students with disability cannot access assessment tasks, the UNGC4 (2016) emphasised that educators are foremost obliged to provide accessibility—including during assessment processes—with adjustments being "complementary to the accessibility duty" (para. 28). This duty limits the risk of retrospective assessment adjustments, or "add-ons" (Graham, 2020, p. 14), indicating assessment processes that have been designed for most (but not all) students, rather than processes for developing accessible assessment more generally.

Research on Accessible Assessment Tasks

Similar to literature on assessment adjustments, accessibility in assessment is often discussed in relation to large-scale testing and assessment products isolated from everyday teaching and learning. A small number of studies has been identified that examine AfL practice for students with disability, particularly students with ASD. Such research identifies the need for teachers to have in-depth knowledge of student characteristics, and how disabilities can impact on student learning, in order to implement AfL and elicit evidence of student learning (Cumming & Van der Kleij, 2016; Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019). The context of classroom interaction has been identified as a barrier to learning for students with ASD (Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019). For example, literature identified that classroom questioning for students with ASD was best presented as short, unambiguous questions (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011; Ravet, 2013) and that success criteria should also be "short, visual and unambiguous" (Ravet, 2013, p. 960). Using visual prompts has been identified as

beneficial to sustain focus during classroom interactions (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2015; Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019).

Accessible assessment design includes accessible forms of test delivery, administration, presentation and design (Ketterlin-Geller & Johnstone, 2006), removing common barriers inherent in the task without compromising construct validity (Thompson et al., 2002). Identified studies on accessible assessment predominantly used UDL as a guiding concept, for example in the conceptualisation of "universally designed assessment" (UDA; Thompson et al., 2002, n.p.). Thompson et al. (2002) described such (standardised) tasks as "designed and developed from the beginning to allow participation of the widest possible range of students, and to result in valid inferences about performance for all students who participate in the assessment" (n.p.). Principles of UDA further prescribe participation of all students in tests, precisely defined constructs of tests, non-biased test items, accessibility and adjustability (e.g., translatable to braille), clear instructions and procedures, maximum readability (i.e., sentence/text structure enabling comprehension) and comprehensibility, and legibility (Thompson et al., 2002). These principles align with equity features of quality assessment (ACACA, 1995, 2012; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008), including readability, comprehensibility and legibility of assessment tasks (ACACA, 1995; Wyatt-Smith, 2008).

Application of UDL principles (multiple means of engagement, representation, and action and expression) to assessment tasks requires consideration of what additional skills—not directly related to the knowledge and skills that are being assessed—an assessment task requires of students (Mislevy et al., 2013). Mislevy et al. (2013) identified six considerations of accessible assessment design: perceptual features (e.g. text size), skill and fluency (e.g. writing load), language and symbols (e.g., complex vocabulary), cognitive features (e.g., graphics to reduce cognitive load), executive features (e.g., reducing need to rely on working memory), and affect features (e.g., age-appropriate examples).

Australian research has identified similar demands within assessment tasks, positing "first-order expectations" to distinguish what assessment tasks primarily intend to assess (e.g., the ability to divide fractions), and "second-order expectations" (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999, p. 186) to distinguish what other skills students need to demonstrate to succeed on the task (e.g., the ability to decode complex instructions). This distinction is critical to this study, as it addresses how students with disability can possess sufficient skills and knowledge in relation to assessable content but cannot optimally demonstrate learning due to barriers inherent to second-order expectations of the task. While Cumming and Maxwell's (1999) original conceptualisation of second-order expectations did not consider clarity of assessment task and associated assessment criteria, it can be argued that student access to these is also critical (personal communication, February 18, 2020). More recently, Graham et al. (2018) highlighted how visual, procedural and linguistic features of assessment tasks can pose barriers to students with disability. For example, variations in font size and appearance of information irrelevant to the assessment task may distract students from the first-order expectations of the task. Lack of alignment between procedures and assessment criteria could see students follow procedures correctly without meeting assessment criteria. The use of complex vocabulary was found to present a linguistic barrier to students accessing the task. These considerations (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999; Graham et al., 1999) inform this study's analysis of summative assessment tasks to examine whether features inherent to these tasks enable students with disability to optimally demonstrate their learning.

Quality assessment task design needs to align with quality learning contexts—identified as a feature of quality assessment practice—to establish accessible assessment practice. A UDL perspective on assessment processes considers the environment within which students learn and engage with assessment and regards assessment evidence as reflective of students' progress towards achievement standards while interacting with this environment (Rose et al., 2018). Rose et al. (2018) identified that environments, including

lesson materials, can be “disabling” (p. 10), and further that the resultant assessment results reflected those barriers in the learning environment. Other studies support this finding, illustrating that even when students with disability have equal access to lesson content and instruction through UDL but are required to complete inaccessible assessments, they are not able to demonstrate their learning (Thompson et al., 2002). The need to consider the teaching, learning and assessment environment emphasises assessment as a socially constructed practice occurring in a specific sociocultural context where students mediate artefacts, such as the assessment task, teacher instruction, or the physical environment (Baird et al., 2014; Broadfoot, 2006; Colbert & Cumming, 2014; Elwood, 2006).

While the application of UDL to assessment includes offering students multiple options to engage with assessment, research advises teacher guidance in determining the right options for different students, at different times and for different assessment purposes (Rose et al., 2018). For example, a spelling test—often conducted with pen and paper—can be done by fingerspelling in sign language, dictating to a scribe, or typing on a laptop (Rose et al., 2018). Considerations for accessible assessment design as identified and described above by Mislevy et al. (2013), Cumming and Maxwell (1999) and Graham et al. (2018), could in part be overcome through the use of technology, for example, students could increase text size or access spoken task instructions through read-aloud software. Technology in UDL-based instruction and assessment can enable a flexible approach providing access to all students (Dolan et al., 2013; Mislevy et al., 2013; Sireci et al., 2005). Dolan et al. (2013) in their research report suggested that where retrospective assessment adjustments are still required, they can inform future UDL-based assessment design.

Although research into the use of technology in assessment, providing multiple options and timely feedback, is accumulating (Faber et al., 2017; Sung et al., 2016; van der Kleij et al., 2012), overall, there has been a lack of systematic research into the effect of universal design in assessment (Lovett & Lewandowski, 2015). Only a small number of

studies were identified that addressed accessible assessment as part of classroom assessment processes, identifying a gap in this literature and a need to focus on how students with disability can engage with classroom assessment practice. The next section examines this gap by investigating inclusive assessment processes including the wider institutional context.

Research on Inclusive Assessment Processes

This review has so far identified limited attention in assessment research on students with disability, limited attention to assessment in disability research, and a disjuncture in the literature and policy frameworks regarding assessment for students with disability. This disconnect includes greater focus on retrospective assessment adjustments than accessible assessments. Literature on assessment for students with disability predominantly concerned large-scale assessments and focus on assessment products, instead of as socially constructed practice which is part of everyday teaching and learning. Consideration of inclusive education as a system-wide approach (UNGC4, 2016) that is developed through social learning processes among stakeholders is evident in literature (Ainscow, 2005; Ainscow & Sandill, 2010), but does not appear to have been extended to assessment for students with disability.

Two studies were identified that placed accessible assessment practice into a larger school framework, which evolved the concept to *inclusive assessment* practice. First, in a report from a European project covering 23 countries, analyses of policy and practice regarding assessment for students with disability in mainstream schools resulted in the following definition of inclusive assessment:

> an approach to assessment in mainstream settings where policy and practice are designed to promote the learning of all pupils as far as possible. The overall goal of inclusive assessment is that all assessment policies and procedures should support and enhance the successful inclusion and participation of all pupils vulnerable to

> exclusion, including those with Special Educational Needs (SEN). (Watkins, 2007, p. 47)

This definition highlights interconnectedness of policy and practice to promote student learning, as well as the importance of assessment policies to promote inclusive education. Although it preceded UNGC4 (2016) by nine years, this definition also underscores a whole-system approach.

The European report's (Watkins, 2007) principles of inclusive assessment partly align with principles identified through an American report (Thurlow et al., 2016), both of which are shown in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3

Principles of Inclusive Assessment

Watkins (2007)	Thurlow et al. (2016)
1. All assessment procedures should be used to inform and promote learning for all pupils.	1. Every policy and practice reflects the belief that all students must be included in state, district, and classroom assessments.
2. All pupils should be entitled to be part of all assessment procedures.	2. Accessible assessments are used to allow all students to show their knowledge and skills on the same challenging content.
3. The needs of pupils with SEN should be considered and accounted for within all general as well as SEN specific assessment policies.	3. High-quality decision making determines how students participate in assessments.
4. All assessment procedures should be complementary and inform each other.	4. Implementation fidelity ensures fair and valid assessment results.
5. All assessment procedures should aim to 'celebrate' diversity by identifying and valuing all pupils' individual learning progress and achievements.	5. Public reporting content and formats include the assessment results of all students.
6. Inclusive assessment explicitly aims to prevent segregation by avoiding - as far as possible - forms of labelling and by focussing on learning and teaching practice that promotes inclusion in a mainstream setting.	6. Continuous improvement, monitoring, and training ensure the quality of the overall system.

Note. This table is reproduced from Thurlow et al. (2016, pp. 2–3) and Watkins (2007, p. 48).

Once more, collaboration was identified as critical to inclusive assessment in recommendations for implementing these principles (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007). For example, Watkins (2007) emphasised "opportunities for teachers to work in teams, where there is the possibility for collaboration, joint planning and sharing experiences" to support establishment of "inclusive practice in general and inclusive assessment practice specifically" (p. 52). Thurlow et al. (2016) recommended "stakeholders with expertise and experience in varied student learning characteristics, needs, and improvement strategies collaborate on all aspects of the assessment system to ensure that all students can show what they know and can

do" (p. 5). Collaboration is a feature that is also identified as recommended practice in inclusive education (e.g., Ainscow, 2005; Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016; Curcic, 2009; Finkelstein et al., 2019; Hehir et al., 2016; Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016; UNGC4, 2016).

The above principles and associated recommendations complement each other to some extent. For example, Thurlow et al. (2016) contributed a focus on assessment processes as fair and valid components of teaching, learning and reporting, whereas validity was omitted from Watkins's (2007) report. Teacher training was recommended to improve assessment literacy (Thurlow et al., 2016), corresponding with assessment literature (DeLuca & Klinger, 2010; Stiggins, 1991; Willis et al., 2013; Wyatt-Smith & Gunn, 2009; Xu & Brown, 2016). Watkins (2007) highlighted development of inclusive values, including a shared view of inclusion between teachers and school leaders that "leads them to re-think and re-structure their teaching - including their assessment practice - in order to improve the education of all pupils" (p. 53). Shared values around inclusion of stakeholders in an organisation is a requirement for social learning to take place, and for inclusion to be established (Ainscow, 2005). Reference to such inclusive culture was not evident in Thurlow et al.'s (2016) report.

Convergence of the principles identifies seven features of inclusive assessment that are enabled by collaboration (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4

Features of Inclusive Assessment

	Features of inclusive assessment
Collaboration	1. All assessment processes aim to promote learning for all students.
	2. All students should be part of all assessment processes including reporting, and this should be reflected in policies and procedures.
	3. All assessment processes should be accessible to all students so they can demonstrate their learning on the same challenging content as their similar-aged peers. High-quality decision making focuses on how students best participate in assessment.
	4. Assessment processes should be implemented with fidelity to ensure fair and valid interpretation and use of results.
	5. All assessment processes should recognise and value all students' individual learning progress and achievement.
	6. Inclusive assessment aims to promote inclusive education by avoiding labelling and aligning teaching and learning with values of inclusion.
	7. Inclusive assessment processes should continuously aim for improvement and implement monitoring and training to ensure the quality of the overall system.

Note. This table is summarised from Thurlow et al., 2016 and Watkins, 2007

First, inclusive assessment processes should aim to promote learning for all students (Watkins, 2007). Assessment processes should therefore involve a range of assessment methods that are administered over time and inform both teachers and students on how to improve student learning (Watkins, 2007), reflecting the ongoing, varied and balanced nature of quality assessment (ACACA, 1995, 2012; ARG, 2002; Black & Wiliam, 2009; QCAA, 2018b).

Second, all policies and procedures should reflect that all students are part of all assessment processes, including reporting (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007). While Watkins (2007) did not specify how all students should be included in assessment, Thurlow et al. (2016) stated that, third, assessment processes should be designed from the start to be accessible to all students. This aligns with features of quality assessment (ACACA, 1995, 2012; Cumming et al., 2011; QCAA, 2018b) and universally designed assessment (Lovett & Lewandowski, 2015; Rose et al., 2018; Thompson et al., 2002). High-quality decision making

is needed to determine how students best participate in assessment (Thurlow et al., 2016), recognising that students cannot all demonstrate their learning in the same way (CAST, 2019).

Fourth, fidelity of implementation of assessment processes is required to ensure fair and valid interpretation and use of results (Thurlow et al., 2016). Assessment processes should be consistently accessible—an identified feature of quality assessment—to enable fairness and validity (Gipps & Stobart, 2009). Fifth, all assessment processes should recognise and value all students' individual learning progress and achievement (ARG, 2002; Watkins, 2007) and, sixth, labelling should be avoided by aligning teaching, learning and assessment with inclusive values (Watkins, 2007). Alignment can be established by grounding assessment in inclusive values, developed through participation and collaboration with those involved in assessment processes at the school (Watkins, 2007). Seventh, inclusive assessment practice should continuously aim to improve with monitoring and training to ensure the quality of the overall system (Thurlow et al., 2016), congruent with core features of inclusion (UNGC4, 2016).

As noted, collaboration has been identified as critical to establishing inclusive assessment (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007). While research evidence on collaborative approaches to assessment is limited, Wilkes et al. (2015) engaged in collaboration in designing assessment in higher education and demonstrated how bringing together different knowledges and skills can ensure assessments are appropriate for students.

The importance of a "school 'organisational culture' that promotes inclusion generally and inclusive assessment specifically" has also been stressed (Watkins, 2007, p. 53). All staff should work to identify barriers in the school's assessment practice (Rose et al., 2018; Watkins, 2007), followed by collaboration between teachers and school leaders to restructure teaching and assessment in order to progress all students' learning (Watkins, 2007). This focus on identifying and mitigating barriers in assessment processes is consistent

with a social model of disability (Cumming, 2012; Oliver, 2013; UNCRPD, 2008). School leaders should adopt a larger focus on assessment, with Scott (2016) highlighting how assessment, and its impact on inclusion, is commonly omitted in definitions of instructional leadership.

The provision of time has been identified as critical to addressing constraints that impact on collaboration (Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016); inclusive assessment requires dedicated time for collaboration, as well as resources (e.g., training, examples of best approaches to inclusive assessment), flexibility and freedom for teachers to develop and implement multiple modes of assessment to reflect that students learn in different ways (Bourke & Mentis, 2014; Watkins, 2007). Finally, it has been recommended that schools should promote partnerships between teachers, parents and external stakeholders (UNGC4, 2016; Watkins, 2007).

The Impact of Teacher Attitudes on Inclusive Assessment

Features of inclusive assessment, identified in research and literature, place high demand on teacher expertise and teacher assessment literacy (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007). Assessment literacy was conceptualised in this chapter as the result of teachers' negotiations with different types of knowledge (e.g., knowledge of feedback and of assessment purposes), their conceptions of assessment, sociocultural and school contexts, their willingness to reflect and learn, and their identity as an assessor (Xu & Brown, 2016). Assessment literacy in inclusive settings also requires conceptualisations of assessment fairness relating to students with disability as well as positive attitudes towards inclusion.

Research has highlighted the importance of teachers' experience and training for establishing inclusive assessment practice. DeLuca et al. (2018) concluded, based on a survey of 404 Canadian primary and secondary education teachers, that teachers with more than 11 years of experience tended to provide all students with differentiated assessments and learning experiences, whereas less experienced teachers (5–10 years) differentiated

assessment only for specific students, such as students with diagnosed disabilities. Beginning teachers (0–4 years) were identified as providing all students with the same assessment. The latter finding aligns with Berry's (2008) observation that preservice and novice teachers perceive fairness as every person receiving the same treatment (equality), hence adjustments to assessment were unfair. After studying fairness and inclusion, teachers understood fairness as equity, meaning "every situation is handled appropriately", as "every student is different" (Berry, 2008, p. 1156). Teachers' increased experience coincides with increased learning opportunities, either formally or informally, which can lead to changed perceptions of assessment fairness (DeLuca et al., 2018).

Berry (2008) observed that teachers were acting from their own philosophical toolkit by adopting either an equality or an equity perspective of inclusion (Berry, 2008). Through a sociocultural lens, teachers brought into the classroom a collection of artefacts (e.g. perceptions and skills) that mediated their implementation of assessment for students with disability (Wertsch & Tulviste, 1992). This can cause tension if their artefacts do not match the sociocultural context (Wertsch et al., 1995), for example if their efforts to design accessible assessment are constrained by school policy advocating otherwise.

The Impact of Inclusive Assessment on Students With Disability

Little is known about perceptions of students with disability of inclusive assessment, despite research literature addressing students' perceptions of fairness (Aitken, 2011; Blazevic, 2019; Mazzoli Smith et al., 2017; Rasooli et al., 2019). Scott et al. (2014) reported students' dissatisfaction with "being singled out" (p. 64) if they received different treatment during assessment tasks than their peers. This is consistent with findings of a Victorian[10] report into inclusive education (VEOHRC, 2012), where a small number of parents indicated that their children did not want adjustments to occur as they did not want to be treated differently. Dickson (2014) observed that, to treat students with disability on the

[10] Victoria is a state in Australia.

same basis as students without disability, students with disability may need to be treated differently from their peers. Minow (1990) referred to this as the *dilemma of difference* by asking "when does treating people differently emphasize their differences and stigmatize or hinder them on that basis? and when does treating people the same become insensitive to their difference and likely to stigmatize or hinder them on *that* basis?" (p. 20; emphasis in original). Adopting an inclusive assessment system using universally designed assessments might remove emphasis on students with disability as all students are regarded as having needs to be met.

Summary: Assessment for Students With Disability

Taking a sociocultural lens, features of inclusive assessment as discussed in this section are proposed as essential features within a CoIAP. This CoIAP is framed by a disjuncture in Queensland inclusive education policy frameworks with limited focus on assessment (Qld DoE, 2017, 2018b). Critical features of inclusive assessment for this study include the need for teachers to have in-depth knowledge of student characteristics, and how disabilities can impact on student learning, to implement assessment for formative and summative purposes and elicit evidence of student learning (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2015; Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019). Assessment processes should further promote learning for all students, be accessible so all students can demonstrate learning, be implemented with fidelity and aligned with teaching and learning, and be embedded in inclusive values (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007).

Collaboration—identified as enabling inclusive assessment and inclusion in general—is critical to ensure knowledge and experience of different professionals is used to develop accessible assessment processes (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007). Characteristics of accessible assessment task design include visual, procedural and linguistic aspects (Graham et al., 2018), including clarity of instructions and procedures, readability and comprehensibility (ACACA, 1995; Mislevy et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2002; Wyatt-Smith,

2008). Accessibility ensures that second-order expectations of assessment tasks do not pose a barrier for students to engage with first-order expectations (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999). These task design considerations inform this study's analysis of summative assessment tasks to examine whether features inherent to these tasks enable students with disability to optimally demonstrate their learning.

Inclusion calls, foremost, for accessibility, complemented by provision of adjustments to teaching, learning and assessment (UNGC4, 2016). Recommendations for assessment adjustments highlight the need for teachers to consider adjustments to classroom practice as well as summative classroom assessment tasks, reflective of the embedded nature of assessment with teaching and learning (Davies et al., 2016). These recommendations inform analyses of teachers' classroom practice for students with disability in this study.

As environments, including lesson materials, can "disable" students, the resultant assessment results reflect those barriers in the learning environment (Rose et al., 2018). The study's focus is therefore both on analyses of teachers' classroom practices and on design and implementation of assessment for formative and summative purposes, to examine whether students with disability are enabled to optimally demonstrate their learning. This addresses the gap identified in the review, in which only a small number of studies were found that had addressed accessible assessment as part of classroom assessment processes for students with disability.

Research Gap: Community of Inclusive Assessment Practice

A major research gap exists regarding the occurrence and effectiveness of inclusive classroom assessment and, where appropriate, adjustments to classroom assessment for students with disability. Assessment frameworks and literature on accessible assessment have discussed general classroom contexts without investigation into how assessment practice applies to students with disability (ARG, 2002; Black & Wiliam, 1998b, 2018; Looney et al., 2017; Stiggins, 1991; Willis et al., 2013; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Gunn, 2009;

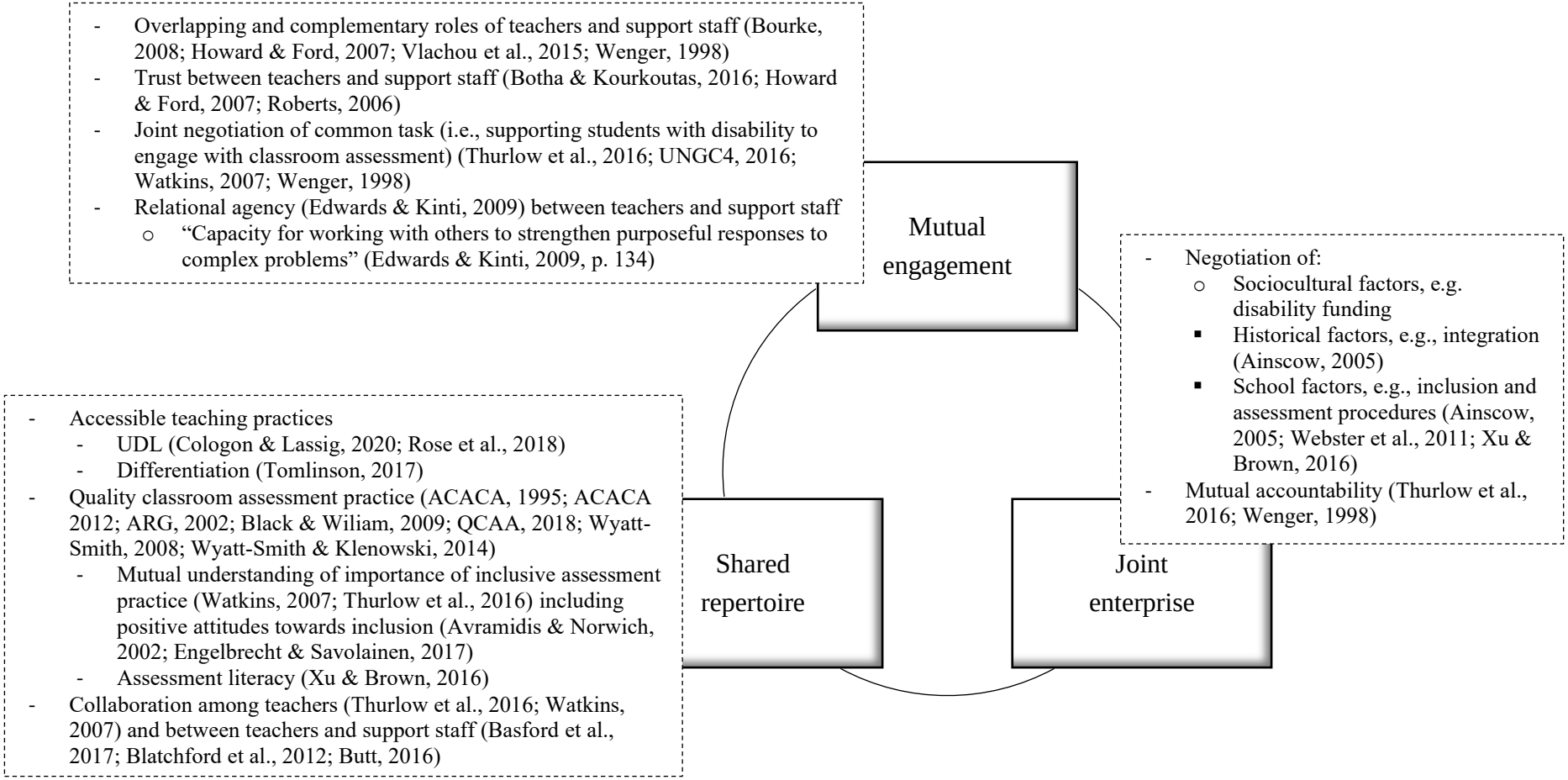
Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014; Xu & Brown, 2016). Similarly, literature focusing on education for students with disability has discussed this topic in terms of application to general classroom teaching and has not included assessment practice as a focus of investigation (Ainscow, 2005; Ainscow & Sandill, 2010; Forlin et al., 2013; Graham, 2020; Hehir et al., 2016). Research literature on inclusive assessment has focused on standardised or large-scale tests (Elliott & Marquart, 2004; Fuchs et al., 2000; Lovett & Lewandowski, 2015), or are limited to theoretical considerations of classroom assessment practice including task design (Cumming et al., 2013; Graham et al., 2018; Ravet, 2013; Rose et al., 2018; Tay & Kee, 2019). Two studies were identified that addressed classroom assessment for students with disability as part of a larger practice (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007), but did not include empirical data on how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment.

The call for better support for students with disability has recently grown stronger through several government reports (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016; Deloitte Access Economics, 2017; New South Wales Audit Office, 2016) and policy frameworks (Qld DoE, 2018b; UNGC4, 2016). However, there remains little attention to classroom assessment for students with disability. Inclusive assessment practice needs to bring together features of quality assessment, inclusion and accessible assessment. A shared understanding of assessment expectations, both relating to giving students with disability optimal opportunity to demonstrate their skills and knowledge on the same basis as students without disability, and relating to understanding the purpose, goals and standards around assessment, has been identified as a key contributor to students with disability succeeding in their learning (ARG, 2002; Black & Wiliam, 2009; QCAA, 2018b; Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019; Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2000; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014).

To develop this shared understanding, the concept of community of practice has been identified as an enabler of inclusive education (Ainscow, 2005; Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016; Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016). However, a research gap exists in how educators and students participate in a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) regarding inclusive education, and specifically inclusive assessment. In a community of practice, participants share a common way of doing and being, including shared language and knowledge, joint goals or concerns and common understandings of how to behave within the group (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Figure 2.2. identifies how features of quality classroom assessment practice, inclusive education, and accessible and inclusive assessment, as identified in the review, may come together to form a "community of inclusive assessment practice" (CoIAP). Specifically, this thesis is investigating the relationship between classroom teachers, support staff, and students with disability, as they interact with classroom assessment for formative and summative purposes. The sociocultural framing of this thesis includes other peripheral influences, such as stakeholders (e.g., school leaders and parents) and artefacts (e.g., school organisation and international, federal, and state education policy) that impact on the formation of a CoIAP.

Figure 2.2

Conceptualisation of a Community of Inclusive Assessment Practice



Note. Figure is adapted from Wenger (1998).

In the conceptualised CoIAP, Wenger's (1998) three dimensions of mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire are related to features of classroom assessment, inclusive education and inclusive assessment, as identified in the literature review (Table 2.2). Participants in the CoIAP include classroom teachers and students, and other professionals involved with classroom assessment. These include support staff, identified in the review as a common presence in mainstream classrooms, and leaders at schools, who were identified as needing to promote equity and engage in collaboration to promote inclusion. Participants need to share a common understanding of ways of doing and being (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in inclusive assessment practice, including shared knowledge of quality assessment and accessible teaching practices.

As noted, effective inclusive schools are characterised by collaboration between teachers, specialists and school leaders who share strategies (Hehir et al., 2016), aligning with Wenger's (1998) concept of mutual engagement (Table 2.2). Overlapping roles (Wenger, 1998) exist between classroom teachers and support staff as they are mutually engaged in the common task of enabling students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. Their subject-specific and disability-specific knowledge should complement each other (Thurlow et al., 2016). A relationship of trust (Roberts, 2006) is required between teachers and support staff, and between students and support staff, to ensure that knowledge is shared (Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016) and, for example, support is accepted by students (Howard & Ford, 2007). Participants in the CoIAP jointly negotiate and work towards the common goal of enabling students with disability to optimally demonstrate their learning (Thurlow et al., 2016; UNGC4, 2016; Watkins, 2007; Wenger, 1998). As "successful teacher collaboration is rooted in the concept of communities of practice" (Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016, p. 1072), relational agency is necessary to strengthen this collaboration (Edwards & Kinti, 2009).

Participants in the CoIAP jointly negotiate sociocultural factors that frame the context of their classroom assessment practice, to establish a joint enterprise (Table 2.2; Wenger, 1998). As assessment practice shapes immediate and wider contexts (e.g., students' lives and global society), and is influenced by those contexts in return (e.g., personal, environmental factors; Webber et al., 2012), a joint negotiation of influencing factors is required to ensure a focused approach to inclusive assessment. Such factors include policy frameworks of inclusion and assessment (AITSL, 2017; QCAA, 2018b; Qld DoE, 2018b; UNGC4, 2016) and disability funding (de Bruin et al., 2020; Qld DoE, 2020a). They also include historical factors, including integration practices (Ainscow, 2005), and school factors such as school-based assessment procedures (Xu & Brown, 2016) and the organisation of support for students with disability at the school (Webster et al., 2011). While jointly pursuing the enterprise of inclusive classroom assessment practice, participants are mutually accountable (Thurlow et al., 2016; Wenger, 1998).

Participants in the CoIAP recognise that identified features of classroom assessment, inclusive education and inclusive assessment, and their associated values, routines, artefacts, actions and concepts "belong to the practice of a community pursuing an enterprise" (Wenger, 1998, p. 82). This shared repertoire (Table 2.2) includes identified features of quality assessment practice (ACACA, 1995, 2012; ARG, 2002; Black & Wiliam, 2009; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014) and features of accessible teaching practices, such as UDL and differentiation (Cologon & Lassig, 2020; Rose et al., 2018; Tomlinson, 2017). Shared repertoire further involves a mutual understanding of participants of the importance of inclusive assessment practice (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007), positive attitudes towards inclusive education (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Engelbrecht & Savolainen, 2017) and assessment literacy (Thurlow et al., 2016; Xu & Brown, 2016) to implement inclusive assessment. Finally, shared repertoire involves routines and actions reflecting collaboration among teachers (Thurlow et al., 2016;

Watkins, 2007) and between teachers and support staff (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Butt, 2016), including a common understanding of the knowledge of participants in the community and how this expertise can be distributed (Edwards & Kinti, 2009).

The Australian Government acknowledged the "considerable work ahead to ensure students with disability are able to achieve optimal educational outcomes" (Commonwealth of Australia, 2017, p. 71). This review contributes to this work by bringing together studies on assessment, inclusive education and inclusive assessment. In summary, research on the provision of inclusive assessment within classrooms and the factors contributing to, or hindering, students' optimal demonstration of learning is limited both in context and findings. This is the gap this study will address. The following chapter will discuss the methodology chosen to address this research gap and answer the research questions as identified in Chapter 1.

Chapter 3: Research Design

The study presented in this thesis addresses the overall research question *How do teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment?* The chapter first describes the research methodology, which aligns with the sociocultural theoretical framework as discussed in Chapter 2. Then the research questions and the approach to case study are presented. This section also includes a description of the case under investigation and site of the study, including identification of participants, as well as an overview of the data collection methods and data analysis. Finally, the chapter reviews the research design in terms of validity, reliability and ethical considerations.

Methodology

The methodology of a study "provides guidance to make sense of what methods will actually help answer the research questions" (Collins & Stockton, 2018, p. 2). Figure 3.1 shows an overview of the methodology of the study, including the study's research paradigm, ontology, epistemology and how these influenced the study's research methods. These aspects of study design are now discussed separately.

Figure 3.1

Methodology of Study

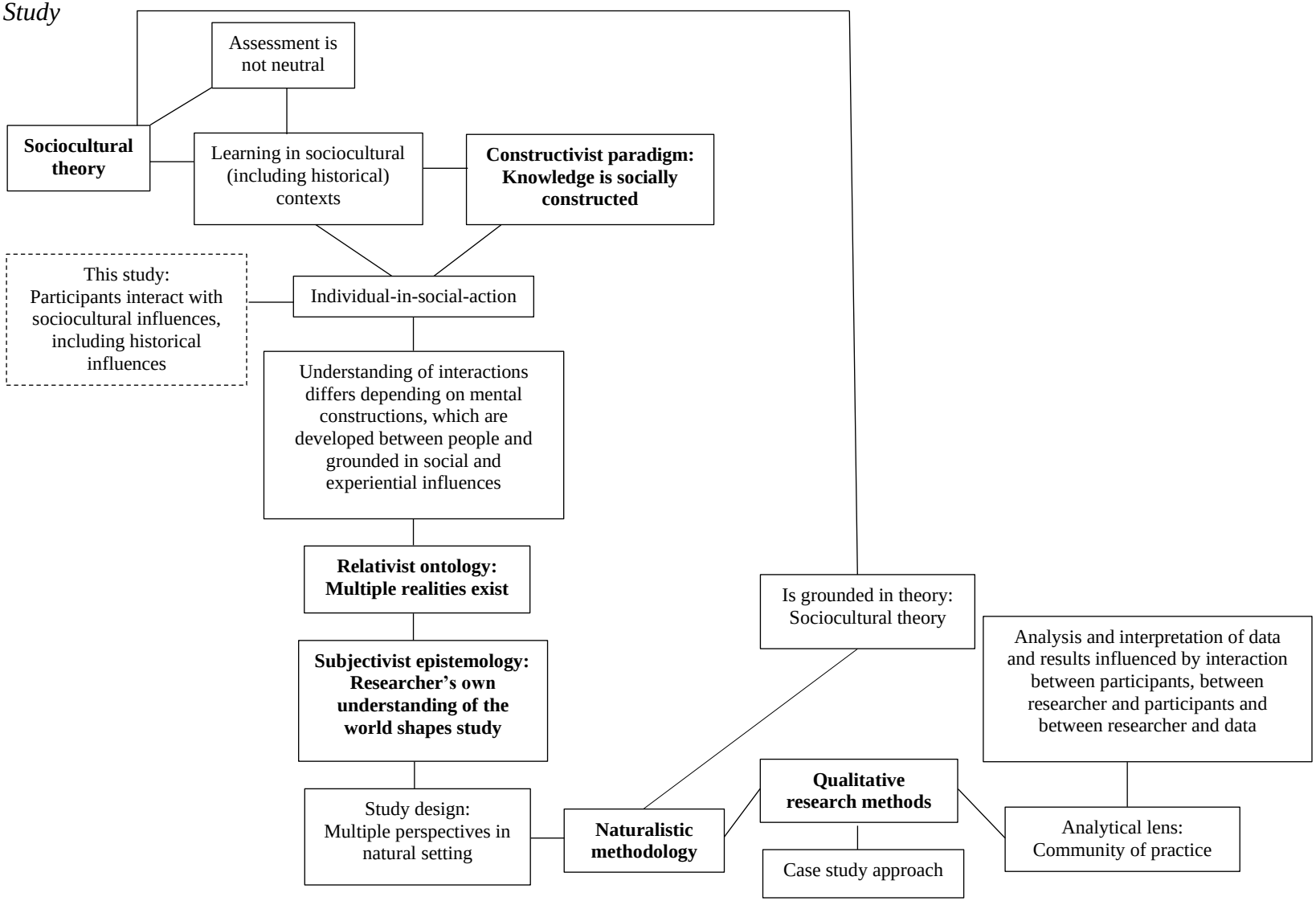


Figure 3.1 indicates, as noted in Chapter 2, the grounding of the study in *sociocultural theory* (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch & Tulviste, 1992). Sociocultural theory regards learning as resulting from the interaction of participants with sociocultural processes, including historical processes, thereby aligning with Vygotsky's (1978) notion of development through the social dimension of consciousness before the individual dimension. Shared understanding is gained through language, artefacts and the interaction of these (Vygotsky, 1978). Assessment practice that is integral to the sociocultural context of classrooms is therefore similarly influenced by the talk, texts and interactions within the classroom. Elwood and Murphy (2015) argued that assessment is not a fixed, psychometric concept that assumes assessment tasks are "neutral" (p. 185), rather, assessment practice is influenced by the interaction of the sociocultural contexts of students and teachers. By regarding knowledge as a socially constructed concept (*constructivist paradigm*; Lincoln et al., 2011), sociocultural theorists focus not on the individual, but on the "individual-in-social-action" (Cobb, 1999, p. 137). Individuals are understood to always be in interaction with sociocultural factors, including historical factors.

In the classroom, both teachers and students interact, within themselves, with historical contexts, for example when teachers' prior experience in supporting students with disability interact with their current practices of working with students with disability in their classrooms. They also interact with cultural perceptions and boundaries, such as how disability is understood within a community, or how policy frameworks and assessment procedures shape support for students with disability. Teachers and students further interact with social influences, such as how support staff provide support.

As each interaction is located in a particular time and space, each observation differs and researchers' meaning making from observations—or construction of realities—will differ accordingly. These realities are developed between people through meaning-making activities and understanding derived from social and experiential influences (Lincoln

et al., 2011). This study acknowledged that multiple realities exist (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) within and between individuals, and so aligned with a *relativist ontology*, as shown in Figure 3.1. The interaction with social and experiential factors and the existence of multiple realities were further evident in the process of doing research. Findings were a result of the researcher's interaction with the research participants and the data, which was inevitably shaped by the researcher's own understanding of the world (*subjectivist epistemology*). Therefore, this study required the gathering of multiple perspectives on the research topic to ensure that the researcher's construction of meaning through interactions with participants and data was not solely determined by her own understanding of the world (Lincoln et al., 2011).

It is also important to acknowledge upfront the researcher's own perspective on the topic of assessment for students with disability. Following Berger's (2015) observation that researcher perspectives differ according to researchers' own lived experience of the topic under investigation, it is important to disclose that the researcher of the study presented in this thesis does not have a disability herself. She attended a mainstream school as part of the education system in the Netherlands, where segregated education settings for students with disability remain common practice. However, the researcher's own view (or reality), shaped through interaction with the literature, colleagues and research in schools, is that students should be educated in a system that is inclusive and accessible to all, regardless of (dis)ability.

In keeping with the relativist framework of the study, as "reality" can only be understood in its natural setting and in a context of time and space, a *naturalistic methodology* suited this study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; see Figure 3.1). Therefore, to examine how teachers enabled students to engage with classroom assessments, data collection involved observing authentic or actual interactions among teachers and students in the classroom. Naturalistic inquiry is not value-free, but rather influenced by "the choice of the *substantive theory* utilized to guide the collection and analysis of data and in the interpretation of findings" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 38, emphasis in original). Lave and Wenger (1991) viewed

learning through a sociocultural lens, describing learning as an act of social practice, in which "learning, thinking, and knowing are relations among people in activity in, with, and arising from the socially and culturally structured world" (p. 51). Similarly, Cowie (2015) suggested that "knowing, learning and social relations entail each other" (p. 117). This situated nature of learning is consistent with an understanding of knowledge as socially constructed and changing across and within people.

A naturalistic inquiry grounded in sociocultural theory relies on *qualitative research methods*, and this study adopted a case study approach (Merriam, 1988) to capture participants' multiple realities in the natural setting of the school and classroom (see Figure 3.1). Similarly, naturalistic inquiry lends itself to inductive data analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), which was used in this study to analyse interview data and as part of the larger, iterative process of data analysis, as discussed in the Data Analysis section of the chapter. As knowledge is socially constructed, so was the knowledge construction that evolved throughout the iterative approach taken to interpret research findings. Therefore, the findings in this study do not report on a fixed reality but represent the result of interactions between the researcher and the research data.

Chapter 2 brought together the concept of community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) and features of quality assessment, inclusive education and inclusive assessment were identified as forming a conceptual framework for inclusive assessment practice. The notion of community of practice provided an analytical lens in this study, aligning with the sociocultural lens through which research methods have been chosen and data have been interpreted. This analytical lens informed the interpretation of findings to examine, in Chapter 8, how and to what extent elements of a community of practice came together to form a community of inclusive assessment practice (CoIAP) to enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. As noted in Chapter 2, Lave and Wenger (1991) sought to understand how knowledge, skills and interactions come together to form a

community of practice, which is conceptualised as a group of people who share a common way of doing and being, including shared language and knowledge, joint goals or concerns and common understandings of how to behave within the group (Lave & Wenger, 1991). A community of practice differs from a team, as a team is formed and dismantled in relation to a certain task (Wenger, 1998). Instead, as discussed in Chapter 2, a community of practice is characterised by the three dimensions of mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998), as noted in Chapter 2.

Based on the premise that "a community of practice is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98), as noted in Chapter 2, this study investigates how practices and knowledge at a system, school, classroom and individual level come together to form a CoIAP to enable students with disability to optimally demonstrate their learning through classroom assessment. Specifically, the knowledge and practices under investigation were those undertaken by classroom teachers. Included in the investigation was the interaction between the classroom teacher and the school's Special Education Program (SEP) support staff who provided classroom support to the focus students in the study. Therefore, the concept of CoIAP formed a lens through which the results of this study were interpreted in Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8.

Research Design

Research Questions

To address the overall research question, *How do teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment?,* the study used a sociocultural lens to investigate teachers' classroom assessment practice for three students with disability. This investigation included a focus on elements influencing the practices teachers relied on to enable students' engagement with classroom assessment beyond their direct engagement with

students and the assessment task. The following research sub-questions address the multiple ways through which teachers' support was shaped:

1. *What elements impact on how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment?*

   This sub-question acknowledges that teachers did not act in a vacuum, but were shaped by their own historical sociocultural context (Wertsch, 1985) as well as by the historical sociocultural contexts of their colleagues and the system they act in. Moreover, teachers were participating in an education system that was framed by policies and procedures at an international, national, state and school level, as well as influenced by societal views of inclusion and disability, which further shaped their practices.

2. *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?*

   This sub-question recognises the situated nature of learning and that assessment processes are influenced by the interplay between knowledge, learning and social interaction (Cowie, 2015). Teachers collected evidence of student learning through their interaction with students during teaching, including formative assessment activities, as well as through tasks for summative assessment purposes (Black & Wiliam, 1998a).

3. *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?*

   This sub-question addresses the notion that teachers mediate assessment processes to gauge students' learning, and that students subsequently mediate assessment processes to demonstrate their learning. Research has shown how the design of tasks for summative assessment task purposes can pose barriers to students with disability (Graham et al., 2018; Rose et al., 2018). Inaccessible assessment tasks warrant

> implementation of assessment adjustments, to ensure that students with disability can optimally demonstrate their learning (Cumming et al., 2013).

The focus on elements influencing teachers' classroom assessment practice in the main research question and three sub-questions addresses the situated nature of the focus students' engagement with classroom assessment. As noted, to recognise the realities within which assessment processes took place, a case study approach was adopted.

Methodological Approach: Case Study

The study explored how two teachers supported three focus students to engage with assessment in the classroom. Taking a relativist perspective, it is understood that multiple realities exist. These realities are co-constructed between people (e.g., among teachers, between teacher and student, etc.) through interaction with multiple factors (Guba & Lincoln, 1982), such as interaction with each other, the environment and artefacts. For example, teachers and students may need to develop a shared understanding of students' levels of skills and knowledge. Using an assessment task as a mediating artefact, teachers and students interact with this artefact to co-construct their understanding of students' skills and knowledge. To capture the interaction between teachers and focus students with sociocultural, including historical, processes of classroom assessment, a qualitative case study design was used (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Merriam, 1988). In this study, a case study is understood to be

> an examination of a specific phenomenon such as … a person, a process [or] an institution. … [where] the bounded system, or case, might be selected because it is an instance of some concern, issue, or hypothesis. (Merriam, 1988, pp. 9–10)

Qualitative case studies are useful in situations where "how" and "why" questions are asked (Yin, 2014) and where the researcher has little control over the environment that is studied (Merriam, 1988). Since this study focused on what took place in the classroom at a particular point in time, manipulating behaviours was not possible or desirable. A case study design can

unveil the interaction of key factors that characterise the case under investigation within the context in which this interaction is taking place (Merriam, 1988).

Merriam (1988) identified four characteristics of case studies. First, they are particularistic, that is, they concentrate on a particular process or situation. Second, they are primarily descriptive. Case studies lead to the creation of rich descriptions and interpretations of data, taking into account the associated sociocultural, including historical, norms, values and perceptions. Third, case studies serve as an heuristic, in that they enlighten readers in their understanding of the studied case. Stake (1981 as cited in Merriam, 1988) phrased this as explaining to readers "how things get to be the way they are" (p. 47). Fourth, case studies are inductive and are characterised by shaping understanding from the data (Merriam, 1988). A case study lends itself to the investigation of complex communities, processes or situations with various factors acting on, and possibly influencing, the case being studied, in order to describe, interpret or evaluate the case. This case study took an interpretative approach aligning with a sociocultural lens (Thomas, 2009), placing value on the assessment process and not only the assessment tasks.

Merriam (1988) described a case as one unit of analysis which can contain multiple units (e.g., participants or processes). The formulation of a case is important to determine the boundaries of what is being studied and what factors are attributing to the object of study. In this single case study, the case entailed "teachers' enactment of classroom assessment for students with disability in a mainstream secondary classroom". Merriam (1988) then recommended the use of sampling to determine "where" and "when" the investigation takes place and "who" and "what" are investigated. This study investigated two teachers' interactions with three Year 7 students with disability (the focus students) at one mainstream secondary school, with a specific focus on classroom assessment practice in the subjects of English and mathematics. The literature review identified issues relating to assessment for students with disability. Therefore, the "end product" (Merriam, 1988, p. 27)

of this study concerned the observation, description and interpretation of the nature of the engagement of the three focus students with classroom assessment and how their teachers enabled this engagement. This included a focus on classroom pedagogy including formative assessment (or AfL) practices, as well an investigation of design and implementation of assessment tasks for summative purposes.

The Site of the Study

The study was conducted at Summerfield High School (hereafter: Summerfield), a government school in a metropolitan region in South East Queensland. Approximately 1000 students from Year 7 to Year 12 attended Summerfield representing an above-average socio-educational parental background compared with other schools in Australia (ACARA, 2018). The study was conducted in a Year 7 class (7M), which consisted of 27 students including the three focus students with disability who were followed across English and mathematics lessons. Prior to main data collection, a pilot study (discussed in the following section) was conducted at a small community education school.

Data Collection Methods

The study investigated how teachers enabled the focus students to engage with classroom assessment. Capturing the multiple realities (e.g., multiple perspectives from multiple participants across multiple situations in the classroom) that were present demanded multiple methods of data collection in the participants' everyday context (the classroom). Because the researcher aimed to gain a deep understanding of teachers' and students' engagement with classroom assessment, a purposive sampling strategy was used to find participants "from [whom] one can learn the most" (Merriam, 1988, p. 48). The study was undertaken within the ARC DP150101679 project ("Adjusting Classroom Assessment Project" [ACAP]), which included teacher-participants in mainstream schools as well as students with disability who were taught by participating teachers. Participants were invited to participate in the PhD study reported in this thesis as an extension of ACAP. A typical-case

selection was used, where the researcher sets criteria for the "typical" case and invites participants who match those criteria (Patton, 1980 as cited in Merriam, 1988). For this study, the criteria consisted of (a) participation in ACAP (teachers and students) and (b) teaching the same students (teachers). This provided multiple perspectives on students' engagement with classroom assessment that were not controlled by subject context, as data collection comprised two different subject areas.

The process resulted in the identification of five participants: Two teacher-participants—Ms Naomi[11] (English) and Ms Daisy (mathematics)—and three student-participants: Seth, Charlie (Seth and Charlie were twins) and Harry. During the time that data collection took place, a preservice teacher (Mr Harris) taught the focus students in preparation for their summative assessment in English. Although he did not participate in the study to the same extent as the two teacher-participants, his views on assessment and the focus students have been collected during data analysis and considered in the findings. The Head of Special Education (HoSE) was also interviewed, to gather data on the structure of support provision at the school. In order to answer the research questions, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected (Figure 3.2). As the study focused on assessment that actually occurred in the classroom, data collection was not focused on out-of-class contexts.

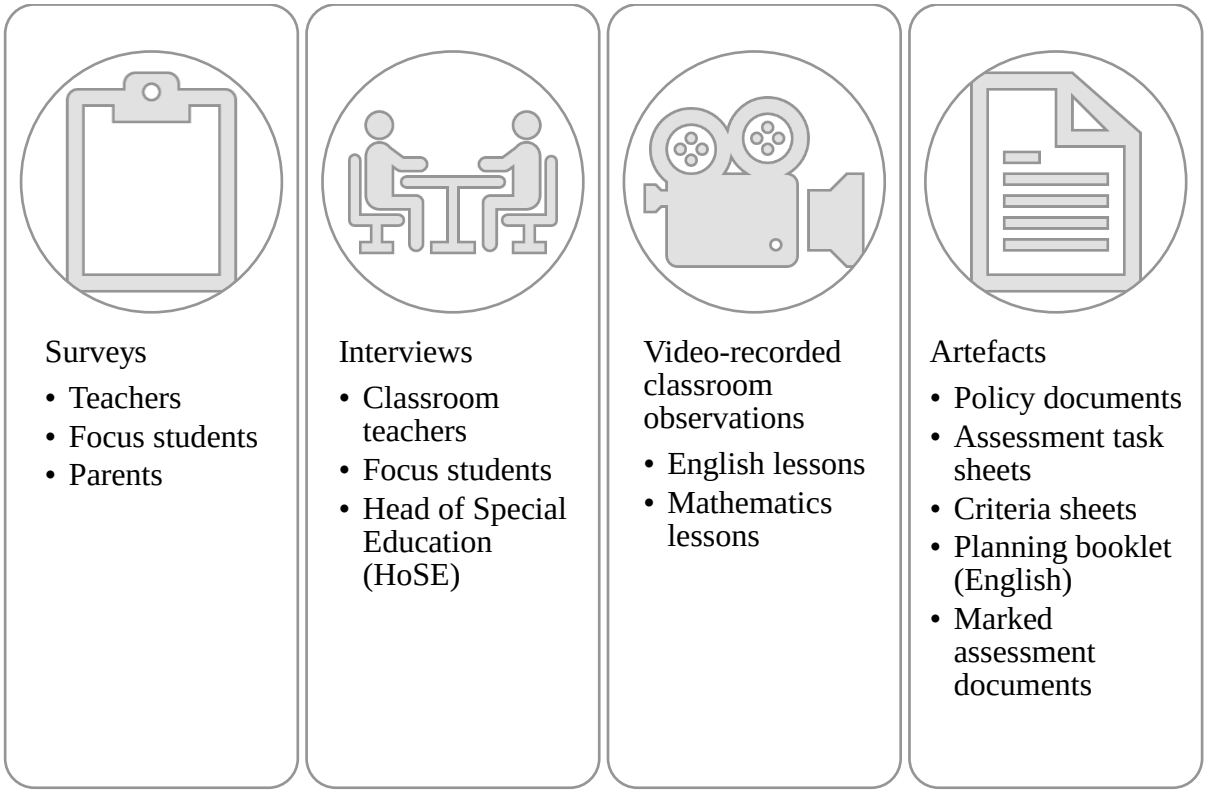
The participation of teachers, focus students and their parents in ACAP meant they completed online surveys. Further, in this study, individual interviews were conducted with the teachers and the focus students (Seth and Charlie were interviewed together, as discussed following Table 3.1) as well as with the HoSE, and classroom observations were undertaken and video recorded. Last, artefacts such as summative assessment task sheets, criteria sheets[12] and marked assessments of the focus students were collected for analysis.

[11] As noted in Chapter 1, all names are pseudonyms.

[12] In Australia, teachers use "task-specific standards" (QCAA, 2019, p. 1) as a guide to judge students' summative work against the achievement standards as set out in the Australian Curriculum. Teachers can list these task-specific standards in a criteria sheet, which also informs students' understanding of the required quality of their work and provides opportunities for self-assessment.

Figure 3.2

Overview of Data Collection



In order to test the video and audio equipment, a pilot study was conducted in February 2018. This took place at a community education school with all parents and students consenting to video observation for one hour during one class. The pilot study highlighted technical issues of interest, such as the need to adjust camera angles in future to create a "black spot" where students who did not provide consent to be a part of the study would not be captured on camera. The pilot study also highlighted difficulties in capturing student audio without the use of external microphones and the desirability of additional microphones for video recordings in the main study.

Data

Data from ACAP used in this study included surveys completed by teachers, focus students and their parents. Where necessary, parents could assist their child to complete the survey.

ACAP – Teacher Background (TB)

Teachers completed a survey of demographic data regarding their backgrounds including 18 questions related to teacher qualifications, experience in teaching, and subject area/s taught. The survey assisted in understanding sociocultural and historical factors that teachers bring to the classroom. It provided categorical quantitative data.

ACAP – Teacher Description of Student Participants (TDSP)

Teachers completed a survey focusing on their perceptions and knowledge of the student participants. They responded through five open-ended questions for each focus student regarding their understanding of the nature of the student's disability and perceived impact on learning and instruction. The teachers' responses provided information about how they negotiated interactions and assessment with the students. The survey provided qualitative data that could be triangulated with teacher actions, responses to other Teacher Surveys and observational data.

ACAP – Teacher Understanding of the Disability Standards for Education (TUDSE)

Teachers were asked about their understanding of the legislative and policy expectations to make adjustments for students with disability as research has shown that assessment adjustments for students with disability in Australia are inconsistently implemented (Cologon, 2013; Cumming & Dickson, 2013). The survey asked nine Likert-structured questions regarding the extent to which teachers rated their understanding of the DSE requirements and opportunities for professional development, and two open-ended questions where teachers could comment on assessment adjustments.

ACAP – The Teacher Assessment Identity Instrument© (TAII)

Teachers completed the TAII (Looney et al., 2017), a Likert-based set of subscales consisting of 95 items focusing on teacher knowledge, confidence and beliefs about assessment. Knowing a teacher's assessment identity can explain their assessment practice (Looney et al., 2017). Cumming et al. (2013) posited that to meet the legal requirements for

making assessment adjustments as described in the Standards, teachers need only to implement minimal adjustments that may not reflect principles of quality assessment practice. In such cases, students may sufficiently demonstrate their learning, rather than optimal demonstration (Cumming et al., 2013). The survey was designed to discern how teachers engaged in assessment practice, including assessment for the diversity of students. The TAII provided quantitative indicators of the overall responses of the project teachers regarding their knowledge, perception of role, and beliefs and emotions about assessment, including designing and adjusting assessment for students with diverse needs, and was used to create a teacher profile.

ACAP – Modified Checklist of Learning and Assessment Adjustments for Students (mCLAAS)

The mCLAAS is based on work by Davies et al. (2016) and lists approximately 70 adjustments across seven categories that teachers may provide for students with disability in the contexts of learning/instruction, classroom assignments or projects, and classroom tests and examinations. Teachers were asked to check which adjustments are provided for students in each context with options to include adjustments not identified in the checklist. This survey enabled comparison of teacher-reported practices of making adjustments in both instruction and assessment with classroom observation data, interview data from the teachers and focus students and assessment artefacts.

ACAP – Teacher Reflections (TR)

This survey consisted of three open-ended questions and captured teachers' reflections on a recent unit of work and on how students were supported through learning and assessment. The teachers further reflected on the types of adjustments that may improve outcomes for students with disability. The survey was designed for the ACAP study and conducted at the end of the term during which data were collected.

ACAP – Student Self-Report (SSR)

Students completed demographic data on their age, nature of disability and perceived impact on learning and assessment, previous achievement outcomes and assessment adjustments, attitude to assessment adjustments, and preferred assessment adjustments. It consisted of six Likert-structured questions and six open-ended questions. The survey was designed for the ACAP study and assisted in understanding sociocultural and historical factors students bring to the classroom. It was administered at the start of the data collection period.

ACAP – Student Reflections (SR)

Students were asked, at the end of the data collection period, to reflect on the completed unit of work and assessment. The survey consisted of two yes/no-questions and seven open-ended questions. It was designed for the ACAP study and assisted in obtaining an insight into the students' experiences in the classroom and during assessment and asked them about any changes they would like to see made.

ACAP – Parent Report on Their Child's Characteristics (PRCC)

Parents were asked to provide their knowledge and perceptions regarding the nature of their child's disability and reflect on its perceived impact on learning and assessment, previous achievement outcomes and assessment adjustments, attitude to assessment adjustments, and preferred assessment adjustments. The survey consisted of three yes/no-questions and six open-ended questions, providing insight into parents' perceptions of their child's characteristics and how they perceived those characteristics impacted on their learning. It was administered at the start of the data collection period.

ACAP – Parent Reflections (PR)

Parents were asked, at the end of the data collection period, to reflect on their child's completed unit of work and how teachers supported their child during teaching and

assessment. The survey consisted of one yes/no-question and six open-ended questions and contributed to insights on how the students were supported in the classroom.

ACAP – Artefacts

By participating in this PhD study teachers, students and parents gave informed consent for the above data to be shared with the researcher and to share artefacts which were collected from teachers at the start and end of the term during which data collection took place. Artefacts included unit outlines, the summative assessment task and marking rubric, and the marked assessment items of the focus students. By collecting these artefacts, it was possible to further explore alignment of formative classroom practices (as observed, see next section) and summative assessment items. Importantly, the students' graded assessment items provided information on the enacted assessments that were occurring within the classroom.

This PhD study collected the following specific and in-depth data to address the research questions.

PhD – Artefacts

Complementing the ACAP assessment artefacts, a web search was conducted to identify artefacts relating to the school's organisational structure, school policies and state-based and federal education policies relevant to the school.

PhD – Classroom Context Data

Video-recorded classroom observations were conducted to study the interactions between the teachers and the focus students during classroom practice. Classroom observation data "makes it possible to record behavior as it is happening" (Merriam, 1988, p. 88) and is a useful technique when the focus of an investigation can be directly observed. In this study, the researcher could observe classroom practices that could later be compared with students' engagement with summative assessment practice and interview and survey data.

Prior to video-recorded observations taking place, the researcher spent three weeks in both English and mathematics classes to obtain contextual data and for students and teachers to become accustomed to an observer in the classroom. Video-recorded observations were conducted during five English classes across two weeks and nine mathematics classes across three weeks, comprising a total of 15 hours and 15 minutes of video data. Since a preservice teacher, Mr Harris, had taken over all teaching for Ms Naomi's classroom prior to the summative assessment, video observations of Ms Naomi's teaching practices took place after the summative assessment had been completed. This is discussed further under Limitations, in Chapter 8.

Video Observations

In order to capture interactions between teachers and the focus students, as well as to capture the wider classroom context, two video cameras with two external microphones were used. One external lapel microphone was worn by each teacher to capture the teacher's interactions with the whole class, student groups and individual students. A second microphone was placed in close proximity to the focus students' desks, as the seating plan in both classrooms meant that the three focus students sat next to each other. Although the pilot study had identified the desirability of additional microphones to capture student voices in all classroom interactions, this could not be enacted in the main study's data collection for ethical reasons, as it was a school requirement that the focus students were not to be identified by other students as being participants in this research project. To remove the focus on the participating students, inactive microphones were placed throughout the classroom. However, some loss of focus students' voices during class or group interactions resulted as the second microphone had to be unobtrusive and was therefore placed underneath the focus students' desk, which hampered the quality of the recording. Nevertheless, the teacher lapel microphones and the cameras' internal microphones did record the focus students' voices during individual interactions. Video observation took place while the

researcher stood behind a camera or sat on a chair in the corner of the classroom, without interacting with teaching staff or students.

Audio Recordings

Audio tracks from the teachers' lapel microphones were transcribed in full by an external transcription company and used in the analysis of teachers' speech as part of analysis of formative teacher–student interactions.

Field Notes

During non-video recorded classroom observations, field notes were compiled for interactions and practices in class. During video-recorded observations, the researcher took field notes if significant events occurred. For example, during one lesson focus student Harry walked out of the classroom. The researcher spoke to the teacher about this event afterwards and summarised that conversation in a field note.

PhD – Interviews

Individual, semi-structured interviews were held with the focus students, the teachers and the HoSE. As Merriam (1988) has stated, interview formats differ along a spectrum from highly structured (with closed questions) to conversational-style interviews where very little is prescribed. Since this study adopted a relativist ontology, acknowledging that multiple realities exist and participants co-construct their knowledge of reality with others, a closed interview format would not have done justice to that perspective. Rather, a semi-structured approach was used to recognise that participants "define the world in unique ways" (Merriam, 1988, p. 73). To capture these definitions, interview questions were open-ended, allowing the interviewer to pose further questions in response to the research participants' contributions.

Student Interviews

Interviews with the focus students were held at the end of the data collection period, after their summative assessments for English and mathematics had been completed

and graded. The interview questions were informed by the study's literature review, the classroom observations and the teacher-, parent- and student survey data. The interviews focused on assessment and learning in general and on the specific English and mathematics assessment tasks they had completed that term. As the parents of Seth and Charlie had indicated to the researcher that Seth and Charlie had not been made aware that they had a diagnosed disability, but rather understood that they had "a few difficulties with spelling, reading and understanding some sentences" (personal communication, 18 June 2018), interview questions did not explicitly address the topic of students' disability, or adjustments they required. The parents of the focus students were sent the interview questions two days beforehand, so that they could talk to their child/children about the questions, which they reported they did. Table 3.1 shows the interview questions.

Table 3.1

Student Interview Questions

Question topic	Question	Prompt (if applicable)
Assessment and learning: general	Do you have a preferred seat in class?	
	What assessments have you done this term for English and mathematics?	Did you enjoy doing those assessments?
	What are some of the good/positive things about assessment?	Can you think of a time when you liked an assessment or got a good result?
	What are some not-so-nice/negative things about assessment?	Can you think of a time when you became frustrated with assessment, what did you do?
	When you are in class, how do you know that you are learning?	I have observed that you usually write down learning objectives and success criteria, how do they help you learn? How does the teacher know whether you have achieved the success criteria?
	What do you do when you want help with your work? How does that help you learn?	
	Would you like to see anything changed in the classroom? And in assessment?	If yes, what would you like?
	Is there a difference in the class when an assessment is coming up?	Are students working harder or mucking around more?
Assessment and learning: personal experiences	Mathematics exam and English comic strip – show assessment: Can you show me what you need to do in this assessment?	How did you make sure you understood what was expected of you? What did you find easy, what was tricky?
	How did you get ready for these assessments (tests)?	
	Do your teachers explain things so you can understand it?	How does the working out on the board at mathematics (warm up exercises, textbook tasks) help you learn? What can teachers change?
	How are Learning Support teachers or TAs able to help you? Do you find some more helpful than others?	
	How are you finding the time you are given to complete tasks? Can you usually finish the tasks?	I've noticed time reminders; do they help you?

Question topic	Question	Prompt (if applicable)
	Let's look at the resources you can use during English and mathematics: online learning platform, worksheets, textbook, videos (mathematics). Which ones are helpful when preparing for an exam?	Which ones did you use while preparing for mathematics exam and English comic strip?

Note. Seth and Charlie were interviewed together, as observations indicated that they were dependent on each other and separating them might not have elicited enough responses during the interview. The interview with Harry lasted 29 minutes and the interview with Seth and Charlie, 32 minutes. All student interviews were transcribed in full by the researcher.

Teacher Interviews

Individual interviews with the two classroom teachers and the preservice teacher were held at the end of the term, after video observations had been concluded and surveys had been completed. The interview questions were based on the literature review, observed pedagogical practices in the classroom, survey responses, assessment artefacts and focused on procedures around designing and implementing assessment, collaboration with support staff and providing the required support to the focus students. Table 3.2 shows the interview questions.

Table 3.2

Teacher Interview Questions

Question topic	Question	Prompt (if applicable)
Procedures around assessment and inclusive education	What assessments took place this term?	
	Who designed the assessments?	
	When preparing or implementing assessment, who is involved in this process?	Case manager, HoSE involved? How do these people support assessment in your classroom?
	When adjustments to learning and/or assessment need to be made, what does this process look like?	Who do you consult with?
	(Noted in survey that case manager forwards report on focus students) How did the report prepare you to teach these students?	How detailed is the report? Looking back, did it prepare you well?
	How did the report prepare you to assess these students?	Did the report focus on needs in assessment?
	Outside the report, what other advice did you receive on how to teach/assess these students?	Parents? Other teachers? Students? How has that advice helped you?
Focus students and their learning/assessment	Please describe your collaboration with learning support.	I have noticed there is a team with different support staff each lesson, would they know lesson plan/assessment task? How does this collaboration help you cater to the focus students' needs? Professional Development by HoSE?
	What specific needs do the focus students have during class that differ from the other students in class?	How is this reflected in instruction and assessment?
	What are the resources you use to cater for these students?	How do they help the students? Is there a resource you would like to use but don't?
	How are the learning objectives and success criteria used in each lesson?	Used to make explicit the classroom learning, and check student understanding?
	What is going well in catering to the focus students' needs?	
	Mathematics: Are there different practices that you put in place to prepare the focus students for	Was there anything different for the focus students? Harry indicated easier revision sheets.

Question topic	Question	Prompt (if applicable)
	their exam? Can you describe these?	
	I have observed you asking questions of focus students during lessons, how do their responses prompt your next steps in teaching? How can you tell the focus students understand the tasks in class and during assessment?	Charlie and Seth ask questions, Harry doesn't.
	I have observed students gluing in worksheets at the conclusion of each lesson. Can you describe the purpose of the worksheets?	How should students use these? How do the focus students use these?) Are you able to check individual students' understanding? Revisit worksheets? What are students expected to do with worksheets once they have glued them in?

Note. The preservice teacher who taught the weeks immediately preceding the summative assessment task in English was interviewed about preparing the focus students for their assessment. The interviews lasted 34 and 43 minutes for Ms Naomi and Ms Daisy and 20 minutes for the preservice teacher. All teacher interviews were transcribed in full by the researcher. Email contact took place for follow up clarifying or confirming conversations, resulting in five email exchanges with Ms Naomi and three email exchanges with Ms Daisy.

HoSE Interviews

Two interviews were held with the HoSE at the school. The first interview with the HoSE took place in Term 3, 2018, after data collection had been completed. This interview focused on the procedures relating to the focus students' required support, support that was actually provided to the focus students, and collaboration between Special Education Program staff and classroom teachers. This interview lasted one hour and four minutes and was transcribed in full by an external transcription company. The second interview took place during the last week of Term 4, 2018, and focused on relations between expected support provisions and

those enacted in class for the focus students. It lasted 26 minutes and was transcribed in full by the researcher. Tables 3.3 and 3.4 show the interview questions for both interviews.

Table 3.3

HoSE Interview #1 Questions

Question topic	Question	Prompt (if applicable)
Procedures around providing learning support	Through interviews with the teachers, I have become aware of a changed system regarding the placement of support staff in the class that involves a team rotation model for classes. Can you please first describe how class support was organised in 2017?	
	What prompted the change to team-based support and how has it been implemented?	What were underlying premises on which change was based?
	How does the special education unit operate regarding the focus students' class?	How is determined who goes into the class? How many staff are required in the classroom? What determines this ratio/number? How would you describe the role of SEP teachers in the class? What is the role of case manager for the focus students?
	What collaboration occurs between yourself as HOSES and the two teachers participating in this project?	Do you have regular meetings/other forms of contact? Do you provide support to them and/or do they ask you for support?
	What is the collaboration between members of the Learning Support team and the two teachers?	Do they know lesson plans/assessments that students are working towards? Do team members know what class they will be working with? What does the roster look like? Do team members differ in their work/approach depending on what class they are working in? What contact do team members have with the two teachers?
	How does the support team work together to provide support for individual students?	
	Is there anyone else you collaborate with?	LANI?

Question topic	Question	Prompt (if applicable)
	How is support for students with disability organised at Summerfield for Year 7 students?	Handover from primary school – adequate? Preparation case manager report Informing/instructing teachers (to what degree?) Deciding the level of support for students Changes in levels of support throughout the year?
	When assessment tasks are created, is Learning Support involved in that process? If so, can you talk me through this process?	At what stage does Learning Support become involved? Retrospectively or at the start? What does the involvement of the Learning Support team look like? Are you satisfied with the process of designing/implementing assessment, thinking of the focus students or other students with disability?
Providing learning support to the three focus students	What specific characteristics do the focus students have that differ from other students in class?	What is their diagnosis and how does it impact on their learning?
	What has informed the level of support these students receive?	Primary school, parents, teachers, student consultations, NCCD
	How does the SEP team cater to these three students?	What resources/strategies do they use in class? What support takes place outside of class?
	How satisfied are you with the support provided to the three students?	Satisfied with teacher collaboration/within-team collaboration?
	How are you able to support teachers to make adjustments for students with disability/these three students?	
	What works well in the support processes that are in place for the focus students and their teachers?	
	What are some barriers in providing support to the focus students and their teachers?	

Table 3.4

HoSE Interview #2 Questions

Question	Prompt (if applicable)
Are Harry, Seth and Charlie on an Individual Education Plan[13]? If so, what does this entail for each student?	
Would it be possible to have access to their Education Adjustment Plan Profile?	
What is expected by the Queensland Government of schools and teachers in terms of provision of support for verified students with autism spectrum disorder and speech–language impairment?	
How is funding for verified students used within the school?	
How is it determined how many teachers and TAs are hired to work in the SEP team?	
What are the expected provisions of support for these three students as recorded at the school?	
Did the students receive any support outside of in-class support and participation in boosters/tutorials, e.g., speech pathologists?	
How does the school know whether the provisions are effective?	What systems are in place to assess this?

Table 3.5 shows the timeline for data collection for this study, showing that classroom observations in mathematics started two lessons before students completed a test. Classroom observations in English started after students had completed the assessment task analysed in this study and started their preparations for the next assessment. This was due to the absence of the teacher participant, Ms Naomi, during the period immediately preceding the English assessment. The study's focus was on teacher–student interactions in the classroom and on student engagement with an assessment task for summative purposes. The study did not intend to describe a linear alignment between classroom interactions and the subsequent engagement with an assessment task. Therefore, interactions between Ms Naomi and the focus students could still be analysed, and examination of students' engagement with the assessment task itself relied on interview data with the preservice teacher (Mr Harris), who prepared the students for the summative assessment task, as well as artefacts, such as the assessment task sheet, which were used during student interviews as prompts.

[13] The HoSE indicated that Individual Education Plans (i.e., student-specific records of recommended adjustments) are not used at the school. Therefore, this is not discussed in the study's findings.

Table 3.5

Overview of Data Collection

Timeframe	Participant	Data collected	Project
Week 4, Term 1 2018	Teachers, students in Community education class	Pilot study – Trialling of video and audio equipment	PhD study
Term 2 2018	n/a	Documents relating to school structure, policy documents	PhD study
Week 6 – 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers	Survey – TB	ACAP
Week 6 – 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers	Survey – TDSP	ACAP
Week 6 – 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers	Survey – TUDSE	ACAP
Week 6 – 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers	Survey – TAII	ACAP
Week 6 – 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers	Survey – mCLAAS	ACAP
Week 7 – 10, Term 2 2018	Focus students	Survey – SSR	ACAP
Week 7 – 10, Term 2 2018	Parents	Survey – PRCC	ACAP
Week 4 – 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers, focus students, peers	Observation data (contextual/field notes)	PhD study
Week 9, Term 2 2018 –Due date for English assessment task; Mathematics test			
Week 9 – 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers, focus students, peers	Observation data (video-recorded) (English observed during weeks 10 and 11; Mathematics observed during weeks 9 – 11)	PhD study
Week 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers	Survey – TR	ACAP
Week 11, Term 2 2018	Focus students	Survey – SR	ACAP
Week 11, Term 2 2018	Parents	Survey – PR	ACAP
Week 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers, focus students	Assessment task sheets, marking rubrics, focus students' marked assessment tasks	ACAP
Week 11, Term 2 2018	Focus students	Individual interview	PhD study
Week 11, Term 2 2018	Teachers	Individual interview	PhD study
Week 2, Term 3 2018	HoSE	Individual interview	PhD study
Week 10, Term 4 2018	HoSE	Individual interview	PhD study
Term 4 2018 – Term 2 2019	Teachers, HoSE	Clarifying emails	PhD study

Analysis of observation data, field notes, interview data, survey data and marked assessment tasks took place for each data source separately as well as collectively. This facilitated examination of how teachers enabled the focus students' engagement with classroom assessment. As reflective surveys for teachers, parents and students were conducted at the end of the data collection period, these could be compared with data from classroom observations and interviews with teachers and students. Further, as interviews were also conducted at the end of the data collection period, the researcher was able to reflect on observed classroom practices relating to the teaching and assessing of the focus students. Overall, these data provided information regarding how teachers supported the focus students in their engagement with classroom assessment.

Data Analysis

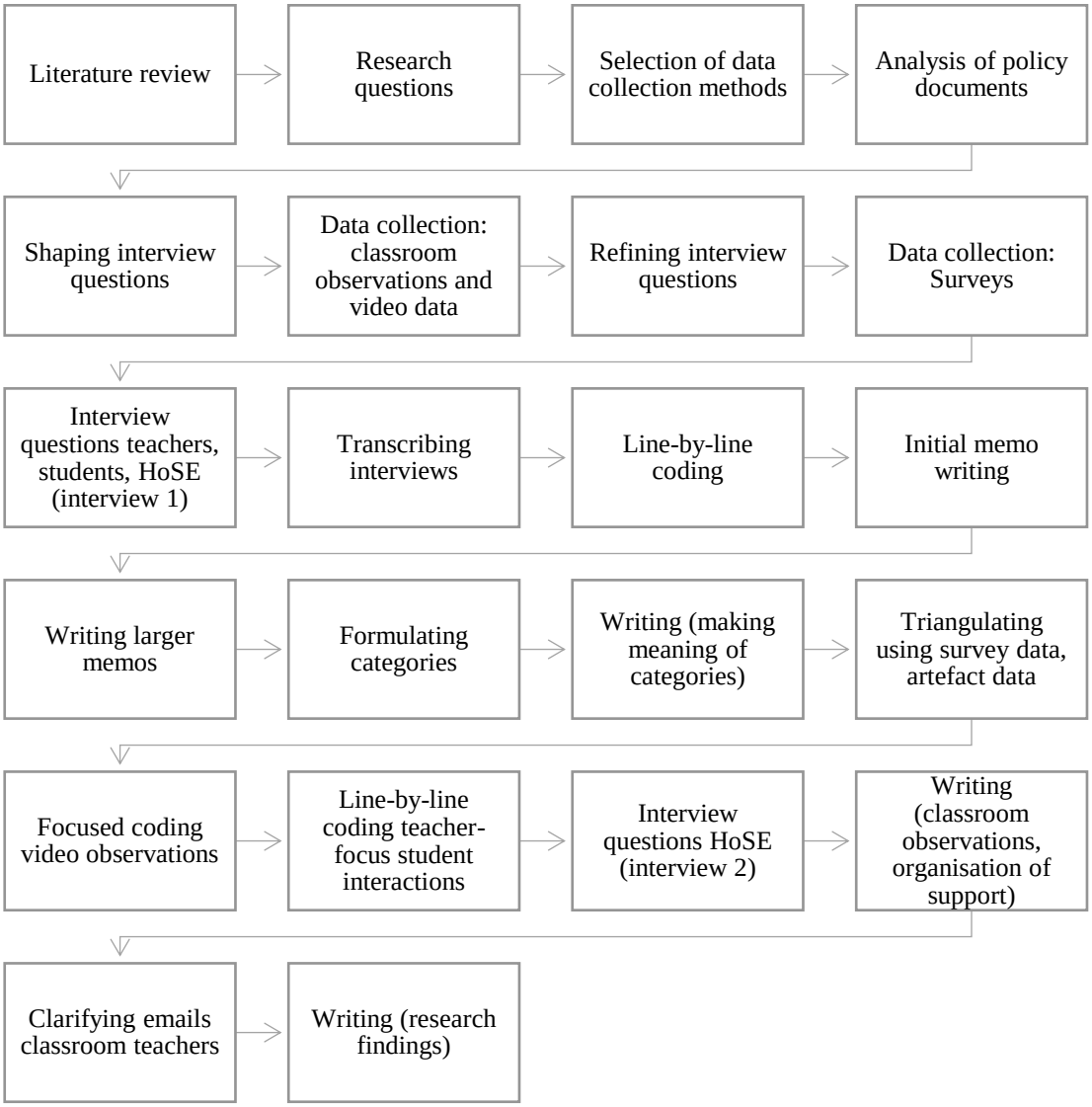
When analysing case studies, Merriam (1988) posited that researchers go through a process of "making sense out of the data … [which] involves consolidating, reducing, and interpreting what people have said and what the researcher has seen and read – it is the process of making meaning" (p. 178). This is an iterative process requiring a systematic analysis grounded in the data, which entails using "systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analyzing qualitative data to construct theories 'grounded' in the data themselves" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 2). Opposing the strict divide between data collection and analysis, researchers who engage with systematic analysis that is grounded in their data are simultaneously involved with data collection and analysis to construct "analytic codes and categories from data, not from preconceived logically deduced hypotheses" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 5). Charmaz (2006) proposed a flexible approach based on "a set of principles and practices, not as prescriptions or packages" (p. 9), which applied to this study as well.

Adopting a sociocultural lens, the researcher acknowledged that not only were students and teachers co-constructing meaning and reality, but also the researcher. Although the researcher strived to be a non-participant observer (Yin, 2014), the influence on the

classroom that the researcher has potentially had by being present in that classroom cannot be ignored. Similarly, how interview questions have been formulated and asked to students and teachers may have influenced their response and therefore the analyses that followed. To do justice to the interaction of the researcher with research participants (either directly or indirectly), Charmaz (2006) posed that "we *construct* our grounded theories through our past and present involvements and interactions with people, perspectives, and research practices" (p. 10, emphasis in original). This forms a sharp contrast with traditional grounded theory conceptions that see theories emerge from data without recognition of researchers' theoretical positions (Charmaz, 2006). The role of the researcher in analysing data in case studies was also emphasised by Simons (2009), who stated that "it is clearly you who is making sense [of data]" (p. 118). Researchers should be aware of and acknowledge presumptions they make while interpreting the data. As stated, the researcher holds the belief that an inclusive education system is desirable. The researcher was aware that her own construction of meaning could influence her perception of meaning making of research participants. To counter the researcher's initial interpretations of the data, multiple perspectives needed to be analysed through multiple rounds of analysis. Following a systematic approach grounded in data and Charmaz's (2006) suggestion to use systematic, yet flexible guidelines, data analysis took place as depicted in Figure 3.3. While primary data collection foci in this study were video observation and transcripts, data analyses commenced with the more bounded data available from surveys (ACAP) and interviews (thesis).

Figure 3.3

Data Analysis



Research questions were formed after conducting a literature review and informed the choice of a research methodology (informed by sociocultural theory), research design (case study), and data collection methods (classroom observation, surveys and interviews). Classroom observations took place over a period of six weeks and during this time the researcher's observations and field notes further shaped the interview questions for teachers, students and the HoSE. Before and during the period that classroom observations took place, the teachers, focus students and parents completed several surveys relating to assessment, student characteristics and classroom practice as part of their participation in

ACAP (as described in the previous section). The responses to these surveys further informed the interview questions, making the interview questions a culmination of preliminary analyses being conducted while data collection was taking place. This reflects the principle that data collection and analysis cannot be separated (Charmaz, 2006). Analysis of video data led to further data collection, the second interview with the HoSE. Further analyses and writing led to clarifying email contact with Ms Naomi and Ms Daisy, which eventuated in writing of research findings.

Analysis of Interview Data

All interviews were transcribed in full and read multiple times. To make meaning of teachers' support for students with disability to engage with classroom assessment, the researcher constructed initial codes using a line-by-line coding approach. Through the initial coding process, researchers interact with their data and make sense of—and define—what they see in the data (Charmaz, 2006, p. 46). Starting the coding process through line-by-line coding allowed the researcher to keep an open disposition towards the data (Charmaz, 2006). A total of 1325 codes were created after line-by-line coding of the six interview transcripts, taking the form of active statements, such as "expressing wish for continuous support". During line-by-line coding and immediately after a transcript was coded for the first time, initial memos were written and attached to codes. Initial memo writing is seen by Charmaz (2006) as a way to analyse data in the very early stages of data analysis and to reflect on the initial coding. During this initial stage, 112 memos were written. Nineteen larger, more formal memos were written after the transcripts and accompanying codes were read again and attempted to summarise the interview and construct initial categories. This resulted in 17 categories:

- Organisation of student support at the school
- Communication across and within departments
- Organisation of SEP team in classrooms

- Collaborative approach of assessment design
- Knowing the students
- Team organisation English teachers
- Teachers' expertise
- Perception of taught unit
- Preparing for English assessment
- Preparing for mathematics assessment
- Engagement with summative assessment
- Planned catering to students' needs
- Using learning objectives and success criteria
- Support given by SEP and LANI
- Students' identity/preferences
- Student agency
- Desired change

These categories were then used to make meaning, by writing drafts of results chapters focusing on the organisation of support, the English classroom and the mathematics classroom. This resulted in a further narrowing of categories, eventually leading to formulation of seven elements that informed the focus students' engagement with assessment:

1. Learning objectives and success criteria
2. Differentiation strategies
3. Deployment of support staff
4. Formative teacher–student interaction
5. Assessment design processes
6. Assessment task design
7. Interaction of the students with the summative assessment task

In Chapters 6 and 7 the first four elements are collated under the heading Pedagogy and Instruction and the last three elements under the heading Enabling Access to Summative Assessment. These seven elements are, in following chapters, interpreted through the lens of community of practice and its three dimensions of mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998), to examine how and to what extent elements of a community of practice came together to form a CoIAP to enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. Focuses on deployment of support staff and assessment design processes enabled examination of the extent to which teachers and support staff were mutually engaged to enable students' engagement with assessment processes. Policies and school procedures framing the seven elements, such as school assessment procedures and the organisation of support staff at the school, formed the sociocultural factors that members of the conceptualised CoIAP negotiated to form a joint enterprise. The shared repertoire of the CoIAP should include, as identified in Chapter 2, features of quality assessment, accessible teaching strategies, and adopted routines of collaborative practices. Examination of the seven elements identified above allowed for investigation of the extent to which features of quality assessment, inclusion and inclusive assessment were shared and negotiated between members of the communtiy as part of a shared repertoire.

In the process of making meaning of interview data, participants' interview responses were understood to be reflective of their own construction of reality at the time of data collection. These expressions were interpreted by the researcher in relation to the research questions and are used extensively throughout the thesis in the form of direct quotations to "substantiate … argument, provide vivid description, examples, evidence that *shows* the point, rather than tell the reader what it is" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 158, emphasis in original). Using extracts from interviews to show evidence has been recognised as one function of interview excerpts beyond their use as part of more in-depth analytical tools such as discourse or conversation analysis; for example, Sandelowski (1994) distinguished the use

of “quoted words and phrases” (p. 479) to, among other uses, provide evidence for a point, to illustrate an idea or to represent participants’ internal dialogue such as feelings or thoughts. Researchers should recognise that talk segments are not self-evident, when interpreting and using them in their reporting (Sandelowski, 1994). Therefore, talk segments are used concurrently with the presented argument and, when applicable, triangulated with data collected from other sources (e.g., surveys, observations) and from other participants.

Analysis of Artefacts

Two forms of artefacts were collected: policy and broader frameworks; and school-based documents. Documents relating to policy frameworks and legislation identified through web search were analysed to determine the aspects related to education for students with disability. This provided contextual information that framed the study and allowed for interpretation of survey, interview and observational data from the perspective of international, federal and state policy frameworks.

The collected school-based artefacts (assessment task sheet, criteria sheet, planning booklet and marked assessment task) were used to stimulate responses of teachers and students during the interview. They were first analysed simultaneously with the interview data. For example, when Ms Daisy stated that cognitive verbs[14] that were used in the mathematics test might cause confusion for students, the test questions were analysed to detect cognitive verbs. A secondary analysis was based on Graham et al.’s (2018) assessment task complexity analysis, as described in Chapter 2. This allowed for analysis of the visual, procedural and linguistic complexity of the planning booklet (shown in Appendix 1) and assessment task for English and the assessment task for mathematics (shown in Appendix 2).

[14] Cognitive verbs, such as “recognise”, “reposition” and “represent”, indicate the mental operations students are required to use when demonstrating skills and knowledge (QCAA, 2019a). The use of these verbs in assessment tasks will be discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

Analysis of Survey Data

Framed by the above seven elements, survey responses of teachers, students and parents were analysed to find similarities and differences within teacher and student comments on their classroom and assessment experiences. Teachers', students' and parents' descriptions of the focus students' characteristics informed discussion regarding how students were supported in the classroom and how they engaged with assessment. Teachers' descriptions of their knowledge of the DSE (2005; TUDSE) and recorded adjustments they made for the focus students (mCLAAS) informed discussion on how they provided required support to the focus students through their teaching strategies, resources, and assessment. Similarly, how teachers talked about their own characteristics (e.g., years of experience in teaching) and their recorded responses on the TAII informed a discussion across all seven elements. Finally, the reflections of teachers, students and parents on the summative assessment tasks deepened the discussion on students' engagement with assessment.

Analysis of Video Observation Data

The data gleaned from interviews and surveys led to initial framing of three results chapters that followed the seven elements outlined above: Chapter 5 focuses on the school organisation, Chapter 6 focuses on Ms Naomi's practices in English and Chapter 7 focuses on Ms Daisy's practices in mathematics. In order to gain a deeper understanding of how the two teachers enabled the focus students' engagement with classroom assessment, the video observation data were then analysed, compared with the other data (i.e., survey data, interview data and artefacts), and used to elaborate the three results chapters. Similar to the analyses of interview data, a systematic approach grounded in the data (Charmaz, 2006) was used to examine the type of interactions the teachers had with the focus students. However, instead of starting with line-by-line coding, the video data analyses used focused coding, where broader categories of interactions are coded before they eventuate into the final categories of analysis (Charmaz, 2006).

First, the fourteen videos were viewed and reviewed on multiple occasions, representative of the iterative approach to data analysis, and notes were taken about significant events that related to interview data. For example, Seth had expressed his aversion towards receiving help from a TA and video data showed him telling a TA he wanted to receive help from the teacher instead. The videos were then watched again, and each different educational activity as directed by the teacher was described and its duration recorded (focused coding). These descriptions were explored to determine similarities and differences. This resulted in descriptions converging on five categories of teacher activity that were empirically derived from the data:

1. Administrative
2. Instructing
3. Questioning
4. Walking around/Supporting
5. Engaging with content

For purposes of the study, these categories were used as timestamps in the video data, allowing the researcher to navigate to each category during analyses. Chapters 6 and 7 will relate teacher activity to the nine elements of the school's pedagogical framework (*Classroom Instruction That Works*; Dean et al., 2012) to identify instances where teacher practice aligned or misaligned with the pedagogical framework. This framework is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5. The use of timestamps enabled the researcher to isolate "Instructing", for example when comparing the framework's prescribed engagement with a lesson's learning objectives and success criteria, and the observed practice during "Instructing". These codes also enabled isolation of instances in the video data where formative teacher–student interaction took place to inform more in-depth coding, corresponding with the teacher activity "Walking around/Supporting".

As formative teacher–student interaction took place during individual work and group work, the five categories above were coded to represent what type of work students engaged in. Three categories were identified:

1. Individual work
2. Group work
3. Other: for example, listening to instructions, moving to seats, or engaging with teacher during questioning or working out tasks on the board.

Next, interactions involving the teacher and focus students were coded. As identified in Chapter 2, interaction is an important feature of quality assessment practice (ARG, 2002) and necessary to reach a shared understanding of expected criteria, standards and other rules and expectations belonging to a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). By zooming in on the teacher category "Walking around/Supporting", teachers' interactions could be analysed that took place while they were walking around the class and responding to students' raised hands or checking on students who did not have their hands raised. Since the teachers wore lapel microphones on their clothes, their speech was recorded. During this stage of video analysis, videos were re-watched and interactions between teachers and the focus students recorded. As audio from the teachers' microphones was transcribed, matching transcriptions could be extracted for further analysis. Line-by-line coding of teacher-focus student interactions was undertaken to determine the type of interactions that took place between them. Extracts from recorded interactions during classroom observation were used throughout the chapters to support arguments and provide evidence, reflecting the naturalistic methodology adopted in the study and closely reflecting human experience (Sandelowski, 1994).

Since these interactions took place while students were working on tasks independently or as part of a group, they could be regarded as instances of classroom assessment taking place between teacher and focus student(s). The starting point to categorise

data was to draw on classification schemes from other studies (Merriam, 1988). To code interactions between the teacher and focus student(s), Pryor and Crossouard's (2008) coding scheme focusing on formative assessment practice, adapted from Torrance and Pryor (2001), was used (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4

Coding Scheme of Formative Assessment Practices

	Description
A	T communicates or negotiates task criteria (what has to be done in order to complete the task) or negotiates them with S
B	T communicates or negotiates quality criteria (what has to be done to do the task well) or negotiates them with S
C	T observes S at work (process)
D	T examines work done (product)
E	T asks principled question (seeks to elicit evidence of what S knows, understands or can do: substance). S responds
F	T asks for clarification about process: what has been done, is being done or will be done; S replies
G	T questions S about how and why specific action has been taken (meta-process and metacognitive questioning). S responds
H	T critiques a particular aspect of the work or invites S to do so
I	T supplies or invites information, correction or a counter suggestion
J	T gives and/or discusses evaluative feedback on work done with respect to: task, and/or effort and/or aptitude/capability (possibly with reference to past or future achievement: ipsative)
K	T suggests or negotiates with S what to do next
L	T suggests or negotiates with S what to do next time and discusses ways of recognizing similar contexts for knowledge in future
M	T assigns mark, grade or summary judgement on the quality of this piece of work or negotiates an agreed one with S
N	T rewards or punishes student, or demonstrates approval/ disapproval

Note. Reproduced from Pryor & Crossouard (2008, p. 7).

However, borrowed coding schemes can restrict emergence of new codes that are important for the researcher's own data analysis (Merriam, 1988). Therefore, codes that were irrelevant were removed, and additional codes were added when existing codes did not fit the observed interactions, leading to an initial scheme of 26 codes, merged to create eight

overarching codes. Table 3.6 shows these overarching codes (left) together with the 26 initial codes they represent (right).

These codes were assigned to all segments of teacher dialogue when they interacted with the focus students during independent or group work. As previously described, students' speech could not be captured consistently due to ethical requirements and was therefore not coded. As durations of interactions were also recorded, analysis included frequency of student support from the teacher, duration of this support and interaction type. The final step of video data analysis focused on interactions of support staff with the focus students. Because the microphone located closest in proximity to the students did not always clearly record these interactions, analyses focused on the frequency and duration of this support only.

Table 3.6

Final Coding Scheme

Final code	Code description	Initial codes	Description of initial codes merged into final code
1	Observing student (at) work	C	Teacher observes student at work (process)
		D	Teacher examines work done (product)/silently or out loud
2	Giving task-related instructions	A	Teacher communicates or negotiates task criteria (what has to be done in order to complete the task) or negotiates them with student.
		I	Teacher gives instructions
		Q	Teacher reads/rereads/rewords instructions
		AA	Teacher connects back to previous learning/experience
		FF	Teacher provides info to continue task (e.g., writing on board)
3	Questioning	E	Teacher asks principled question (seeks to elicit evidence of what student knows, understands, or can do: substance).
		F	Teacher asks for clarification about process: what has been done, is being done or will be done.
		R	Teacher checks if student understands their explanation/ instruction
		Y	Teacher asks a rhetoric question
		CC	Teacher asks for clarification (after mishearing/ mispronunciation)
		DD	Teacher questions to elicit deeper thinking
4	Providing information on next steps for the task or for future work	K	Teacher suggests or negotiates with student what to do next
		L	Teacher suggests or negotiates with student what to do next time and discusses ways of organising similar contexts for knowledge in future
		T	Teacher assigns next activity
5	Evaluating behaviour/work/effort	M	Teacher comments on quality/accuracy/effort of student action/work
		O	Teacher gives brief affective statement (good/nice)/praise
		EE	Teacher summarises and checks student's answer
6	Directing student towards action	U	Teacher prompts student to start/continue/finish work or get them to focus/refocus
		P	Teacher directs students to do something
7	Talking personally with student (emotional, social, checking in)	S	Teacher asks student how they're going (opening statement, checking in)
		V	Teacher engages in emotional talk (e.g., "Are you okay?")
		W	Teacher engages in social talk (not task-related)
		GG	Teacher explains why student has to do something
8	Providing the answer	BB	Teacher provides answer/solution

As Wertsch (1994) noted, a researcher may encounter many points of interest and must decide where interpretation should end. The analyses of artefacts, survey data, interview data and observational data were brought together to provide insight into "teachers' enactment of classroom assessment for students with disability in a mainstream secondary classroom", which was the case under investigation. Merriam (1988) described data collection and analysis as "an ongoing process that can extend indefinitely. There is almost always another person who could be interviewed, another observation that could be conducted" (p. 125). Despite this, and perhaps more importantly because of this, the interpretations gleaned from interview data, survey data, observational data and artefacts in this study need to adhere to standards of validity and ethics.

Design Validity and Reliability

Traditionally, standards of research design validity and reliability focused on whether outcomes could be attributed to identified causes (internal validity), whether findings could be generalised to other settings (external validity) and whether findings could be replicated in similar situations (reliability; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1988). These notions of validity and reliability reflect a positivistic perspective on knowledge and the assumption that one reality exists. As Lincoln and Guba (1985) stated, "criteria defined from one perspective may not be appropriate for judging actions taken from another perspective" (p. 293). Since this study assumed the existence of multiple realities, what was actually observed through surveys, interviews and video observations were "people's constructions of reality, how they understand the world" (Merriam, 1988, p. 167). Since multiple people participated, this resulted in the existence of multiple realities. Internal validity should reflect this by addressing whether this study has appropriately captured how the participants constructed their reality.

Internal validity can be strengthened by engaging in triangulation of data; the use of multiple data collection methods and multiple sources to investigate the same

phenomenon (Merriam, 1988). This study aimed to investigate how teachers enabled students with disability to engage with classroom assessment and gathered the perspectives of teachers, students with disability, their parents and the HoSE on how this support was intended and enacted in the community of practice. These different sources contributed to triangulation of data, as did the multiple data collection methods: survey data, interview data and observation data all contributed to constructing an understanding of this phenomenon through consideration of individual and collective sources. Since the position of the researcher cannot be ignored, internal validity can further be strengthened by conducting member checks and peer examination. Member checks were conducted through email, when the teachers or HoSE were asked clarifying questions about assessment procedures (for example, Ms Naomi was asked whether any support provisions were marked on the focus students' assessment task sheets), or in person, when the HoSE was interviewed a second time to clarify the intended provision of support for focus students. Peer examination took place when coding and findings were discussed between the researcher and PhD supervisors, to ensure that the researcher's construction of reality closely resembled that of the participants. Another strategy to strengthen internal validity in case study research is by addressing researcher bias; as the researcher assumed a relativist ontology and subjectivist epistemology, this study was conducted assuming there was not one fixed reality and that participants and researcher co-constructed knowledge.

Upholding external validity in its traditional meaning is difficult, if not impossible, in qualitative case studies, as the unique experiences of participants in the unique situations that were observed cannot be generalised to other situations. Instead, the onus is on the reader: Stake (1978) posited the notion of naturalistic generalisation, where people obtain in-depth and extensive knowledge of the investigated phenomenon so that they are able to use this knowledge to find similarities in different settings. Similarly, Walker (1980) and Wilson (1979, as cited in Merriam, 1988) suggested the reader, who is familiar with a new context,

should decide whether or not the findings apply to that new context. Becker (2014) argued that case studies can highlight "social processes and the details for social organization that produce them" (p. 5), further underscoring possibilities for generalisability. By providing readers with a rich description of the investigated case, unit and participants, researchers can ensure this generalisability can be recognised (Merriam, 1988). This study has drawn on participants' interactions and actions in the classroom to provide this rich description. By using their own words, the participants' own constructions of reality were represented, as evidenced through the inclusion of many talk segments in the thesis. Further, by using transcribed teacher dialogue during classroom observations, teacher practices further related to how teachers co-constructed their reality with the students they interact with.

Another way to ensure generalisation can be recognised by readers is by describing how the situation under investigation relates to other situations. Naturally, the participating teachers in this study did not represent all Year 7 English and mathematics teachers and the three focus students did not represent all Year 7 students with SLI or ASD. However, since data were collected at a mainstream government school, aspects such as policies and procedures relating to inclusive education, funding and associated organisation of support likely reflect those of other mainstream government schools as well. Although each student is different, students with SLI or ASD can share similar characteristics that may impact their learning in a similar way. By describing the practices of two teachers from different disciplines, the scope of the study was widened. Although a true cross-case analysis would allow for better generalisability, the focus on two teachers addressed some of the commonalities that exist between different classrooms.

Reliability is also difficult to establish when a traditional assumption is followed; since this study acknowledged that participants co-constructed their understanding of reality with other people and using the sociocultural and historical boundaries of the setting in which they did so, attempts at replicating the study could never represent the exact same

constructions of knowledge. However, Merriam (1988) stated that researchers should aim for "dependable" (p. 172) findings and convince readers that their findings seem sensible given the data that were collected. Dependability can also be established by triangulation and a clear stance on the investigator's position. Both these issues have been discussed above. Dependability can further be strengthened by leaving an "audit trail" (Merriam, 1988, p. 172): by describing the data collection process, coding and other analytical decisions in an accurate and detailed manner, readers can follow the researcher's journey towards the findings (Merriam, 1988). The data analysis section as discussed in this chapter aimed to provide this level of detail by outlining the choice of data collection methods and taking the reader through the development of initial and final codes and categories. Findings are, where possible, represented in the participants' own words through the use of talk segments from interviews and classroom interactions.

Ethics

Ethics approval was granted for this study by the Australian Catholic University Human Research Ethics Committee (approval number 2017-160H) and the Queensland Department of Education and Training (see Appendix 3). Ethics approval was also granted for the pilot study to trial the video cameras by the Australian Catholic University Human Research Ethics Committee (approval number 2017-249H; Appendix 3). The study was conducted according to the ethics principles set out in the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research 2007 (updated 2018; National Health and Medical Research Council, Australian Research Council, & Universities Australia, 2018). The study received ethical clearance for Australian Catholic University's "more than low risk" protocol, based on the inclusion of participants who might have a cognitive impairment, an intellectual disability or a mental illness (Appendix 4). The study also received clearance from the Queensland Department of Education to conduct research in state schools (Appendix 5).

The study was set in one educational context. Therefore, consent was obtained at school system level, school principal level, teacher level, parent level, and student level. All classroom students returned their consent forms; one student who did not consent to be visible on video was—in consultation between the student and teacher—placed outside camera range. Students with disability were selected from participants in the ACAP study, who in turn were selected in collaboration with classroom teachers based on their inclusion in reports to the NCCD. Access to these reports was not granted by the Queensland Department of Education, as it was deemed peripheral to the study. Although the focus students in this study achieved at grade level, it is acknowledged that they may be more susceptible to discomfort or distress as a result of participating in a project based on their disability. For instance, the parents of Seth and Charlie were very clear in their wish for Seth and Charlie to be addressed as having "individual needs" rather than a disability, as they did not emphasise to their children that they had a disability. They further requested for Seth and Charlie to not be openly addressed in the classroom as research participants through interaction or by focusing a camera or microphone on them. Reflexivity was therefore important (Berger, 2015; Pillow, 2003). Reflexivity has been described as "the process of a continual internal dialogue and critical self-evaluation of [a] researcher's positionality as well as active acknowledgement and explicit recognition that this position may affect the research process and outcome" (Berger, 2015, p. 220). Acknowledging the researcher's positionality and the effect this may have on study participants, data collection and data analysis aligned with the subjectivist epistemology that this study adopted. Reflexivity further positioned the researcher as "non-exploitative and compassionate toward the research subjects" (Pillow, 2003, p. 178), which meant that actions were taken to limit the effect this study had on participants.

The researcher tried to minimise the impact of the research gaze on the focus students as research participants with disability. First, this was done by placing microphones that were not turned on across the classroom, so the lapel microphone near one of the focus

students' desks did not attract special attention from peers. Second, it was decided not to attach a lapel microphone to the focus students that would have enabled capture of their interactions with teachers and support staff, as this would have identified them as participants in this study and potentially changed their perception of themselves. Third, the video cameras were pointed towards the entire class and not specifically to the area in class where the focus students were seated.

As researchers need to consider the agency of children with disability and become aware of the way these children have accepted (or have not accepted) the researcher being a temporary part of their school experience, the researcher further spent some weeks in the students' classroom prior to the commencement of the study, so the students could become familiar with her presence (see Table 3.5). The researcher also communicated with the students' parents about the individual interviews and provided the interview questions beforehand. During interviews, the students were subsequently not asked about their disability, nor was the fact that they were diagnosed with a disability and received additional support acknowledged, if they did not bring it up themselves.

Another ethical consideration concerns the role of the researcher in data collection and analysis. As the researcher was "the primary instrument for data collection" (Merriam, 1988, p. 182), the data are by default coloured by the researcher's judgement: the researcher decided what data to collect and not to collect. Some data were considered by the researcher to be irrelevant to the themes that had become evident through data analysis and therefore not worthy of further analysis, whereas other data were deemed important and therefore focused on more throughout the research process. This presented a risk, as the researcher may have consciously or subconsciously omitted data from collection or analyses that contradicted a certain perspective the researcher may hold. In this study, reflexivity was further applied through discussions with supervisors throughout data collection and data analyses to reflect on potential bias and maintain a consistent focus on the actual practices of

teachers in interaction with the students. Throughout the written report of findings inferences were made cautiously, acknowledging potential missing information or misinterpretation.

The following chapter presents the context of the case under examination in the study, including inclusive education policy frameworks and a description of the school's organisation of education. The chapter also presents a description of the participants of the study.

Chapter 4: Context of the Case: Summerfield High School

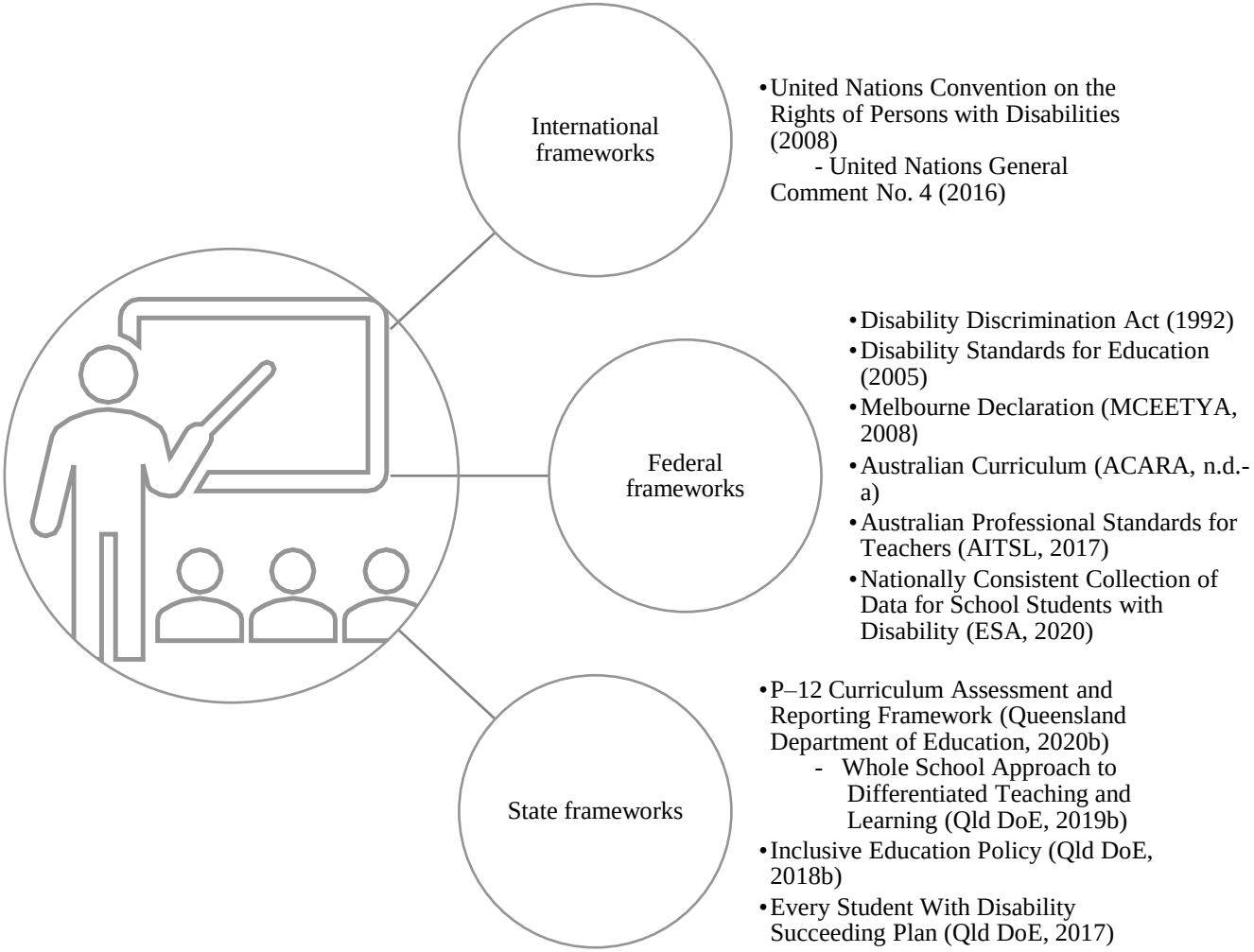
This chapter discusses the context of the case under examination in the study as this is situated within and informed by international, federal and state inclusive education policies. To examine how teachers enabled students with disability to engage with classroom assessment, the school context, and their organisation of education and support needs to be investigated within these overarching and informing policies. This chapter is based on school policy documents, classroom observation data and interview data with the focus students, classroom teachers and the HoSE. The chapter first outlines the inclusive education policy context framing Summerfield High School's (hereafter: Summerfield) organisation of education and support. Second, the chapter describes the organisational structure of Summerfield including the agencies of support at the school. Third, the chapter presents the participants of the study: Ms Naomi, Ms Daisy, Harry, Seth and Charlie.

Policy Context: Inclusive Education Policy Frameworks

Summerfield is a mainstream government school in metropolitan South East Queensland, as noted in Chapter 3. This means that the school is bound by international, federal and state policies relating to inclusive education, as described in Chapters 1 and 2. As shown in Figure 4.1, the school's operation is further framed by several federal and state-based legislation and policy frameworks regarding education in general and for students with disability. While these frameworks represent the official boundaries that shape education at Summerfield, differences have been observed in the enactment of these frameworks, as noted in Chapter 2. For example, despite an emphasis on education on the basis of equal opportunity for students with and without disability (UNCRPD, 2008), a Commonwealth of Australia (2016) report concluded that students with disability recorded lower education outcomes and were less likely to finish Year 12 than students without disability.

Figure 4.1

International, Federal and State Legislation and Policy Frameworks Informing Inclusive Education at Summerfield High School



As noted in Chapters 1 and 2, the international and federal frameworks as shown in Figure 4.1 define internationally-accepted parameters of inclusive education and stipulate the right for all students to an inclusive education without discrimination and with reasonable adjustments to curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment when required (DDA, 1992; DSE, 2005; UNCRPD, 2008; UNGC4, 2016). These adjustments are recorded in the NCCD (ESA, 2020), which informs education funding that State and Territory Departments of Education receive from the Commonwealth, in order to be passed on to schools. However, as noted in Chapter 2, the amount of NCCD funding that is provided to a school is not published (Commonwealth of Australia, 2019). Federal frameworks further state that the same high expectations for educational outcomes should be held for students with disability (Melbourne Declaration; MCEETYA, 2008), with the APST (AITSL, 2017) prescribing differentiated teaching to suit learning needs of a diverse student population and implement strategies to enable full participation of students with disability while teachers engage with the Australian Curriculum (ACARA, n.d.-b).

In Queensland, the P–12 Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Framework (Qld DoE, 2020b) "specifies the curriculum, assessment and reporting requirements for all Queensland state schools' principals and staff delivering the curriculum from Prep to Year 12" (p. 1). Part of these requirements is the obligation to differentiate teaching and learning for all students (*Whole School Approach to Differentiated Teaching and Learning*; Qld DoE, 2019b). These requirements are further framed by inclusion policy frameworks such as the Inclusive Education Policy (Qld DoE, 2018b), which strongly aligns with GC4 to the CRPD (UNGC4, 2016) in its definition of what inclusion entails. This policy supports earlier policy frameworks, including the *Every Student with Disability Succeeding Plan* (Qld DoE, 2017) which provides guidance and support to schools to "lift learning outcomes" (p. 1) and improve the scores of students with disability on the A to E reporting framework.

Overall, legislation and policy establish expectations that the diversity of students will be recognised, with schools, teaching and related activities to be accessible to students with disability and differentiated to support them. Funding and other supports should be available to assist such differentiation. The expectation, as noted in policy, is that all students will succeed. The implicit expectation may be that such success will be optimal; although the term "optimal" demonstration of learning is not formalised through the DDA (1992) or DSE (2005), as noted in Chapter 2, the Melbourne Declaration's goal of promoting equity and excellence in Australian schooling (MCEETYA, 2008) implies that all students should be able to access and optimally demonstrate learning. Further, the Queensland Government's aim to "improve the A–E performance for students with disability" (Qld DoE, 2017, p. 2) also indicates such a commitment. While teachers at Summerfield were bound by the same international, federal and state legislation and policy frameworks as teachers at other government schools, the Summerfield teachers' response to policy is understood as negotiated practice using context-specific resources, such as school procedures and organisational and social structures, that are recognised practices of the school (Daniels, 2013).

Organisational Structure at Summerfield High School

Enabling features of inclusion and inclusive assessment, as identified in Chapter 2, incorporate school cultures where staff share a common understanding of inclusion (UNGC4, 2016) and inclusive assessment, and participate and collaborate to implement these values (Watkins, 2007). Examination of the school's organisational structure was therefore undertaken to investigate how the school's organisation of support shaped the way in which students with disability were supported to engage with classroom assessment. The organisational structure identified through analysis of the school website and interview data shows that educators at the school can belong concurrently to multiple groups, such as to the entire school community, a subject or curriculum area department, a Year level, or a support agency. The presence of multiple groups at the school brings to the fore the need for

communication and collaboration between members of those groups to ensure shared understandings of inclusive assessment practice are developed. As indicated in Chapter 3, the study adopts the analytical lens of a community of practice, which includes members of those groups at the school who worked with students with disability, and explores the characteristics associated with such a community—including mutual engagement, a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998)—to establish if and how members of these groups worked to support inclusive assessment practice.

The school's website states that the school is led by an executive team consisting of the principal, three deputy principals and a business manager. Evidence of a supportive structure for both staff and students, reflective of a whole-school inclusive approach (Qld DoE, 2018b), is seen through the website's descriptions of school leadership roles. Across Year levels, the Heads of Department (HOD) assume leadership roles, with oversight of teaching staff within a subject area. Across the school, Year Level Coordinators support students at a certain Year level and, in the case of Year 7, help students "adjust to the high school setting" (School website, n.p.). A Head of Junior Secondary School and a Head of Senior Secondary School support Year Level Coordinators. To adhere to policy frameworks for students with disability (e.g., Queensland Department of Education, 2017, 2018), support for learning for students with disability, according to the school's website, is provided through the Special Education Program (SEP) and through Literacy and Numeracy Intervention (LANI). Support is also provided for students with English as an additional language or dialect and high achieving students. The availability of a Guidance Officer, Chaplain[15] and youth health nurse further provide support for student wellbeing. Students with disability have access to all these services but analyses of interview data revealed that their education is co-ordinated through the SEP and/or LANI.

[15] Chaplain programs are funded by the Australian Government and aim to support the wellbeing of students and the school community through pastoral care (Australian Government Department of Education, 2020b).

The SEP provides support through a team that includes the Head of Special Education (HoSE), SEP teachers (qualified teachers who work within the SEP and take on additional duties as case managers), and TAs. The HoSE indicated that this team-based approach was established to manage a large number of students in the SEP, using a limited number of SEP staff who have expertise in different subjects. The HoSE stated,

> Why don't we just call it a team, you know, and that way they could divide up their expertise, rather than Sally having just responsibility for Year 10 then having to perhaps go into a Maths classroom where she wasn't really comfortable. (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 274–278)

The HoSE's use of "divide up their expertise" positioned the SEP staff as a "team" who together shared responsibility to support students with disability by the opportunity to distribute expertise (Edwards & Kinti, 2009). The latter implies the use of cultural artefacts that are "loaded with intelligence" (Edwards & Kinti, 2009, p. 128), such as disability-specific knowledge, that can be held by some members of the team and mutually negotiated and used by other members. Although a team has been associated with a community of practice (Wenger, 1998), the use of the phrase "SEP team" throughout this thesis does not imply a community of practice as defined by Lave and Wenger (1991), as the study did not seek to analyse whether the functioning of the SEP team established a separate community of practice. Rather, the study examined how the collaboration between SEP and classroom teachers influenced the formation of a CoIAP, to support students with disability engage with classroom assessment. This will be discussed further in Chapters 5 and 8.

The analysis of the interview data (as described in Chapter 3) further showed that the SEP mainly addressed the educational requirements of students with *verified* disability. As noted in Chapter 2, students with medically diagnosed disabilities in the areas of ASD, hearing impairment, intellectual disability, physical impairment, SLI and vision impairment can receive a verification—accompanied by state funding—if they require

significant education adjustments as per the Educational Adjustment Program (EAP) guidelines (Qld DoE, 2020a). In interview, the HoSE indicated that the SEP focused predominantly on students with a verified disability under the EAP, showing that the SEP largely supported only those students who attracted additional disability funding through their verified disability status.

The school's LANI staff consisted of a coordinator—a combined management and teaching role rather than a fulltime position— as well as teachers and TAs. The HoSE identified that LANI predominantly supported students without verified disabilities but also supported some students from the SEP, thereby indicating both complementary and overlapping roles in the school's staff organisation (Wenger, 1998). This overlap is further illustrated by the HoSE's description of how LANI support was intended for students who needed help within the broad areas of literacy and numeracy, who may, for example, experience difficulties relating to working memory, organising information, understanding of verbal and written language, and mathematical problem solving (Interview, 13 July 2018). These characteristics correspond with those of students with DLD and ASD, like the focus students, who were supported through the SEP.

The school's organisational structure reflects how agencies within the school were utilised to support the education of students with disability. The SEP's provision of support predominantly to students with verified disability—and LANI's support predominantly for students without a verification—highlight the influence of disability funding for students with verified disability on the provision of support for students with disability at Summerfield. This influence will be further analysed in Chapter 5, together with the intended and enacted provision of support through SEP and LANI, as evident in interview and observation data.

Participant Descriptions

This study focused on three focus students with disability, Harry, Seth and Charlie, across English and mathematics and looked at how two of their teachers, Ms Naomi and Ms Daisy, enabled their engagement with classroom assessment. The following teacher and student profiles are based on classroom observations, interview data with the focus students, Ms Naomi, Ms Daisy, and the Head of Special Education (HoSE), and survey data completed by the focus students, their parents and Ms Naomi and Ms Daisy.

Teacher Participants

Ms Naomi (English)

At the time of the study, Ms Naomi was an English and History teacher between 35 and 44 years old, who had 15 years of experience teaching in secondary education, of which four years were at Summerfield. She taught the focus students English four times each week during 70-minute lessons in a designated classroom permanently assigned to her. During interview and informal conversation, Ms Naomi presented as confident, readily sharing her views on teaching students with disability and school management processes relating to inclusive education (as discussed in Chapters 5 and 6).

Ms Naomi stated that she had an historical relationship with inclusive education from a previous teaching experience. She had previously taught in a low socio-economic setting (Riverfield High School, hereafter: Riverfield) for eight years, where she was responsible for planning and resourcing differentiated teaching for students with disability in her class without the help of support staff. This experience shaped her current practices of teaching a diverse student population:

> All of my PD [professional development] for SEP students comes from my time teaching in [Riverfield]. … The expectation there was "we don't have money for teacher aides, you have to do it all and you *have* [emphasis added by Ms Naomi] to do it all" and the principal would check … she wanted to see differentiation in your

> planning, so that you could open up your folder and say, "these are the worksheets I give the kids" or "this is the adjusted assessment", so I never had a team to work with. And that was the first time I'd done anything like that but it prepared me for … coming here. (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 416–440)

Although Ms Naomi reported her teaching experience in Riverfield to be challenging at times, she stated that it had "made me who I am" (Interview, 29 June 2018, line 488). This practice of being prepared also became evident in Ms Naomi's comments about teaching at Summerfield, stating that she prepared her lesson planning, including differentiated activities, well in advance.

Ms Naomi's responses on the TUDSE and the TAII (see Chapter 3) indicated that she did not feel well-prepared and only moderately skilled to develop adjustments for classroom assessments for students with diverse needs. However, her experience at Riverfield shaped her self-reported sense of responsibility for supporting students with disability. Ms Naomi's interview data indicated a perception of herself as an expert in doing so. She stated "none of [the SEP team] know the kids as well as I do" and that she did not "want anyone working with [Seth and Charlie] except for me, because I know … what they're capable of" (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 200–203). Her interview data further indicated that her perceived status as an expert on students with disability was shared by others, with the students' case manager "contact[ing] me [Ms Naomi] to … ask questions about the kids" (Interview, 29 June 2018, line 256).

Ms Daisy (Mathematics)

At the time of the study, Ms Daisy was a secondary Mathematics and Science teacher between 25 and 34 years old, with two years' experience, both at Summerfield. She taught mathematics to the focus students four times per week during 70-minute lessons in different classrooms that were used by other teachers as well. During interview and informal conversation, Ms Daisy presented as less confident than Ms Naomi. Through her interview,

Ms Daisy presented as a teacher who was critical of her own practice and believed she could, and needed to, improve. During informal conversations, Ms Daisy indicated she would compare herself with Ms Naomi and that she felt "like a failure" (13 June 2018, field notes) in comparison. During data collection, she told the researcher "I feel like I need to apologise for every lesson to you" (13 June 2018, field notes), indicating self-criticism of her teaching practices.

Although Ms Daisy could articulate how she provided support to the focus students (as discussed in Chapter 7), she was also quick to point out where she considered improvement on her behalf was necessary. However, she expressed that she had improved on managing student behaviour by learning from one SEP teacher aide, whose strategies to interact with students in the SEP helped Ms Daisy to manage the students' behaviour better.

Ms Daisy expressed her dissatisfaction with the unit outline for the first semester of Year 7 mathematics (which was not the focus of this study), stating that she had voluntarily rewritten the sequencing of taught content to improve this for the next year. She further criticised the use of complex verbs in the mathematics test as prescribed by the Head of Department as she did not think students would fully understand their meaning. This dissatisfaction with mathematics assessment task design indicates an assessment identity (Looney et al., 2017) in which Ms Daisy was enacting some prescribed assessment practices that did not align with her beliefs of quality assessment design.

Student Participants

Harry

Harry was 12 years and 2 months old at the time of the study. While a number of impacts of his disability were described, such as anxiety related to new situations and assessment, and low self-confidence, he was reported to have a verified diagnosis in the category of ASD. This verification attracted specific disability-funding to the school (see Chapter 5). ASD can be described as a "complex developmental condition that

involves persistent challenges in social interaction, speech and nonverbal communication, and restricted/repetitive behaviors" (American Psychiatric Association, 2020, para. 1). As ASD is a spectrum disorder, students may demonstrate characteristics to differing degrees. Ravet's (2013) overview of characteristics, based on the Scottish Autism Toolbox (Autism Toolbox Working Group, 2019) and work by Frith (2003), identified four characteristics related to ASD.

- Communication

  Students with ASD may have difficulty interpreting facial expressions and with receptive communication, which impacts on their ability to process long instructions (Ravet, 2013).

- Social understanding

  Limited development of *theory of mind* means that students with ASD may have reduced insight into other people's intentions and feelings. They may also have difficulty understanding rules, engage in group work, and learning by observing others (Ravet, 2013).

- Flexibility of thought and behaviour

  This component includes aspects related to executive functioning, such as repetitive thinking and behaviour, and reduced working memory (Leung et al., 2016). This component also includes weak central coherence. Happé and Frith (2006) described weak central coherence as a "detail-focussed processing style" (p. 5), which means that students with ASD may struggle to understand big ideas but focus on little elements instead. Ravet (2013) further identified issues relating to stopping and starting, and transferring knowledge.

- Sensory issues

  This relates to aspects in the environment that can cause stress and/or anxiety, such as certain sounds, smells or lighting (Autism Toolbox Working Group, 2019).

A fifth characteristic evident in the literature relates to limited self-advocacy skills of students with ASD (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Zuber & Webber, 2019). While this area is under-researched, Zuber and Webber (2019) suggested "it is possible for the educator to develop better teaching and learning strategies when the student is able to articulate themselves by describing their challenges, wants and needs" (p. 107), indicating a need for such skills to be purposefully addressed and developed.

Relevant to this study, communication issues and limited working memory of students with ASD impact on teachers' assessment practice. A European report (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2015) as well as research literature recommended that teachers should address both cognitive and socio-emotional characteristics of ASD. For example, questions should be precise, visual cues should be provided and feedback should be affirmative (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2015; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011; Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019). The last is consistent with the notion of reinforcement as an evidence-based practice for students with ASD (National Autism Center, 2009; Wong et al., 2015). Similarly, an Australian study surveying educators, parents and specialists, identified the social emotional requirements of students with autism as "having the most impact and requiring the highest levels of support, assistance, adjustment or accommodations in educational settings" (Saggers et al., 2016, p. 2), and academic and learning requirements were identified as having the lowest impact.

Harry attended all classes with his similar-aged peers in a mainstream setting except Japanese. Instead of Japanese, he attended a numeracy booster class. In all other classes, Harry received support from SEP support staff. Harry presented as a student who was aware of his characteristics and their impact on his learning. During the interview, he appeared comfortable to talk about the anxiety he experienced, for example when he missed his parents during a recent school camp. Harry did not appear nervous during the interview; he talked extensively and was articulate. Classroom observations—which preceded the

interview—indicated Harry as a quiet student who did not ask any questions in the classroom context. Harry was observed to be engaged with two peers whom he would join if students could form their own groups during group work. Harry was not observed to freely engage with any other students in the English or mathematics classes. Harry indicated he could focus better if he was separated from his friends, which was largely reflected in the seating plans that were enacted in both classrooms.

As reported by Harry and his parents in survey data, Harry experienced difficulty processing verbal instructions. This meant that Harry was not always aware what teachers expected of him. During his interview, Harry explained that teachers use clear words, but that they are not clear to him. Although he stated that he would ask for clarification, this was not observed during this study. The HoSE described Harry as someone who does not "stick up for himself and express himself", leading to him "wasting time, doing busy work, looking like he's on track but [may] not be" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 837–838). The HoSE's use of the statement "[does not] stick up for himself" aligns with Harry's observed lack of asking questions, and is compatible with reported limited self-advocacy skills of students with ASD (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Zuber & Webber, 2019). The teachers or HoSE did not report on Harry's difficulty processing instructions, although Ms Naomi stated that Harry could work independently if instructions were explicit and Harry understood them. Harry's parents further reported that Harry experienced difficulty with handwriting due to limited fine motor skills. This was not reported by Harry's teachers or the HoSE but is a commonly-reported difficulty for students with autism (Saggers et al., 2016).

Harry's anxiety related to new situations, new lesson content and assessment, as reported through teacher and parent survey data and confirmed through the HoSE's interview data. For example, when the researcher arrived at the room for Harry's individual interview, he was observed to be engaged in conversation with a support person to alleviate his anxiety over a planned sports day the following day. Harry further stated in interview he

could get scared about not completing assessments on time, with the HoSE describing how Harry may experience "fear of even the fact that it's called assessment" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 802–803). Harry's self-reported low self-confidence toward his learning and understanding (SR), was echoed by Ms Naomi's observation that Harry was "sometimes hesitant in completing activities or answering questions in case he is wrong" (TDSP).

Harry partly mitigated his social-emotional difficulties by engaging in conversation with a support person, as observed prior to his interview. The HoSE further recommended deconstruction of assessment tasks:

> So perhaps Ms Naomi or Ms Daisy could look at the task, what is it actually asking you, where are you going to start, what does it mean, talk through, read it, unpack his understanding of it so he knows what he's doing. (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 770–773)

The HoSE further suggested that checklists would be helpful for Harry, so the task was broken down and he could track his progress. This would address Harry's weak central coherence, as his parents reported his detail-oriented thinking style (PRCC). The HoSE's observation of Harry aligns with research findings by Saggers et al. (2016), whose survey of students with autism identified that planning for assignments was the most difficult activity. The HoSE also suggested that the provision of extra time during assessments would benefit Harry. Anxiety impacted on Harry's learning when he would withdraw and not engage with lesson activities or the assessment task. This behaviour reflected the HoSE's earlier comment on Harry "doing busy work".

Harry and his parents expressed their wish for materials to be explained better, with Harry stating a TA could explain questions to him, or questions could be written differently so that they are "easier for me to understand" (SR). This aligns with comments from Harry's parents, who would like assessments to be written so that they were easier to comprehend.

Seth and Charlie

Seth and Charlie are identical twin brothers, who were 12 years and 8 months old at the time of the study. Although they are two individual students with differing opinions, the similarities in their characteristics as well as how they were spoken about by their teachers, parents, HoSE and themselves (i.e., using terms such as “the boys” or “me and my brother”), resulted in them being described together in this section. While different impacts of their disability on their learning were described, such as requirements for confirmation and prompting, both Seth and Charlie had a verified diagnosis in the category of SLI. The diagnosis of SLI is given in the Queensland Education Adjustment Program when there is a severe and ongoing speech and/or language disorder characterised by “an impairment of the structures and functions specific to speech–language processing” (Qld DoE, 2019a, para. 1). In an attempt to end confusion around the use of terms such as, for example, speech–language impairment, specific language impairment, or language learning impairment, Bishop et al., (2016) provided the overarching term of developmental language disorder (DLD). Therefore, although the funding category is defined as SLI, Seth and Charlie’s diagnosis aligns with DLD. Bishop et al. (2017) discussed many characteristics of DLD, of which the following are relevant for the context of this study:

- Syntax

  DLD can impact on students’ ability to correctly use grammar to construct sentences verbally or in writing (Bishop et al., 2017; Graham & Tancredi, 2019).

- Word finding

  Students with DLD may know words without being able to remember their name (Bishop et al., 2017).

- Semantics

  DLD can impact on students’ knowledge of the meaning of words, resulting in a limited vocabulary at their disposal (Bishop et al., 2017)

- Pragmatics

  Understanding how language is used to convey meaning across different contexts can be difficult for students with DLD. The impact of these difficulties resembles characteristics of students with ASD, as it can lead to unawareness of social cues during conversation, conversation with little or too much detail, understanding language literally, and difficulty understanding figurative speech (Bishop et al., 2017).

- Discourse

  Students with DLD can have difficulty understanding and contributing to different language types, including conversational language (Bishop et al., 2017; Graham & Tancredi, 2019).

- Verbal learning and memory

  Bishop et al. (2017) stated that students with DLD have "problems in retaining sequences of sounds or words over a short delay", or restricted "verbal short-term memory" (p. 1074). Similar to students with ASD, students with DLD can experience difficulty processing verbal instructions.

Graham et al. (2018) stated that while students with DLD have average non-verbal cognitive skills, the large role that language plays in higher-order cognitive tasks (e.g., synthesising big ideas from a text) means that DLD impacts on these students' learning and engagement with assessment. Therefore, teachers should provide clear and short instructions, with the use of visuals to reduce the need to rely on verbal short-term memory. Technology can further be used to mitigate difficulty with spelling and comprehension (Qld DoE, personal communication, June 18, 2018a).

As noted in Chapter 2, at the time of the study, Queensland used a system of verification of disability to determine disability funding, where schools receive more money if students with disability are *verified*, meaning that their disability falls under one of five

categories, is medically diagnosed and that a certain level of adjustments have been recorded for them. Charlie's verified diagnosis was reviewed during this study through language tests and reporting on adjustments that were made for him. The outcome of the review, which became known to the school after classroom observations had been completed, was that he no longer met the Qld DoE criteria for a verification of SLI. This resulted in less disability funding for the school (see Chapter 5). However, the HoSE stated that his requirements had not changed, "for anyone to have been that low at any stage, to have received a verification, there is still obviously something going on and the speech language pathologist said [there is] still a definite language disorder" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 123–125). This meant that Charlie still displayed the characteristics that required additional support, which the HoSE indicated would be provided by LANI instead of the SEP.

Seth and Charlie presented as calm and engaged students, who asked many questions in class and generally did not engage with their peers. Like Harry, they attended all classes with their similar-aged peers, except Japanese. Instead of Japanese, Seth attended a literacy booster class and Charlie attended a tutorial class that was organised by the SEP (see Chapter 5). During class group work activities, Seth and Charlie were not observed to take initiative to move into a group (they remained seated until the teacher prompted them to join the rest of their group) or when they had to form groups themselves. For the latter, they would either form their own group together, or, if that was not allowed, remain seated until a TA assigned them to groups. Their co-dependency was further evidenced during their joint interview, when they often answered questions for one another, or finished each other's sentences. They appeared to be comfortable during the interview, talking enthusiastically and sharing information even when it was not prompted by interview questions.

Interview data and survey responses of Seth and Charlie indicated that they were aware that they had literacy-related difficulties, both stating they experienced trouble with spelling words and understanding sentences. However, they indicated they did not like

being treated differently, and Seth did not want his peers to know that he had issues with spelling words. Their parents further emphasised to the researcher that Seth and Charlie had not been made aware that they had a diagnosed disability but understood that they had "a few difficulties with spelling, reading and understanding some sentences" (personal communication, 18 June 2018). These literacy difficulties affected their ability to engage with instructions, leading Ms Daisy to suggest that this impacted on their engagement with the curriculum. Both students struggled with expressing themselves to teachers—to indicate a misunderstanding—or to peers, as part of group work. A reported difference between Seth and Charlie was that Seth was described by his parents as having difficulty with listening, which meant he may miss some verbal instructions (PRCC). This was not reported for Charlie.

These characteristics impacted on Seth and Charlie's learning as they sometimes misinterpreted a task. To mitigate this, and to satisfy their need to "succeed and get it right" (HoSE, interview, 25 July 2018, line 869), Seth and Charlie's classroom behaviour was characterised by their observed need to receive constant confirmation and reassurance. Seth was observed to ask many questions, and both students would often not commence an activity until a teacher or support person had interacted with them. The HoSE illustrated this by stating that Seth and Charlie "would absolutely not be able to initiate, they would not be able to start without that structured, or one-on-one individualised 'well this is what you need to do' and they would question and re-question" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 861–864). Interview and survey data showed that both students were reluctant to proceed with a task until they were certain that they had completed the previous step. Their reliance on confirmation meant that they would not persevere, but rather erase work or disengage from the task. This was associated with the need for extra time on activities and tasks, as Ms Daisy stated that Seth may get frustrated if the lesson "moves on before he is ready" and that Charlie could find it hard to "keep up with the pace of learning in the classroom" (TDSP). The HoSE

highlighted environmental barriers that Seth and Charlie experienced, such as "the sheer amount of language in a classroom, the teacher, the writing on the board, the posters on the wall, the students, the things going on and someone else saying … have you done this?" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 874–877).

Seth and Charlie self-reported asking teachers many questions, which they stated contributed to their better grades in Year 7 compared with primary school. Although this help-seeking behaviour was observed for Seth, Charlie appeared to ask questions to a lesser degree. Seth emphasised that he preferred to receive support from the classroom teacher and was vocal in his aversion to receiving support from support staff, stating that they often did not know the answer. Both Ms Naomi and Ms Daisy stated the importance of explicit instructions and the need to check on Seth and Charlie to ensure that they understood taught lessons and persevered with their work. Ms Naomi specified that she asked Seth and Charlie targeted questions, to negotiate the fact that they had trouble expressing themselves. As a result, Ms Naomi indicated that Seth and Charlie could work independently, once they had understood the task. Ms Daisy stated that she would generally repeat instructions to Seth and Charlie, even if they indicated they had understood the instructions previously.

In addition, the HoSE emphasised that "ongoing tracking and monitoring, and reassurance and refocus of tasks at school and at home" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 783–784) was necessary to ensure academic success. This monitoring would take place between teachers and support staff, as the HoSE's interview data indicated that the speech pathologist, or other paraprofessionals, were not involved in supporting Charlie. Seth and Charlie's parents further contributed to mitigate the impact of their disability and address barriers present in their learning, as evidenced through interview data. The teachers and HoSE all commented on the high level of parent engagement for Seth and Charlie, describing frequent email contact, assistance during assessment tasks (see Chapter 7), and remedial work if one of them had missed a lesson.

Conclusion

The discussion of inclusive education policy frameworks, Summerfield's organisational structure and the profiles of Ms Naomi, Ms Daisy, Harry, Seth and Charlie provide a background to the analyses in Chapters 5, 6 and 7. Specifically, Ms Naomi's and Ms Daisy's ways of knowing and doing—and how these were shaped by sociocultural, including historical, factors—framed how they enabled these focus students to engage with classroom assessment, and how they deployed support staff while doing so. The following chapter presents the elements influencing Summerfield's organisation of education and support, in order to understand the sociocultural factors that teachers had to negotiate at a school level to provide support for students with disability to engage with classroom assessment.

Chapter 5: The Organisation of Support for Students With Disability at Summerfield High School

This chapter presents the school context for the case study. It explores how support is organised at Summerfield from the perspective of the HoSE and the teachers, based on their interview data triangulated with classroom observation data and school policy documents. The chapter provides analyses that address research sub-question 1: *What elements impact on how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment?*

Five influences have been identified that affect the provision of support for students with disability in classroom assessment at Summerfield, with each of these discussed in turn. The chapter first discusses (1) the influence of disability funding on the school's organisational structure ; (2) the school's official pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012) and the school's intended focus on Universal Design for Learning (UDL); (3) the organisation of learning support at a school level; and (4) factors determining the required provision of support. These influences are then summarised followed by a discussion of (5) classroom-level organisation of student support through the Special Education Program (SEP). This chapter thus provides the context in which teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment, which is the focus of Chapters 6 and 7.

Influence 1: Disability Funding

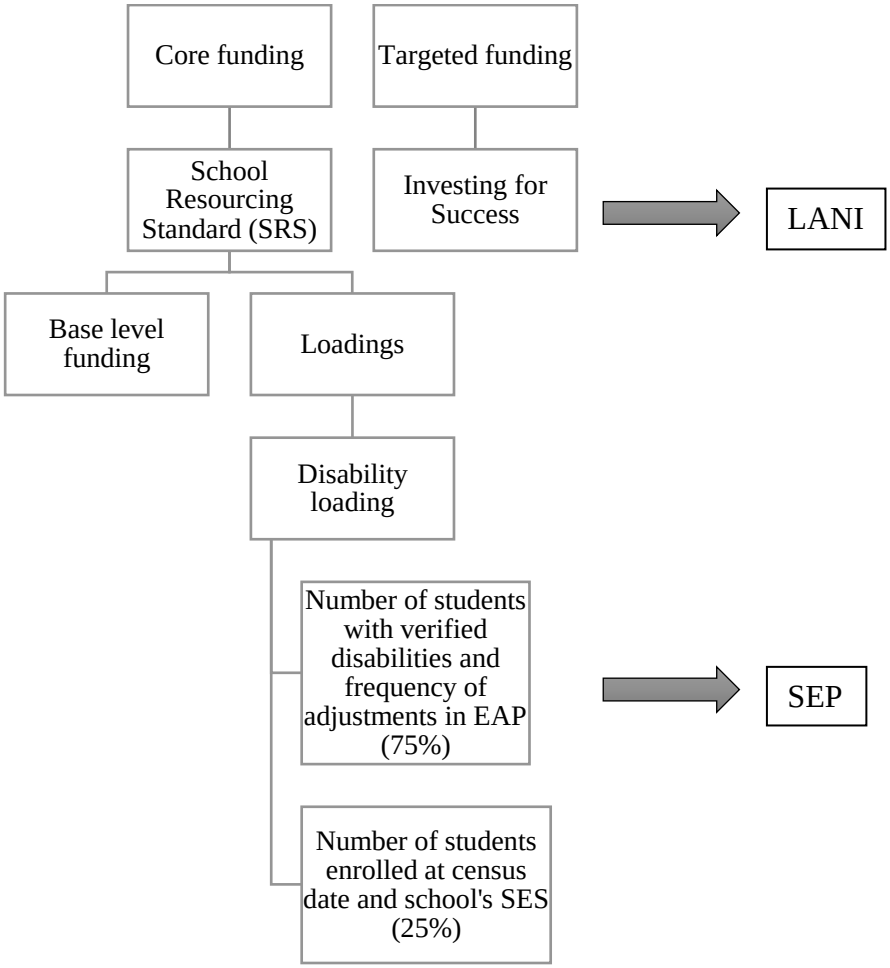
Being a government school, Summerfield provided education through the Qld DoE and received most of their funding—including disability funding and funding from the federal government for education—through this Department. Both the *allocation* (i.e., based on students with verified disability) and *nature* of this funding (i.e., the funding's currency of hours of special education teacher and TA support) represented an organisational structure that was implicitly mediated to create social structures in the school (Daniels, 2013).

First, Figure 5.1 shows that Summerfield received core funding and targeted funding from the federal government. Interview data showed that these two income streams defined the split between SEP and LANI; SEP was funded through core funding, based on students with verified disability whereas LANI was one of the school's initiatives funded through targeted funding, based on a wider range of factors, such as socio-economic status of the school population, students for whom English is an additional language, and also students with verified disability. The allocation of core funding solely to SEP indicates that disability funding not only enabled and shaped the provision of support for students with disability at Summerfield, but also the organisational structure of funding was thus mediated to shape the social structures in the school (Daniels, 2013), as it created groups to which certain students with disability and staff belonged or were aligned.

Since core funding is tied to verified diagnoses of disability, support is offered to students with verified disability on a different basis from that applied to students without a verified disability. This "categorical resource allocation method" (de Bruin et al., 2020, p. 122) to funding, where only certain diagnosed disabilities determine the allocation of resources, retains remnants of historical practices aligned with a medical model of disability (as discussed in Chapter 2), rather than a social model of disability (Sharma et al., 2019) as foregrounded in current policy documents. This practice underscores the continuing influence of funding processes on the organisation of support for students with disability, above the influence of legislation requiring support for all students with disability.

Figure 5.1

Overview of Federal Government Funding at Summerfield High School



Second, the nature of disability funding shaped support for students with disability. Funding "comes to the school in teacher aide hours and teacher hours and then we as a school distribute [the funds] based on their [students'] needs" (HoSE, interview, 13 December 2018, lines 203–206). This indicates a needs-based distribution approach at the school's discretion, with the HoSE highlighting that "nothing is specifically mandated apart from the fact that … the school must meet their needs to access education on the same basis—so the keywords being 'on the same basis'—as any other student without that disability" (Interview, 13 December 2018, lines 142–149). By providing access to education "on the same basis", the HoSE follows the social model of disability upon which the DSE (2005) is based. However, this model does not discriminate between verified and unverified disability,

stating that all students with disability should receive reasonable adjustments if required (de Bruin et al., 2020). Therefore, the school's decision to allocate core funding to employ *SEP* teachers and TAs—who support predominantly students with verified disability—bears resemblance to historical medical-based models of support for students with disability. This practice is in contrast to principles underpinning the NCCD, which emphasise the level of adjustments to determine funding, regardless of medical diagnoses. While the school's intention is to follow a social model of disability, existing practices in the organisation of support expose a tension between historical practices of fund distribution and current understandings of disability; that is, tension between a medical and social model of disability.

The inclusion of the phrase "on the same basis" in the DSE (2005, §2.2.1) has been identified as ambiguous, thus remaining open to individual interpretation (Urbis, 2015). Dickson (2014) observed that, in order to treat students with disability on the same basis as students without disability, students with disability may need to be treated differently from their peers. However, when students with verified disability are being treated differently (i.e., they receive SEP support) on the basis of their verification from students without verified disability (i.e., they receive LANI support), this may not represent treatment on the same basis as one another. Rather, they are being treated on the basis of whether their disability is medically verified for education funding purposes or not.

A consequence of the mediation of funding to create social structures at Summerfield (i.e., separated support provisions), is that students for whom a verification is removed will no longer receive learning support from SEP. For example, during this study, the school learnt—after reviewing Charlie's language assessments conducted as part of the verification renewal process—that he no longer met the benchmark required for verification of SLI. The HoSE indicated that Charlie would therefore receive support from LANI instead of SEP. She expressed her frustration over this subsequent change in funding for Charlie, as "we're still treating him as a student with quite significant language disabilities, so it is really

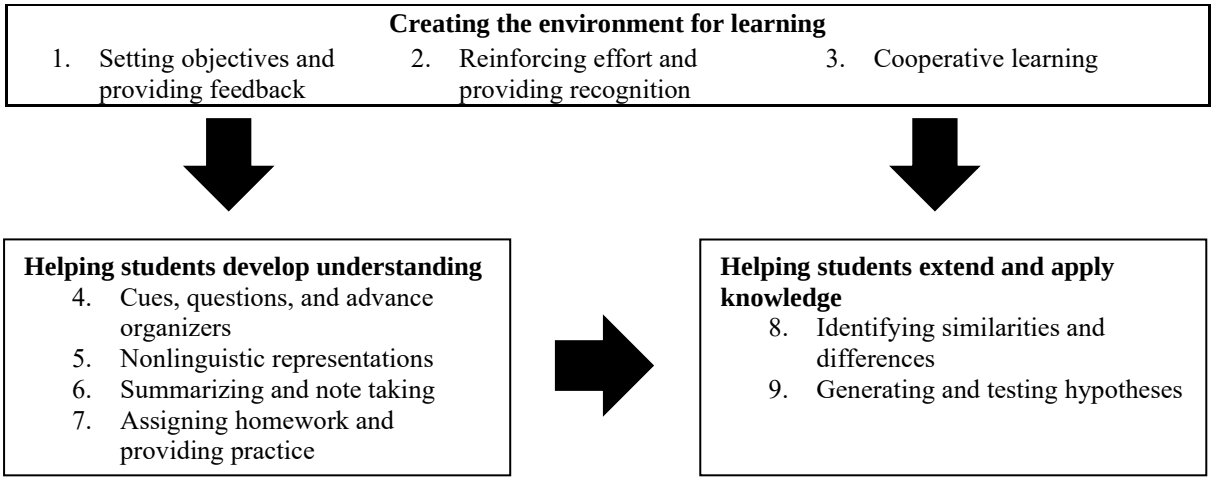
difficult" (Interview, 13 December 2018, lines 329–331). The funding model (including lack of funding) therefore determined the official support students received (i.e., support from SEP staff with disability-specific knowledge or support from LANI staff with literacy-specific knowledge), rather than the impact of a disability on students' access to teaching and learning. However, the Every Student With Disability Succeeding Plan (Qld DoE, 2017) aims to improve achievement (the A to E scores) of students with disability regardless of verification, while the DSE (2005) also does not discriminate between verified and unverified disability.

Influence 2: Pedagogical Framework

The school's official pedagogical framework establishes the intended instructional strategies upon which teachers should base their practice. In Queensland, it is compulsory for schools to specify and implement a pedagogical framework that is validated by research (Qld DoE, 2018c) and endorsed by Qld DoE. Summerfield has chosen the *Classroom Instruction That Works* (CITW; Dean et al., 2012) framework, which is based on review studies by Marzano (1998) and Beesley and Apthorp (2010). An overview of the framework, involving nine instructional strategies, is provided here to inform exploration of enacted practice across Chapters 6 and 7 (Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2

Visual Representation of Pedagogical Framework



Note. Adapted from Dean et al. (2012, p. xvi).

Staff at Summerfield were familiarised with the pedagogical framework by receiving a hard copy of the framework (i.e., Dean et al., 2012) and through ongoing mandatory professional development sessions. Data from personal communication showed that teachers were expected to "incorporate the pedagogy in our planning" (Ms Naomi, personal communication, May 27, 2019). Certain repertoires of practice were thereby officially endorsed, shaping expectations of common practices of all teachers including how they formatively interacted with students.

The following section briefly presents the nine strategies of the CITW framework (Dean et al., 2012) for consideration in terms of the school's and teachers' inclusive assessment practice. These strategies are compared with studies on DLD and ASD (Bishop et al., 2017; Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019), to determine how the strategies depicted in Figure 5.2 relate to pedagogy and assessment for students, like the focus students, with DLD and ASD. While Chapters 6 and 7 will highlight several specific strategies, all nine strategies were directly evident during classroom observations and interview data.

Summerfield's pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012) commences with a focus on classroom learning and assessment, stipulating the need to set learning objectives (strategy 1) and reinforce effort by praising specific accomplishments (strategy 2). Learning objectives should be written in a language that students understand, with teachers providing examples of high-quality work and checking for understanding to ensure students know what is needed to succeed. Feedback should relate to criteria, focus on students' next steps in learning and recognise students' effort and achievement (Dean et al., 2012). These two strategies align with features of quality assessment, which emphasise the need for teachers and students to develop a common understanding of objectives and criteria and for feedback to focus on improving student learning (ARG, 2002; Black & Wiliam, 2009; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014).

Research has identified the need for teachers to have disability-specific knowledge, i.e., knowledge of how different disabilities impact on specific students' learning, to ensure that interactions regarding learning objectives and feedback processes are effective for all students (Cumming & van der Kleij, 2016; Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019). This was not addressed by the CITW framework.

Cooperative learning (strategy 3), according to Dean et al. (2012), should involve small groups, individual accountability for each student's contribution to the group's aim, and explicit teaching of the roles and processes involved in group work. While disability-specific requirements are not explicitly addressed in the framework (Dean et al., 2012), the recommended structured approach to group work including clear roles and expectations for students aligns with recommended practice for students with DLD or ASD, as these students can experience difficulty in verbal language processing, when group members interact (Bishop et al., 2017; Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007) and may have difficulty negotiating the social context of group work (Denning & Moody, 2018; Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Ravet, 2013).

The use of inferential and analytic questioning (strategy 4; Dean et al., 2012) implies that teachers should minimise questions to which students already know the answer. While this aligns with quality, divergent, assessment practice (Torrance & Pryor, 2001), the framework does not specifically consider students with disability who may not be able to demonstrate and extend their learning this way, as noted in Chapters 2 and 3. For example, priming can prepare especially students with ASD for questioning (Denning & Moody, 2018) and questions should be short and unambiguous (Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019), using visuals to reduce the need to rely on verbal memory (Bishop et al., 2017; Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019). The use of visual imagery for instruction and learning is recommended through the CITW framework (strategy 5), and teachers are encouraged to implement graphic organisers and physical models or manipulatives. However, visual representation of questions for formative and summative purposes was not addressed in the CITW framework (Dean et al., 2012). Visual strategies not only align with UDL principles (CAST, 2019), they are also particularly helpful for students with DLD and ASD (Qld DoE, personal communication[16], June 18, 2018a, 2018b).

The CITW framework (Dean et al., 2012) further requires teachers to explicitly teach note-taking and summarising strategies to students (strategy 6) and to purposefully assign homework (strategy 7). Teachers should further engage students in activities to identify similarities and differences within and across concepts (strategy 8) and generate and test hypotheses, asking students to explain their outcome (strategy 9). These nine instructional strategies should be accompanied by explicit teaching of the associated skills to enact these strategies with support for students during individual work. This support is analysed in Chapters 6 and 7, drawing on the video-recorded classroom observation data.

[16] A list of strategies for SLI and ASD was prepared by Qld DoE and available on the school's internal shared drive. This list was provided to the researcher in a personal communication by a Summerfield school leader.

Two notable omissions were identified in the school's officially endorsed pedagogical framework. First, omission of the use of technology overall to support teaching and learning is of particular concern. While school policy documents indicate that students were encouraged to bring an iPad to school, the documents focused on electronic access to textbooks, learning planners and information stored on the school's internal drive. Electronic devices with keyboards were only explicitly recommended for students in senior secondary education. Many researchers (e.g., Forlin et al., 2013; Marino et al., 2014; Rose et al., 2005; Rose & Meyer, 2002) have shown the value of using technology to further assist students with disability through the potential for multiple means of communication and representation. For example, Marino et al. (2014) noted high engagement from students with a learning disability when they were also offered science content in the form of video games.

Second, the framework lacks explicit attention to students with disability, although Dean et al. (2012) noted that classrooms are becoming "increasingly diverse" (p. xvii) and endorse differentiation. While Dean et al. (2012) recommend that, "to be skilled conductors of instruction, teachers must intentionally select the best mix of instructional strategies to meet the diverse needs of students in their classrooms" (p. 152), they did not directly address how this could be done. Therefore, teachers may enact the pedagogical framework without adequately meeting the learning needs of all students if they lack disability-specific knowledge. Lack of accessibility of, or differentiation in, teachers' instructional strategies, could place students with disability at risk of not being able to access the knowledge and skills of a subject. Thus, the pedagogical framework does not address all elements of federal and state policy frameworks which emphasise equal access and differentiation (DSE, 2005; Qld DoE, 2018b, 2019b).

The CITW is used as a framework to interpret classroom practice as this became evident through interview data and classroom observations in Chapters 6 and 7.

Universal Design for Learning as Instructional Strategy

Interview data showed that UDL was not an official or intended policy at Summerfield in 2018, but rather a self-identified focus point for Summerfield's pedagogy for 2019, with the HoSE recommending at the end of 2018 the inclusion of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) within the school's pedagogical framework. As noted in Chapter 2, UDL is a proactive strategy to teaching, learning and assessment that considers all students in the initial stages of planning and design (Meyer et al., 2014), and layers of differentiation can be added to universally designed environments as teachers use their increasing knowledge of, for example, student characteristics and preferences (Cologon & Lassig, 2020). While UDL is recommended through legislative frameworks and government-issued reports (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016; Deloitte Access Economics, 2017; UNGC4, 2016), it is not embedded into Queensland's Inclusive Education Policy (Qld DoE, 2018b) or supporting state policy frameworks. Instead, the emphasis is on differentiation as part of quality teaching practice and a requirement as part of the NCCD (ESA, 2020) and the APST (AITSL, 2017).

The HoSE underscored the importance of UDL repeatedly during interviews, but identified that UDL practice has not yet been established at Summerfield. She stated that from 2019, with support of the principal, the school will have a strong focus on UDL:

> We're having a little bit more of a push [for UDL] next year … we are going to get some documents embedded in our teaching and learning handbook and we are going to do a session at the pupil free days. … [and] linking that in with our pedagogical framework that we already use. (Interview, 13 December 2018, lines 462–479)

To bridge the current school pedagogical practices with those of UDL, the HoSE had introduced new UDL elements into the suite of the school's official artefacts (the teaching and learning handbook and the pedagogical framework). The HoSE's indication that she had support of the principal evidences the leading roles of the HoSE and the principal in the implementation of inclusive education. This aligns with Harris et al.'s (2017) notion that

school leaders have “moral responsibility to promote equity” (p. 157), and their acknowledgement that implementing policies requires time and an opportunity for flexibility to ensure centralised policies can be adapted to a school’s local context. To this end, the HoSE made explicit links for the teachers between UDL and the pedagogical framework so that UDL will be understood, not as additional practice, but as a different lens on existing practices. Although teachers at Summerfield will receive professional development on the implementation of UDL in 2019, the HoSE expected that it would take time before implementation is school-wide: “It will be slow because they will think of it as something new and it’s not” (HoSE, 13 December 2018, lines 487–489). The HoSE’s comments above illustrate her acknowledgement of the value of UDL, as identified in Chapter 2, for teaching students with disability. The opportunities that this approach could offer to students with disability will be further illustrated in Chapter 8.

Influence 3: School-level Organisation of Student Support

The school’s two agencies of additional educational support, SEP and LANI, were characterised by their respective support for students with and without verified disability. As noted in Chapter 4, there was overlap in their activities when they both provided support to students with verified disability. These overlapping roles (Wenger, 1998) indicate the need for mutual negotiation of their joint task as part of relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) if they are to function optimally. However, interview data showed there was limited communication and collaboration between the two agencies of support, indicating that relational agency had not developed between SEP and LANI.

The overlapping roles were evidenced through the focus students’ assigned in-class and out-of-class SEP support (consistent with their verified disability) and in-class and out-of-class LANI support. Interview and observation data showed that the focus students—who were all verified at the time of data collection—received the majority of in-class support from SEP with limited in-class support from LANI. Out-of-class support was provided to

Charlie through a SEP-provided tutorial, and to Seth and Harry through LANI-based booster classes[17]. The contribution of this support to the focus students' classroom work and assessment practice will be discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

The HoSE stated that the allocation to either tutorial or booster class was based on "case by case" (Interview, 25 July 2018, line 184) decision making, depending on whether students needed literacy and numeracy support (LANI) or cognitive downtime (SEP), in consultation with parents. However, interview data did not evidence mutual negotiation of roles between SEP and LANI in other areas, as highlighted by the HoSE:

> They [LANI] do all sorts of other things like we do, so they have teachers that support in classes, they have teacher aides that support in classes, they work on assessment tasks and all sorts of things like that, so in an ideal world we would work better as a team. We would work really closely as a team. (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 68–73)

The repetition of "they" in this segment illustrates the HoSE's view of LANI as a separate agency from SEP, further evidenced by her description of SEP and LANI as "two separate, like, parallel, sort of agencies of support in this school" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 75–76). This description of parallel agencies illustrates that relational agency, where professionals work with each other to strengthen their practice (Edwards & Kinti, 2009), was not developed between SEP and LANI; each agency worked separately and expertise was held within the agency, instead of distributed across them. This lack of relational agency was further evident in the HoSE's observation that LANI and SEP doubled up on work, for example, when they would modify assessment tasks for the same student on an Individual Curriculum Plan (ICP; as discussed in Chapter 2).

[17] Interview data showed that students in the SEP usually replaced a language subject with the SEP tutorial—which provided opportunity for "cognitive downtime" (HoSE, interview, 25 July 2018, line 169) and additional time for homework and assessments with support from SEP teachers and teacher aides—or a LANI booster class, to enhance their literacy and numeracy skills under guidance from LANI teachers and teacher aides.

The overlapping roles of the two agencies led the HoSE to express her wish for collaboration, stating, “Why aren’t we doing it together?” (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 688–689). However, she perceived collaboration only to be possible “in an ideal world” and attributed this lack of collaboration to time constraints: “We are all [too] frantically busy to stop and to sit down and say, ‘I’m doing this or that’. And e-mail is a wonderful thing, but you need time to read it and check it” (HoSE, 25 July 2018, lines 653–659). Mutual negotiation of roles between the agencies was minimal with barriers identified that would impede this process (i.e., emails may not be read). The HoSE described communication processes between the two agencies as “informal, on the fly” (HoSE, interview, 25 July 2018, line 672). As a result, students could be supported by both SEP and LANI, without information exchange taking place between the two agencies.

As this study involved examination of students’ engagement with classroom assessment practice, the role of SEP was one focus of the analyses as it became evident that they were the predominant provider of in-class support for the focus students.

Influence 4: Factors Determining Provision of Support

A search of the Qld DoE website and interview data did not identify official explicit requirements of supports or adjustments for specific verified disabilities, of relevance in this study, in the categories of ASD and SLI. Instead, the Department has guidelines with suggested adjustments for different types of disabilities, available through Summerfield’s internal shared drive. Figure 5.3 shows an example of guidelines for students with SLI and ASD, with individual guidelines for only students with SLI noted by “*” and individual guidelines for only students with ASD noted by “#”.

Figure 5.3

Guidelines for Adjustments

Adjustments to teaching, for example:	**Adjustments to assessment, for example:**	**Adjustments to resources, for example:**
○ Use teamwork to complete tasks, distributing responsibilities ○ Outline the focus of teaching (# and provide multiple opportunities for practice) ○ Teach students organising skills, e.g., through colour coding ○ Model tasks and show concrete examples ○ Spoken instructions may not be understood ○ * Cue students to listen and use clear communication ○ * Teach language skills related to the taught content and instructions (e.g., draw, underline) ○ # Give students visual reminders ○ # Check that students understood the task	○ Use of technology ○ Additional time ○ Use of visuals to support assessment task comprehension ○ Use clear assessment examples and make these available to students during assessment ○ Clearly state assessment goals before unit of work begins ○ * Use a scribe ○ * Create tasks using clear and simple language ○ # Use team/peer assessment	○ Use multiple materials to engage with content ○ Use technology for students to practice concepts/skills ○ Use visuals in resources ○ Use peers as well as adults ○ * Use assistive technology (e.g., word prediction software) ○ # Create a chill-out area

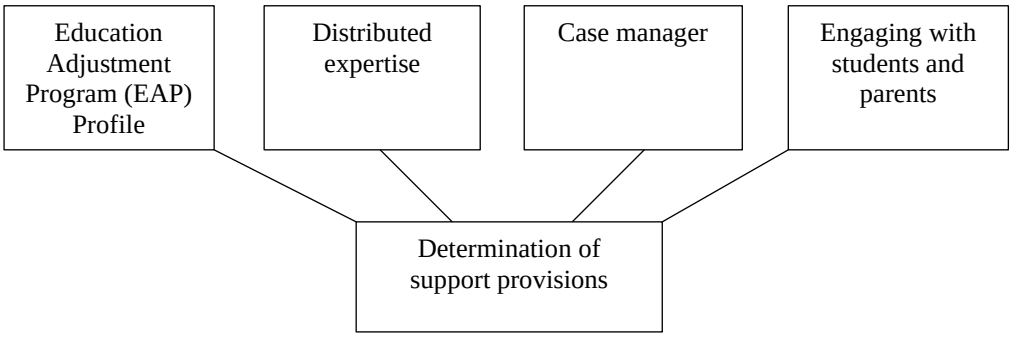
Note. Summarised from a list of strategies for ASD and SLI provided by an employee of Qld DoE (personal communication, June 18, 2018a, 2018b; see footnote 16).

Interview data showed that four factors influenced the determination of support provisions for the focus students: (a) Educational Adjustment Program (EAP) profile, (b) distributed expertise, (c) case manager, and (d) engaging with students and parents (see Figure 5.4). Factors (a) and (b) informed the HoSE's recommendations to classroom teachers

regarding support provisions, whereas factors (c) and (d) informed classroom teachers' support provisions directly.

Figure 5.4

Factors Impacting on Teachers' Determination of Support Provisions



Educational Adjustment Program (EAP) Profile

The HoSE stated that she used students' EAP profiles to inform teachers of the type of support students required. The EAP profile of students with verified disability lists the type and frequency of adjustments previously made for each student (i.e. students with verified disability who may or may not have been provided with an ICP), and helped determine disability funding, as noted in Chapter 2. It also helped the HoSE establish an "overarching image" (Interview, 13 December 2018, line 412) of students' characteristics and required support. This was particularly relevant for the focus students, who had recently transitioned into high school and whose primary school records (including EAP profile) transitioned with them. The HoSE's use of the word "overarching" shows the broad, rather than specific, level of knowledge she drew from the EAP profile. Therefore, the HoSE did not expect teachers to use this, stating, "it is not explicit, it doesn't tell them what to do in the classroom" (Interview, 13 December 2018, lines 398–402). The EAP profile was thus an artefact for the use of the HoSE to guide information provision to classroom teachers.

Distributed Expertise

Interview data indicated that disability-specific expertise was distributed throughout the school, recognising that expertise does not need to be held by all members of teams at the school, including teachers and SEP staff (Edwards & Kinti, 2009). The data showed that an internal student database held an overview of support recommendations, which was distributed to teachers. This overview was created by "the person managing [the student's] difference" (HoSE, interview, 13 December 2018, line 55), predominantly a staff member from the SEP (including the HoSE), and was partly based on the Qld DoE's guidelines for adjustments (Figure 5.3). Interview data with Ms Daisy revealed that it was recorded in this overview that the focus students were entitled to TA support in the classroom, but not to individual full-time TA support.

The overview of recommended support provisions was further informed by the HoSE's disability-specific expertise:

> So then as a school, as an SEP we look at their verification, we look at their primary school records, we look at other plans that have been in place. We know things about ASD and how they work in classrooms. We know things about SLI and how they work in the classroom. And then we also support them in their classroom and see how they're engaged. So then essentially, you know, I seem to say 'case by case' all the time because they are *all* [emphasis added by the HoSE] so different. (Interview, 13 December 2018, lines 149–161)

The HoSE's knowledge about specific disabilities ("we know things about ASD") in combination with the students' history of support provisions and current classroom observations ("we also support them in their classroom") led to the "case by case" basis of determining support provisions for students with disability. The school's internal expertise is evident through the internal database and disability-specific knowledge held by the SEP, further shaped by the combination of previous records and professional experience, which

also included students' previously recorded adjustments in NCCD records. This expertise was held by the HoSE or a SEP staff member with the intention of sharing it with teaching teams in the form of support recommendations. This distributed expertise formed a cultural artefact that could be mediated by teachers in the school to enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment (Edwards & Kinti, 2009).

Case Manager

The case manager and case manager's report also formed cultural artefacts "loaded with intelligence" (Edwards & Kinti, 2009, p. 128), in this case student-specific and disability-specific recommendations for teachers' practice. Teachers could mediate this artefact to shape their teaching practices for students with disability. The school assigned students a "case manager" to manage their support and liaise with teachers, although the title of this role had changed:

> So within the SEP we have what might have traditionally in other schools be called case manager, we have shifted this year, or last year, I can't remember, calling it a program manager, because case manager is a little bit sort of medical. It's just a negative connotation so instead of managing the case that is this child, we manage this child's program, you know, of support. We call it a program manager. (HoSE, interview, 25 July 2018, lines 213–219)

Here the HoSE associated "case" and "case management" with a medical "case", whereas "program" is a term common in education, for example, teachers develop work programs. By moving away from using medical terms, the school demonstrated the policy intention to move closer towards a social model of disability (Oliver, 2013). However, the HoSE and the two participating teachers still repeatedly used the term "case manager" in their interviews, and the school's website also referred to "case manager". This slip in the use of current terminology is indicative of the time it takes for new practices to be enacted as intended and embedded into ways of doing and being (Harris et al., 2017). Wenger's (1998) notion of a

shared repertoire, including words, that a community has adopted is reflected here; as is, more specifically, Walton's (2016) call to "consider what the language of inclusive education does and what realities it constructs" (p. 3) and the role that words play in creating ways of doing and being. The school's reliance on funding based on medical diagnoses to determine support was accompanied by words and actions that matched a medical model instead of the DDA's (1992) social model of disability. Therefore, to reflect the school's adopted terminology, the observed use of the term "case manager" is used in this thesis instead of the intended term, "program manager".

Interview data indicated that the case manager had developed expertise regarding the impact of disabilities on classroom learning for specific students in the SEP and distributed this expertise through the "case manager's report" to the teachers at the beginning of each year. However, interview data showed that Ms Naomi and Ms Daisy did not recognise this distributed expertise for their classrooms, which indicates that relational agency between the teachers and the case manager had not developed. Both Ms Naomi and Ms Daisy indicated the limited applicability of the report for their own practice, as Ms Naomi stated:

> So for us it's usually a case of "okay it's good to keep that in mind, it's a great starting point, particularly with the behavioural things, that's a big heads up". But then it's like "ok I'm going to let them work independently and see what they can come up with, what they're comfortable with, with what they're not, and take it from there". It's a good starting point but it's very rarely (pause) something I would say that's highly accurate, yeah. (Ms Naomi, interview, 29 June 2018, lines 357–362)

Ms Naomi's use of phrases such as "a great starting point" and "a big heads up" defined the case manager report's initial usefulness, but indicated that she could not fully mediate the report as an artefact to determine her teaching practices for students with disability. Similarly, Ms Daisy stated that the case manager's report gave her an "awareness of what I should be aware of" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 204–206) but that she disliked putting students "in

that box straight away" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 208–209). Ms Daisy perceived the case manager's report as representing a "box" that students belonged to, which did not take into account how students were engaged across different contexts; students' behaviour as manifested in primary school settings (upon which the report for Year 7 students was based) did not represent their possible behaviour across various classroom contexts including different teachers and subject content. Therefore, Ms Daisy did not recognise the expertise conveyed through the report as fully applicable to her classroom.

The personal influence of the case manager on Ms Naomi's and Ms Daisy's teaching practices also appeared to be limited, with interview data highlighting lack of relational agency between the case manager and Ms Naomi, especially. Since the move to a team-based approach of SEP (discussed in the next section), teachers no longer received case managers in their classroom as the main support person for students with disability in their class. Ms Naomi presented with a level of frustration about their absence from class: "One of their case managers … is not in my classrooms ever and she contacts me to … ask questions about the kids, because she only has them once a week for tutorial. So … that's a problem" (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 253–262). Whereas teachers used to rely on, and mediate, case managers' expertise to inform their practice, Ms Naomi's comments indicate a role reversal. As part of relational agency, professionals recognise each other's motives and resources and mutually negotiate their collaboration (Edwards & Kinti, 2009); for example, Ms Naomi's motive was to mediate the case manager's expertise on students with disability in her classroom. Ms Naomi's frustration illustrates that she did not recognise that the case manager's motives had changed, as she now aimed to mediate Ms Naomi's expertise instead. Ms Daisy stated that she communicated with the case manager mainly in Term 1, indicating email contact "regarding, like, the boys and how, where they need to sit, and stuff like that in the classroom" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 179–182). This comment illustrates that the case manager provided her with another "starting point" to shape her teaching, in the form of

a seating plan. Ms Daisy's interview data did not evidence that she relied on the case manager's expertise to inform her understanding of required teaching and learning support for students.

Engaging With Students and Parents

Fourth, teachers' engagement with students and their parents informed support provisions. Ms Naomi indicated that she observed her students in class to complement the case manager's report and to further adjust her teaching to provide the required support to students. She further developed her knowledge of the students by keeping in regular contact with parents, which recognises the role of parents as partners in learning (UNCRPD, 2016). Parents sometimes brought in medical or psychological reports for Ms Naomi to read. Ms Daisy indicated she also observed how students settled in at high school to add to the expertise presented in the case manager's report: "So although they might have acted that way or been that way at primary school I like to see how they settle in and what changes and then I will adjust accordingly" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 211–213). Ms Daisy's wish to see how students "settle in" recognised the influence of the sociocultural context of the classroom on students' learning. Ms Daisy stated she was also sent reports by parents, highlighting a report sent by Harry's mother with tips on how to calm Harry down if he experienced anxiety, which she described as "helpful" (Interview, 28 June 2018, line 197). Triangulation of Ms Naomi's and Ms Daisy's interview data with interview data from the HoSE and survey data from the focus students and their parents indicated that the teachers' understanding of students' strengths and required support aligned with those of the HoSE, the focus students and their parents.

Summary of Influences 1–4

The chapter has so far described four main influences on teachers' provision of support to students with disability: the allocation of disability funding; the pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012) to guide teachers in their classroom practice; school-level

organisation of support; and factors shaping teachers' support provisions. The discussion identified that Summerfield mediated the "categorical resource allocation method" (de Bruin et al., 2020, p. 122) of funding to shape the social structures in the school, where SEP and LANI predominantly supported students with and without verified disability, respectively. This reflected a reliance on medical diagnoses to assign particular support to students with disability, resembling a medical model of disability, despite the school's intention to rely on a social model of disability. The use of the word "case manager", part of the adopted terminology of the school, further reflected the realities that language constructs; although the school intended to refer to "program manager", the common language used by classroom teachers and the HoSE indicated that this was not yet a shared or embedded practice.

The school's pedagogical framework—a prioritised artefact among teachers' practice—acknowledged that teachers need to "meet the diverse needs of students" (Dean et al., 2012, p. 152) but did not explicitly provide strategies to engage with students with disability. The HoSE's self-identified desired focus on UDL—a gap that was recognised within the school—may supplement the pedagogical framework to ensure students with disability are supported through teaching and learning. The chapter further identified lack of distributed expertise between SEP and LANI, evidenced by their parallel manner of working alongside each other without negotiation of their sometimes-overlapping roles in the school. This brings to the fore that organisational structures were currently insufficient in supporting the development of a shared understanding of students and their requirements. Further, relational agency was not developed between the case manager and participating teachers, as teachers did not fully recognise the applicability of the case manager's report to their practice and they had not established a shared understanding of their roles to support students with disability in the classroom.

Influence 5: Classroom-Level Organisation of Student Support (SEP)

The chapter now turns to the fifth influencing factor on the support for students with disability: classroom-level organisation of student support. The chapter earlier identified disability funding's currency of hours of special education teacher and TA support, which the school dedicated to SEP staff. The deployment of SEP staff in the classroom as intended by the HoSE means that they were, like teachers and students, participants in the classroom. This influence consists of three parts: (a) team-based deployment of SEP staff to classrooms, (b) communication and collaboration regarding classroom support, and (c) collaboration of SEP staff and classroom teachers in assessment design.

Team-Based Deployment of SEP Staff to Classrooms

Interview data brought to light that the team-based deployment of SEP staff to classrooms influenced how teachers and students were able to mediate their support. The HoSE's intended deployment of SEP staff aimed to match their skills and knowledge with classroom subjects and students' required support, as well as provide consistency for teachers and students. This intended deployment reflects principles of a community of practice (Wenger, 1998), where participants in the classroom would mutually engage in supporting students with disability, negotiate their roles within the sociocultural context of the classroom to form a joint enterprise, and engage with a shared repertoire of resources. This repertoire would include support staff's skills and knowledge, a SEP staff roster to provide consistency, and mutually negotiated ways of doing and being within the classroom. However, interview data revealed that this team-based deployment of SEP staff was not enacted as intended, leading to inconsistency of support.

The organisation of SEP staff was changed by the HoSE in 2018, who stated "so this year I did teams" (Interview, 25 July 2018, line 230), instead of assigning SEP staff members to individual students. One team was assigned to junior classes and another team assigned to senior classes. Where SEP staff's expertise of specific subject content and

students with disability was previously distributed among one or two SEP staff members who regularly visited the classroom, teachers now received a rotation of SEP staff into their classrooms. Interview data indicated that the team-based approach required the HoSE to create a SEP staff roster to allocate SEP staff across classrooms. The HoSE described her intention to match staff members' individual skills, confidence levels and established relationships with students in the SEP, to different subjects and to students' different support requirements. However, part-time working conditions of most SEP staff meant that they could not work consistently in their areas of competence. The influence of working conditions on the deployment of TAs, specifically, aligns with Webster et al.'s (2011) "wider pedagogical role model" (p. 12), where components of TAs' work (such as part-time working conditions) come together to influence their practice.

Despite staff's part-time working conditions, the HoSE aimed for the staff roster to establish consistency in distributing SEP staff across classrooms. She perceived the roster[18] as "our bible a little bit" (HoSE, interview, 25 July 2018, line 373), indicating that this was a valued artefact of SEP team members and had significant importance. This artefact can be seen as a "boundary object" (Wenger, 1998, p. 105), originating in the SEP team and forming a relation to the teams of classroom teachers within each department. However, the HoSE described the roster as an "unwieldy document" (Interview, 25 July 2018, line 481), and indicated its perceived unsuitability for circulation among classroom teachers. The roster thus became a barrier between SEP staff (who could access the roster) and classroom teachers (who could not), and was, as a result, not a shared artefact between the SEP and classroom teachers.

[18] The researcher observed the roster in the SEP's administration office—a large poster (A0; approx. 84 by 119 centimetres), listing the names of all students who were part of the SEP, their timetable, and the SEP team member who supported them during each lesson.

Despite the HoSE's intentions, teachers did not share a common understanding of the SEP roster. The HoSE described how informal communication between SEP staff and teachers should ensure the roster is known to the teachers:

> My expectation would be, as each support person is there [in the classroom], that they have said "yes I will be here for this lesson every week" or for these number of lessons every week. They [the classroom teachers] get a pattern, sometimes it re-jigs every term, but generally it's been set [through the roster], they know the pattern of who's coming. (HoSE, interview, 25 July 2018, lines 475–479)

However, the presence of eight different SEP teachers or TAs providing support during five observed English and nine observed mathematics classes contrasted with the intended consistency in support. Moreover, the HoSE's expectation that teachers "know the pattern of who's coming" did not eventuate, as evidenced by teachers' comments:

> They don't all work on the same days. … They just come in on the day and they support—because there are some lessons when say … teacher B is meant to be here but then they call in sick, and they don't get replaced … because there's no one to replace [them]. I don't find out until I'm in the classroom … who's here, so I just work with who I've got. (Ms Naomi, interview, 29 June 2018, lines 192, 212–219)
>
> Honestly, I turn up to my lesson and if there's someone there, there's someone there and I'm like 'oh hey!' … I can't remember if they sent out a schedule of who was going to be there and when, but it keeps changing. (Ms Daisy, interview, 28 June 2018, lines 335–339)

Ms Naomi's statement that staff would "just come in on the day" and that she would "just" work with who was present in class indicated that no mutual negotiation of the task (i.e., providing support for students with disability) took place between classroom teachers and SEP staff. This was confirmed by the HoSE, who described how SEP staff were not always aware of the lesson planning, as discussed in the following section. Ms Daisy's

comments on the changing nature of support staff presence in her classroom underscores these indications. This type of collaboration "on the day" between teachers and SEP staff aligns with a reported lack of preparedness of TAs (Basford et al., 2017) as well as lack of joint planning time between teachers and TAs (Blatchford et al., 2012).

Communication and Collaboration Regarding Classroom Support

Research literature on inclusion has emphasised the need for collaboration in schools to establish inclusive learning environments (Ainscow, 2005; Curcic, 2009; Hehir et al., 2016; Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016), including collaboration between teachers and support staff. This collaboration was influenced by (a) communication within the SEP team, (b) expectations of collaboration between the SEP team and classroom teachers, and (c) enacted collaboration between the SEP team and classroom teachers. These factors shaped how classroom teachers and SEP staff mutually engaged with the task of providing support to students with disability.

Communication Within the SEP Team

The organisational structure of the SEP team resulted in limited communication within the SEP team and limited communication between the SEP team and classroom teachers. As SEP staff had overlapping roles in the SEP team (i.e., some members supported the same students), mutual engagement of members is necessary to help each other to "connect meaningfully to what we don't do and what we don't know" (Wenger, 1998, p. 76). As SEP members rotated support for the same students, within-team communication would enable them to develop a shared understanding of required support of different students across different subject areas. Without such knowledge, SEP members would remain peripheral participants in the classroom (Lave & Wenger, 1991), as classroom teachers and students would not be able to mediate their support.

However, interview data showed that the communication within the SEP team was informal, despite efforts to centralise communication about the students they supported.

The HoSE expressed her disappointment, while repeatedly stating that informal communication still took place:

> It's disappointing and it's difficult because the part-time [workload] sometimes means they are not all here on the same day … Generally, the teacher aides and the teachers [communicate] very much informal on the run and through e-mailing, so … the main Year 7 program managers set up a book for notes from, for all of their kids … what's happening in class, who had a meltdown, what assessment is coming up, what teacher aide might have seen such and such. I don't think it was used as much as they would have liked. I think they are still using it, but sort of forget, and it's also easier to catch people verbally: 'oh so and so has this' … or pop it on their desk, something like that, so very informal. But I think it's basically still functioning, so it must function pretty well, but informal. I wouldn't even exaggerate if I say 'ad hoc'. (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 615–631)

Although the HoSE described this communication as functioning "pretty well", her repeated use of the word "informal" to describe the within-team communication, in combination with phrases such as "difficult" and "not ideal" suggests that a more formal process is necessary to systematically capture important incidents and improve the within-team communication of the SEP. The combination of an unstructured communication process and a team of mostly part-time SEP staff was "disappointing" and resulted in a system that "basically still functioned" but failed to promote a shared comprehensive evidence base of the students' characteristics and required levels of support. This affected how the collaboration with classroom teachers was shaped.

Expectations of Collaboration Between the SEP Team and Classroom Teachers

Interview data revealed that the HoSE expected that classroom teachers and SEP staff should communicate with each other throughout the year about students' required

support, lesson content and assessment. However, she emphasised that SEP teachers should interact with teachers more and provide higher levels of support than TAs:

> [The SEP teacher] should essentially be making contact with Ms Naomi to say, you know, 'give me a unit plan, what's coming up? What is the assessment task? Let's have a look at it, gee they're going to struggle with this task, I can help make this cloze activity or let me look at the assessment and make suggestions for how it could be presented, like, differently, maybe less cluttered' … But then in the class being someone who is not just encouraging—do your work, etcetera—but … taking what has just been said and maybe working with the kids that she knows [are] just not going to get it and revising it, revisiting it, giving more examples, popping outside if they need to. (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 386–396)

This role description of SEP teachers places responsibility for enabling classroom learning with the SEP teacher, as evidenced by the HoSE who stated that SEP teachers "should be making contact", and comments such as "I can help" and "let me look". The expectation is that they would obtain lesson documents, such as unit plans and assessment tasks, suggest improvements for students with disability and intensively work with students who required extra support. These comments further indicate the HoSE's expectation that SEP teachers and classroom teachers developed relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) by negotiating the role of supporting students with disability and sharing expertise ("let me make suggestions") by mutually engaging with artefacts (e.g., the assessment task).

While SEP TAs were present in the classroom during 12 out of 14 observed lessons, interview data did not indicate that they were expected to contact the teacher. Instead, they should focus more on "prompting, encouraging, motivating, re-explaining, clarifying, [and] checking work" (HoSE, interview, 25 July 2018, lines 431–432) of students in the classroom, as the HoSE stated their pedagogical knowledge and skillset were likely to differ

from those of SEP teachers. This role description for TAs is consistent with recent self-reported task descriptions of Australian TAs (Carter et al., 2019).

Enacted Collaboration Between SEP Team and Classroom Teachers

Interview data revealed that communication between SEP staff and classroom teachers was not structured, but rather described by the HoSE as taking place "in passing" (Interview, 25 July 2018, line 529). However, the HoSE acknowledged lack of communication between SEP staff and classroom teachers, stating "they are not getting together as much as I'd like, as much as they would even like" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 521–522). This indicates that SEP staff and teachers recognised the need to communicate more frequently. However, the HoSE stated that "I just don't know how we would get there with the ... constraints that we are facing" (lines 542–543), illustrating that constraining factors led to the unstructured communication process as observed in the study. This ad hoc style of communication and collaboration is a known factor characterising the working relationship between classroom teachers and support staff (Basford et al., 2017; Webster et al., 2011) and was also highlighted by Blatchford et al. (2012), who identified time constraints as an important factor contributing to the disjuncture in communication. Although the HoSE indicated that the SEP team had their own e-mail address and classroom teachers could get in touch that way, she acknowledged that there was no set way for communication and collaboration to take place: "I have certainly left it at this stage that the teachers work out, figure out what works" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 532–533), illustrating the responsibility of communicating is placed on classroom teachers and SEP staff.

The HosE's recognition that teachers "figure out what works" indicates lack of dedicated joint collaboration time between teachers and SEP staff. Research has identified this as recommended practice to ensure that support staff and classroom teachers share an understanding of, for example, taught content, skills, intended outcomes and feedback (Sharples et al., 2015), and to enable collaboration in assessment practice (Watkins, 2007).

This lack of dedicated collaboration time resulted in collaboration practice that was highly dependent on individual person's aim to maintain a working relationship. The HoSE described that the classroom teachers and her team might not want "to step on each other's toes" (Interview, 25 July 2018, line 458). The interaction of authority relations and personal relations was evident here, which impacted on the extent to which collaboration took place between SEP staff and classroom teachers.

The HoSE described how a good relationship between the classroom teacher and SEP staff led to collaboration:

> Some situations with teachers and with classroom teachers and SEP teachers are brilliant. They connect, they easily share things, they are texting at night 'oh I have this idea for tomorrow's class, you know, that'd be great, I'll bring such and such'. (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 462–465)

This statement indicates that personal relationships were important for mutual engagement, leading SEP staff and teachers to "easily share things". However, the HoSE's reference to "some situations" indicates that this type of relationship and communication did not consistently eventuate between SEP staff and teachers. Given the reported lack of time for collaboration, classroom teachers and SEP staff may not have been able to form productive personal relationships.

Where no communication took place, the HoSE described that a SEP teacher would then be "rocking up and has no real awareness of what's about to happen and does what they can in the lesson" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 468–469). Interview data indicated that this was more often the case, with Ms Naomi stating that, while she communicated lesson materials to SEP staff, this did not lead to structured collaboration:

> Ms Naomi: Those teachers don't really know (pause); I did send them an outline of this is what I'm doing this term, these are my lessons, so when you come in you know what to expect, but…

Interviewer: Do you think they are on top of that?

Ms Naomi: Mmmm no.

Interviewer: No?

Ms Naomi: No. I think they've looked at it, but … they come in and they just help where they can on the spot kind of thing. (Ms Naomi, interview, 29 June 2018, lines 232–241)

This excerpt points to the unstructured communication and implicit expectations that existed between classroom teachers and SEP staff, as illustrated by Ms Naomi's reflection of SEP support "where they can on the spot". Although SEP staff were sent a unit outline, they did not appear to have a shared understanding of what Ms Naomi expected them to do in class. This resulted in "in-the-moment" support decisions that were made without prior knowledge of the expectations for the lesson, as also reported in studies on TAs' classroom support practices (Basford et al., 2017; Howard & Ford, 2007).

While the HoSE stated that "a lot [of communication between SEP staff and teachers] does happen through e-mail though", she also acknowledged that "a lot can happen in passing. I don't think it's very structured, … there is no set way for it to happen" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 529–531). This concurs with Basford et al.'s (2017) and Blatchford et al.'s (2012) findings regarding TA deployment. Research has shown that this can impact on the effectiveness of their support, as SEP staff may not feel prepared to support students with disability (Blatchford et al., 2012). Additionally, this lack of communication indicates that "community maintenance" (Wenger, 1998, p. 74) did not take place, as SEP staff and teachers observed in this study did not work to create a mutual engagement of actions to support students with disability within the classroom.

Consequences of Limited Communication and Collaboration Between the SEP Team and Classroom Teachers

The inconsistency of support, as evident in classroom observations and stated by the classroom teachers, impacts on the collaboration between the SEP team and classroom teachers in two ways. First, interview data has identified lack of trust between SEP staff and classroom teachers. Ms Naomi's comments, expressing uncertainty about who to approach, illustrate this:

> I think, like, 7M gets about … four to five different staff coming into the room. Who do I contact, none of them know the kids as well as I do, 'cos I'm the one that sees them every single day. (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 178–181)

Ms Naomi's question ("Who do I contact?") relates to her inability to recognise SEP staff's expertise ("none of them know the kids as well as I do"). Ms Naomi's comments echo Roberts's (2006) finding that members in a community should have "a relationship of trust" (p. 628) to enable mutual negotiation of actions, and indicate that such a relationship was not formed, with the result that mutual engagement did not eventuate between herself and SEP staff.

Second, this lack of trust hinders classroom teachers' ability to use SEP staff as a resource and to develop relational agency. This is problematic, as interview data highlighted the HoSE's expectation for relational agency to develop between classroom teachers and SEP staff when she stated that teachers needed to know the SEP staff roster to determine "if … and when they can use them as a resource" (HoSE, interview, 25 July 2018, line 483). To use SEP staff as a resource, classroom teachers needed to recognise and mutually negotiate each member's motives (e.g., to support task completion or to progress students' learning) and resources (i.e., skills and knowledge), so they could mediate these cultural artefacts to shape their own practice (Edwards & Kinti, 2009). Instead, Ms Naomi's comments indicate a "revolving door" of support staff, where staff interchangeability complicates communication

and collaboration with the classroom teacher. This meant that mutual negotiation of roles did not take place, and SEP staff were not used as a resource in the classroom as expected.

The data thus revealed a discrepancy between the HoSE's intentions and the enactment in practice; instead of mediating the communicated staff roster to purposefully use SEP staff as a resource, classroom teachers made on-the-spot decisions on how SEP staff would be used, or, as was observed more often, let SEP staff decide how to shape support during the lesson. While Ms Daisy indicated that she had learnt how to support some students by observing how SEP staff interacted with them (see Chapter 7), this was not purposefully planned. As noted in Chapter 2, this lack of purposeful collaboration is not uncommon in inclusive education, with previous research reporting communication and collaboration issues between teachers and support staff (Bourke, 2008; Howard & Ford, 2007; Vlachou et al., 2015) and highlighting unpreparedness of classroom teachers to manage support staff in their classrooms (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012).

While the HoSE recognised issues with the deployment of support staff, she expressed hope that ultimately the support that was provided would have a positive impact on students' learning:

> What is so frustrating is that [it] is *not at all* [emphasis added by HoSE] ideal for those kids in that support and that consistency, but it's the reality. We can be so thankful that at least there is that much resource going in there and let's hope it's being used effectively. (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 569–572)

The HoSE's reflection on the amount of resources going into classes indicates her perception that the quantity of staff is adequate, but that the disjointed organisation—and hence the quality of support that is provided—is not desirable ("not at all ideal") and based on "hope" rather than a purposeful approach. Although the HoSE had expressed hope about the use of SEP staff as a resource, the above analysis has identified multiple factors that obstructed the use of SEP staff as an effective resource. The HoSE acknowledged this, indicating that the

unstructured communication and collaboration processes "in some cases may be not working, it's not enough" (Interview, 25 July 2018, line 534). This reflection indicates that the collaboration between teachers and SEP staff may not be "enough" to effectively use SEP staff as a resource for in-class support for students with disability.

The data further revealed that only some indicators of growth for students with disability were currently being monitored to evaluate the effects of support provided by the SEP. The HoSE stated that achievement scores were being monitored for all students and that she intends to develop a system to monitor growth in other areas as well for students with disability, such as wellbeing. However, the current provision of support staff to classrooms—and the limited monitoring of the effects of that support—is problematic, since, as noted in Chapter 2, research has highlighted the adverse consequences that deployment of support staff can have on student outcomes, if they do not provide adequate support and/or replace classroom teachers' interactions with students (Blatchford et al., 2012; Webster & Blatchford, 2019). Blatchford et al.'s (2012) identified negative relationship between the amount of TA support received and academic progress in English and mathematics of students with disability highlights one example of such an adverse consequence. However, not only does this limited collaboration have implications for the support students receive during classroom practice, it also impacts on the opportunity for SEP staff to support classroom teachers in designing and implementing assessment.

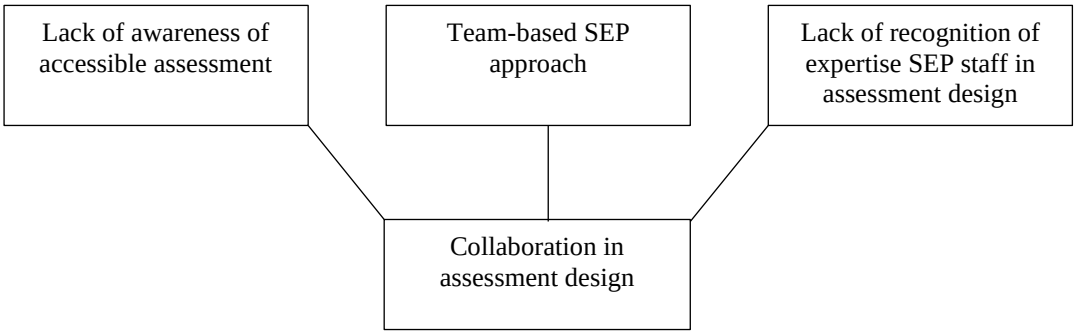
Collaboration in Accessible Assessment

While research on inclusive assessment practice has identified the need for teachers to collaborate with other professionals during assessment processes (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007), interview data showed that the SEP team was not involved in designing the assessment task and was only involved retrospectively if modifications for students on an ICP or adjustments for other students needed to be made. This enacted practice contrasted with the HoSE's intentions, as she expressed the wish for her team to be involved

during the design-stage of the assessment. Three factors influenced the SEP's (limited) collaboration in accessible assessment: (a) teachers' lack of awareness of the need for accessible assessment, (b) the team-based approach of SEP and (c) lack of recognition of SEP staff's expertise in assessment design (see Figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5

Factors Impacting on Collaboration in Assessment Design



First, teachers' interview data indicated that awareness of the importance of designing accessible assessments was not part of the teachers' shared repertoire of assessment design processes. Rather, they described the need for retrospective assessment adjustments or modified assessments where achievement standards were altered. Teachers' comments on processes of assessment design are examined in greater detail in Chapters 6 and 7. However, if teachers were aware of the need for accessible assessments, as indicated through the DSE (2005), then this may influence their perceived need to collaborate with SEP staff. Similarly, features of inclusive assessment practice state that all staff should share a common understanding of inclusive assessment values and participate and collaborate to implement these values (UNCRPD, 2016; Watkins, 2007).

Second, interview data showed that while retrospective adjustments remained necessary, the SEP's team-based approach influenced teachers' decision not to involve them

in creating such adjustments. This was a major reason for Ms Naomi to decide to adjust assessments herself. She stated that she used to involve the SEP team prior to 2018:

> In the past they have been [involved], because in the past the way it has worked is that I've had the one or two, one support staff teacher in the room. So they know the students really well and they are able to help me make adjustments for the assessment. (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 158–163)

The process Ms Naomi described was a retrospective process where SEP team members were given a finalised assessment task so they could "make adjustments" to enable students' engagement with the task; the SEP staff were not consulted during the assessment design phase. Ms Naomi's recognition that SEP staff used to "know the students really well" and were therefore "able to help me make adjustments" illustrates that relational agency in assessment processes had been developed between Ms Naomi and SEP staff before 2018. However, she no longer appeared to recognise how SEP staff's expertise could apply to assessment processes, stating,

> [The team-based approach of SEP has] made it a bit more tough, so with the history assessment and adjusting that I did it myself. And I just did it. Because I (pause) out of a team of five [SEP staff] how do I ask all five of them to adjust it? They don't all work on the same days … so this year it's quite different. (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 185–192)

Ms Naomi's reference to "all five of them" indicated that the range of SEP staff in her classroom discouraged her from seeking help to adjust assessments. This is another indication that Ms Naomi had not developed a relationship of trust with SEP staff (Roberts, 2006), leading to her adjusting her own assessments. Ms Naomi's comments further underscore the need for mutual negotiation of expertise and interpretations of the task (e.g., to adjust assessment or to design accessible assessment) between those in charge of assessment design and implementation, and SEP staff, as prescribed through features of inclusive assessment

practice (Thurlow et al., 2016; UNCRPD, 2016; Watkins, 2007). Such relational agency could avoid students receiving assessments that were not accessible to them (as discussed in Chapters 6 and 7).

Third, interview data identified that classroom teachers and others in charge of assessment design and implementation did not recognise how the disability-specific expertise of SEP staff could apply to assessment design for all students, including the focus students. For example, when asked whether the SEP team was involved in designing the mathematics test, Ms Daisy stated that they were not "because none of my kids are on ICP" (Interview, 28 June 2018, line 129). This illustrates that Ms Daisy believed the SEP team only needed to be involved in assessment design if a modified assessment needed to be created, with modified achievement standards.

In contrast, the HoSE echoed Watkins's (2007) call for collaboration and argued for the SEP team to be involved in assessment design and co-create universally designed assessments (Thompson et al., 2002) with the teachers, rather than the SEP's current practice of adjusting assessments retrospectively to make them suitable for students. The HoSE indicated that her staff's expertise led them to question "what can be done to make the task accessible, so how are [students] actually going to know what it's about, how they are going to demonstrate it?" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 704–706). This noted focus on accessibility and demonstration of learning was recognised by the HoSE as not only beneficial to her students, but to all students; therefore, the HoSE emphasised UDL as an "ultimate" (Interview, 25 July 2018, line 750) strategy to support students with disability in assessment. She stressed that if assessments were collaboratively designed in a universal way, then retrospective changes by the SEP team would become less necessary, echoing Morningstar et al.'s (2015) suggestion that implementation of UDL means fewer adjustments may be needed.

When most units of work were rewritten during the 2018 school year, the HoSE recognised an opportunity for collaboration, stating "I certainly had the approach at the

beginning of the year 'please include my team, please include me'" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 725–726). These requests to those in charge of rewriting assessment tasks for the units illustrate the desire of the HoSE for SEP to be engaged in collaboration within the school where SEP staff and teachers mutually engaged in designing and implementing accessible assessment processes and artefacts (e.g., assessment tasks). However, this mutual engagement was not established and collaborative design of assessment tasks was not enacted. Although the HoSE acknowledged that the SEP team was not large enough to be able to assist teachers with every newly-written assessment task, when asked whether she had to say "no" to requests for consultation, she stated "No, it just didn't happen" (Interview, 25 July 2018, line 733). This comment indicates that collaboration in assessment design was not sought by subject area specialists (e.g., teachers or HoDs) and mutual engagement did not occur.

The HoSE indicated that a reason that teachers did not involve the SEP team in assessment design was "because they don't think that we have anything to give yet, you know, in the beginning" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 761–762). This perception that SEP does not "have anything to give yet" illustrates that assessment designers at the school did not recognise how SEP staff's disability-specific expertise could be applied to their role of designing assessment. As part of distributed expertise, professionals with different roles and knowledges can collaborate across the boundary of their community towards a common goal (Edwards & Kinti, 2009). A collaborative approach to assessment can bring together different knowledges and skills to ensure assessments are appropriate for all students (Wilkes et al., 2015). As Chapters 6 and 7 will address, the analysed English and mathematics assessments were not fully accessible for the focus students.

The HoSE further observed that the full range of options of assessment adjustments was not always well-understood by teachers:

> What's an adjustment for an assessment, everyone will say extra time (laughs) and the next thing they will tell you is that [students] probably will have a scribe. Harry

> probably hasn't, but the next thing people say 'well, we'll give him a scribe'. That might not necessarily be the barrier, which is hilarious … what kid will say no to a scribe? (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 774–782)

The HoSE's description of what adjustments teachers may recommend for students with disability, together with her observation that some of those adjustments were "hilarious", indicates that teachers may not have been aware of the most suitable adjustments necessary to lift barriers to accessible assessments for individual students with disability. When teachers do not recognise the need to design more accessible assessments and are not open to collaboration during this design phase or when making adjustments to assessments, then students with disability may not be able to demonstrate their learning on the same basis as their peers.

Chapter Summary

The chapter has examined the systems and processes at the school in relation to the case under investigation: "teachers' enactment of classroom assessment for students with disability in a mainstream secondary classroom". These systems and processes were framed by policy and legislation factors, as described in Chapter 4. Five influences on this support were identified: the allocation of disability funding, the pedagogical framework, school-level organisation of student support, factors determining the required provision of support, and classroom-level organisation of student support. Findings show that the categorical approach to disability funding, associated with a medical model of disability, was mediated by the school to create social structures at the school (Daniels, 2013), where students with verified disability belonged to SEP and students without verified disability belonged to LANI. This division aligns with Graham's (2020) notion of integration as "business as usual with add-ons" (p. 14). Although students with a verified disability could receive additional support through LANI, the data revealed that distributed expertise (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) between these agencies of support was not established. The

organisation of support at a classroom level was framed by the HoSE's distributed expertise and by Departmental guidelines for support strategies. The support for the three focus students was predominantly provided by the SEP, whose part-time working conditions warranted a team-based approach and staffing roster. This roster formed a boundary object (Wenger, 1998), providing a barrier between the SEP team (who could access the roster) and the classroom teachers (who could not). Further, despite overlapping roles related to the support of students with disability, relational agency was not developed between SEP staff and classroom teachers; the team-based approach indirectly led to limited communication and collaboration processes within SEP and between SEP and classroom teachers. This finding is consistent with international studies showing lack of collaboration between teachers and support staff (Basford et al., 2017; Bourke, 2008; Howard & Ford, 2007; Vlachou et al., 2015). Moreover, despite comments illustrating the HoSE's desire for SEP to collaborate with teachers within the school by mutually engaging in designing and implementing accessible assessment processes and artefacts (e.g., assessment tasks), SEP staff were not being involved in assessment design processes for those students who are not on an ICP, but who would nevertheless benefit from accessible assessment tasks. Data showed that teachers did not recognise how, as part of distributed expertise, SEP staff's expertise could be mediated to design accessible assessment tasks. This is in contrast with recommended practices of inclusive assessment, which emphasise collaboration between professionals to share different knowledges (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007).

Conclusion

The chapter brought to light how sociocultural factors, including historical and school factors, impacted on the enactment of inclusive teaching and assessment practices at the school. A disjuncture was evident in the data between official, intended and enacted elements of inclusive education policy frameworks and of school-based expectations in relation to the organisation of education and support provisions for students with disability.

As noted in Chapter 2, the concept of community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) defines the possibilities for learning through mutual engagement, a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998). The chapter identified that mutual engagement between teachers and SEP staff was not established within the school's organisational structure. Further, teachers' negotiation of sociocultural factors, including historical and school factors, did not lead to an organisational structure that was conducive to establishing inclusive assessment practice. The historical factor of relying on medical diagnoses to categorise students with disability led to an organisational structure (school factor) at the school that did not support the development of shared understanding of students and their required support. This enacted practice presents a discrepancy with official expectations of inclusive education, where collaboration among professionals should be part of a school's shared repertoire to facilitate inclusive learning environments, including teaching and assessment practice (Qld DoE, 2018b; Thurlow et al., 2016; UNCRPD, 2016; Watkins, 2007). It is also in contrast with intentions of the HoSE, who expected structured communication and collaboration processes to be in place between SEP and teachers. The impact of this disjuncture in everyday teaching practices is discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

School factors included the school's adoption of the pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012) as an officially endorsed set of repertoires of practice. The data indicated a disconnect between the school's intended implementation of the framework as a set of instructional strategies to teach all students, and the suitability of these strategies as enacted for students with disability, as identified by the HoSE's recommendation to include UDL within the framework. Chapters 6 and 7 highlight instances where this disjuncture is evident in observed classroom practice.

The identified disparities between expectations of inclusive education and quality assessment practice, and the established organisational structures framing the enacted practice at the school, created a fractured approach to inclusive assessment practice. This

approach impacted on the practices teachers relied on to enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. The limited collaboration between SEP and teachers as evident in the data, together with lack of attention to students with disability in the pedagogical framework, hindered a community of practice to form between teachers and support staff at the school. This will be further examined in Chapter 6, focusing on how Ms Naomi supported the three focus students during English lessons, and in Chapter 7, focusing on Ms Daisy's practices in mathematics.

Chapter 6: The English Classroom

This chapter presents the first sample (Merriam, 1988) as part of the identified case, "teachers' enactment of classroom assessment for students with disability in a mainstream secondary classroom". The chapter provides an analysis that addresses research sub-question 2, namely *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?* and research sub-question 3, namely *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?* The chapter examines how the focus students engaged with summative assessment in English and how their English teacher, Ms Naomi, and a preservice teacher, Mr Harris, interacted with them to scaffold their learning and assessment work. First, the chapter focuses on pedagogical interactions in the classroom and differentiated support for the focus students, with evidence from surveys, video observations, and interviews with the teacher and preservice teacher. Second, the chapter focuses on students' interactions with the classroom assessment task, drawing on interview data, video observations, the summative task itself, and student work artefacts.

Pedagogy and Instruction

The following discussion focuses on elements related to Ms Naomi's pedagogical practices and roles of support staff regarding the focus students' engagement with learning and assessment. The identified elements are based on triangulation of data from a 34-minute interview conducted in relation to Ms Naomi's classroom assessment procedures, personal communication with Ms Naomi (five emails), data from teacher, parent and student surveys, as well as five video-recorded classroom observations. The last resulted in a total of five hours and 24 minutes of video data, as described in Chapter 3. Chapter 3 described how a systematic analysis grounded in the data was conducted, to identify elements relating to how teachers enabled students' engagement with classroom assessment. This resulted in the

identification of seven elements. The first four, (1) learning objectives and success criteria, (2) differentiation strategies, (3) deployment of support staff, and (4) formative teacher–student interaction, are discussed in the first section of the chapter. They address research sub-question 2, *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?* The first two elements are discussed using qualitative evidence; elements 3 and 4 introduce quantification of video data to explore patterns in formative interactions of students with support staff and with Ms Naomi. The remaining three elements, (5) assessment design processes; (6) assessment task design; and (7) interaction of the students with the summative assessment task, are discussed in the second section of the chapter. They address research sub-question 3, *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?* and incorporate how the preservice teacher implemented the assessment task for the focus students.

Setting the Scene: Classroom Protocols

To provide context to the reported findings in the chapter, this section describes the commonly understood ways of doing and being (Lave & Wenger, 1991) that Ms Naomi and students had developed in the classroom. The data showed that Ms Naomi had established clear expectations around help-seeking behaviours. However, Tomlinson's (2017) suggested strategy—teaching students different options to access support when the teacher was unavailable—was not observed beyond the expectation that students would raise their hand if they needed help. Students were indeed observed waiting for several minutes with their hands raised before Ms Naomi or support staff approached them.

The English class started with approximately 10 minutes of either silent reading or journal writing. For up to 5 minutes of this time, Ms Naomi would walk around the classroom to monitor students' engagement with the task and give prompts, where necessary. Ms Naomi spent the remainder of the quiet reading or writing time engaged in organisational

activities, such as updating students' homework and writing the Learning Objectives (LO) and Success Criteria (SC) for the day's lesson on the board. Students were to write these in their notebook along with the date, after which Ms Naomi would start the lesson by giving instructions on the first task. The remainder of lessons consisted of a combination of individual and group work (with associated instructions)—during both of which Ms Naomi would walk around the class to support students—with whole-class questioning of students following most lesson activities. The observed unit of work further involved watching videos of Grimm's fairy tales. These activities were all observed to be related to the lessons' LO and SC.

Element 1: Learning Objectives and Success Criteria

Interview and observation data identified barriers for students with disability to engage with, and mediate, LO and SC in a manner that reflected Ms Naomi's expectations. Interview data showed that the LO were intended by Ms Naomi to create a shared understanding between herself and the students of the day's lesson goals, with SC provided to guide achievement of the LO. This intention by Ms Naomi is understood as reflecting Wenger's (1998) principles of mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire as students were further expected to engage with the LO and SC to guide their learning and self-assess whether they have learnt the required content and skills as outlined in the LO. The LO and SC can therefore be seen as "resources for negotiating meaning" (Wenger, 1998, p. 82)—mediating artefacts—as part of classroom assessment processes.

Ms Naomi's intended use of LO and SC also reflects principles of quality assessment practice, endorsed in AfL (ARG, 2002; QCAA, 2018b; Shepard, 2000; Wyatt-Smith, 2008) and quality teaching strategies from the school's pedagogical framework (CITW; Dean et al., 2012). Ms Naomi self-identified as having strong skills in supporting students to develop their own understanding of the achievement standards and indicated she saw this as a "very important" part of her role (TAII). This self-belief indicates that Ms

Naomi was well placed to establish the practice of using LO and SC as a self-assessment tool as a shared repertoire with her students. However, she indicated concern that students did not understand the SC despite her explanations (TAII). Classroom observation and interview data confirmed this concern, showing that the LO and SC presented barriers to focus students' understanding of them. This impacted on their engagement with Ms Naomi's instruction, and thus their comprehension of the expectations for completion of an activity and its link to anticipated learning.

Students' difficulty to engage with the LO and SC may have been related to their nature, often including complex vocabulary sourced from the Australian Curriculum discipline-specific achievement standards. For example, words sourced from the Year 7 achievement standard are shown in the following observed Learning Objectives in bold: "**Justify** the actions of a fairy tale character when they are faced with an ethical dilemma", "**Transform** a fairy tale into a news report" or "**Devise** an alternate ending for *The Three Little Pigs*". This practice is in contrast with the school's pedagogical framework CITW which encourages the use of simple language to ensure students understand the LO and SC. Sociocultural theory highlights that when context-specific language is not a part of students' cultural toolkit, then its use may cause tension (Wertsch et al., 1995) and impact on students' ability to mediate the language as part of their learning. To enable this mediation within the expectations of disciplinary knowledge, Wyatt-Smith and Cumming (2000) posited that "students need planned and systematic teacher instruction" (p. 26), as interpretation of success criteria, as discipline-specific terminology, "form[s] a component of curriculum literacies" (p. 26).

The data showed that these context-specific, complex words interacted with the focus students' identified language processing and comprehension difficulties. In interview with focus student Harry, he indicated that he often could not understand the LO, stating "they're, like, really hard words" (Interview, 26 June 2018, line 161). He described his own

developed strategy to mitigate this complexity by listening to the teacher's verbal instructions. However, Harry stated he did also not always understand these, reflecting receptive communication issues associated with ASD (Ravet, 2013) and his parents' description of his difficulty processing verbal instructions. While Ms Naomi had self-reported her concern that students may not understand the SC (TAII), the onus was on Harry to ask Ms Naomi or SEP staff for clarification. This strategy was not always feasible, as Harry stated that he could not ask Ms Naomi a question when she was talking: "I just try to see if I can ask them, see if I have time. 'Cos today I didn't really have time to do it. Even though there was a really hard word that I saw" (Interview, 26 June 2018, lines 181–182), which he indicated was "alternate" in the LO "devise an alternate ending".

Observation data showed that Ms Naomi did not explicitly teach students the meaning of "alternate", but rather used it interchangeably with "different". Interview data with Harry indicates the need for consistency between written and verbal instructions, as Harry was not able to deduce that alternate (written on the board) and different (communicated verbally) were synonyms. Recommended practice for students with ASD includes the use of visuals to support consistency in instructions (Ravet, 2013). Harry's comments indicate that there were times when he was not able to understand the focus and goal of each lesson. This impacted on his ability to self-assess and tick off in his notebook—a prescribed protocol and part of the shared repertoire of the classroom—whether he had achieved the success criteria, whether he was unsure, or whether he had not achieved them. Harry's talk indicated he could not always access the required information that would enable him to focus his learning or self-assess accurately his skills and understanding. This limited access to resources impacted on his ability to become a full participant in the classroom.

The observation data showed also that focus students Seth and Charlie struggled with the practical requirement to copy the LO and SC in their notebooks. They were observed multiple times to not finish writing them down before Ms Naomi would give the

next instructions. Given their identified language disorders, Seth and Charlie would have likely missed at least part of the verbal instructions if they were still engaged in writing. Despite the difficulty with copying the LO and SC, Seth and Charlie indicated that they usually understood these. Seth posited that the SC could function as a handle for him to go back to the taught content if he had forgotten it: "If you … say it like something, something similar, I will, I might, I'll mostly remember it and pick up on it" (Interview, 27 June 2018, lines 129–132). Seth further stated that the SC help him to know whether he had learnt the content: "When I know I can … I learnt it" (Interview, 27 June 2018, line 134), demonstrating awareness of the intended connection between what he is working on in class and his learning as identified in the SC. These comments illustrate Seth's recognition of the SC as useful and underscore the importance of accessible LO and SC; if students cannot access the resources that form part of the classroom's shared repertoire, then they cannot mediate these artefacts to negotiate meaning (Wenger, 1998) which impacts on their participation in the community.

To mitigate these accessibility barriers, Ms Naomi was observed to tell students—often Seth and Charlie specifically—to take a photo of the LO and SC on the board. However, this instruction was usually given after task instructions had begun. SEP staff were also observed on one occasion to volunteer to scribe the LO and SC for Seth and Charlie after they had taken a photo, so they could focus their attention on the remainder of Ms Naomi's instructions. These strategies represent retrospective adjustments to teaching strategies that were not available to all students, illustrative of an historical context of integration (Graham, 2020).

Despite the reported accessibility barriers, Ms Naomi's stated belief was that the LO helped student understanding: "When I talk through them, it gives [students] the opportunity to know what they're going to do, but also understand it" (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 623–624). Ms Naomi indicated that as new vocabulary used in the LO could impede understanding, she would wait "until we're actually doing the activity and then I have

to link it to that Learning Objective, because it's such a new concept" (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 626–627). This aligns with AfL theories stating teacher–student interaction to develop a shared understanding of the meaning of learning goals will help students commit to achieving them (ARG, 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). However, interviews with the focus students and Ms Naomi revealed that time constraints meant that formal checking of students' self-assessment of their progress towards the SC was infrequent. Instead, the LO and SC were used as a reference for Ms Naomi, when she assessed students' progress "in my head as we're sort of progressing through the lesson" (Interview, 29 June 2018, line 640) while walking around the classroom and observing students' work.

The use of discipline-specific, complex vocabulary in LO and SC, and other instructional requirements, such as the need to manually write them down, presented a barrier for the students with disability in this study. The observed assessment practice appears to conform to the letter of AfL—following prescribed strategies—but not the spirit of AfL, which promotes student autonomy (Marshall & Drummond, 2006). As Wiliam (2018) stated, without meaningful engagement with objectives beyond copying them down, this practice becomes tokenistic, or "a wallpaper objective" (p. 56). An assumption that the act of writing or recording LO and SC provides a stimulus for learning was not observed, as students could not access the language used in this artefact.

Element 2: Differentiation Strategies

Differentiation is aimed at "maximizing students' learning within a supportive and challenging learning environment" (Smale-Jacobse et al., 2019, p. 3) and has been identified in Chapter 2 as a strategy within the shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998) of teachers' inclusive assessment practice. Differentiated practice is expected under APST (AITSL, 2017) and has been posited as a strategy complementary to Universal Design for Learning (UDL; Cologon & Lassig, 2020). Interview and survey data provided informative evidence of Ms Naomi's differentiation practice, which she stated was "obviously part of my planning"

(Interview, 29 June 2018, line 286), as she aimed, and was willing, to implement inclusive education.

Although purposeful implementation of UDL was not evident in interview data, the mCLAAS or observation data, two instances of proactive planning for students with disability were identified. Ms Naomi indicated in interview that her instructions for lesson activities, assignments and assessments were explicit and written on the online learning platform as well as in an email to parents. Although this strategy can benefit all students, she suggested that this helped Harry to experience less anxiety in the English classroom. As described in Chapter 4, Harry was not always aware what teachers expected of him and experienced anxiety relating to assessment and new lesson content. Use of explicit instructions, recommended practice for students with ASD (Ravet, 2013), reduces such uncertainty and anxiety. Explicit instructions further shaped how students organised their notebooks with Ms Naomi highlighting the benefits for students with ASD:

> Having their books in a chronological order, not opening up to a random page and starting, making sure that they've actually glued the sheet in, doing all those things, so checking along the way that they've done that … that helps … and that can also … [show] me whether they're finishing the work or not. (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 707–716)

This strategy reflected the teacher's view of the need for established routines for students with ASD to work without experiencing stress relating to the organisation of their work. This also addressed impaired organisational skills identified for some students with ASD (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Ravet, 2013).

Ms Naomi was further observed to talk to students about their personal lives and link them back to students' personal circumstances in one-on-one interaction. For

example, she prompted Harry's writing about the fairy tale *The Wolf and the Seven Kids*[19] by asking him "Think about what your mum would do, if she had to go somewhere" (Classroom observation, 19 June 2018). Harry then shared that he usually visits his grandparents in such cases, which Ms Naomi then recommended should be the next sentence in his writing. These types of personal interactions have been identified as a characteristic of an effective learning community (Tomlinson, 2017), contributing to students feeling welcome in the classroom and creating a supportive classroom climate (CAST, 2019). Harry was observed to be comfortable sharing personal stories with Ms Naomi, which provided her an opportunity to guide his writing.

Although Ms Naomi self-reported making most of the adjustments provided for Seth, Charlie and Harry during learning and assessment available to all students in the class (mCLAAS, see Table 6.1), interview and observation data reflected how layers of differentiation (Cologon & Lassig, 2020) were added to teaching practices that were not proactively planned (e.g., through UDL) to suit diverse students. Ms Naomi described how she planned lesson activities while assessing whether these were suitable for students with disability. She then planned adjustments for those students where necessary, stating "I go 'well ok, well, that's too much for them to write', so in my planning I'll have 'hand out differentiated whatever'" (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 284–286). This suggests her initial planning did not enable all students access to resources belonging to the shared repertoire of the classroom. Ms Naomi self-reported (mCLAAS) the categories (1–7) where she made adjustments for Seth, Charlie and Harry, which are discussed in following sections. Interview and observation data revealed further evidence of differentiation. Ms Naomi's adjustments could be categorised using Tomlinson's (2017) distinction between, as noted in Chapter 2, general differentiation strategies and differentiation relating to content, process and product.

[19] In this fairy tale, a mother leaves her seven kids home alone and a wolf tricks her kids and eats them.

Differentiation of product (i.e., assessment task) was evident in the mCLAAS, but not from observation and interview data, as discussed later in the chapter. Further, observation showed limited use of differentiation using technology, identified in Chapter 2 as promoting accessibility and engagement for students with disability (Cologon & Lassig, 2020; Meyer et al., 2014).

Table 6.1

Recorded Adjustments on mCLAAS for Seth, Charlie and Harry

Adjustment category	Recorded adjustments (* denotes adjustments only for students in SEP/LANI)	Adjustments to Learning (L)/Assignments (A)/Tests (T)		
		Seth	**Charlie**	**Harry**
1) Adjustments to motivation	Verbal encouragement of student effort	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Encourage student if slow at starting	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Encourage student wanting to quit to sustain effort	-	-	T
	Encourage student to remain on task	-	-	L
2) Adjustments to scheduling and format	*Extra time	L, A, T	L, T	T
	*Allow rest breaks	-	-	T
	*Schedule learning/assessment over extra days	-	-	T
	Undertake learning/assessment at beneficial time	T	T	-
3) Adjustments to setting	*Provide distraction-free space	-	-	T
	*Place in room where student is comfortable	L, A, T	L, A, T	L
4) Assistance with directions	Read directions	-	-	T
	Reread directions for sub task	L, A, T	L, A, T	-
	Clarify questions by asking student what is written	L, A, T	L, A, T	-
	Underline verbs in instructions	T	T	T
	Restate task with simpler words	T	T	A, T
	Student to reread/restate task	L, T	L, A, T	L
	Additional practice activities before assessment	L	L	L
5) Assistance during assessment (Only options were A and T)	Teach specific strategies	T	A, T	T
	Provide practice in test format	-	-	T
	*Read expectations and content to student	A, T	A, T	T
	Spelling assistance	A, T	A, T	A, T
	Tracking test items by pointing/placing finger	A, T	A, T	-
	*Arrange for SEP teacher to manage assessment	-	-	T
6) Equipment	Ruler	L, A, T	L, A, T	-
7) Adjustments to learning/ assessment formats	*Change presentation format of written material	L, A, T	L, A, T	T
	Use a computer for learning and assessment presentation	-	-	L, A

General Differentiation Strategies

Survey, interview and observation data brought to light three general differentiation strategies that Ms Naomi employed in her classroom. Ms Naomi self-reported reading expectations and content to students in the SEP (mCLAAS Category 5), thereby providing an alternative mode of communication, an appropriate mode of differentiation for students with disability (Davies et al., 2016).

Ms Naomi further stated that she taught Seth and Charlie to be verbally explicit when asking for help, instead of merely pointing to their notebook. This was evident in the video data, when Ms Naomi was observed to tell Seth to be more specific: "Use a full sentence. (Seth utters a brief comment.) What would you like to know? What about it?" (Classroom observation, 26 June 2018). This prompting manner of questioning focused Seth on better formulation of his questions and responses and enabled Ms Naomi and Seth to mutually negotiate the meaning of actions (i.e., learning activities) in the classroom.

Further, Ms Naomi used differentiation strategies to create a positive relationship with the focus students and contribute to a supportive classroom climate (Smale-Jacobse et al., 2019; Tomlinson, 2017). She was observed approaching them in a more caring manner compared with other students (including others in the SEP), by placing her hand on their back when she talked to them, which also served to focus their attention on her interaction. This was observed when students worked individually as well as during group work. Ms Naomi self-reported (mCLAAS Category 1) and was also observed to use positive reinforcement, specifically with Harry, when inviting him to share his work in order for her to provide feedback. She was observed stating "let's hear the good stuff", thereby implying an assumption that Harry would produce good writing. Harry then read out his work to her and was not observed to show any outward signs of anxiety. This allowed Ms Naomi to elicit evidence of learning and provide feedback to progress Harry's learning, both features of quality assessment practice (ARG, 2002). The observed differentiation strategies provided the

focus students the opportunity to engage in formative teacher–student interactions to elicit evidence of learning and provide/receive feedback, and were part of the classroom's everyday practice, or shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998).

Differentiation of Content

Approaches to differentiation of content—and differentiation of how students accessed content—were evident in both the reported mCLAAS adjustments (Categories 4 and 7) and in Ms Naomi's self-reported practice in interview data. As described previously, Ms Naomi differentiated access to content by providing opportunity for all students to take a photo of the LO and SC. Technology use was evident in Ms Naomi's description of changing the presentation format of written material and making available audio or visual examples of classroom texts on the school's online learning platform in a folder labelled "differentiated". Further, all students were shown videos of Grimm's fairy tales as well as provided with a text-based version for comparison activities. Offering this differentiated content aligned with both the school's pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012), which prescribed the use of non-linguistic representations and Tomlinson's (2017) emphasis on taking into account students' different skills and preferences and planning accordingly. Providing multiple modes of representation also aligns with UDL principles (CAST, 2019).

However, observations showed students were predominantly offered text-based resources in class, instead of presented with other suitable choices for their learning requirements, as recommended by UDL. The differentiated label of the online folder of content may introduce a barrier if students—including the focus students—do not recognise those resources as useful, if they assume they do not need differentiation, or if they do not perceive their needs to be "different". In such cases, students with disability cannot mediate those resources to be mutually engaged in the classroom.

Differentiation of Process

Survey data, interview data and classroom observations revealed differentiation of process relating to small group settings and adjusted worksheets. Although Ms Naomi recorded on the mCLAAS (Category 2) that Seth and Charlie were provided with extra time during classroom practice, and that all three focus students were granted extra time on assessments, this was not evident in interview data or in the observation period.

First, Ms Naomi regularly implemented group work, aligning with the school's recommended use of cooperative learning (Dean et al., 2012); students were observed to engage in group work eight times over five observed lessons. This aligns with Tomlinson's (2017) notion of differentiation through flexible grouping, where group tasks should "call for a meaningful contribution from every group member" (p. 47). Groups usually consisted of four students or fewer, as recommended by Dean et al. (2012), and Ms Naomi visited each group to communicate associated rules and expectations and facilitate discussions. Although group work can be difficult for some students with ASD (Ravet, 2013), Harry was not observed to show outward signs of anxiety and was often observed to participate in his group, especially if he formed a group with two friends. Ms Naomi was observed to address each group member individually and repeat the rules and expectations, contributing to clarity about ways of doing, talking and being within each group. She was further able to elicit evidence of Harry's understanding in group work, recognising his hesitance to answer if she attempted this as part of whole-classroom questioning:

> It's not because he doesn't know the answer, it's either because he needs a lot of processing time for the question that I've asked him or he's anxious about getting it wrong… I try not to put him on the spot. (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 500–505)

In facilitating these groups, Ms Naomi helped to create a supportive learning environment (Smale-Jacobse et al., 2019) by attempting to reduce Harry's perception of "emotional

danger" (Tomlinson, 2017, p. 44) and not "put[ting] him on the spot" (Ms Naomi, interview, 29 June 2018, line 505).

While these strategies may facilitate Harry's learning, a range of strategies for including students with ASD in whole-class questioning has been identified (Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019; Wenger, 1998), including longer wait time for answers, the use of visuals to support questions and providing multiple options for response. Ms Naomi's repertoire of differentiation strategies was not observed to include such strategies, as illustrated by her statement that she would only directly question Harry during whole-class questioning if she thought he could succeed. She stated, "if I have looked for cues in that I'm sure he knows the answer or I've heard him say it already, earlier, then I will ask him and give him that opportunity to succeed, but otherwise I won't" (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 505–508). Ms Naomi's comments indicate that, in such cases, questioning was used as confirmation of her observations instead of as an artefact to elicit evidence of Harry's learning, as she was already "sure he knows the answer". Instead of questioning, Ms Naomi relied on observational evidence, when she "looked for cues" of Harry's understanding. This indicates that Ms Naomi did not use questioning to elicit evidence of Harry's learning progress. Rather, it appears that questioning was used to promote Harry's self-esteem and confidence to talk in front of the class.

Second, Ms Naomi stated that she would often adjust worksheets or other handouts for the focus students to ensure they did not have to write as much as other students: "So in my planning I'll have 'hand out differentiated whatever', or I'll just give them a photocopy of it and I'll get them to highlight the important keywords while everyone else is writing it out" (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 286–291). Ms Naomi's consideration of writing load is compatible with the focus students' requirements, considering their reduced fine motor skills (Harry) and writing and processing skills (Seth and Charlie). This reported practice

reflects differentiation as a responsive, rather than proactive strategy, where only certain students received different materials.

However, this differentiated practice was not observed during classroom observations; the focus students received the same worksheets as their peers. This may be associated with Ms Naomi's observation that students' demand for adjusted worksheets decreased throughout the year:

> I find that at the beginning of the year the kids want the differentiated stuff… I've always got enough and then I walk around and they just give me a nonverbal cue: 'No I'm fine' and then I just keep walking and I don't give it to them. (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 309–314)

This change in students' preference may relate to students' desire to not "being treated differently from the other rest of the class" (Seth/Charlie, interview, 27 June 2018, line 284[20]). This is consistent with research showing students perceived different treatment as unfair (Mazzoli Smith et al., 2017), and that students with disability did not want to be treated differently (VEOHRC, 2012), and reported feeling embarrassed to receive help during a test (Feldman et al., 2011). The changing preference for undifferentiated material can also relate to students' perceived readiness to proceed with the planned learning. As Tomlinson (2017) stated, some students benefit from more structured tasks before feeling ready for more open-ended tasks. The process of students' declining the differentiated worksheets can be seen in Tomlinson's (2017) comments: "At some point in the learning process, structure or modeling helps most of us become confident enough eventually to [go] solo. When modeling has served its purpose for a student, the teacher needs to remove the 'training wheels'" (p. 89). However, Ms Naomi's comments show that she gave students agency to remove "training wheels". The data showed that these supports may still be necessary in other aspects of students' learning.

[20] Since the interview with Seth and Charlie was audio-, but not video-recorded, it was not always clear which boy was talking. In such cases, the reference Seth/Charlie is used.

For example, observations showed that Ms Naomi instructed Seth and Charlie to take the extra step of highlighting key words during a task that required them to categorise different words from a story (e.g., “food words”, “clothes words”, etc.) and copy them into a table. This strategy simplified the matching of words to columns in their table. The peer in their group—also supported by the SEP—was also instructed to do so, but no other students in the class were, further indicating the use of differentiation (responsive to some students) instead of UDL (providing options to all students). The strategy further reflects a recommended adjustment for students with SLI (Qld DoE, personal communication, June 18, 2018a), namely to colour code key concepts.

The differentiation practices that were evident in the data illustrate that Ms Naomi took responsibility to determine the extent of differentiation for the focus students, which largely aligned with parents’ reported support requirements. Survey data (PR) showed that the focus students’ parents indicated their wish for spelling assistance (Seth) and a scribe (Charlie), and emphasised a barrier associated with reliance on verbal instructions (Harry). Ms Naomi self-reported providing spelling assistance to Seth and Charlie on assessments, but not during classroom practice (mCLAAS Category 5). Consistency in adjustment provisions is important to establish alignment of formative classroom practice and summative classroom assessment, an identified feature of quality assessment (ACACA, 1995, 2012; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Further, Ms Naomi did not record adjustments such as reading or restating directions of tasks or subtasks (mCLAAS Category 4) for Harry during learning, and additional time was not provided to Harry (as discussed later in the chapter). The DSE (2005) requirement to consult with parents regarding reasonable adjustments meant that Ms Naomi was required to balance parents’ evaluations of their child’s required adjustments with her own evaluation of what students needed in order to succeed in class. Overall, the data indicated that Ms Naomi was the main authority on the provision of adjustments for the focus students.

An exception to Ms Naomi's authority on support provisions was observed by the deployment of support staff. Although classroom observations showed that Charlie received TA support with writing in class, this was not intended by Ms Naomi. She had stated that she did not want TAs working with Seth and Charlie because she had "seen what they're able to do" (Interview, 29 June 2018, line 205) and believed them to be capable of independent work. This is discussed in Element 3, where the deployment of support staff is presented as another element influencing how students were supported in their engagement with classroom assessment.

Differentiation of Product

Survey data indicated Ms Naomi's differentiation of product (mCLAAS Categories 2–7) related to summative assessment (see Appendix 1). Differentiation of summative assessment enables accessibility, identified as a feature of quality assessment (ACACA, 1995, 2012; ARG, 2002; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Accessibility has further been identified as an important component of a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), where participants need to access the resources as part of the shared repertoire of the community in order to fully participate. Related to inclusive education, school staff need to share a common understanding of inclusive features, such as accessibility, in order to facilitate their implementation (Ainscow, 2005; UNCRPD, 2016), as noted in Chapter 2. Ms Naomi's survey data indicated her "moderate" skills, confidence and preparedness to design or adapt assessment suited to diverse students, although she considered these to be "very important" parts of her role (TAII, TUDSE). These "moderate" skills and confidence levels contrast with Ms Naomi's interview data—as discussed in Chapter 4—where she presented herself as more expert on students' required support, indicating she did not ask SEP staff to make adjustments as "none of them know the kids as well as I do" (Interview, 29 June 2018, line 180). While this reported feeling of responsibility for teaching students with disability has been associated with successful facilitation of

inclusive education (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002), Chapter 2 identified that collaboration is also important to establish inclusive assessment practice (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007). This will be addressed further in Element 5.

The data revealed that the differentiation of product did not take place; the focus students received the same assessment task as their peers, although this task was not equally accessible to all students. This does not reflect inclusive assessment practice, as will be discussed in Element 6.

Element 3: Deployment of Support Staff

The third element identified that, despite Ms Naomi's stated aim to be the main provider of support, SEP teachers and SEP/LANI TAs were observed as the predominant provider of support for the focus students in the English classroom. The presence of support staff in the classroom implies both a shared or overlapping role (Wenger, 1998) with classroom teachers, as both supported students with disability, as well as complementary roles (Wenger, 1998), given support staff may have disability-specific knowledge that complements the teacher's subject and student-specific knowledge. To mediate each other's expertise, classroom teachers and support staff should develop relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) to strengthen their joint response to including students with disability in the classroom. However, the manner of deployment of support staff has been identified in the research literature to inhibit preparedness of support staff (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Sharma & Salend, 2016), and to result in lack of clarity of their role and responsibilities (Bourke, 2009; Butt, 2016; Gibson et al., 2016) and less teacher–student interaction in lieu of more teacher aide-student interaction (Blatchford et al., 2012; Harris, 2011).

Interview data showed that Ms Naomi had an intended strategy for the deployment of support staff in her classroom. While, as highlighted in Chapter 5, Ms Naomi was not aware of the roster of SEP staff, she stated that she usually directed one SEP staff

member to scribe for two (non-focus) students in the SEP seated in the back row of the classroom and assigned other SEP staff (if present) to engage with other students who were part of the SEP. This included Harry, who she emphasised should be supported during group work, but not Seth and Charlie as she perceived this level of support to be above their requirements, as will be discussed under the following subheading. Such purposeful deployment of support staff would display an intention of relational agency on Ms Naomi's part, as she aimed to mediate support staff's skills and knowledge to achieve a goal (supporting those students who she deemed required support). This contradicts research that identified a lack of purposeful deployment of support staff by teachers (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Sharma & Salend, 2016).

However, the enactment of this strategy (i.e., no support staff to engage with Seth and Charlie) was not evident in the classroom observation data. During the five observed lessons, four different support staff (A, B, C, and D) visited Ms Naomi's classroom, of whom one was a SEP teacher and one was a LANI teacher aide. During three of these lessons, the only support staff present was a SEP TA (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2

Presence of Support Staff During Classroom Observations

Lesson	SEP teacher	SEP teacher aide	LANI teacher aide
1 – 18 June 2018		C	
2 – 19 June 2018	A		B
3 – 22 June 2018		D	
4 – 25 June 2018		C	
5 – 26 June 2018	A	C	B

In the five observed lessons, a SEP TA (present during four lessons) sat in the back row, reflecting Ms Naomi's intended deployment. However, although Ms Naomi had also stated she would allocate roles to support staff in class (beyond the TA who sat at the back of class),

this was rarely observed. Once, the SEP teacher (present during two lessons) asked Ms Naomi "Would you like me to look after that middle row?" (where the focus students were seated) and Ms Naomi replied "Oh, it's up to you, if they need it. If they need it. You take the back row, I'll take the middle row" (Classroom observation, 19 June 2018). Ms Naomi was still observed walking around the entire class, assisting students in every row and questioning or whispering corrections or encouragements to individual students. The SEP teacher assisted students in the middle row as well as the back row, most of whom belonged to the SEP. Further direction of support staff was not observed in class. Hence, intended relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) was not evident between Ms Naomi and support staff. Although both were present in the classroom, no mutual negotiation took place to develop a common understanding of the meanings of actions (e.g., content, lesson activities, scaffolding required) and a shared repertoire of ways of doing and being within the classroom was not evident (Wenger, 1998). By contrast, most of the support in class was observed to happen responsively. Ms Naomi and support staff often all walked around the room to help students in a responsive manner, without further prior planning, although SEP staff predominantly interacted with students in the SEP. This observed lack of direction may be associated with the lack of communication between classroom teachers and SEP staff, as identified in Chapter 5, resulting in SEP staff "help[ing] on the spot".

Distribution of Interactions During Individual Work

Although interview data showed Ms Naomi positioned herself to be the predominant provider of support for Seth and Charlie, this was not evident in video observations. Ms Naomi stated,

> I don't want anyone working with [Seth and Charlie] except for me. Because I know that, what they're capable of, I don't want them being spoon-fed. I've seen what they're able to do and so they know they just sort of touch base with me otherwise it's

somebody else that's doing their work and it's not necessary. They're independent. (Ms Naomi, interview, 29 June 2018, lines 200–207)

These comments illustrate Ms Naomi's high expectations for Seth and Charlie ("They're independent."), as well as her intent to not let SEP or LANI staff work with them because she believed that she was best placed to provide sufficient required support. Ms Naomi presented herself as the expert on Seth and Charlie's requirements and their potential ability to complete tasks. As part of the relational agency that is required in a community with multiple professionals (Edwards & Kinti, 2009), Ms Naomi should communicate this expectation to support staff, enabling negotiation of a shared understanding of their roles (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Ms Naomi and support staff could then mediate the cultural artefacts of each other's professional knowledge and motives (i.e., "Seth and Charlie should work independently") to shape their practice (Edwards & Kinti, 2009), resulting in support staff not providing support to Seth and Charlie.

However, video data analyses of the five observed lessons showed that all three focus students spent more time in interaction with support staff than with Ms Naomi (Table 6.3 and Figure 6.1). This aligns with the reported commonality with which TAs provide 1:1 support (Carter et al., 2019; Giangreco et al., 2010) and findings that TAs provided alternative rather than additional support to students with disability (Blatchford et al., 2012; Harris, 2011). In other words, students who had more interactions with TAs were found to interact less with classroom teachers (Blatchford et al., 2012; Harris, 2011).

The total number of interactions the focus students had with Ms Naomi and with support staff is shown in Table 6.3, as well as the total duration of those interactions as observed across the five lessons. These interactions took place when students were working on educational activities individually, with Ms Naomi and support staff walking around the classroom to provide support. Figure 6.1 shows the percentage of interactions the focus

students had with Ms Naomi and with support staff, as part of their total duration of interactions with Ms Naomi and support staff.

Table 6.3

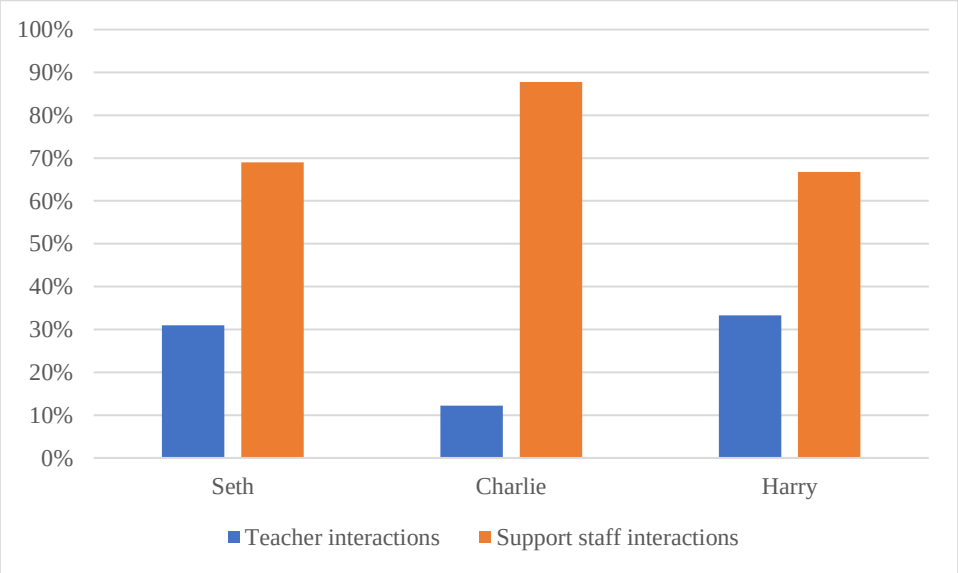
Cumulative Frequency and Duration of Teacher/Support Staff Interactions With Focus Students

Interactions with	Seth		Charlie		Harry		
	Frequency	Time	Frequency	Time	Frequency	Time	Total
Teacher	14	3:55	8	1:59	6	2:22	8:16
Support staff	12	8:43	18	14:14	12	4:45	27:42
Total	26	12:38	26	16:13	18	7:07	

Note. Data gathered across five lessons.

Figure 6.1

Relative Distribution Duration Teacher/Support Staff Interactions With Focus Students



Note. Data gathered across five lessons.

Although Table 6.3 shows that Ms Naomi interacted with Seth more frequently (14 times) than support staff did (12 times), Figure 6.1 shows that support staff worked with all three

students for a longer period than Ms Naomi. This distribution may reflect Ms Naomi often checking in on Seth or attending to his raised hand, whereas support staff worked with Seth for longer periods during each interaction. While the data did not allow for judgements on the nature of support that support staff provided, field notes identified that their support appeared to resemble Ms Naomi's practices of directing students' work during writing tasks or prompting the students to keep focused.

The shorter amount of time Ms Naomi spent with the focus students compared with time spent by support staff may be explained by the required support of other students in the classroom. Analysis of the total time Ms Naomi spent supporting students, the number of students in class, and the time she spent supporting the focus students (Table 6.4) shows that the focus students—representing 11% of the class population—received 12% of her support (8 min 16 secs). This is approximately the same as for other students in the classroom, who received 88% of her support (1 hr 1 min 40 secs) while representing 89% of the class population.

Table 6.4

Duration of Teacher Interactions Focus Students and Other Students

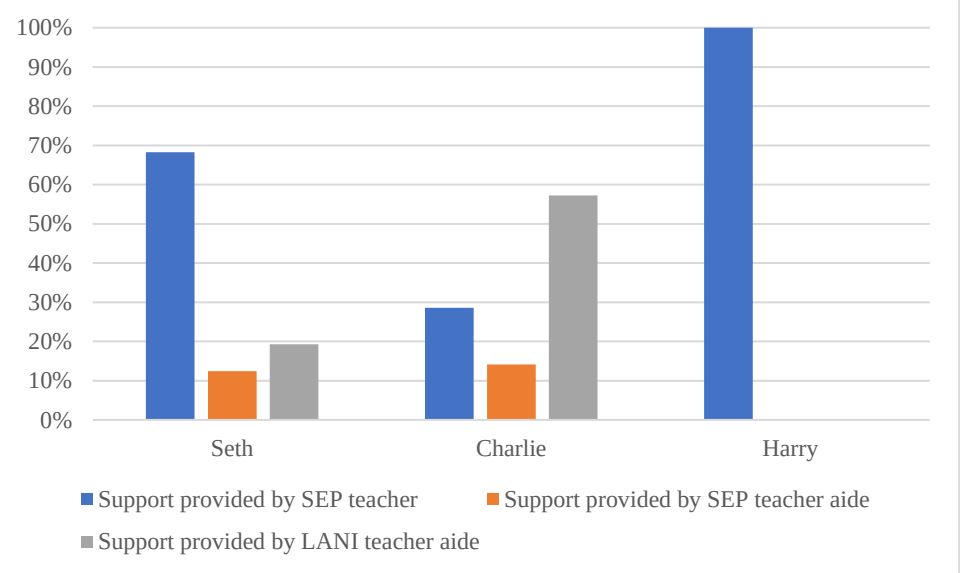
Teacher interactions	**Focus students (n=3, 11%)**	**Other students (n=24, 89%)**
Duration (h:mm:ss)	0:08:16	1:01:40
Percentage	12%	88%

The interactions of the focus students with support staff were further examined to determine the distribution of support provided by different types of support staff (i.e., SEP teacher, SEP teacher aide, LANI teacher aide; Figure 6.2). Seth and Harry received the most support from the SEP teacher—who was present for two out of five lessons—whereas Charlie

received the majority of his support from the LANI teacher aide, who was present during the same two lessons as the SEP teacher.

Figure 6.2

Relative Duration of Support Provided by Different Types of Support Staff



Note. Based on observations during individual work across five lessons.

This may reflect the HoSE's statement, as discussed in Chapter 5, that Charlie's support would be provided by LANI instead of the SEP, upon removal of his verification of SLI[21]. Since the HoSE was in the process of removing his verification when classroom observations took place, this may be already reflected in Figure 6.2. The limited duration of support provided by SEP TAs during lessons where just one TA was present, reflects Ms Naomi's intention that one TA should always sit with students in the back row.

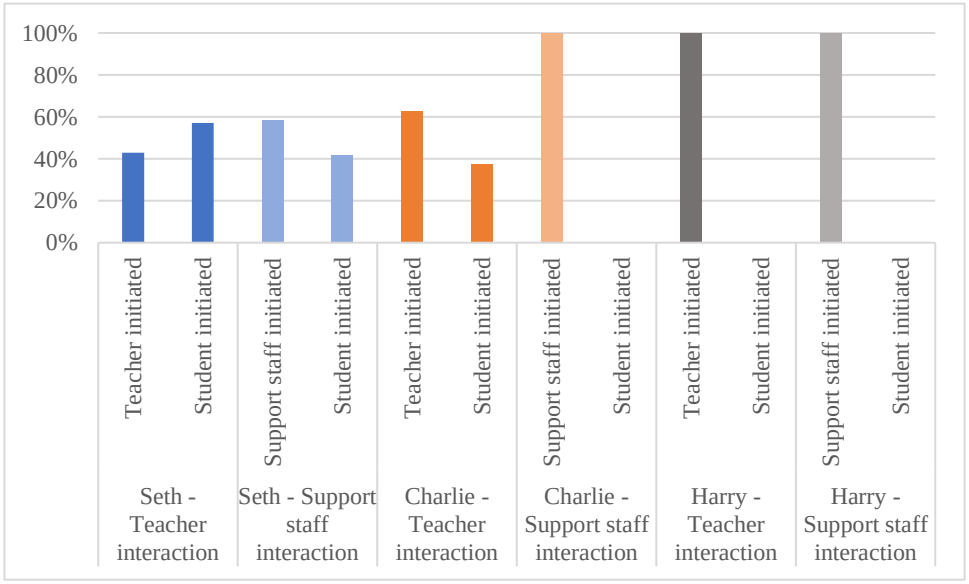
[21] As noted in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, verification of disability resulted in additional disability funding to the school. As the school used this funding to fund the SEP, removal of Charlie's verification meant that SEP was no longer the predominant provider of his support, despite the ongoing presence of a disability.

Initiation of Support

To determine how interactions between the focus students and Ms Naomi, and between focus students and support staff (i.e., the SEP teacher, SEP TAs and LANI teacher aide) came to be, initiation of support was considered (Figure 6.3). All three focus students stated in interview that they would ask the teacher or support staff for help, except Seth, who indicated he only wanted help from the classroom teacher. Interactions were coded as being initiated by students if they raised their hand or called for help immediately preceding the interaction with, for example, support staff. This does not imply that the focus students asked for help from a specific person, but rather that they initiated help-seeking behaviour. For example, Figure 6.3 shows that Seth initiated 42% of support staff interactions. This can be explained by Seth often raising his hand to request support, followed by support staff approaching him.

Figure 6.3

Relative Distribution of Initiation of Interactions



Note. Data gathered across five lessons.

Figure 6.3 shows that interactions of support staff and the focus students were more often initiated by support staff than by the students. In other words, even when Seth and Charlie had not requested help, they still received support from support staff. This presents a discrepancy with Ms Naomi's intended deployment of support staff, as she had stated that SEP staff were not to provide support to Seth and Charlie. Given Ms Naomi's evaluation of their support requirements, the support Seth and Charlie received from support staff, without requesting such support, may not have been necessary. The disjuncture between Ms Naomi's intention and support staff's enacted provision of support indicates that Ms Naomi and SEP staff had not developed relational agency, where both parties could mediate distributed expertise (Edwards & Kinti, 2009). Relational agency would have been developed if SEP staff had recognised Ms Naomi's expertise (i.e., "Seth and Charlie do not require support") and applied that to their own work (i.e., "we do not need to provide support"). It is likely that the communication issues between classroom teachers and SEP staff, as identified in Chapter 5, presented a barrier for both parties to mutually negotiate this expertise within the classroom (Wenger, 1998). These issues with communication and collaboration have repeatedly been found to characterise the relationship between classroom teachers and support staff (Bourke, 2008; Howard & Ford, 2007; Vlachou et al., 2015).

Video and interview data indicated that Seth did not recognise support staff's expertise as an artefact that he could mediate to progress his learning. The fact that Seth initiated fewer interactions with support staff than with Ms Naomi reflected his strong preference for receiving help only from the classroom teacher instead of the SEP teachers or TAs. He stated, "there's, like, other teachers in the class, like, they come to me, but they don't know … or I say I'm looking for [the teacher] 'cos I know that they probably [do] not know it" (Interview, 27 June 2018, lines 184–186). Seth was observed to tell the SEP teacher and LANI TA he was waiting for Ms Naomi. In such cases, they would leave, and Seth would raise his hand again. This aligns with Howard and Ford's (2007) observation that TAs need to

balance the expectation from teachers to provide support to students and students' unwillingness to accept support from them.

Figure 6.3 further shows Seth's frequent initiation of support generally compared with Charlie and Harry, illustrating Seth's need for confirmation from the teacher. Harry did not initiate any interactions with Ms Naomi or the support staff, reflecting Ms Naomi's observation that Harry did not usually ask questions during lessons. This is consistent with research on students with ASD that reports their limited self-advocacy (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Zuber & Webber, 2019).

Element 4: Formative Teacher–Student Interaction

In the sociocultural context of the classroom, teacher–student interaction can contribute to mutual negotiation of the meaning of actions in the learning community (Wenger, 1998) as part of dialogical meaning-making (Lyle, 2008) and serve as an artefact that teacher and students mediate to negotiate the meaning of the shared repertoire of the classroom (Wenger, 1998), such as goals, content and classroom protocols. Models of quality assessment practice include formative teacher–student interaction that can serve to develop a shared understanding of assessment expectations, elicit or demonstrate evidence of student learning, and, for teachers, to communicate to students the next steps in their learning[22], while engaging in scaffolding, feedback and questioning (ARG, 2002; Black, 2013; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008).

Video data were analysed and coded to identify how Ms Naomi interacted with students in the classroom, as described in Chapter 3. Interactions between support staff and focus students as well as focus students' comments to the teacher and support staff were analysed anecdotally as audio recordings did not enable in-depth analysis, as noted in Chapter 3. To facilitate coding of formative teacher–student interactions, overall teacher activity was

[22] While it is evidenced on the school website that diagnostic assessments occur, to gather evidence of student learning and inform differentiation (Qld DoE, 2018a), they were not referred to by either the HoSE or the teachers in interview.

coded first, as noted in Chapter 3. Five areas of teacher activity were identified: "Administration" (e.g., roll call, writing activities on the board), "Instructing", "Questioning" (i.e., whole-class questioning), "Walking Around/Supporting", and "Engaging With Content" (e.g., whole-class reading, showing a video).

Analysis revealed that Ms Naomi spent the majority (40%) of her time in class Walking Around/Supporting students (Table 6.5) while they worked individually or in small groups. Ms Naomi interacted with students during this time to enable them to engage with and succeed at lesson activities, reflecting principles of AfL (ARG, 2002). She was observed walking around the entire class during individual and group work to check students' progress, quality of work and to prompt them to focus on the prescribed task. Correspondingly, students spent the majority of their time (54%) working individually (1hr 50 min 12 secs) or as part of a group (1 hr 9 min 48 secs; Table 6.6). The activity Walking Around/Supporting was isolated to enable coding of formative teacher–student interactions during students' individual and group work.

Table 6.5

Cumulative Duration of Ms Naomi's Educational Activities

Activity	Time (h:mm:ss)	Percentage
Administration	1:37:24	29%
Instructing	0:33:50	10%
Questioning (whole class)	0:24:29	7%
Walking Around/Supporting	2:14:47	40%
Engaging With Content	0:44:27	13%

Note. Based on observations across five lessons (5 hours 34 minutes).

Table 6.6

Cumulative Duration of Type of Student Work

Type of work	Time (h:mm:ss)	Percentage
Individual Work	1:50:12	33%
Group Work	1:09:48	21%
Other (e.g., teacher explanations, engaging with content)	2:34:57	46%

Note. Based on observations across five lessons (5 hours 34 minutes).

Video data of interactions between Ms Naomi and the three focus students during individual and group work were coded using the framework described in Chapter 3 (repeated in Table 6.7) to explore the nature of these interactions. Seven areas of activity were identified: (1) "Observing", (2) "Instructing", (3) "Questioning", (4) "Providing Next Steps", (5) "Evaluating", (6) "Directing", and (7) "Talking"[23]. These areas were coded while considering the function of Ms Naomi's interactions; a question would therefore be coded as Directing if it served to prompt students to start or continue their work.

Each interaction sequence between Ms Naomi and the focus students could represent multiple codes. For example, Ms Naomi could ask students how they were going

[23] The eighth code, 'Providing the answer', was only observed during mathematics lessons.

(Talking), then give praise (Evaluating) followed by instructions (Instructing). The seven codes were assigned 214 times to a combined 50 interactions (28 interactions with individual focus students and 22 interactions with groups to which the focus students belonged).

Table 6.7

Final Coding Scheme English Observations

Final code	Code description	Previous code	Description of codes merged into final code
1	Observing student (at) work	C	Teacher observes student at work (process)
		D	Teacher examines work done (product)/silently or out loud
2	Giving task-related instructions	A	Teacher communicates or negotiates task criteria (what has to be done in order to complete the task) or negotiates them with student.
		I	Teacher gives instructions
		Q	Teacher reads/rereads/rewords instructions
		AA	Teacher connects back to previous learning/experience
		FF	Teacher provides info to continue task (e.g., writing on board)
3	Questioning	E	Teacher asks principled question (seeks to elicit evidence of what student knows, understands, or can do: substance).
		F	Teacher asks for clarification about process: what has been done, is being done or will be done.
		R	Teacher checks if student understands their explanation/ instruction
		Y	Teacher asks a rhetoric question
		CC	Teacher asks for clarification (after mishearing/ mispronunciation)
		DD	Teacher questions to elicit deeper thinking
4	Providing information on next steps for the task or for future work	K	Teacher suggests or negotiates with student what to do next
		L	Teacher suggests or negotiates with student what to do next time and discusses ways of organising similar contexts for knowledge in future
		T	Teacher assigns next activity
5	Evaluating behaviour/work/effort	M	Teacher comments on quality/accuracy/effort of student action/work
		O	Teacher gives brief affective statement (good/nice)/praise
		EE	Teacher summarises and checks student's answer
6	Directing student towards action	U	Teacher prompts student to start/continue/finish work or get them to focus/refocus
		P	Teacher directs students to do something
7	Talking personally with student (emotional, social, checking in)	S	Teacher asks student how they're going (opening statement, checking in)
		V	Teacher engages in emotional talk (e.g., "Are you okay?")
		W	Teacher engages in social talk (not task-related)
		GG	Teacher explains why student has to do something

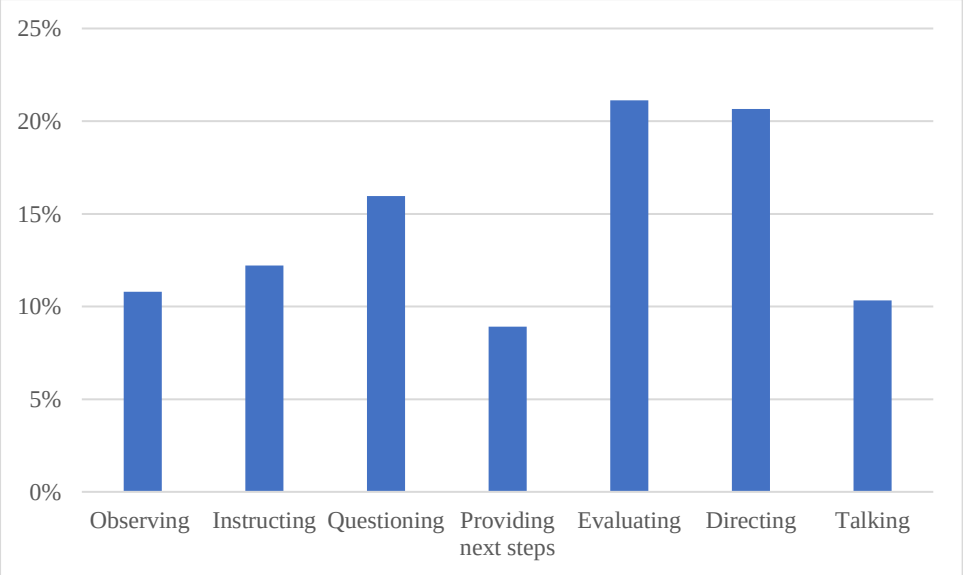
Reflecting earlier analyses showing support staff as the predominant provider of support for the focus students (Figure 6.1), especially Charlie and Harry, interaction

sequences varied in length for the focus students. Seth had the most interactions with Ms Naomi, with 42 coded sequences. Harry and Charlie interacted considerably less with Ms Naomi, with 18 and 16 coded sequences respectively. Therefore, the following results need to be interpreted within this frame.

The results show that Ms Naomi's interactions with the focus students were concentrated on Evaluating, Directing and Questioning (Figure 6.4), which will be discussed separately. However, some differences were noted when analyses were broken down to show interaction patterns with Seth, Charlie and Harry separately (Figure 6.5), especially in the area of Evaluating and Questioning. Although Evaluating and Questioning were two of Ms Naomi's three most-coded interaction types, she engaged in Evaluating considerably more with Harry than with Seth and Charlie, and engaged in Questioning considerably less with Harry than with Seth and Charlie.

Figure 6.4

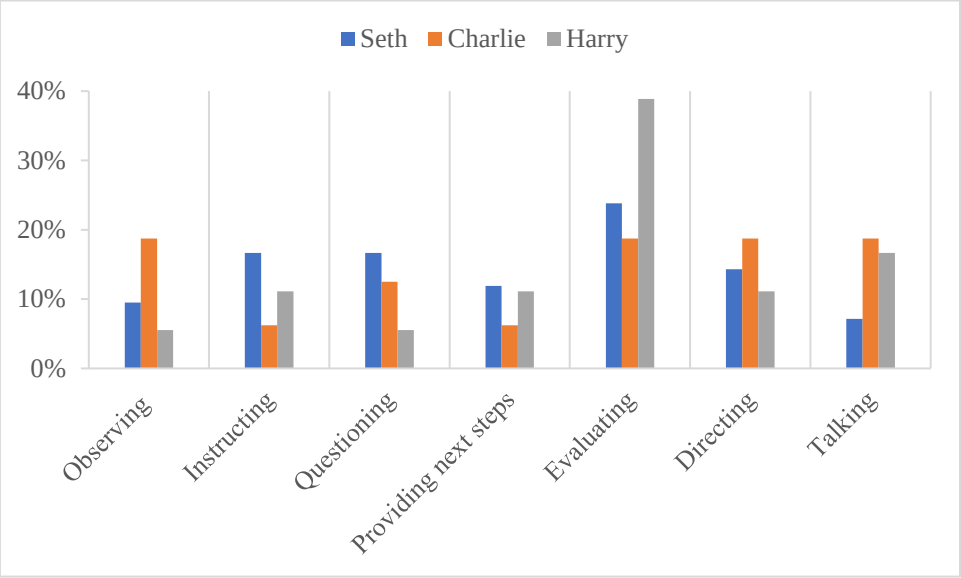
Relative Distribution of Types of Ms Naomi's Interactions With all Focus Students



Note. Based on observations across five lessons during individual and group work.

Figure 6.5

Types of Ms Naomi's Interactions With Seth, Charlie and Harry



Note. Based on observations across five lessons during individual and group work.

To examine more closely the type of interactions Ms Naomi engaged in, the most predominant codes (Evaluating, Directing, Questioning) are now discussed separately.

Evaluating

Evaluating was predominant in Ms Naomi's interactions with the focus students (21.1% of the 214 assigned codes) and involved praise (for example, "Very good"), commenting on quality of students' work (for example, "I like that. That is an excellent word.") or summarising and checking students' work. Overall, Ms Naomi's observed evaluative interaction segments usually took the form of praise and more detailed task-related feedback, as recommended by the school's pedagogical framework, and part of quality classroom assessment (ARG, 2002; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996).

Figure 6.5 shows that the majority of Seth's (24% of 42 interaction sequences) and especially Harry's (39% of 18 interaction sequences) interactions with Ms Naomi were evaluative. Previous analyses identified that Seth initiated interactions with Ms Naomi, which

reflected his reported requirement for confirmation and prompting to start or continue work. The data reflect Ms Naomi responding to this requirement, for example by checking his work and stating “Excellent, keep going” (Classroom observation, 19 June 2018). This implies that confirmations and prompts were a mutually negotiated practice in the classroom, recognised by Ms Naomi and Seth as an established practice in the classroom.

Harry was not observed to initiate any interactions, which, as noted, aligns with reported limited self-advocacy of some students with ASD (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Zuber & Webber, 2019). The onus was therefore on Ms Naomi to enable interaction so Harry could demonstrate evidence of his learning and receive feedback to progress further. This interaction usually involved positive feedback (39%), pointing to Ms Naomi’s awareness of Harry’s required emotional support and aligning with the notion of reinforcement as an evidence-based practice to promote academic outcomes for students with ASD (National Autism Center, 2009; Wong et al., 2015). The following dialogue illustrates how Ms Naomi created an opportunity to progress learning:

> Ms Naomi: Harry, how you are going?
>
> Harry: Honestly, I’m going a bit ‘ugh’.
>
> Ms Naomi: Alright, you want some help. Alright, let’s hear the good stuff. Read it to me. (Classroom observation, 19 June 2018)

By inviting Harry to read his writing to her, which she identified as “good stuff”, Ms Naomi aimed to provide Harry with a safe opportunity to share his work and receive feedback. Ms Naomi then took the opportunity to give him task-related feedback (“That is a really good point”), instructions on what to do next (“You can add that in your next sentence. Elaborate on that a little bit”) and then would walk away with another positive statement (“Well done”). These data show that Harry recognised Ms Naomi’s question and invitation as being part of Ms Naomi’s repertoire of support strategies, as he was able to mediate her comments to admit he was struggling and share his writing with Ms Naomi. Ms Naomi’s initial positive

evaluation ("Good stuff") of his work may further indicate that evaluative statements can invite students with ASD to engage in mutual negotiation of learning with teachers as part of classroom assessment processes. Despite these benefits, such affective feedback alone cannot progress student learning, as research shows that task-related feedback is more effective to promote student achievement (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Further, reinforcement benefits students with ASD if they are aware what behaviour is being reinforced (National Autism Center, 2009; Wong et al., 2015). This illustrates the complex set of knowledge and skills Ms Naomi requires in order to negotiate disability-specific requirements with quality assessment practice to individually progress each student's learning.

Directing

Directing codes (20.7% of 214 assigned codes) were most often assigned when Ms Naomi directed students to do something, for example "Put it away" or "Seth, if you can just sit here, buddy" (Classroom observation, 18 June 2018). This reflects the fact that students spent 21% of their time in class involved in group work. Ms Naomi's directive statements therefore mostly served to facilitate group-based learning activities for all students and negotiate with them common ways of doing and being during these classroom activities.

Directive statements further involved Ms Naomi prompting students to start, continue or finish their work or to focus/refocus. Interview data showed that Seth and Charlie both required prompts and confirmation to start or continue their work and the data indicate that Ms Naomi provided this support. For example, Ms Naomi prompted Seth (14% of interactions involved Directing) to start work by saying "Okay, so you want to start your paragraph down here?" (Classroom observation, 19 June 2018). Interactions with Charlie (19% of interactions involved Directing) mostly involved redirection, such as "Put it away" (Classroom observation, 18 June 2018) and "Can we get on task please?" (Classroom observation, 22 June 2018). This result may reflect how most of Charlie's interactions with

Ms Naomi took place during group work (13 min 35 secs compared with 2 min 47 secs during individual work); directives were not only aimed at Charlie, but to the entire group, such as "Pull up some seats" (Classroom observation, 22 June 2018). In such cases, codes were assigned to Charlie as well as Seth, if they were both part of that group. Ms Naomi's directives, observed for other groups as well, therefore formed part of the classroom's joint enterprise (Wenger, 1998), where participants negotiated ways of doing and being within the structures of the classroom.

Questioning

Questioning codes (16% of 214 assigned codes) represented a range of functions, such as seeking evidence of students' skills and knowledge, clarifying students' past, present and future work, checking if instructions were understood, asking a rhetoric question, clarifying after mishearing or mispronunciation, or eliciting deeper thinking. Questioning has been identified as a key component of formative assessment practice (Black & Wiliam, 2009) and can contribute to student learning if it elicits information of students' reasoning (Mercer & Howe, 2012; Torrance & Pryor, 2001).

Ms Naomi's use of Questioning illustrated scaffolding practices to extend students' thinking or guide them towards the correct answer. As Chapter 2 described, scaffolding is responsive to the student, and includes withdrawal of support and transfer of responsibility from the teacher to the student (van de Pol et al., 2010). For example, by asking Harry's group to "think of another strategy she [the mother] could have used so that maybe she would endanger one of them instead of all of them" (Classroom observation, 18 June 2018), Ms Naomi provided Harry's group with a clue to guide their discussion of *The Wolf and the Seven Kids,* before withdrawing her support. Similarly, she asked Seth and Charlie to compare versions of the fairy tale: "What were some differences between the version that you read and the one that you heard?" (Classroom observation, 26 June 2018). These types of questions reflected the pedagogical framework's recommended practice of inferential and

analytic questioning and can give Ms Naomi insight into Seth and Charlie's thinking processes (Mercer & Howe, 2012), reflecting a divergent form of assessment (Florian & Beaton, 2017; Torrance & Pryor, 2001). Rhetorical questions—also frequently used by Ms Naomi—were a form of convergent assessment (Torrance & Pryor, 2001) as they did not allow students space to independently explore possible answers. For example, after observing Seth's writing exercise, Ms Naomi asked "If that is the end of your first sentence, should it be a comma or a full stop?" (Classroom observation, 19 June 2018). As Seth had written a comma, this question heavily directed Seth to the correct answer (full stop), rather than transferring responsibility onto him to remember punctuation rules. While the latter has been identified as ideal practice (Mercer & Howe, 2012), teachers have to make on the spot decisions when to probe and when to ask more directive types of questions, without much time to reflect on their options (Black & Wiliam, 2009).

Other Types of Teacher Interaction

Ms Naomi engaged less often with the focus students in Instructing, Observing, Talking and Providing Next Steps, although this differed between focus students. For example, Ms Naomi equally engaged in Observing, Talking, Directing and Evaluating with Charlie. As Charlie did not ask many questions during English lessons, but was reported to require confirmation, prompts and spelling assistance, Ms Naomi had to observe his work, ask him how he was doing (Talking, see Table 6.7), and confirm his progress. This reflected alignment of Ms Naomi's understanding of Charlie's required support with support requirements reported by his parents in survey data and by the HoSE in interview data.

Similarly, Ms Naomi engaged in Talking with Harry—his second-most recorded interaction type (17%)—even though Harry did not initiate any interactions. This illustrates Ms Naomi's understanding that to support Harry's learning, he required checking in with, as evidenced by questions such as "Harry, how are you going?" (Classroom observation 19 June 2018). Ms Naomi did not engage in Providing Next Steps with Harry

beyond the example mentioned earlier ("Add that in your next sentence"), even though this support is often required for students with ASD due to executive function problems (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007). This could be explained by Harry's limited interactions with Ms Naomi (33%) compared with support staff (67%), as the latter may have provided next steps more often.

Ms Naomi spent less time engaged in Talking with Seth (7%), as Seth initiated more interactions, removing the need for Ms Naomi to ask how he was doing. Seth's help-seeking behaviour warranted more Instructing (17%). This help-seeking behaviour can be associated with the difficulty students with DLD, like Seth, experience with understanding instructions and producing writing (Bishop et al., 2017), which were observed to be major aspects of participation in the classroom.

Alignment of Formative Teacher–Student Interactions With the Purpose of AfL

The purpose of AfL concerns the need for teachers to elicit evidence of student learning and evaluate this evidence to determine where students are in their learning and to inform next steps in teaching and learning, while promoting student autonomy (ARG, 2002; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). Ms Naomi would therefore have to engage in Observing or Questioning to elicit evidence of student learning, engage in Evaluating to evaluate this evidence, and engage in Instructing or Providing Next Steps to progress student learning. The codes of Directing and Talking related to prompting students to focus on an activity or to support a positive teacher–student relationship, respectively. To examine whether Ms Naomi's interactions aligned with the purpose of AfL, Table 6.8 shows the distribution of codes across the three aspects of AfL.

Table 6.8

Distribution of Teacher Interactions With Focus Students Related to the Three-Fold Purpose of AfL

Purpose of AfL	Code	Seth		Charlie		Harry	
Eliciting evidence of learning	Observing	10%	27%	19%	32%	6%	12%
	Questioning	17%		13%		6%	
Evaluating evidence of learning	Evaluating	24%	24%	19%	19%	39%	39%
Communicating next steps in learning	Instructing	17%	29%	6%	12%	11%	22%
	Providing Next Steps	12%		6%		11%	

Note. Data gathered across five lessons.

Table 6.8 shows apparent alignment of Seth's interactions with Ms Naomi with the purpose of AfL (ARG, 2002), as 27% of his interactions with Ms Naomi aligned with eliciting evidence of learning, 24% aligned with evaluation of this evidence, and 29% related to communicating next steps in learning. However, as noted above, the data showed that Instructing codes were usually assigned when Ms Naomi clarified instructions for Seth or helped him progress through a writing task, instead of communicating next steps in his learning to promote student autonomy, as recommended in frameworks of quality assessment (ARG, 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008).

Interactions with Charlie and Harry also showed limited alignment with AfL's purpose of promoting student learning. Table 6.8 shows 32% of Charlie's interactions with Ms Naomi elicited evidence of learning, 19% evaluated evidence and 12% communicated next steps, indicating a focus of Ms Naomi on eliciting evidence but to a lesser extent on communicating her evaluation of that evidence and what next steps in learning were. Ms Naomi's interactions with Harry showed 12% of interactions focused on eliciting evidence of learning, 39% on evaluating and 22% on communicating next steps in learning. While this focus on evaluating for Harry is compatible with reinforcement as an evidence-based practice for students with ASD (National Autism Center, 2009; Wong et al., 2015), as noted above,

quality AfL practice should also involve communicating next steps in learning to promote student autonomy (ARG, 2002). Observations did not reveal clear communication to Charlie and Harry regarding how they could progress their learning, indicating that student autonomy was not promoted and the spirit of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006) not enacted.

Summary: Pedagogy and Instruction

This section has provided an analysis that addresses research sub-question 2, *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?* First, interview data and classroom observations revealed that the reliance on discipline-specific, complex vocabulary in the LO and SC as well as the need to write them out, appears to resemble a compliance tool rather than an effective learning and assessment strategy. This is consistent with Wiliam's (2018) notion of "a wallpaper objective" (p. 56), where students do not meaningfully negotiate objectives, and the use of LO and SC becomes a tokenistic practice. The focus students' limited ability to engage with the LO and SC underscores the importance of accessibility; if students cannot access resources intended to belong to the classroom's shared repertoire of learning and assessment practice (Wenger, 1998), then they cannot mediate these artefacts to self-assess and progress their learning.

Second, survey, interview and observation data further revealed how Ms Naomi's differentiation practices were usually implemented in response to planned activities that were not fully accessible to the focus students. This brings to light the importance of UDL principles (CAST, 2019) which advocate that initial planning, including lesson activities and instructions, ensures access to resources as part of the shared repertoire of the classroom (Wenger, 1998).

Third, quantitative analyses of video observations revealed a discrepancy between Ms Naomi's intention to be the predominant provider of support for especially Seth and Charlie and the observation that support staff spent more time than Ms Naomi providing

support to the focus students. This indicates that relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) had not been developed between Ms Naomi and support staff within the classroom. Further, Seth's stated and observed objection to accept help from support staff indicates that the expertise of support staff was not recognised by him. These findings are similar to those reported in support staff literature, highlighting lack of communication and clarity regarding the expected role of support staff in the classroom (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Butt & Lowe, 2012) and lack of trust between students and support staff (Howard & Ford, 2007).

Fourth, analysis of formative teacher–student interactions revealed that Ms Naomi's interaction patterns with the focus students predominantly served to promote engagement and task completion and only to a lesser extent were focused on extending students' learning. This finding is inconsistent with AfL practice advocating development of student autonomy (Marshall & Drummond, 2006; Pedder & James, 2010). However, the observed interactions contributed to the focus students' participation in classroom assessment processes and addressed their difficulties in engaging with instructions and producing writing, associated with DLD and ASD. This highlights the challenges for teachers to balance providing disability-specific support with the requirement to implement quality classroom assessment practice.

The predominant interaction of support staff with the focus students—in contrast with Ms Naomi's expectations—raises the question if their support also enabled engagement with quality classroom assessment practice. The research literature has highlighted possible negative effects of TA support on students' academic progress (Blatchford et al., 2012) and identified limited focus of TAs on developing higher-order thinking and effective scaffolding (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010). The data indicates that support staff and Ms Naomi had not negotiated mutual ways of doing and being within the classroom (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This finding is consistent with existing literature on the deployment

of support staff, indicating lack of collaboration and communication between teachers and support staff (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Howard & Ford, 2007).

Enabling Access to Summative Assessment

Students' engagement with classroom activities shaped their engagement with assessment. This section focuses on how elements related to summative assessment supported the focus students to demonstrate their learning. It is based on interview data with the focus students, Ms Naomi and Mr Harris, data from teacher, parent and student surveys, as well as analysis of artefacts related to assessment, such as the assessment task sheet. As described in Chapter 3, a systematic analysis grounded in the data identified seven elements relating to how teachers enabled students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. Of these seven elements, three specifically related to assessment: assessment design processes, assessment task design, and interaction of the students with the summative assessment task. They address research sub-question 3, *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?*

Element 5: Assessment Design Processes

Survey results revealed Ms Naomi's self-perception of "strong" or "very strong" skill and confidence in designing assessment and collaborating with colleagues and parents/carers (TAII). She perceived these aspects to be "very important" in her teaching role (TAII). These perceptions align with research on quality assessment and inclusive assessment, underscoring the need for quality assessment design (including accessibility) and collaboration between professionals (ARG, 2002; QCAA, 2018b; Thurlow et al., 2016; UNCRPD, 2016; Watkins, 2007; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Collaboration further draws on distributed expertise of professionals working across boundaries of different groups of practitioners (Edwards & Kinti, 2009). However, Ms Naomi was not able to play a significant role in the process to develop the English assessment task completed by focus students in this study. The data showed Ms Naomi was not included when a colleague designed the

assessment task and could not provide feedback on the task before distribution to students. She stated, “I can't give feedback if it's been handed to me just before we have to hand it to the kids” (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 126–128). As she could not provide input to the task’s suitability for students with disability, any adjustments therefore had to be retrospective.

Ms Naomi described how English teachers belonged to either English or humanities teams in the school and she identified lack of cross-team meetings to discuss assessment task design. Since the English teachers designed the assessment task for Term 2 with feedback from the Head of Department (HOD), Ms Naomi—part of the humanities group—stated she was not involved in this process. This lack of pre-teaching development of shared understandings of the assessment can affect alignment of teaching with summative assessment (Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014). Ms Naomi’s exclusion from assessment design can also affect accessibility, and therefore validity, of the task, as her student-specific knowledge could have identified accessibility barriers in the task. As stated in Chapter 5, the SEP team was also not consulted during assessment design; as their expertise was not recognised, they were positioned as outsiders to classroom assessment processes.

During the weeks leading up to completion of the English summative assessment, the students were taught by a preservice teacher, Mr Harris. He taught the students for four weeks as part of his last placement before graduation and was responsible for preparation of students for the summative assessment task—involving comic strips and fairy tales—using a planning booklet. Interview data showed that the assessment task and criteria sheet were presented to students after they had started working on the planning booklet, since the assessment task including the assessment criteria had not been finalised by the English team. As noted in Chapter 2, criteria sheets can form part of a classroom’s shared repertoire that students mediate to develop a common understanding of what is expected of them and regulate their learning (ARG, 2002; Wenger, 1998; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Adie,

2019). When students engage in classroom work without knowing what goal they are working towards, White (1971, as cited in Wiliam, 2018, p. 57) likened them to passengers on "a ship sailing across an unknown sea, to an unknown destination". Similarly, teachers need to evaluate whether their course towards the destination suits all students and aligns curriculum, pedagogy and assessment (Wyatt-Smith, 2008). In the observed English assessment, neither the preservice teacher nor students had received the actual assessment task until well into the associated unit of work. Therefore, the preservice teacher and students had embarked on a journey without knowing whether they were on track to meet the success criteria and whether curriculum and pedagogy were aligned with the assessment they were required to undertake. This is inconsistent with features of quality assessment as identified in Chapter 2 (ACACA, 1995; ARG, 2002; Black & Wiliam, 2009; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014).

Element 6: Assessment Task Design and Implementation

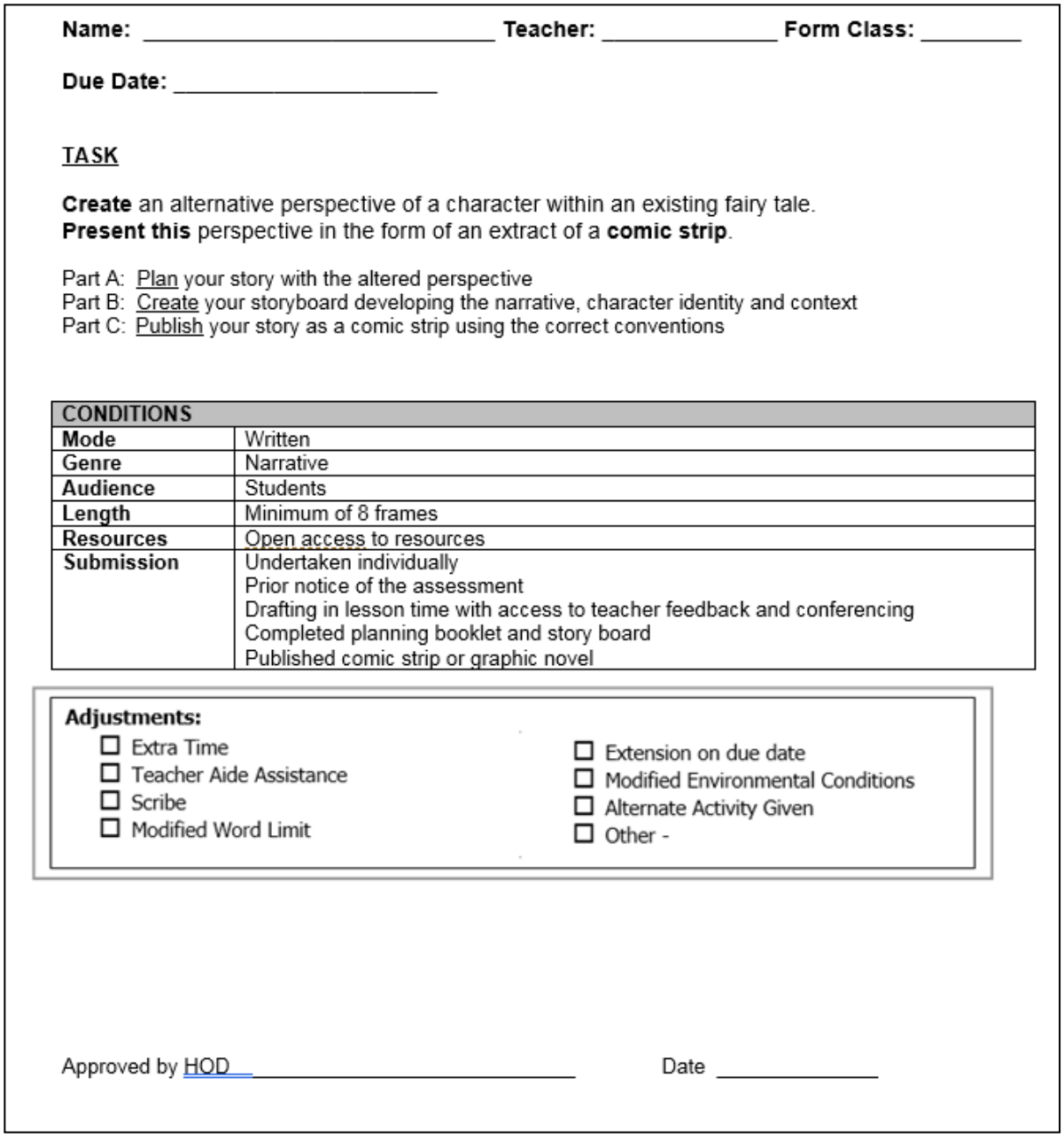
Assessment viewed through a sociocultural lens considers students' interaction with an assessment activity within a larger sociocultural context (Rose et al., 2018). Assessment tasks are cultural artefacts that students mediate to demonstrate their learning and teachers can mediate to elicit, interpret and use evidence of learning. To achieve this purpose, principles of accessible assessment design, as discussed in Chapter 2, indicate that assessment tasks should enable both participation of a wide range of students and lead to valid interpretations of assessment evidence (Thompson et al., 2002). To do this, assessment tasks should have precisely defined constructs, and maximum readability (i.e., clear sentence structures), comprehensibility and legibility (ACACA, 1995, 2012; QCAA, 2018b; Thompson et al., 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). The possibilities for mediation enabled through the design features of the English summative assessment task are considered in this section in relation to the visual, procedural and linguistic complexity of the task (Graham et al., 2018). Second-order expectations of the task format should not pose a barrier to student engagement with

completion of the assessable elements, that is the first-order expectations of demonstration of the learning that is the focus of the assessment (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999).

The summative assessment task implemented by Mr Harris consisted of two pages of instructions, a template for the comic strip and a criteria sheet. The task required students to choose a fairy tale, identify the antagonist and change the storyline to represent this character as the protagonist (Figures 6.6 and 6.7). Students were evaluated on their ability to present this new storyline in a comic strip (Figures 6.8 and 6.9). The construct of the assessment involved two genres that students had to negotiate. First, students had to engage with narrative structures such as language features, grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation as part of representing the changed storyline (see Parts A and B in Figure 6.7). Second, students had to draw a comic strip (see Part C in Figure 6.7) and negotiate the use of visual elements (i.e., angles, use of colour) and comic strip-specific text structures (i.e., sequence of panels, caption boxes, speech bubbles). Demonstration of skills related to both these genres were considered first-order learning expectations in the assessment task.

Figure 6.6

Page 1 of English Assessment Task Sheet



Name: _____ **Teacher:** _____ **Form Class:** _____

Due Date: _____

TASK

Create an alternative perspective of a character within an existing fairy tale.
Present this perspective in the form of an extract of a **comic strip**.

Part A: Plan your story with the altered perspective
Part B: Create your storyboard developing the narrative, character identity and context
Part C: Publish your story as a comic strip using the correct conventions

CONDITIONS	
Mode	Written
Genre	Narrative
Audience	Students
Length	Minimum of 8 frames
Resources	Open access to resources
Submission	Undertaken individually Prior notice of the assessment Drafting in lesson time with access to teacher feedback and conferencing Completed planning booklet and story board Published comic strip or graphic novel

Adjustments:

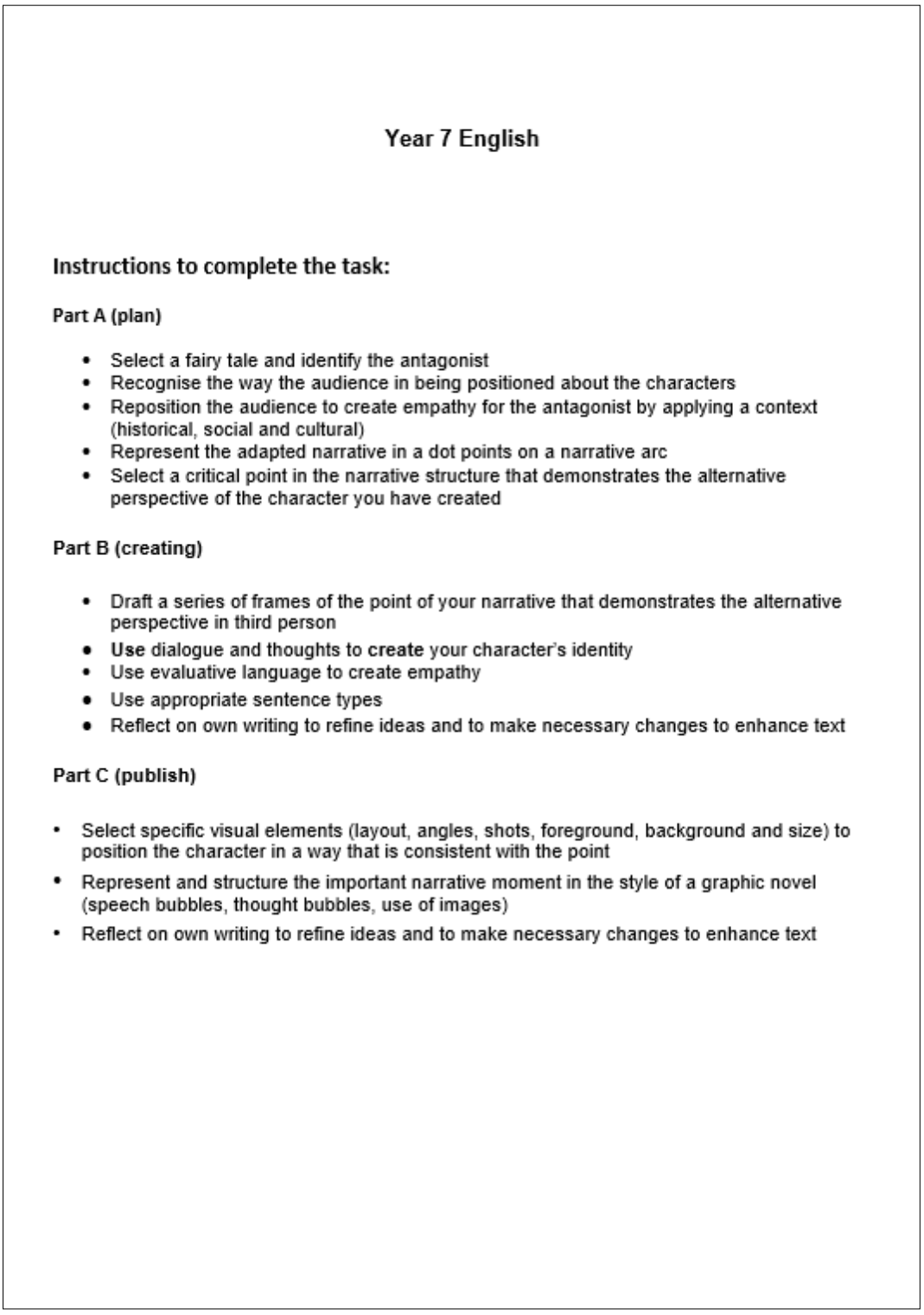
- ☐ Extra Time
- ☐ Teacher Aide Assistance
- ☐ Scribe
- ☐ Modified Word Limit
- ☐ Extension on due date
- ☐ Modified Environmental Conditions
- ☐ Alternate Activity Given
- ☐ Other -

Approved by HOD _____ Date _____

Note. Figure shows an overview of the assessment task.

Figure 6.7

Page 2 of English Assessment Task Sheet



Year 7 English

Instructions to complete the task:

Part A (plan)

- Select a fairy tale and identify the antagonist
- Recognise the way the audience in being positioned about the characters
- Reposition the audience to create empathy for the antagonist by applying a context (historical, social and cultural)
- Represent the adapted narrative in a dot points on a narrative arc
- Select a critical point in the narrative structure that demonstrates the alternative perspective of the character you have created

Part B (creating)

- Draft a series of frames of the point of your narrative that demonstrates the alternative perspective in third person
- **Use** dialogue and thoughts to **create** your character's identity
- Use evaluative language to create empathy
- Use appropriate sentence types
- Reflect on own writing to refine ideas and to make necessary changes to enhance text

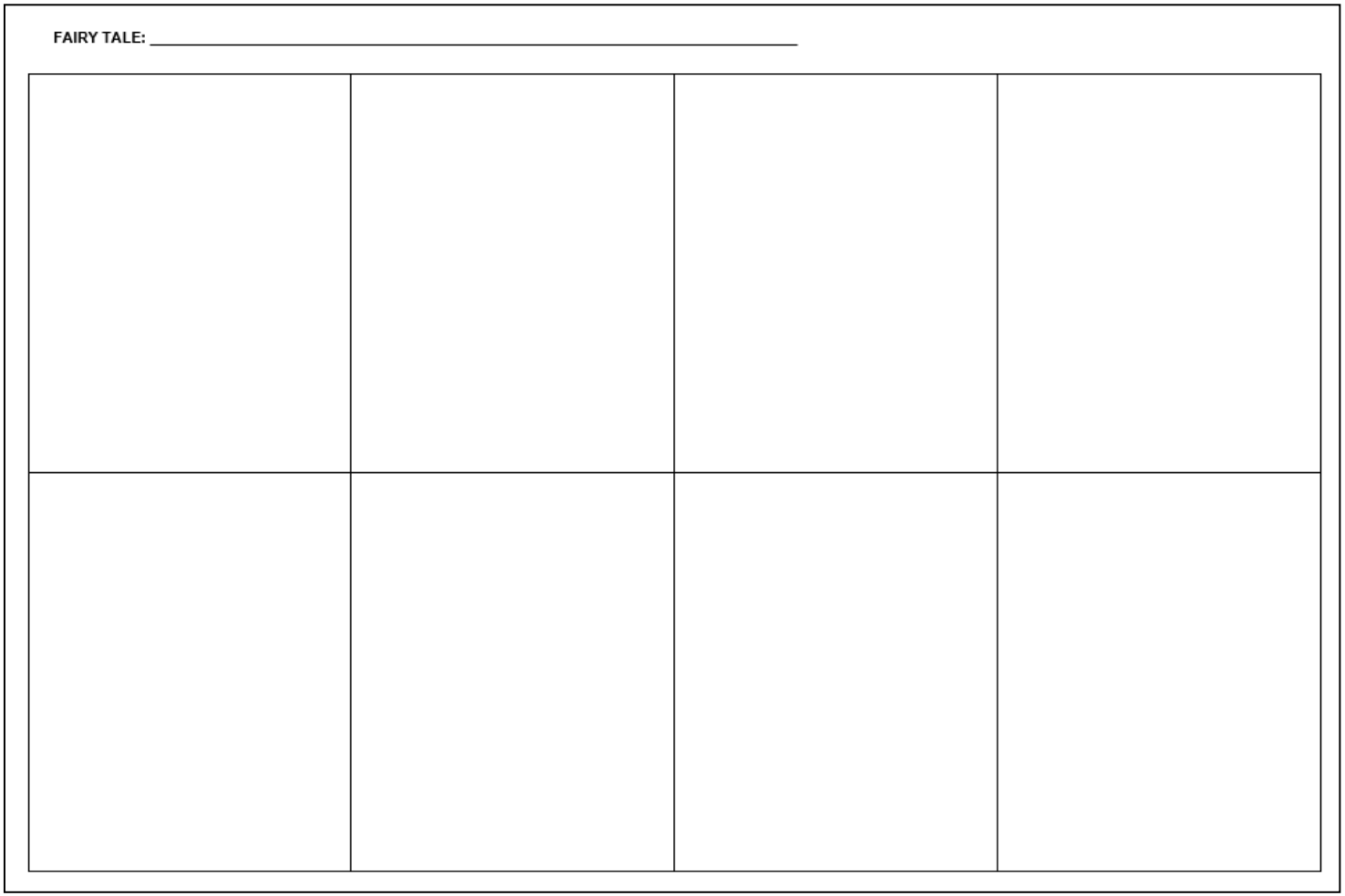
Part C (publish)

- Select specific visual elements (layout, angles, shots, foreground, background and size) to position the character in a way that is consistent with the point
- Represent and structure the important narrative moment in the style of a graphic novel (speech bubbles, thought bubbles, use of images)
- Reflect on own writing to refine ideas and to make necessary changes to enhance text

Note. Figure shows detailed instructions using many cognitive verbs with limited spacing in between bullet points.

Figure 6.8

Page 3 of English Assessment Task Sheet



Note. Figure provides the template for students to draw their comic strip.

Figure 6.9

English Assessment Criteria Sheet

Year 7 English Unit 2 Term 2 Summative Assessment

Fairytale Perspective Swap

Purpose: Students will create an alternative perspective of a character in an existing fairy tale in the form of a graphic novel.

Understanding and Skills			
Receptive modes	Productive modes		
Select specific details from texts to develop your own response, recognising that texts reflect different viewpoints.	Understand how the selection of a variety of language features can influence an audience. Demonstrate understanding of grammar, use a variety of more specialised vocabulary and accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a text showing how language features and images from other texts can be combined for effect. Uses coherent text structure for a purpose and audience.	
Discerning use of appropriate characters, events and settings from the Base Fairytale. Identifies possible viewpoints and selects an alternate viewpoint to create a different effect on the audience.	Discerning use of evaluative language and dialogue to influence the audiences perception of the chosen character. Discerning use of grammar (extended noun groups, adverb, - ing sentence starts) specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing the text.	Discerning use of specific visual elements (angles/shots/foreground/background, colour…) to position the antagonist from a Traditional Fairytale so that it is consistent with the chosen point of view. Discerning use of coherent text structures for a comic strip (correct sequence of panels/images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	A
Effective selection of an appropriate character, event and setting from the Base Fairytale. Selects a suitable alternative viewpoint to create a different effect.	Effectively selects evaluative language and/or dialogue to influence the audiences perception of the chosen character. Effective selection of grammar (extended noun groups, adverb, - ing sentence starts) specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing the text.	Effective selection of specific visual elements (angles/shots/foreground/background/colour) to position the antagonist from a Traditional Fairytale so that it is consistent with the point of view. Effective selection of coherent text structures for a comic strip (correct sequence of panels/ images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	B
Select specific details from a Traditional Fairytale to develop your own response. Creates a different viewpoint of the chosen character.	Selects language features to influence an audiences perception of the chosen character. Selects appropriate grammar, specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a comic strip selecting visual elements (angles/shots/forground/background, colour) to position the antagonist from a traditional fairytale so that it is consistent with the chosen point of view. Uses coherent text structure for a comic strip, (correct sequence of panels/images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	C
Selects a character/event and/or setting from the chosen Traditional Fairytale and identifies a viewpoint.	Uses some correct language features to influence an audience. Uses some correct grammar/vocabulary/spelling or punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a comic strip using some correct language features and images. Uses some correct text structure for a comic strip.	D
Identifies a character and/or a viewpoint.	Attempts to retell a story.	Attempts to create a comic strip.	E

Feedback: _____

Note. Figure shows font sizes, complex vocabulary, and additional information to the assessment task sheet.

Students were provided with a planning booklet (see Appendix 1) to support their preparation for the assessment. Working through the activities in this booklet culminated in a draft comic strip to be submitted to Mr Harris for feedback. The intention was that students would use this feedback to inform the final comic strip submitted for grading. The planning booklet consisted of five numbered tasks, represented in eight steps. The first seven steps strongly related to the genre of narrative structures:

1. Selecting a fairy tale
2. Identifying the antagonist
3. Describing the audience's perception of the main characters in the fairy tale
4. Describing how the antagonist changes into a protagonist and turn their negative motivations into positive motivations for their actions in the story
5. Writing a new story line using a plot map, including the orientation, complications, climax and resolution phase of the story
6. Selecting a critical point in the story showing the antagonist's changed perspective
7. Listing which characters and which actions will be made visible in the comic strip
8. Drawing a draft comic strip.

Steps 1–7 further closely related to the "receptive modes" of the criteria sheet (Figure 6.9) and to part A of the assessment task sheet, which is repeated in Figure 6.10.

Figure 6.10

Part A of Assessment Task Sheet

Part A (plan)

- Select a fairy tale and identify the antagonist
- Recognise the way the audience in being positioned about the characters
- Reposition the audience to create empathy for the antagonist by applying a context (historical, social and cultural)
- Represent the adapted narrative in a dot points on a narrative arc
- Select a critical point in the narrative structure that demonstrates the alternative perspective of the character you have created

Note. Figure shows alignment with the planning booklet.

The planning booklet did not focus on parts B and C (Figure 6.7) of the assessment task sheet or on the "productive modes" of the criteria sheet (Figure 6.9). The use of dialogue, evaluative language, sentence types, visual elements and graphic novel conventions (e.g., speech bubbles) did not appear in the planning booklet, except for one sentence on the booklet's blank draft template on the last page: "Don't forget camera shots, angles, colour, bubbles (thought and speaking), narration boxes" (Planning booklet, Year 7 English, 2018; see Appendix 1).

The disconnection between Part A and Parts B and C of the assessment task, as well as limited alignment between the planning booklet and the assessment task and criteria sheet contrasts with the emphasis in quality assessment literature on alignment between pedagogy and assessment (ACACA, 2012; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Lack of alignment could also create a potential barrier to the accessibility of all aspects of the task for students. The requirement to work through the planning booklet prior to the assessment deadline may have focused students' attention on Part A but not on satisfactory completion of parts B and C, thereby not preparing them well for successful completion of the entire assessment. Further, Mr Harris's stated position that the planning booklet "[provides] pretty great scaffolding without the teacher needing to do much else" (Interview 15 June 2018, lines

503–504) put students, who required additional scaffolding beyond the planning booklet, at risk of not succeeding on the summative assessment.

Interview data further revealed that a timeline or completion date for the planning booklet was not provided to students, whereas the summative assessment task did have a strict deadline. While Mr Harris stated that he told students where they should be up to each day, he reported "there was no set date for a draft and so many students did not hand one in" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 144–146). Students who did not hand in a draft comic strip could not receive feedback to improve their learning—a feature of quality assessment (Black & Wiliam, 2009)—before the final assessment. This could have affected their overall opportunity to succeed.

Nevertheless, Mr Harris regarded this unit of work and especially the summative assessment as "really easy", stating "all they had to do was do a comic strip, basically" and indicating he told students that "this is the easiest assignment they'll have in all of high school" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 469, 116, 477). On the surface this may appear so, as the assessment involved mainly drawing and limited writing. However, the complexity of the task was evident in the genre dissonance embedded in the task; students practised narrative structures about fairy tales in the planning booklet while being assessed on drawing a comic strip with limited opportunity for narrative writing (Figure 6.8). This dissonance highlights lack of alignment between the classroom learning and the summative assessment, which can impact on fairness and validity; if students cannot equally prepare for a summative assessment, then the evidence elicited from this assessment cannot be validly interpreted and used for all students (Baird et al., 2014; Bennett, 2011; Gee, 2003). Task accessibility was not only affected by conceptual requirements, but also by the visual, procedural and linguistic complexity of the instructions (Graham et al., 2018), second-order expectations that affected student capacity to decode the task instructions (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999).

Complexity of Assessment Task Sheet

The research literature identified that visual aspects, such as lexical density and font size, procedural aspects, such as unclear sequencing of steps, and linguistic aspects such as complex vocabulary, need to be considered to enable accessibility to assessment tasks for all students (ACACA, 1995; Graham et al., 2018; Mislevy et al., 2013; QCAA, 2018b; Thompson et al., 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Three of these accessibility issues could be detected in the assessment task sheet (Figure 6.7, showing detailed instructions). This shortfall in task design is in contrast with policy frameworks which underscore the need for accessible assessment for all students (DSE, 2005; UNCRPD, 2016).

First, the instructions page (Figure 6.7) is lexically dense—200 words—with no clear sequencing visible due to limited spaces between bullet points. Thompson et al. (2002) stated that accessible assessments should enable students to progress through the assessment independently. Considering Ozonoff and Schetter's (2007) emphasis on the need to break up assignments into smaller tasks for students with ASD to accommodate their limited organisation skills, this assessment task sheet may limit the capability of students with ASD, like Harry, to independently progress through the steps.

Second, Mislevy et al. (2013) showed how skills and fluency, cognitive features and executive features can impact on accessibility of a task. Page 2 (Figure 6.7) lists 25 verbs across 13 steps in parts A (five steps), B (five steps) and C (three steps) that students have to process simultaneously (one part of the task), which could hinder the working memory's capacity to process for understanding (another part of the task). As students with ASD, like Harry, may have limited working memory, sentences such as "Reposition the audience to create empathy for the antagonist by applying a context" (Figure 6.7) can be overwhelming. The requirement to process many verbs simultaneously can also pose barriers for students with language processing disorders, such as Seth and Charlie, as DLD can impact on their ability to process language for understanding (Graham & Tancredi, 2019).

Third, research has shown how linguistic elements can form a second-order expectation that can hinder students' access to the task (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999; Graham et al., 2018; Mislevy et al., 2013; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). The use of cognitive verbs in the task instructions (Figure 6.7) contributes to their complexity. Cognitive verbs, such as "recognise", "reposition" and "represent", indicate the mental operations students engage in to demonstrate skills and knowledge (QCAA, 2019a). The use of cognitive verbs, and consistency of use of specific verbs as noted in the Australian Curriculum (ACARA, n.d.-b), are based on the premise that "students explicitly taught the skills and processes of the cognitive verbs are better equipped to meet syllabus objectives and demonstrate their learning through assessment" (QCAA, 2018a, p. 1). The use of such verbs is a valued practice in senior secondary education in Queensland as recommended by the QCAA (2018a) and also commonly used in junior secondary education at Summerfield. However, the use of cognitive verbs in school-based assessment tasks in junior secondary education is not mandated by the QCAA (QCAA, personal communication, November 26, 2019). Overall, characteristics of the disabilities of the focus students had potential to impact on their ability to process for understanding. Interview data showed that often Harry did not understand vocabulary used in the LO and SC. Therefore, the expectation he would understand the cognitive verbs reused in the task likely posed a barrier to engage with the overall learning focus of the task to change the storyline of a fairy tale (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999).

Complexity of the Criteria Sheet

Criteria sheets can serve as a mediating artefact for students to develop an understanding of the quality of work expected to succeed at the assessment task (Panadero & Jonsson, 2013). However, in order to act as a mediating artefact, they need to be accessible to students. Research has identified that explicit teacher instruction is necessary to assist students' interpretation of criteria (Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2000), and to avoid complex criteria impeding students' understanding of quality work (Bearman & Ajjawi, 2018). Three

aspects related to the English comic strip criteria sheet (Figure 6.9) were identified that inhibited accessibility for students, thus limiting its purpose as a mediating artefact.

First, the criteria sheet contained many sections of text with multiple—and often small—font sizes and font types to differentiate sections. This impacted on readability, a feature of accessible assessment (ACACA, 1995; QCAA, 2018b; Thompson et al., 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008).

Second, the use of evaluative words such as "discerning" and "effective"—sourced from the Year 7 English elaborations of curriculum standards (QCAA, 2020)—to distinguish the difference between A-level and B-level descriptors were not self-explanatory. Without purposefully planned teaching that inducts students into knowledge of what the standards look like in practice (Sadler, 1987; Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2000), students may not share a common understanding of what a discerning and effective assessment submission looks like. When the criteria sheet was released, Mr Harris stated that he "went through the criteria sheet in class, talked about the things we needed to have included" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 310–311). However, students did not ask any questions about the criteria sheet, and Mr Harris acknowledged that "they're pretty daunting things, I imagine" (Interview, 15 June 2018, line 315). Given the identified barriers, the focus students may not have shared a common understanding of the criteria, as there was no evidence through preservice teacher and student comments of student understanding of the terms embedded in the criteria sheet. Such teacher instruction to make visible the features of quality at different levels would have mitigated the "fuzziness" of standards (Sadler, 1987, p. 202) and avoided the "daunting, even overwhelming" (Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2000, p. 26) response of students to many assessment task sheets. While these findings were made in reference to all students, they are even more pressing for students whose disability impacts on language processing.

Third, while the criteria sheet appeared to be teacher-directed rather than written for students—stating "students will create" rather than "you will create"—it provided

students with more hints regarding expectations of work than the assessment task sheet. For example, the criteria sheet lists the use of extended noun groups, adverbs, and "-ing sentence starters", whereas the task sheet merely states "use appropriate sentence types". The requirement for students to relate the criteria from the task sheet to those mentioned on the criteria sheet adds another element of linguistic processing, which can be difficult for students with language processing difficulties, like Seth and Charlie, or for students with ASD, like Harry, for whom knowledge transfer and generalisation is difficult (Ravet, 2013). As the terms used to convey the criteria were not consistent, students therefore could miss important reminders of what their comic strip needs to entail if they only refer to the assessment task sheet (Figure 6.7).

Implementation

The above analysis of the assessment task, the criteria sheet and the planning booklet has considered the paper-based assessment artefacts that were provided to students. Other means to access the task were also provided. In discussion with the researcher, Mr Harris reported that he had presented a PowerPoint lecture on comic strip conventions and instructed students to colour in different comic strip features in an existing comic strip, before starting work on the planning booklet. Interview data also showed that students were able to ask questions of Mr Harris or available support staff in the classroom when working through the planning booklet. Interview data with Mr Harris further revealed evidence of verbal scaffolding as students worked through the planning booklet and prepared for their summative assessment task. However, the identified focus of the booklet on only Part A implies that Mr Harris's scaffolding may only have partially prepared students for the summative assessment. The linguistic complexity of the assessment task sheet and criteria sheet may have posed barriers to the focus students' ability to engage with the learning focus, narrative convention of a comic strip. Students who did not ask questions or engage with Mr Harris's oral instructions may have missed valuable explanatory information that they could not gather

from the assessment task, criteria sheet, or planning booklet. This places the focus students at risk of underperformance, not optimal performance, as they could only demonstrate their learning based on a partial understanding of what was expected of them, and what quality looked like.

Element 7: Interaction Between Students and the Summative Assessment Task

Although all three focus students "passed" the summative assessment task, their talk highlighted their different experiences with the task. Seth and Charlie had a positive experience with the English assessment, stating that they enjoyed working on it. Seth received a grade of B- and Charlie a B+. Harry passed the assessment with a grade of C, but indicated he was glad that it was done. These differing experiences are a result of what Rose et al. (2018) referred to as "measuring interactions rather than just individuals" (p. 169). Through a sociocultural lens, assessment as a social practice includes students in interaction with the task (as a cultural artefact) within a certain sociocultural context (Gipps, 1999). As students differ, so do their interactions with the task including what may present as barriers.

Seth and Charlie's Interaction With the Assessment Task

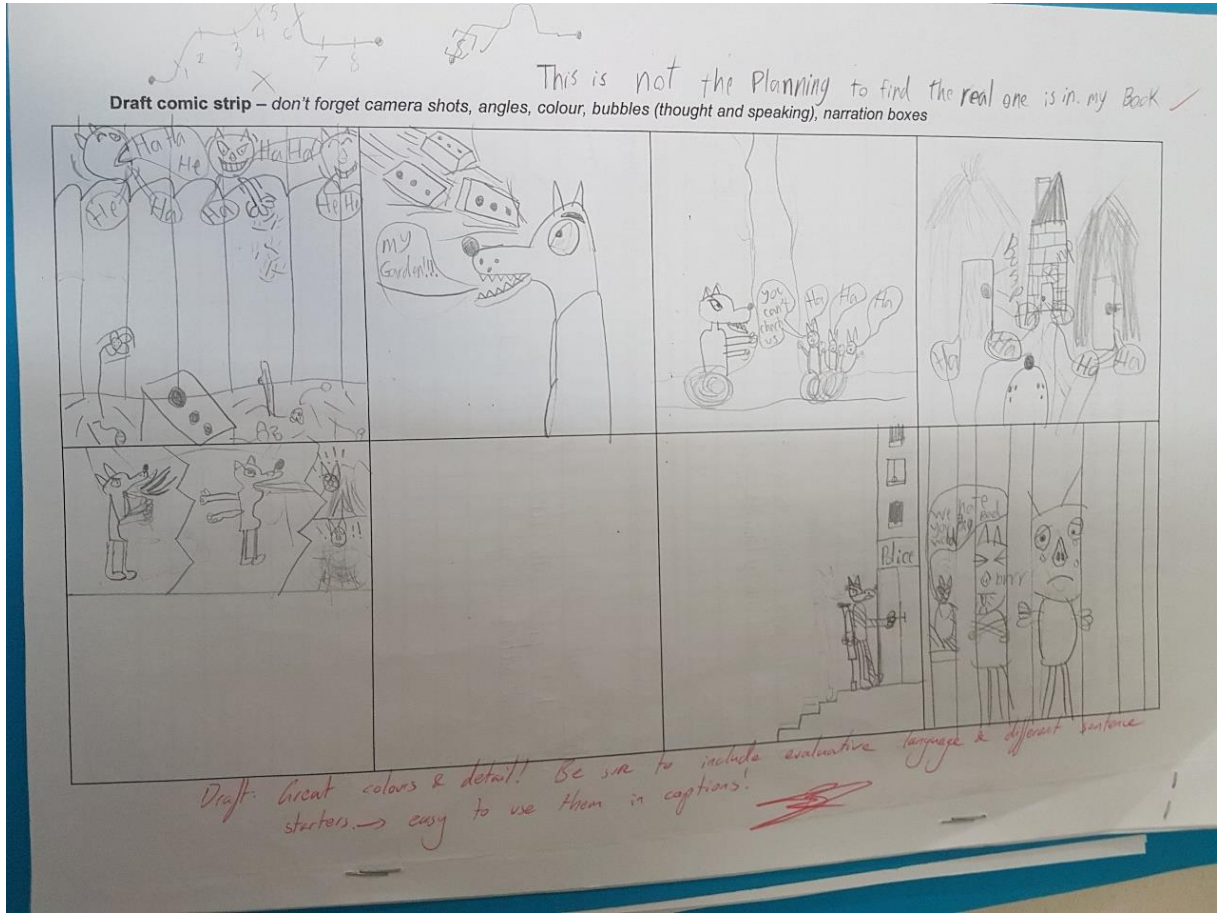
Seth and Charlie succeeded on the task, achieving above-standard results. This indicates that they successfully mitigated potential barriers posed by the identified concerns with the summative assessment task and alignment with the planning booklet. While feedback on especially Seth's draft and final comic strip indicated that his language disorder may have impacted on his engagement with the task, he was still able to achieve above Year level. Feedback on Seth's draft (draft not pictured[24]) showed "Great colours & detail! Be sure to include evaluative language & different sentence starters → easy to use them in captions!" (Figure 6.11). The requirement to use "evaluative language & different sentence starters" may be impacted by Seth's vocabulary knowledge, as some students with DLD are reported to

[24] While Mr Harris wrote feedback related to Seth's draft comic strip on the back of his planning booklet, Seth had created the actual draft in his notebook instead. A copy of this draft was not available to the researcher.

have difficulties with word finding, semantics and pragmatics (Bishop et al., 2017). Feedback on Seth's final assessment (Figures 6.12 and 6.13) showed: "Your comic strip conventions were used effectively. To improve, you could have used more specialised vocabulary and made your character's motivation clearer. A good effort!". The need to make his character's motivation clearer requires insight into how language is used to convey meaning, which may also be limited for students with DLD, like Seth. Analysis of Seth's marked criteria sheet (Figure 6.13) indicates that the narrative of comic strips was a suitable format for him, as he scored above standard (B level) on criteria related to visual elements. Mr Harris's feedback related to Seth's difficulty with pragmatics and semantics aligns with criteria at C-level. This means that Seth achieved at Year level on these criteria.

Figure 6.11

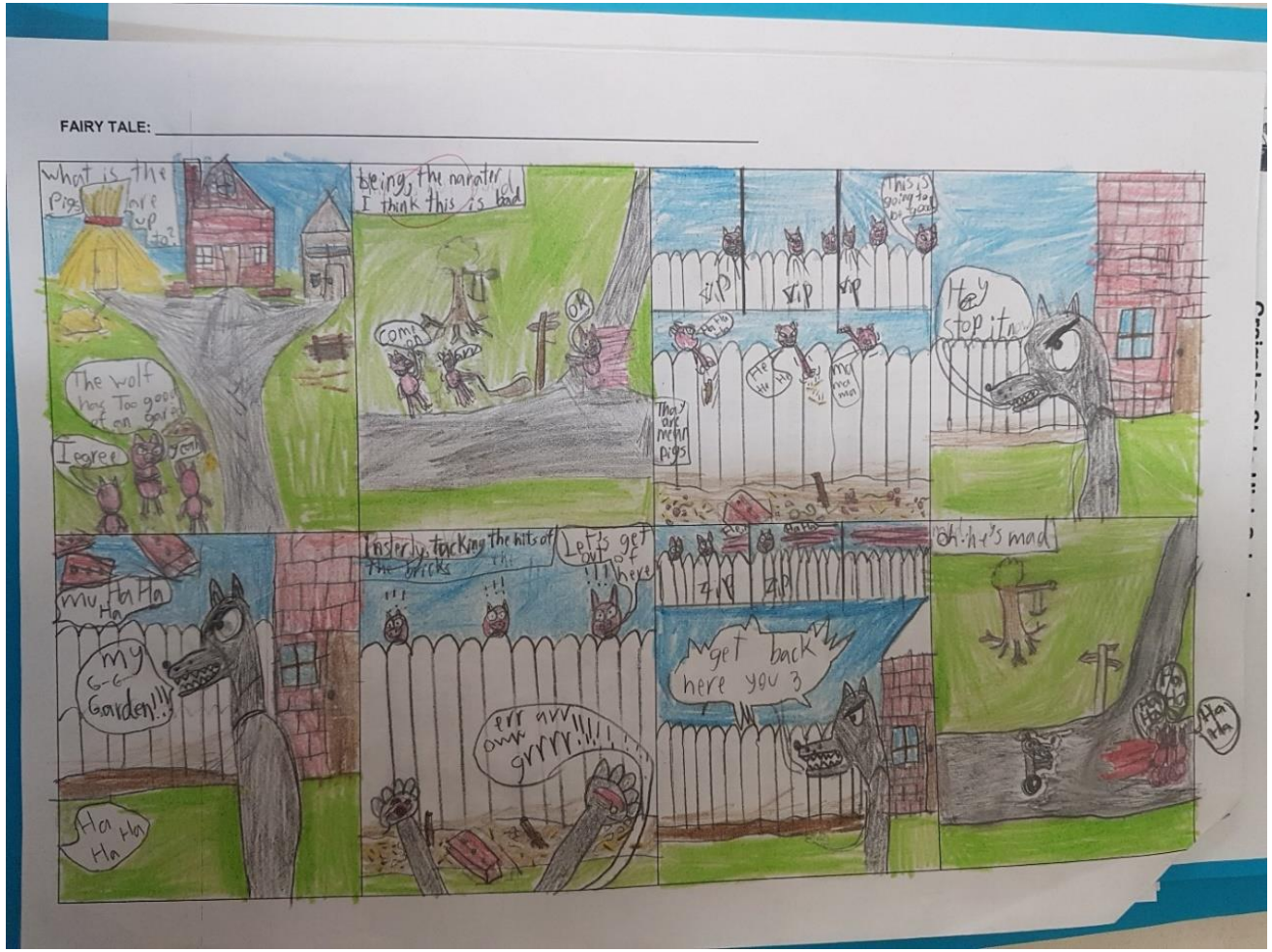
Seth's Draft Comic Strip



Note. Draft shows Mr Harris's feedback, relating to Seth's final draft (not pictured). Feedback: "Great colours & detail! Be sure to include evaluative language & different sentence starters → easy to use them in captions!"

Figure 6.12

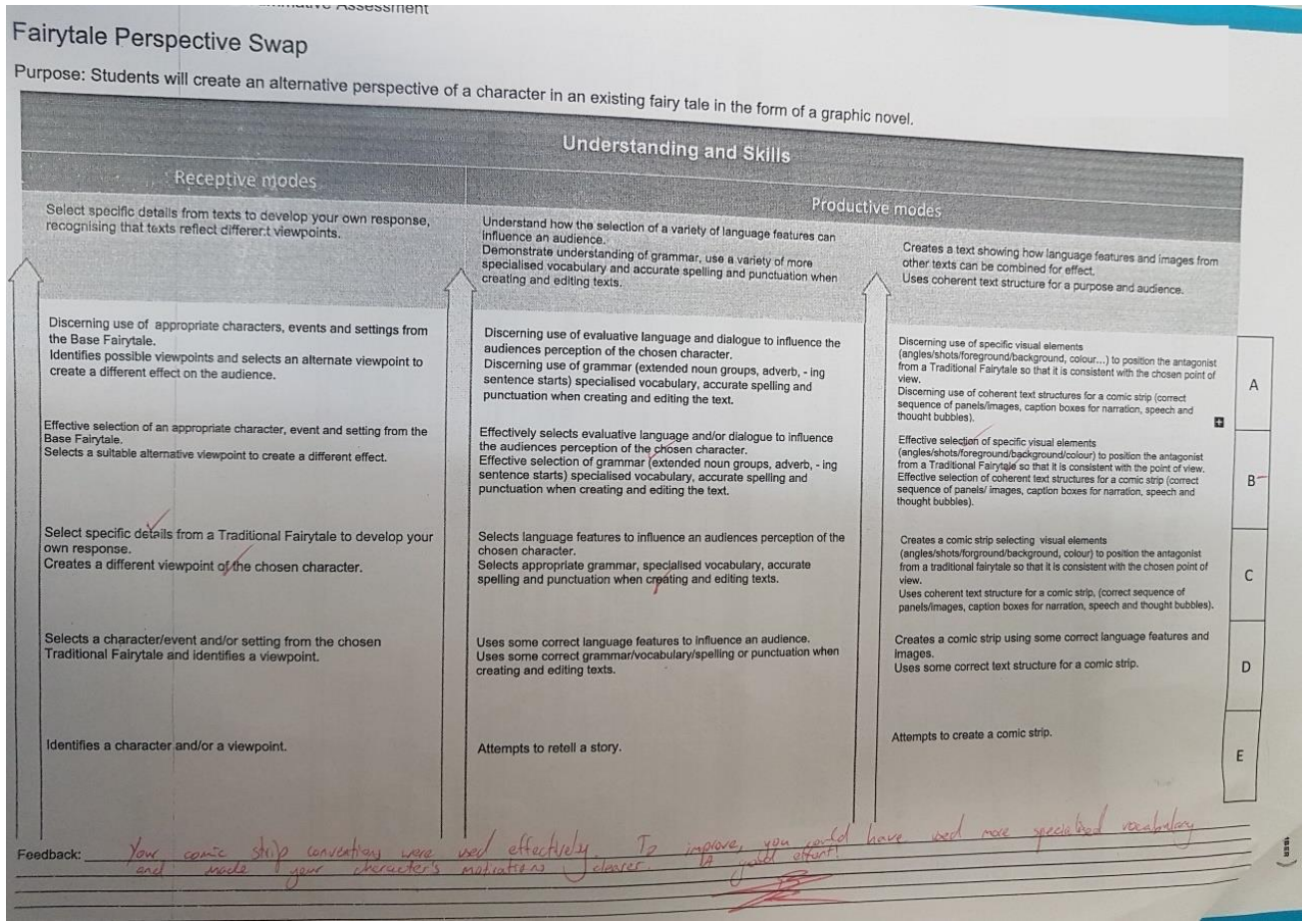
Seth's Final Comic Strip



Note. Comic strip shows circled language errors.

Figure 6.13

Seth's Criteria Sheet



Fairytale Perspective Swap

Purpose: Students will create an alternative perspective of a character in an existing fairy tale in the form of a graphic novel.

Understanding and Skills			
Receptive modes	Productive modes		
Select specific details from texts to develop your own response, recognising that texts reflect different viewpoints.	Understand how the selection of a variety of language features can influence an audience. Demonstrate understanding of grammar, use a variety of more specialised vocabulary and accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a text showing how language features and images from other texts can be combined for effect. Uses coherent text structure for a purpose and audience.	
Discerning use of appropriate characters, events and settings from the Base Fairytale. Identifies possible viewpoints and selects an alternate viewpoint to create a different effect on the audience.	Discerning use of evaluative language and dialogue to influence the audiences perception of the chosen character. Discerning use of grammar (extended noun groups, adverb, - ing sentence starts) specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing the text.	Discerning use of specific visual elements (angles/shots/foreground/background, colour...) to position the antagonist from a Traditional Fairytale so that it is consistent with the chosen point of view. Discerning use of coherent text structures for a comic strip (correct sequence of panels/images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	A
Effective selection of an appropriate character, event and setting from the Base Fairytale. Selects a suitable alternative viewpoint to create a different effect.	Effectively selects evaluative language and/or dialogue to influence the audiences perception of the chosen character. Effective selection of grammar (extended noun groups, adverb, - ing sentence starts) specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing the text.	Effective selection of specific visual elements (angles/shots/foreground/background/colour) to position the antagonist from a Traditional Fairytale so that it is consistent with the point of view. Effective selection of coherent text structures for a comic strip (correct sequence of panels/ images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	B
Select specific details from a Traditional Fairytale to develop your own response. Creates a different viewpoint of the chosen character.	Selects language features to influence an audiences perception of the chosen character. Selects appropriate grammar, specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a comic strip selecting visual elements (angles/shots/forground/background, colour) to position the antagonist from a traditional fairytale so that it is consistent with the chosen point of view. Uses coherent text structure for a comic strip, (correct sequence of panels/images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	C
Selects a character/event and/or setting from the chosen Traditional Fairytale and identifies a viewpoint.	Uses some correct language features to influence an audience. Uses some correct grammar/vocabulary/spelling or punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a comic strip using some correct language features and images. Uses some correct text structure for a comic strip.	D
Identifies a character and/or a viewpoint.	Attempts to retell a story.	Attempts to create a comic strip.	E

Feedback: Your comic strip conventions were used effectively. To improve, you could have used more specialised vocabulary and made your character's motivation clearer. A good effort!

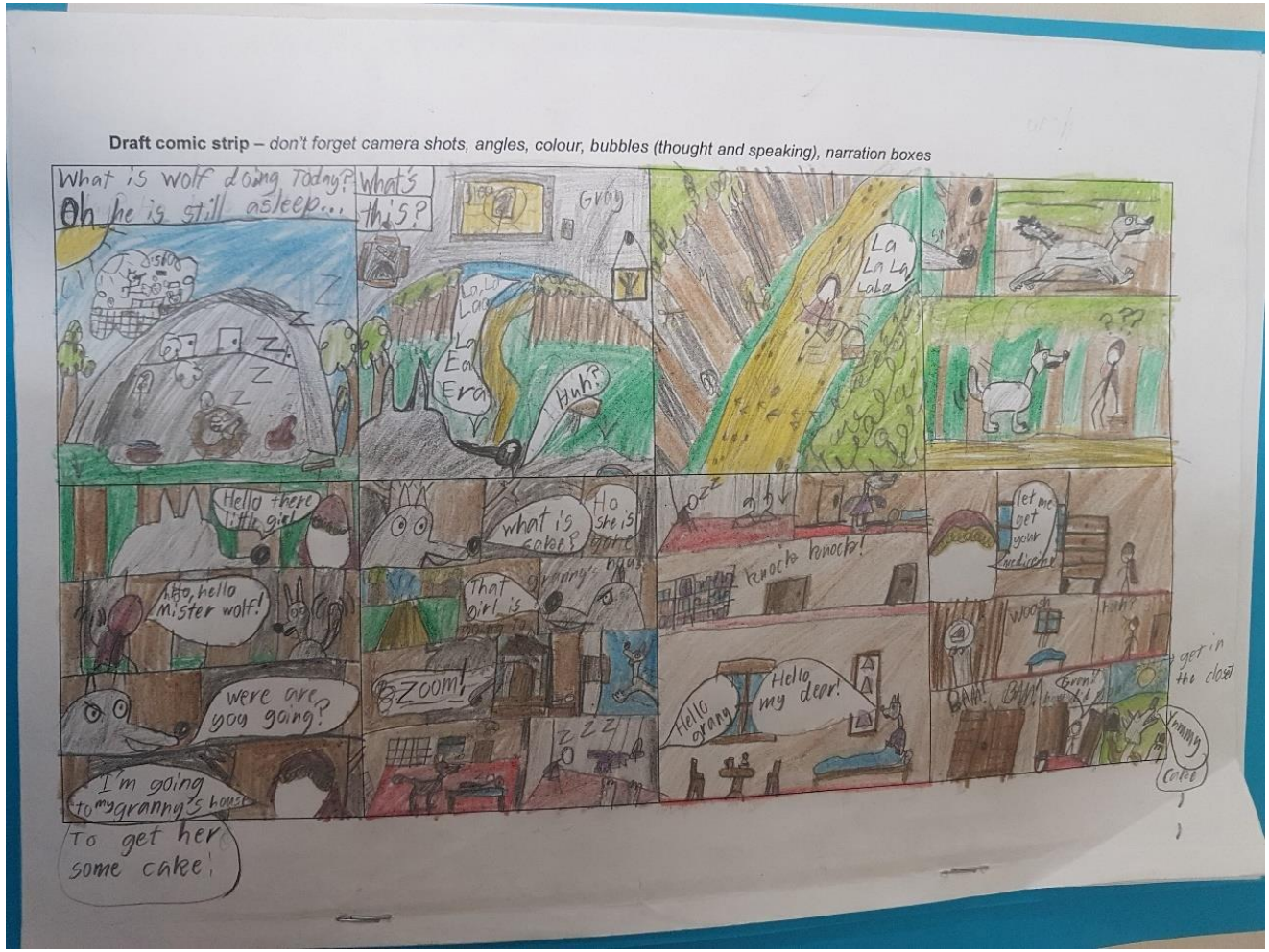
Note. Feedback: "Your comic strip conventions were used effectively. To improve, you could have used more specialised vocabulary and made your character's motivation clearer. A good effort!"

Charlie's draft comic strip did not show any feedback from Mr Harris (Figure 6.14) and closely resembled his final comic strip (Figure 6.15). Feedback provided on his final comic strip (Figure 6.16) stated "A great effort! Your use of comic strip conventions was excellent, as was most of the language used. A couple of minor spelling errors brought your mark down a little". These errors were circled in his final submission. Mr Harris's use of the word "excellent" does not directly align with the criteria sheet, where the terms "discerning" (A level) and "effective" (B level) are used. Since Mr Harris only indicated that Charlie's spelling errors "brought … [his] mark down" (reflecting one of three columns on the criteria sheet), it is unclear why Charlie received a B score on the other two columns as well. This does not give Charlie information on how to progress his learning, as expected in quality assessment when summative tasks are used for formative assessment purposes (ARG, 2002; Black, 2013)

This analysis indicates the different interactions of Seth and Charlie with the task (Rose et al., 2018); both negotiated barriers inherent in the assessment process, but the impact of diagnosed language difficulties was more clearly visible for Seth than for Charlie. This is consistent with Charlie's reported improved language skills, resulting in removal of his verification (as discussed in Chapter 4).

Figure 6.14

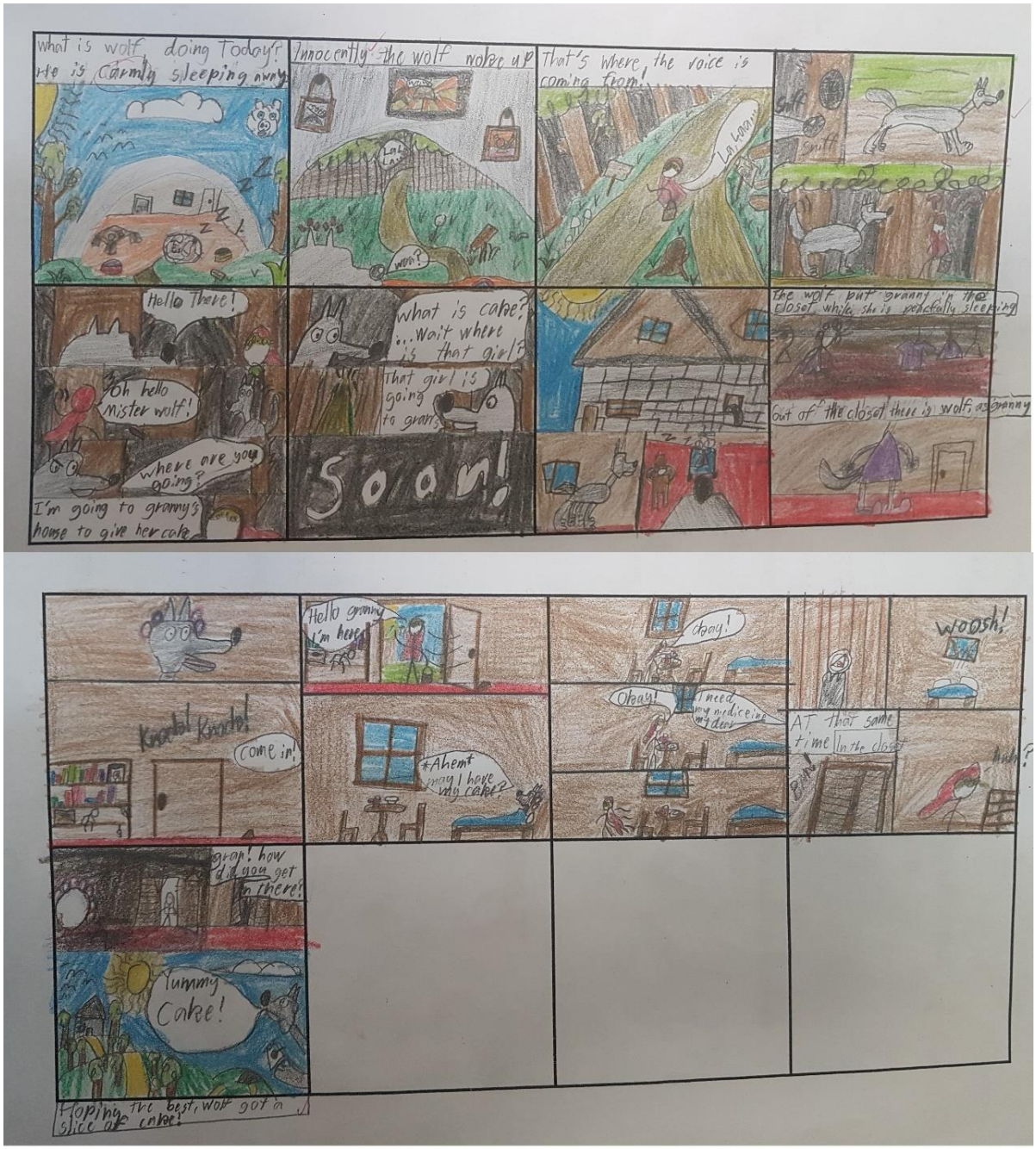
Charlie's Draft Comic Strip



Note. Draft shows no feedback from Mr Harris.

Figure 6.15

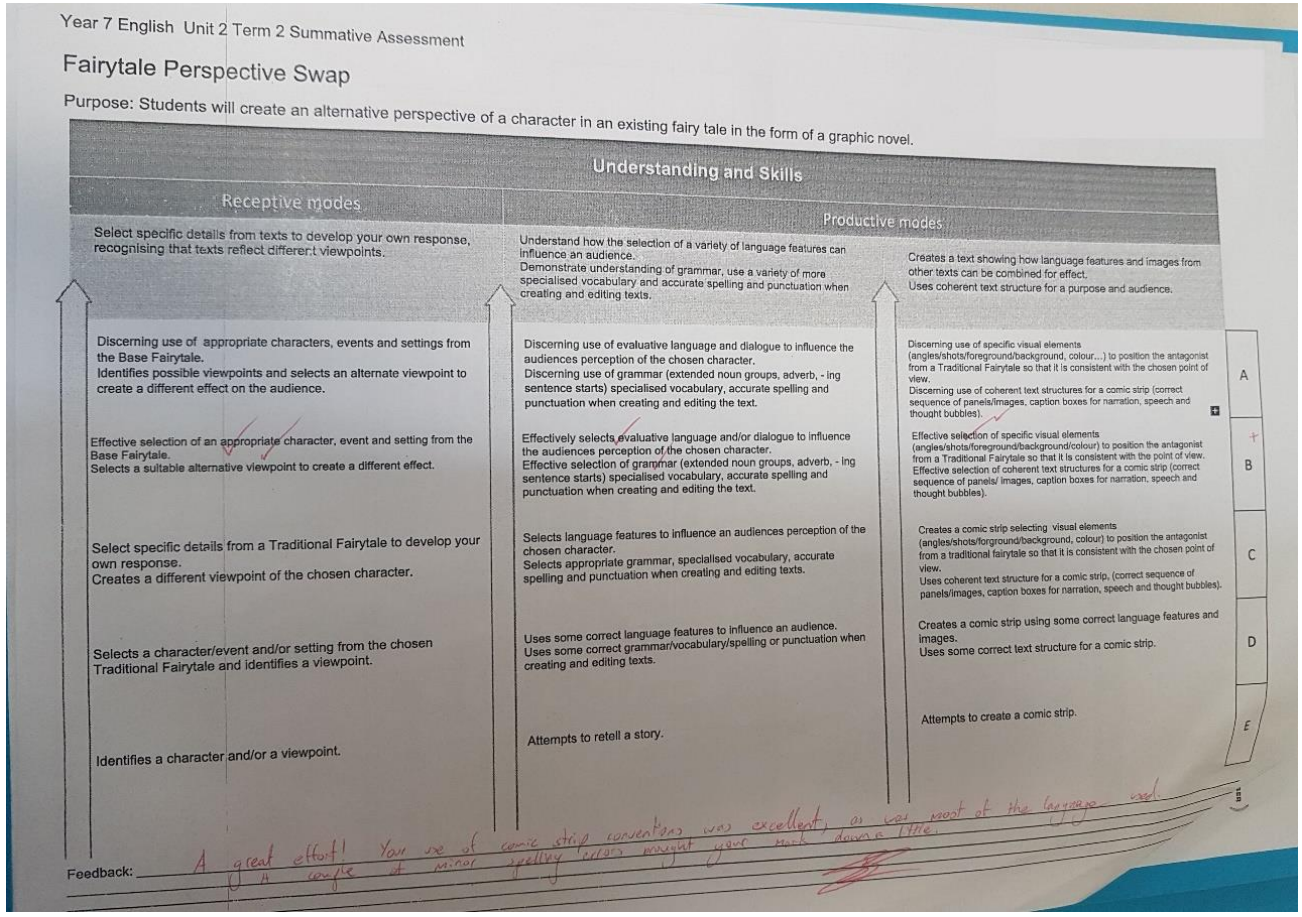
Charlie's Final Comic Strip



Note. Comic strip shows circled language errors.

Figure 6.16

Charlie's Criteria Sheet



Year 7 English Unit 2 Term 2 Summative Assessment

Fairytale Perspective Swap

Purpose: Students will create an alternative perspective of a character in an existing fairy tale in the form of a graphic novel.

Understanding and Skills			
Receptive modes	Productive modes		
Select specific details from texts to develop your own response, recognising that texts reflect different viewpoints.	Understand how the selection of a variety of language features can influence an audience. Demonstrate understanding of grammar, use a variety of more specialised vocabulary and accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a text showing how language features and images from other texts can be combined for effect. Uses coherent text structure for a purpose and audience.	
Discerning use of appropriate characters, events and settings from the Base Fairytale. Identifies possible viewpoints and selects an alternate viewpoint to create a different effect on the audience.	Discerning use of evaluative language and dialogue to influence the audiences perception of the chosen character. Discerning use of grammar (extended noun groups, adverb, - ing sentence starts) specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing the text.	Discerning use of specific visual elements (angles/shots/foreground/background, colour,...) to position the antagonist from a Traditional Fairytale so that it is consistent with the chosen point of view. Discerning use of coherent text structures for a comic strip (correct sequence of panels/images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	A
Effective selection of an appropriate character, event and setting from the Base Fairytale. Selects a suitable alternative viewpoint to create a different effect.	Effectively selects evaluative language and/or dialogue to influence the audiences perception of the chosen character. Effective selection of grammar (extended noun groups, adverb, - ing sentence starts) specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing the text.	Effective selection of specific visual elements (angles/shots/foreground/background/colour) to position the antagonist from a Traditional Fairytale so that it is consistent with the point of view. Effective selection of coherent text structures for a comic strip (correct sequence of panels/ images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	B
Select specific details from a Traditional Fairytale to develop your own response. Creates a different viewpoint of the chosen character.	Selects language features to influence an audiences perception of the chosen character. Selects appropriate grammar, specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a comic strip selecting visual elements (angles/shots/forground/background, colour) to position the antagonist from a traditional fairytale so that it is consistent with the chosen point of view. Uses coherent text structure for a comic strip, (correct sequence of panels/images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	C
Selects a character/event and/or setting from the chosen Traditional Fairytale and identifies a viewpoint.	Uses some correct language features to influence an audience. Uses some correct grammar/vocabulary/spelling or punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a comic strip using some correct language features and images. Uses some correct text structure for a comic strip.	D
Identifies a character and/or a viewpoint.	Attempts to retell a story.	Attempts to create a comic strip.	E

Feedback: A great effort! You use of comic strip conventions was excellent, as was most of the language used. A couple of minor spelling errors brought your mark down a little.

Note. Feedback: "A great effort! Your use of comic strip conventions was excellent, as was most of the language used. A couple of minor spelling errors brought your mark down a little."

Analysis of interview data identified three factors that contributed to Seth and Charlie mitigating the identified barriers related to the planning booklet, task instructions and criteria sheet. First, interview data showed that Seth and Charlie enjoyed the topic of the assessment task. Both stated they thought it was "pretty fun" because "you use your emananation [imagination]" (Seth/Charlie, interview, 27 June 2018, lines 26 and 28). Interview data with Ms Naomi further revealed that Seth and Charlie were reading many comic versions of fairy tales, as their father had loaded a collection of stories onto their iPads upon finding out the focus of English lessons on fairy tales. This strengthened connection between their out-of-school experiences and the assessment task (Wyatt-Smith, 2008).

Second, Seth and Charlie's in-class help-seeking behaviour likely contributed to them negotiating the barriers inherent in the task. Interview data with Mr Harris showed that, while he checked on each student "normally two or three times throughout the whole process" (Interview, 15 June 2018, line 259), he indicated that "it's almost impossible not [to] cater more to them [Seth and Charlie], just because they ask so many questions" (lines 226–227). Interview data illustrated that these questions related to barriers identified through analysis of the assessment task: Charlie stated he asked Mr Harris to help him understand task instructions, and Seth stated he asked questions to clarify the meaning of words. Mr Harris confirmed that Seth and Charlie's questions related to accessibility, by stating, "They're not just asking silly things they can answer themselves most of the time. They are things which are like 'I don't understand this; can you rephrase it for me?'" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 232–236). Although Mr Harris's comment of "not just asking silly things" indicates his belief these questions were valuable, it also evidences that Seth and Charlie could not independently access the task. This indicates a misalignment with Thompson et al.'s (2002) features of accessible assessment, stating that students should be able to independently access assessment tasks.

However, Seth and Charlie's help-seeking behaviour indicates that asking questions was an established routine as part of their shared repertoire in the classroom, and a process which they mutually negotiated with Mr Harris. Mr Harris's interview data further indicated that Seth and Charlie had often requested affirmation: "They do a question and check with you, 'Am I doing the right thing here?'" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 453–454). This reflects earlier statements by Ms Naomi and the HoSE, who also highlighted the need to prompt and praise Seth and Charlie in order to keep them engaged with their learning. Seth and Charlie's reliance on Mr Harris's support thus ensured that they could access the task and that their work progressed well, contributing to their success. This use of support relates to Daniels's (2016) description of both objects and persons acting as mediating artefacts. While Seth and Charlie could not mediate the object (assessment task), they did mediate Mr Harris's in-class support by asking many questions. Mr Harris's indication that they asked more questions than other students in the class demonstrates that Seth and Charlie could not engage with the assessment task on the same basis as their peers without additional support. This shows how teacher support can act as an assessment adjustment; Seth and Charlie could mediate Mr Harris's additional support to them to succeed at the task. This is consistent with assessment adjustments as outlined by Davies et al. (2016)—such as encouraging student effort and clarifying instructions—and highlights the need for teachers to consider adjustments beyond summative classroom assessment tasks, reflective of the embedded nature of assessment with teaching and learning.

Third, Seth and Charlie's parental support contributed to their positive results on the assessment task. Ms Naomi described how "everything I'm doing in the classroom is being done again when they get home" (Interview, 29 June 2018, lines 658–659), indicating a high level of parental support. Seth and Charlie confirmed this support by stating that their father is a teacher who provided advice on how to approach the assessment: "'cos our dad said before, you should do something with a wolf … because they're easy to make into a good

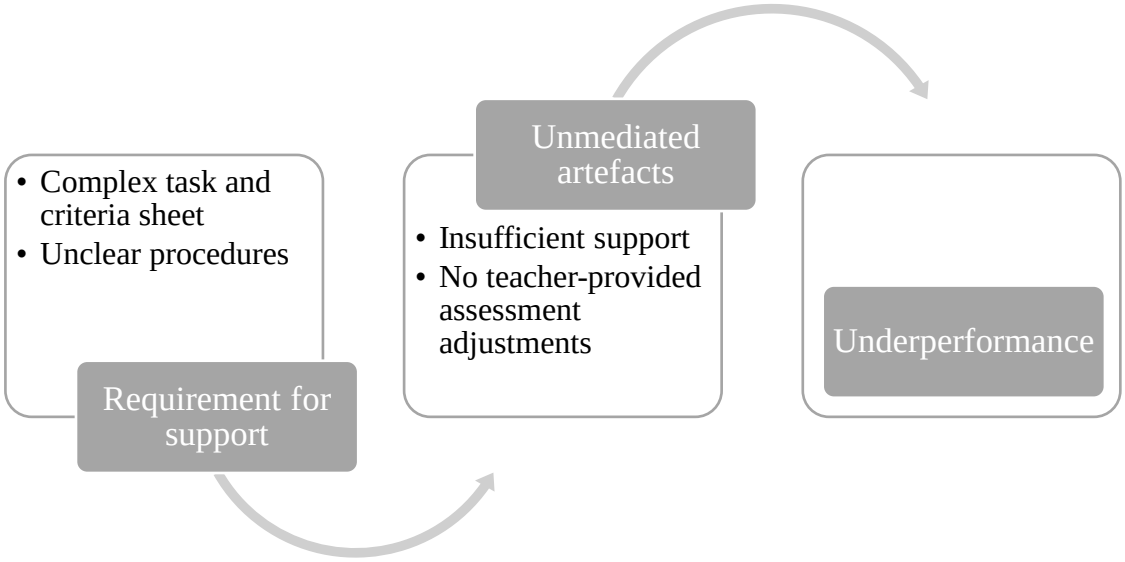
guy" (Seth/Charlie, interview, 27 June 2018, lines 467–470). Mr Harris also attributed parental support as enabling Seth and Charlie to meet the due date for the draft comic strip: "They obviously had a lot of, I don't want to say 'help' at home, but there was obviously parent engagement … in making sure they met those due dates" (Interview, 15 June 2016, lines 160–164). This parental support as well as Seth and Charlie's willingness to ask questions in class minimised the barriers present in the assessment task for the boys. Ms Naomi stated such support resulted in Seth and Charlie "getting double the teaching and learning" (Interview, 29 June 2018, line 661). This served as a buffer to safeguard and promote the boys' confidence and engagement especially in this case, when the assessment task was not accessible to them. Although research has identified a role for parents in inclusive assessment processes (Watkins, 2007), this role is not intended to replace or heavily supplement the teacher's role. Accessible assessment principles state that students should be able to engage with tasks independently (Thompson et al., 2002). However, as students' characteristics and readiness differ, so does their requirement to rely on "training wheels" (Tomlinson, 2017, p. 89) such as parental support. This case instance practically demonstrates that inclusive assessment is not a fixed construct (i.e., a task cannot be inherently accessible or inaccessible), but rather a negotiated response to factors such as assessment design, classroom practices, students' characteristics and readiness, and availability of in-class and out-of-class support.

Harry's Interaction With the Assessment Task

Interview data indicated that, although Harry was given a passing grade of C, he was not able to mitigate, or overcome, all identified barriers inherent in the assessment task and procedures. Figure 6.17 shows how a complex assessment task and unclear procedures posed barriers to Harry, warranting additional support (left), but that support provisions could not be mediated or were not implemented (middle), leading potentially to underperformance (right).

Figure 6.17

Barriers Impacting on Harry's Interaction With the Assessment Task



Analysis of the assessment task and criteria sheet (as discussed under Element 6) identified barriers related to the use of many cognitive verbs in the task instructions, limited spacing between instructions, visual and linguistic complexity in the criteria sheet, limited alignment between the planning booklet and the assessment task and criteria sheet, and unclear procedures due to lack of deadline for the draft comic strip. Harry was unable to mitigate these barriers for two reasons: (a) the impact of his language processing and comprehension characteristics of ASD, and (b) the impact of weak central coherence on negotiating sub-tasks as part of a larger task.

First, research shows that students with ASD, like Harry, can experience difficulty with working memory as well as reading comprehension (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007), which can impact on their ability to simultaneously process and understand many cognitive verbs. Although Harry did not comment on his understanding of vocabulary used in the assessment task specifically, interview data provided evidence that he regularly did not understand words in the classroom (as discussed in Element 1). Harry seemed to have

accepted that these words were part of the shared repertoire of the classroom; he thought the words teachers used were appropriate, but saw his own characteristics as the reason for not understanding them: "I think that they explain things with a very, like, pacific [specific] words and that, like, very clear words, but for me, like, not so much … because I'm not a big word guy" (Interview, 26 June 2018, lines 458–461). These self-reported difficulties with understanding words indicate that Harry could not use these words to negotiate meaning of tasks in the classroom, and would most likely struggle to understand the cognitive verbs in the task instructions (such as "reposition" and "represent"), or the vocabulary used in the criteria sheet (such as "discerning" and "coherent").

Second, the identified limited alignment between the planning booklet and the assessment task likely presented persistent barriers to Harry, as interview data showed that he only engaged with Part A of the assessment task and did not recognise that the draft and final comic strip were related. Harry stated in interview that he focused on Part A and "didn't really care about publish and creating" [Parts B and C of the assessment task], because "obviously I didn't want to do it the same as other kids" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 349, 351). Focusing on one part of a larger whole corresponds with weak central coherence, or a detail-focused processing style, which is common for students with ASD (Happé & Frith, 2006; Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Ravet, 2013) including Harry, whose parents described him as being "detail oriented" (PRCC). Weak central coherence has further been associated with difficulty seeing "the big picture" (Happé & Frith, 2006, p. 6). Indeed, Harry's statements indicated that he did not recognise that Parts A, B and C formed a sequence. While A–B–C is a well-known sequence, Harry could not transfer this knowledge to the sequence for completing this task. This illustrates the need to check in with students sharing ASD characteristics such as Harry to ensure they grasp the full expectations of the task.

Interview data further indicated Harry's confusion regarding the relation between the planning booklet and the final assessment task. This is evidenced by Harry's

comments on completing the draft comic strip, stating, “I hadn’t finished it. I just had like to do the drawing and that and if I didn’t finish it on the Friday I would’ve been in trouble. I think it was Friday?” (Interview, 26 June 2018, lines 273–277). The fact that Harry talked about the deadline for the planning booklet on Friday—although the final comic strip was in fact due on Thursday—indicated that he did not view the planning booklet as a scaffolding tool that would help him with his final comic strip. Instead, consistent with weak central coherence, he appeared to regard them as two separate assessments that he had to complete, and which were due around the same time. The lack of deadline for the draft, as identified by Mr Harris, may have contributed to this idea.

Overall, these persistent barriers warranted additional support for Harry in the classroom, to ensure he could access and succeed on the task. This support can be considered a mediating artefact, following Daniels’s (2016) notion that both objects and people can be artefacts. However, analysis of interview data revealed that support artefacts could not be mediated by Harry. This related to (a) Mr Harris’s lack of awareness of how Harry’s ASD characteristics impact on his self-advocacy skills, (b) lack of distributed expertise between Mr Harris and support staff, (c) parental support that related only to part of the task, and (d) lack of assessment adjustments.

First, while Mr Harris recognised the need to check on Harry, he suggested that Harry “didn’t quite take advantage of teacher support as much as he could have” (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 447–448). Where Mr Harris commended Seth and Charlie’s help-seeking behaviour, he reflected that “Harry does nothing like that” (Interview, 15 June 2018, line 454). Classroom observations, conducted in the weeks after the assessment had been completed, showed that Harry did not ask any questions in class. This lack of self-advocacy is common for students with ASD, like Harry (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Zuber & Webber, 2019), and reinforces the need for teachers, preservice teachers and support staff to check on his ability to engage with prescribed tasks. Therefore, for Harry to “take advantage

of teacher support", Mr Harris would have needed to approach him regularly and check that he comprehended the task, including how sub-elements related to the whole task. Mr Harris stated his intention to check in with Harry, but reflected, "I have to, you know, be with the whole class, so I can't spend as much time with Harry as I like to" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 454–455). Here, Mr Harris expressed the need to balance providing support to the whole class while also providing support to those who require more intensive assistance to engage with a task.

Second, although observational data were not available from the assessment period, Mr Harris indicated that he could not use support staff to help manage this balancing act of providing support. He stated, "you're not getting the same aides every day and especially because they don't understand the assessment themselves, it makes it hard to really help the student with it" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 366–368). Mr Harris's comment suggests that support staff did not share a common understanding of the assessment task. Although support staff could access the planning booklet in class and develop an understanding of the task that way, Mr Harris's comments show that he did not consider the planning booklet a cultural artefact (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) that could facilitate distributed expertise and enable support staff to provide support to students. Thus, while Mr Harris and the focus students mutually negotiated the social practice of assessment, using resources that were intended to be part of the classroom's shared repertoire (i.e., asking questions, the planning booklet, task instructions), Mr Harris did not consider collaboration with support staff to be part of this shared repertoire. This means that they remained on the periphery of the classroom. This is further illustrated by Mr Harris's statement that he did not send his lesson planning documents to support staff to assist with their lesson preparation, which means that support staff would not have had access to the resources central to participating in the classroom.

Third, similar to Seth and Charlie, parent support played a role in mitigating identified barriers for Harry. He indicated that he relied on his mother for support to complete the planning booklet: “I had asked my mum a bit of these questions so then I got the hang of it” (Interview, 26 June 2018, line 322). This provides evidence that Harry, like Seth and Charlie, could also not independently access the task and had to rely on out-of-class provisions to engage with the task. However, interview data showed that parent support was only provided for engagement with the planning booklet, which only partially related to the assessment task.

Fourth, although Ms Naomi stated in her survey responses (mCLAAS Category 2 and TR) that Harry was entitled to additional time to complete the assessment and that this was also granted, Mr Harris’s comments suggest otherwise. He stated that Harry had handed the assessment in late and he had required Harry to write a letter of apology to hand in with his assessment. This contradicts the adjustments Harry was entitled to; instead, he received punishment for being allowed to hand in the assessment later than other students. Implementation of assessment with fidelity, a feature of inclusive assessment where assessment is “implemented as intended” (Thurlow et al., 2016, p. 13), was therefore not evident in the data. The entitlement to additional time was further not communicated to Harry’s parents, as survey data revealed that they would have liked him to be given extra time on this assessment. When asked whether Harry’s disability might have impacted on his ability to complete the assessment on time, Mr Harris indicated he thought it came “down to effort”, adding “I think there are students with much greater disabilities which did a lot better work than he did” (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 441–445). By classifying Harry’s disability in relation to students with other disabilities, Mr Harris gives some insight into his notion of extent or degree of disability as being isolated from environmental barriers, such as those identified in this section, that contribute to the impact of a student’s disability (UNCRPD, 2016).

Interview data showed that Harry handed in his draft comic strip (Figure 6.18) during the last lesson, which meant that he did not engage with Mr Harris's feedback to inform his final comic strip. The feedback provided to Harry stated "Good use of dialogue. Your motivation is mostly clear. Ensure you use a variety of shots/angles & evaluative language. Different sentence starters could help too" (Figure 6.18). Mr Harris's feedback relates to all columns of the criteria sheet, although the word "motivation" relates to the planning booklet, with which Harry had engaged extensively. However, Harry did not build on his draft. Mr Harris stated, "Instead of changing the actual elements of the comic strip itself he kind of made the pictures a bit prettier" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 134–135), which only related to the right column of the criteria sheet (Figure 6.20). This indicates that Harry did not use the criteria sheet to guide his work on the final comic strip. In fact, Figure 6.18 shows that Harry's draft comic strip contained more comic strip features (e.g., caption boxes) than his final assessment (Figure 6.19). This led Mr Harris to state that Harry "definitely missed the point of the assignment a little bit" (Interview, 15 June 2018, lines 137–138). This is in contrast with Mr Harris's feedback on Harry's final comic strip, stating "a good effort" (Figure 6.19). Further, it begs the question how Harry could have simultaneously "missed the point" of the assignment and be awarded a C grade, indicating he achieved at Year level. While no data were gathered on school moderation practices of the application of criteria standards, Harry's C grade appears to be in contrast with the limited features of quality displayed in his work. These findings underscore the need for teachers to engage in professional conversation to ensure marking is reliable and not influenced by factors not relevant to the standards and criteria (Adie et al., 2012; Harlen, 2005; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014; Wyatt-Smith et al., 2010).

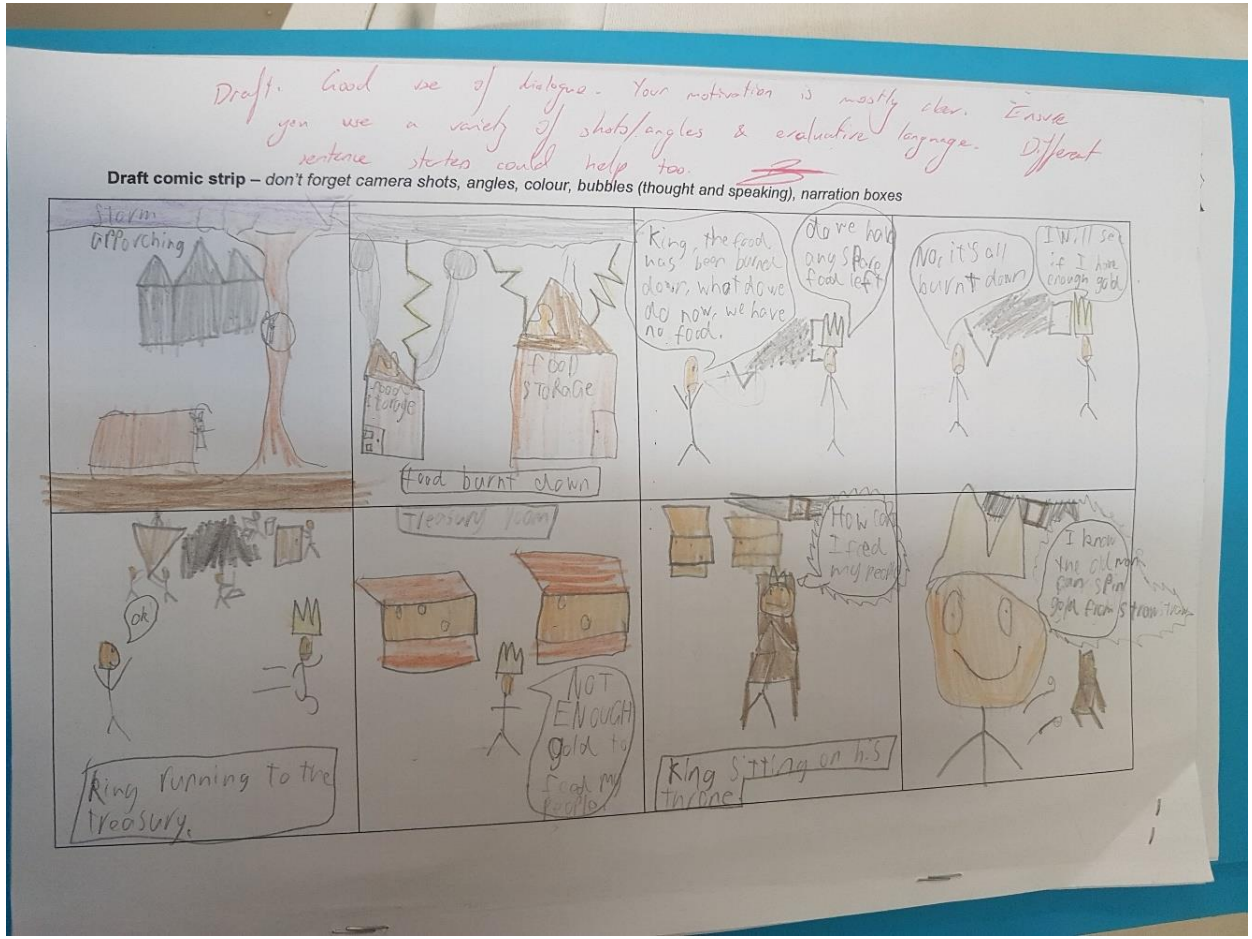
Feedback on the final assessment further stated, "captions & evaluative language could have improved your mark" (Figure 6.19). However, since Harry did use captions in his draft, he would have been more likely to have received a higher grade if he had

understood the relationship between the draft and the final comic strip for assessment purposes. Therefore, an alternative explanation is that Harry was not able to access the "point" or purpose of the assignment, as he could not mediate the associated artefacts and relate them to the "big picture" of the assessment task.

The identified barriers on this assessment task warranted assessment adjustments for Harry. Lack of these adjustments, together with his inability to use the teacher and support staff as mediating artefacts, resulted in Harry underperforming on the assessment task. This highlights the need for all teachers, students with disability and those in contact with students with disability to share a common understanding of how disability can impact on learning, and of the appropriate supports to provide to students with disability to establish equitable instead of equal engagement with assessment, as discussed in Chapter 2 (Berry, 2008; Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007).

Figure 6.18

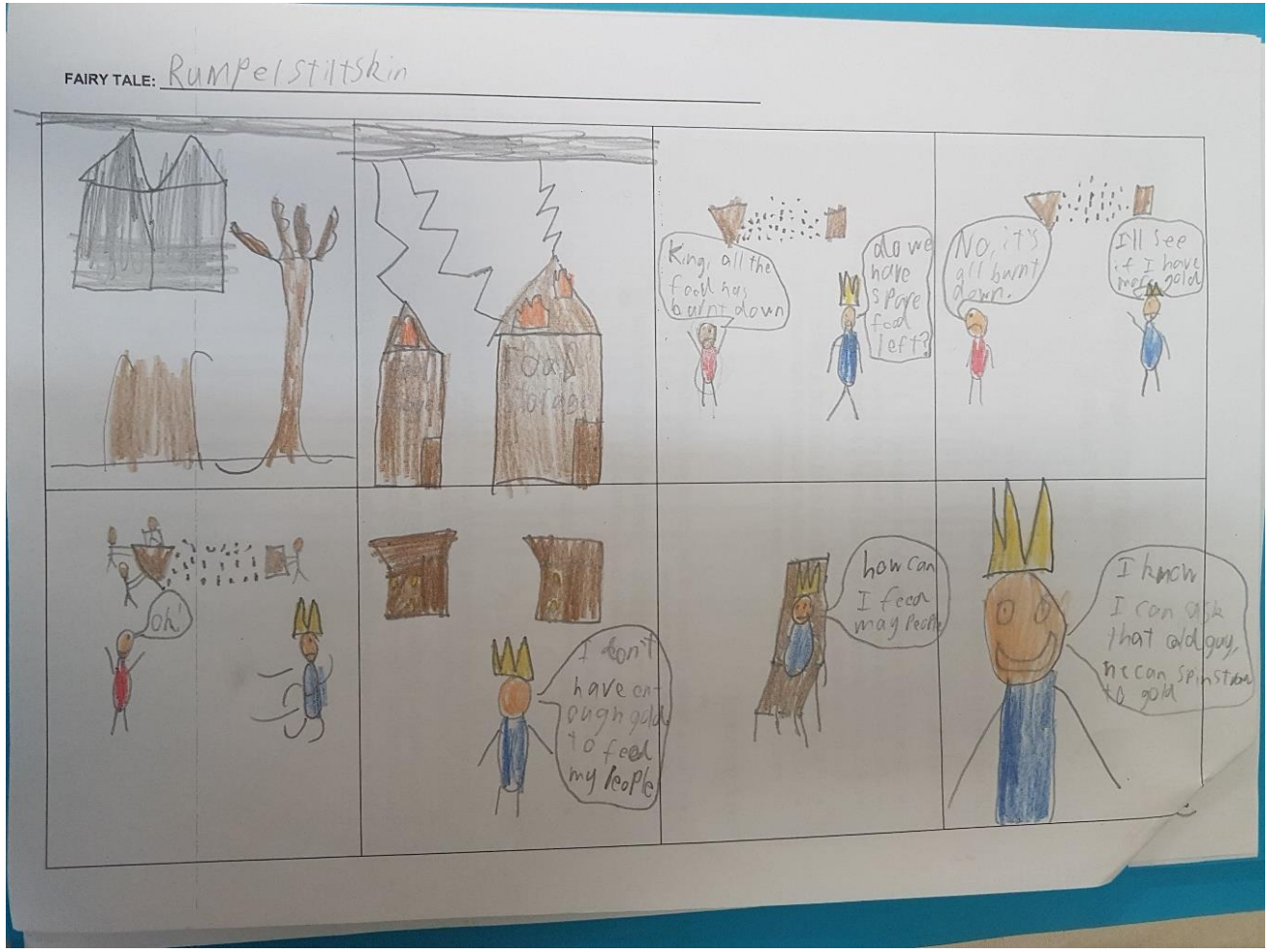
Harry's Draft Comic Strip



Note. Feedback: "Good use of dialogue. Your motivation is mostly clear. Ensure you use a variety of shots/angles & evaluative language. Different sentence starters could help too."

Figure 6.19

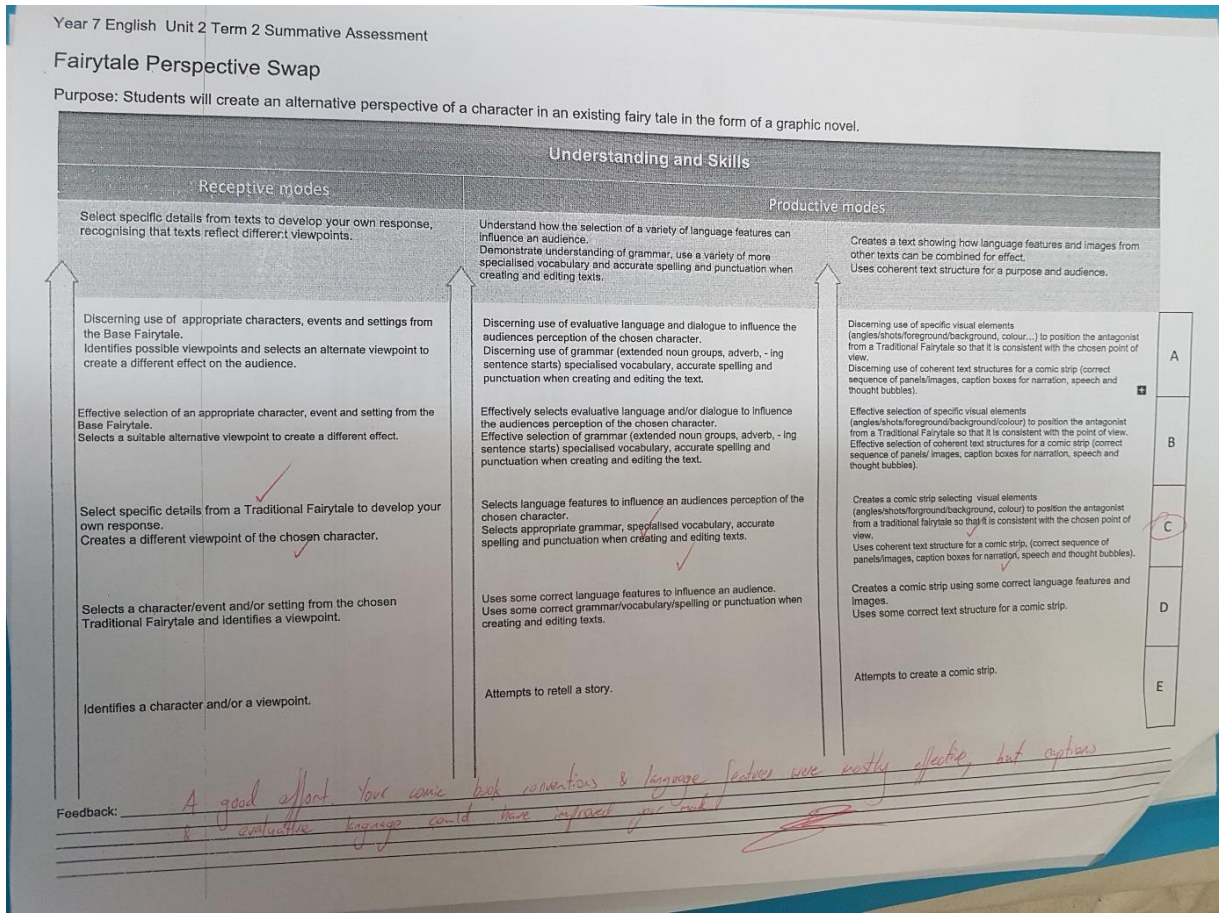
Harry's Final Comic Strip



Note. Final comic strip shows dialogue and colour, but no caption boxes.

Figure 6.20

Harry's Marked Criteria Sheet



Year 7 English Unit 2 Term 2 Summative Assessment

Fairytale Perspective Swap

Purpose: Students will create an alternative perspective of a character in an existing fairy tale in the form of a graphic novel.

Understanding and Skills			
Receptive modes	Productive modes		
Select specific details from texts to develop your own response, recognising that texts reflect different viewpoints.	Understand how the selection of a variety of language features can influence an audience. Demonstrate understanding of grammar, use a variety of more specialised vocabulary and accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a text showing how language features and images from other texts can be combined for effect. Uses coherent text structure for a purpose and audience.	
Discerning use of appropriate characters, events and settings from the Base Fairytale. Identifies possible viewpoints and selects an alternate viewpoint to create a different effect on the audience.	Discerning use of evaluative language and dialogue to influence the audiences perception of the chosen character. Discerning use of grammar (extended noun groups, adverb, - ing sentence starts) specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing the text.	Discerning use of specific visual elements (angles/shots/foreground/background, colour…) to position the antagonist from a Traditional Fairytale so that it is consistent with the chosen point of view. Discerning use of coherent text structures for a comic strip (correct sequence of panels/images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	A
Effective selection of an appropriate character, event and setting from the Base Fairytale. Selects a suitable alternative viewpoint to create a different effect.	Effectively selects evaluative language and/or dialogue to influence the audiences perception of the chosen character. Effective selection of grammar (extended noun groups, adverb, - ing sentence starts) specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing the text.	Effective selection of specific visual elements (angles/shots/foreground/background/colour) to position the antagonist from a Traditional Fairytale so that it is consistent with the point of view. Effective selection of coherent text structures for a comic strip (correct sequence of panels/ images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	B
Select specific details from a Traditional Fairytale to develop your own response. Creates a different viewpoint of the chosen character.	Selects language features to influence an audiences perception of the chosen character. Selects appropriate grammar, specialised vocabulary, accurate spelling and punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a comic strip selecting visual elements (angles/shots/forground/background, colour) to position the antagonist from a traditional fairytale so that it is consistent with the chosen point of view. Uses coherent text structure for a comic strip, (correct sequence of panels/images, caption boxes for narration, speech and thought bubbles).	C
Selects a character/event and/or setting from the chosen Traditional Fairytale and identifies a viewpoint.	Uses some correct language features to influence an audience. Uses some correct grammar/vocabulary/spelling or punctuation when creating and editing texts.	Creates a comic strip using some correct language features and images. Uses some correct text structure for a comic strip.	D
Identifies a character and/or a viewpoint.	Attempts to retell a story.	Attempts to create a comic strip.	E

Feedback: A good effort. Your comic book conventions & language features were mostly effective, but captions & evaluative language could have improved your mark.

Note. Feedback: "A good effort. Your comic book conventions & language features were mostly effective, but captions & evaluative language could have improved your mark."

Summary

This section has provided an analysis that addresses research sub-question 3, *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?* First, interview data showed that neither Ms Naomi nor Mr Harris were consulted during the design of the summative assessment task. This lack of pre-teaching development of shared understandings of the assessment can affect alignment of teaching with summative assessment (Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014). Interview data showed that Mr Harris prepared students for the summative assessment task without either having access to the assessment task or the criteria sheet. Therefore, the students and Mr Harris had embarked on a journey without knowing whether they were on track to achieve the success criteria and whether curriculum and pedagogy aligned with these criteria. This finding is not compatible with features of quality assessment as identified in Chapter 2, which prescribe the need for alignment (ACACA, 2012; Bennett, 2011; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014) and for transparency by embedding assessment standards into everyday teaching practices (DeLuca & Klinger, 2010; Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019).

Second, analysis of the planning booklet, assessment task and criteria sheet revealed barriers with potential to impact on students' ability to access the task, including limited alignment between the planning booklet and the assessment task. The complexity of the task included the genre dissonance embedded in the task. The use of many complex words further presented barriers. The second-order expectations associated with the linguistic complexity of the assessment task sheet and criteria sheet may have posed barriers to the focus students' ability to engage with the first-order expectations demonstrating the narrative convention of a comic strip. This is consistent with research highlighting how barriers inherent in tasks can disadvantage students with disability (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999; Graham et al., 2018; Rose et al., 2018). Whereas Seth and Charlie could mitigate the

identified barriers by asking for help from Mr Harris and their parents, Harry's reluctance to ask questions meant that the barriers remained in place, leading to Harry misunderstanding the task.

Third, the data indicated how accessibility and support provisions were impacted by lack of relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) between Mr Harris, Ms Naomi, other English staff, and SEP staff. Ms Naomi's exclusion from assessment design meant that her student-specific knowledge was not mediated by those in charge of assessment design to identify accessibility barriers in the task. As stated in Chapter 5, the SEP team was also not consulted during assessment design; as relational agency had not developed, their disability-specific expertise was not recognised and they were positioned as outsiders to the classroom by both Ms Naomi and Mr Harris. This lack of collaboration is in disjuncture with features of inclusive assessment, which stipulate the need for collaboration between teachers and other professionals at the school to ensure accessible assessment processes (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007). The data further did not indicate awareness by Mr Harris of how ASD may impact on student learning, which contributed to Harry not being provided with appropriate support to learn and demonstrate his learning; his entitlement to additional time on the assessment was not shared between Ms Naomi and Mr Harris, and Harry received a punishment for handing in his assessment late. This lack of awareness is in contrast with the APST (AITSL, 2017), prescribing teachers' need for in-depth knowledge of students and how they learn.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided an analysis that addresses research sub-question 2, *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?* and research sub-question 3, *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?* The analyses related to the first sample

(Merriam, 1988) as part of the identified case, "teachers' enactment of classroom assessment for students with disability in a mainstream secondary classroom". The chapter examined how Ms Naomi interacted with the focus students to scaffold their learning and assessment work during classroom practice and how the focus students engaged with the English summative assessment task, including how a preservice teacher, Mr Harris, enabled this engagement.

Through a sociocultural lens, classroom assessment for students with disability is a social practice between teachers, students and contexts at different levels (Broadfoot, 2006), and evidence elicited through this practice therefore describes the interaction between teachers, students and assessment processes within these contexts (Elwood, 2006). The chapter's analysis of this social practice identified that, despite Ms Naomi's willingess to enable the focus students to demonstrate their learning, the mutual engagement required to facilitate inclusive assessment practice was not evident in the data. As noted in Chapter 2, mutual engagement (Wenger, 1998) involves joint negotation of meaning among participants in a community of practice. The data showed that, while the teacher and support staff had overlapping and complementary roles (Wenger, 1998), they had not developed relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) and did not negotiate their common purpose of enabling students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. For example, Ms Naomi's intended deployment of support staff (i.e., they were not to provide support to Seth and Charlie) was in contrast with the enacted deployment (i.e., support staff provided more support to Seth and Charlie than did Ms Naomi).

Further, the chapter highlighted that the teacher's negotiation of sociocultural factors, specifically school factors, impacted on the establishment of inclusive classroom assessment practice. The "revolving door" of support staff visiting the classroom meant that a relationship of trust (Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016; Roberts, 2006) could not be established between the teacher and support staff. Further, assessment design processes as established at the English department limited opportunities for collaboration in assessment design,

excluding the teacher from the design process. A joint pursuit of the enterprise of inclusive classroom assessment practice where all stakeholders are mutually accountable (Wenger, 1998) was therefore not evident.

As a result, features of quality assessment, inclusive education and inclusive assessment, as identified in Chapter 2, were not part of the shared repertoire of the classroom. The chapter revealed implementation of AfL practices in a manner reflecting the letter of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006); while Ms Naomi addressed the LO and SC (aligning with AfL practices), the focus students were unable to mediate these artefacts to guide and self-assess their learning. Similarly, while formative teacher–student interactions, a feature of quality assessment practice, were observed to guide students through classroom assessment activities, they did not focus on developing student autonomy. Chapter 2 further highlighted accessibility as a key part of inclusive assessment practice (ACACA, 1995, 2012; ARG, 2002; Black & Wiliam, 2009; QCAA, 2018b; Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007; Wyatt-Smith, 2008; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014). However, the chapter identified barriers in both formative and summative assessment processes, with accessibility barriers present in the LO and SC, the summative assessment task and supporting artefacts, and potential use of provided feedback to improve future learning. This meant that not all focus students could optimally demonstrate their learning, or demonstrate their learning independently without considerable support. The chapter further identified limited evidence of accessible teaching practices in the data, such as UDL (CAST, 2019) and differentiation (Tomlinson, 2017). Instead, the chapter showed how implementation of differentiation strategies as "add-ons" (Graham, 2020, p. 14) was required to enable the focus students' participation in classroom practice. Evidence of collaboration, identified as a characteristic of effective inclusive schools, was limited in the data. The chapter revealed that support staff were not consulted during summative assessment task design, and that school procedures resulted in Ms Naomi also being excluded from this process. Further, the data identified lack of awareness of the

preservice teacher of characteristics of ASD and required support provisions, indicating limited collaboration between him and Ms Naomi during assessment processes.

The identification of accessibility issues in classroom assessment practice for students with disability is in contrast with legislation outlining the rights of students with disability to access education on the same basis as their peers (DSE, 2005) and to optimally demonstrate their learning (MCEETYA, 2008). While the chapter identified the need for teachers to balance quality assessment practice with providing support to students with disability, more proactive design of pedagogy and assessment processes would enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment on the same basis as their peers.

Chapter 7: The Mathematics Classroom

This chapter examines the focus students' engagement with summative assessment in mathematics and how their mathematics teacher, Ms Daisy, interacted with them to scaffold their learning and assessment work in the classroom. As for Chapter 6, it provides an analysis that addresses research sub-question 2, *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?* and research sub-question 3, *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?* This chapter presents the second sample (Merriam, 1988) as part of the identified case, "teachers' enactment of classroom assessment for students with disability in a mainstream secondary classroom". The first sample (Chapter 6) and the second sample (this chapter) are not examined to provide a comparison between two classroom contexts, but instead are examined independently in relation to the case.

The chapter first examines pedagogical interactions in the classroom and differentiated support for the focus students, using evidence from surveys, video observations, and interviews with Ms Daisy. The chapter then focuses on students' interactions with the mathematics test, drawing on interview data, video observations, the assessment task itself, and student work artefacts.

Pedagogy and Instruction

The following discussion focuses on elements related to Ms Daisy's pedagogical practices and roles of support staff regarding the focus students' engagement with learning and assessment. It is based on the triangulation of data from a 43-minute interview conducted with Ms Daisy about her classroom practice and assessment procedures, personal communication with Ms Daisy (three emails), data from teacher, parent and student surveys, as well as nine video-records of classroom interactions. The latter resulted in a total of nine hours and 40 minutes of video data. As described in Chapter 3, thematic analysis of

the data identified seven elements relating to how participating teachers in the case study enabled students' engagement with classroom assessment. Similar to Chapter 6, four elements are discussed in the first section of the chapter: (1) learning objectives and success criteria; (2) differentiation strategies; (3) deployment of support staff; and (4) formative teacher–student interaction. These elements address research sub-question 2, *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?* The first two elements are discussed in terms of qualitative evidence; elements 3 and 4 introduce quantification of video data to explore patterns in interaction of students with support staff and with Ms Daisy. The remaining three elements, (5) Assessment design processes; (6) Assessment task design; and (7) Interaction of the students with the summative assessment task, are discussed in the second section of the chapter. They address research sub-question 3, *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?*

Setting the Scene: Classroom Protocols

To provide a context to the reported findings in the chapter, this section describes the routines and "ways of doing things" (Wenger, 1998, p. 83) that Ms Daisy and students had adopted as part of their everyday classroom practice. Observation data showed that Ms Daisy had established classroom management protocols that framed each lesson. For example, in her class, students were allowed to talk with each other, with Ms Daisy observed requesting students to talk more quietly if noise levels became too high. Similar to Ms Naomi's class, students had to raise their hands if they needed help. Video data showed that many students in class usually required help at the same time; Ms Daisy was sometimes observed telling students that she had seen their raised hands and that she would get to them after helping other students.

The mathematics class started with students copying down the Learning Objectives and Success Criteria (LO and SC), which Ms Daisy had written on the board

before students entered the classroom. This was followed by completing short warm-up exercises that Ms Daisy also had written on the board. These related to content that students had previously learnt. The warm-up exercises were always worked out on the board by Ms Daisy, with the help of students who volunteered or were appointed by Ms Daisy. Ms Daisy then verbally explained the LO and SC, followed by explicit, step-by-step teaching (Rosenshine, 1986) of new content and related activities. Observed activities included students individually working on prescribed exercises from the textbook, completing worksheets individually or sometimes in pairs, and playing Quizlet, an online mathematics quiz, on their iPad. The mathematics lessons regularly ended with Ms Daisy working out several exercises on the board or asking students to volunteer to work out sums on the board. The activities that Ms Daisy prescribed were observed to relate to the lesson's LO and SC.

Element 1: Learning Objectives and Success Criteria

The data showed that, while the focus students were able to develop a shared understanding of the LO and SC, limited opportunities were provided to students in the classroom that allowed for self-assessment of progress. Interview data identified that the LO and SC were intended by Ms Daisy both as a self-assessment artefact for students as well as a strategy for Ms Daisy to teach responsively to students' learning progress and demonstrated skills, aligning with purposes identified in research (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019). She indicated that self-assessment evidence (i.e., students should record whether they had achieved the LO each lesson) would "[let] me know what I need to be doing in the next lesson" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 635-636). Similar to the Chapter 6 analysis, Ms Daisy's intended practice is consistent with Wenger's (1998) principles of mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire, as Ms Daisy and students would mutually negotiate the LO and SC as part of everyday classroom practice to guide teaching and learning. Ms Daisy self-identified as having moderate skills in supporting students to develop their own understanding of criteria but perceived this to be a "very important" part of her role

and considered that her explanations should enable students to understand these (TAII). This confidence in students' ability to understand criteria indicates Ms Daisy's perception that the LO and SC could serve as mediating artefacts in the classroom.

The study showed that the LO and SC were accessible as they contained few words, including commonly used mathematical concepts that were explicitly taught to students, and they related directly to learning activities. These features enabled the focus students access to the LO and SC to develop an understanding of the lesson focus and engage in activities informed by the LO. Data from interviews and classroom observations indicated that Ms Daisy provided specific explanations of the discipline-specific vocabulary of the LO and SC, sourced from the Australian Curriculum (ACARA, n.d.-b). Concepts such as "to add fractions with like and unlike denominators" included mathematical concepts taught to students explicitly throughout mathematics lessons. For example, Ms Daisy was observed to describe to the class fractions with "unlike denominators" as "things that don't look the same on the bottom" (Classroom observation, 21 June 2018) and modelled thinking and decision-making processes on the board how students should engage with such fractions. In addition, the LO and SC as observed during mathematics lessons presented students with a low literacy load as they contained few words. The result of these strategies was that the vocabulary used in the LO and SC, or the requirement to write them down, were not observed to create barriers for the students; the focus students were not observed to take photos of the LO and SC during any of the mathematics lessons and SEP staff were not required to scribe for them. The use of simpler terms and visual representation on the board reflect pedagogical strategies recommended to enable students with language difficulties, like the focus students, to understand meaning of words (Bishop et al., 2017; Ravet, 2013). Reduced writing load has also been reported to benefit students with ASD and DLD, like the focus students (Bishop et al., 2017; Ravet, 2013). Although data were not able to identify that the focus students did understand the LO and SC, observation data showed that the focus students engaged with the

classroom activities informed by the LO. The absence of barriers in representation and communication of LO and SC thus provided opportunity for focus students to mediate these to self-assess their progress towards the LO, as intended by Ms Daisy.

However, a discrepancy was evident between Ms Daisy's intention for students to use the SC to self-assess their progress relative to the LO, and opportunities provided to students to do so. In interview, Ms Daisy indicated that she intended, at the end of each lesson, that students would self-assess their progress against the SC for the LO in their notebooks, and that she aimed to check these. However, this checking was not observed to occur in classroom interaction between Ms Daisy and students. Ms Daisy was observed to monitor students' work for progress during lessons and initiated additional teaching responsive to those observations (see Element 4), but not to communicate explicitly with students how their work progressed relative to the LO and SC. Observation and interview data further did not provide evidence of any students self-assessing their progress; the focus students stated that Ms Daisy did not check their achievement relative to the SC. Although Ms Daisy's talk and classroom observations evidenced her monitoring students' achievement of the LO against the SC, the implicit way she did this meant that students may not have recognised that Ms Daisy's in-class feedback related to the LO and SC. This could compromise the usefulness of LO and SC to guide learning and self-assessment. Research has emphasised active student involvement in using criteria for self-assessment to promote AfL's goal of student autonomy (ARG, 2002; Heitink et al., 2016; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). However, as noted in Chapter 2, student autonomy cannot be promoted if students are not explicitly taught how to monitor their progress against criteria (Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019). The recording of LO and SC without purposefully linking this to developing students' skills of self-assessment does not promote student autonomy (Marshall & Drummond, 2006).

Interview data showed Ms Daisy's self-criticism towards her use of LO and SC, when she described that "very terribly is how I use them" (Interview, 28 June 2018, line

625). She stated that “technically the lesson I just did is a waste if they [the students] don’t know why they did it” (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 649-650). Ms Daisy indicated her capacity to follow up was affected by her perceived time pressure:

> Honestly, I get too distracted throughout the lesson … and then we’ll be moving onto the next thing and I just feel very, like, pressured to get to the next [topic] … and then I don’t turn around and slow down and say ‘Have we done this?’. (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 641-644)

Ms Daisy highlighted how she negotiated a perceived pressure to keep up with the Year 7 mathematics content, as prescribed in the Australian Curriculum (ACARA, n.d.-b). Her comments are consistent with reports of the pressure on teachers to teach a “crowded curriculum” within limited timeframes (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014, p. 3). Ms Daisy’s focus on covering the curriculum is evident in research findings that the quality of AfL practice depends on whether teachers’ focus is predominantly on covering required curriculum content or on ensuring student understanding of taught content (Cumming et al., 2019; Heitink et al., 2016). Teachers’ negotiation of sociocultural factors, such as perceived time pressure, impacts on their enactment of AfL, which can undermine intended development of student autonomy. This finding is compatible with literature on teacher assessment literacy, highlighting the negotiated nature of teachers’ enacted assessment practice (Adie, 2012; Looney et al., 2017; Xu & Brown, 2016).

Element 2: Differentiation Strategies

Teaching a diverse group of students has been associated with practices of UDL (Meyer et al., 2014) and differentiation (Tomlinson, 2017), where, as noted in Chapter 2, UDL is a proactive teaching strategy at the basis of planning with additional layers of practice comprising differentiation (Cologon & Lassig, 2020). Differentiated practice is expected under the APST (AITSL, 2017) and aims to optimise student learning within supportive and stimulating environments (Smale-Jacobse et al., 2019). UDL and

differentiation enable students to access resources that are part of the shared repertoire of the classroom, so they can mediate these resources to progress their learning (Wenger, 1998). Interview, observation and survey data provided evidence of Ms Daisy's differentiation strategies and of emerging proactive strategies aligned with UDL. While the data did not reveal Ms Daisy's awareness of UDL, instances of proactive teaching in combination with differentiation strategies were observed in the classroom.

Ms Daisy repeatedly demonstrated a critical disposition towards her ability to teach a diverse student population. She identified that supporting diverse students is a skill that takes time to master:

> I don't know how to – and still, I don't think – I think it will take years, but trying to cater for every single person in the classroom, 'cos it's so difficult when you've got 27 kids in the class that are all different, like, no-one learns in the same way and (pause) you just kind of hope for the best (pause) but that's not a good enough approach. (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 891–896)

Ms Daisy's comments illustrate her intention to "cater for every single person", who she identified as all being "different", highlighting her positive attitude towards inclusion. Ms Daisy's perceived difficulty in ensuring her teaching practices suited all students is also evident. Her self-critical disposition was further evidenced by stating that she would "just kind of hope for the best, but that's not a good enough approach". This expression of hope resembles the HoSE's declaration (as described in Chapter 5) that she was satisfied and hopeful with the SEP team going into classrooms: "At least there is that much resource going in there and let's hope it's being used effectively" (Interview, 25 July 2018, lines 571–572). This narrative of hope points to gap in knowledge and skills to design accessible and differentiated activities, as developed through teacher education and professional development. This led to a lack of purposeful approach to inclusive classroom assessment practice, which is discussed further in Chapter 8.

Although interview data did not indicate Ms Daisy's awareness of UDL, her teaching practices included proactive teaching strategies that contributed to enabling students' engagement with learning, as identified through observation and interview data. For example, Ms Daisy taught students three different methods to add fractions, including one where students would draw a butterfly. She described how visualisation helped students: "There's a lot of visual learners in there, and just being able to draw things, to organise … which goes where, I just find it helped last year" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 567–570). Ms Daisy stated that she chose this visual strategy to address "visual learners"[25]. Offering students multiple methods to engage with content aligns with UDL (Meyer et al., 2014), as well as with the CITW framework (Dean et al., 2012), and has been reported to suit students with language processing difficulties, such as Seth, Charlie and Harry (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Qld DoE, personal communication, June 18, 2018a, 2018b).

Ms Daisy also aimed to develop a positive relationship with her students, stating in her interview, "I think it helps in the classroom if they not just, not 'like' you but don't 'hate' me" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 857–859). She described how she managed to form a bond with the three focus students:

> Seth and Charlie … watch a lot of TED talks, so they're always, like, full of interesting facts and always, like, tell me interesting things, especially during science … and then Harry just loves his family so I always ask his, like, little sister and stuff, and that's just a way to bond. (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 272–279)

This comment highlights how Ms Daisy brought students' interests into the classroom as a mediating artefact to promote student engagement; she stated she referred to these interests in order to establish a relationship with the focus students that will then support their

[25] The notion of "visual learner" relates to learning style theories where learners are depicted to be visual, auditory or kinaesthetic learners and lesson activities should be tailored to students accordingly. However, review studies have concluded that no evidence base exists to warrant incorporating learning styles into pedagogy and assessment (Klitmøller, 2015; Pashler et al., 2009). Rather, giving students different ways of engaging with learning material and assessment, as practised here by Ms Daisy, is recommended.

engagement in the lesson. Ms Daisy's recognition of the importance of teacher–student relationships for student learning is evident here, aligning with existing research findings that positive teacher–student relationships positively affect students' emotional well-being (Murray & Pianta, 2007) and student engagement (Quin, 2017). As stated in Chapter 6, such personal conversations have been associated with effective learning communities (Tomlinson, 2017), making students feel welcome in class.

Ms Daisy self-reported that adjustments made for the focus students were available to all students in the class, except for a small number of strategies (mCLAAS Categories 2 and 5; Table 7.1). However, interview and observation data reflected that differentiation strategies were warranted in response to planned classroom practices that posed barriers to the focus students. As following sections show, this type of differentiation is inconsistent with Cologon and Lassig's (2020) notion of differentiation as an additional layer to universal classroom planning; teaching and learning was not planned to proactively suit a diverse classroom. Ms Daisy's self-report (mCLAAS; Table 7.1) is analysed alongside interview and observation data to inform discussion of her differentiation practice.

Table 7.1

Recorded Adjustments on the mCLAAS for Seth, Charlie and Harry

Adjustment category	Recorded adjustments (* denotes adjustments only for students in SEP/LANI)	Adjustments to Learning (L)/ Assignments (A)/Tests (T)		
		Seth	**Charlie**	**Harry**
1) Adjustments to motivation	Verbal encouragement of student effort	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Encourage student if slow at starting	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Encourage student wanting to quit to sustain effort	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Encourage student to remain on task	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
2) Adjustments to scheduling and format	*Extra time	T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	*Allow rest breaks	-	L	L
	*Schedule learning/assessment over extra days	A	A	A
	Undertake learning/assessment at beneficial time	T	-	-
	*Modify to draw on the student's strengths	T	L	L
	*Differentiate curriculum/learning goals for the student	-	-	L
3) Adjustments to setting	Provide distraction-free space	L, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Place in room where student is comfortable	L	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Allow the student freedom to move, stand or pace	L	L	L
	Heating or cooling of the room when able	-	-	L, A, T
4) Assistance with directions	Read directions	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Reread directions for sub task	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Provide instructions on iPods or similar technological aid	A	L, A	L
	Clarify questions by asking student what is written	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Circle or highlight the task in learning or assessment instructions	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Restate task with simpler words	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Student to reread/restate task	L	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Additional practice activities before assessment	L, A, T	L	L
	Colour-code instructions to emphasise steps	L	L	L
5) Assistance during assessment (Only options were A and T)	Teach specific strategies	A, T	A, T	A, T
	Provide practice in test format	T	A, T	A, T
	*Read expectations and content to student	A, T	A, T	A, T
	Spelling assistance	A, T	A, T	A, T
	*Have the teacher sit near student	A, T	A, T	A, T
6) Equipment	Calculator	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Manipulatives	L	L	L
	Ruler	L, A, T	L, A, T	L, A, T
	Arithmetic tables	L	L	L
	Written list of necessary formulas	L	-	L
7) Adjustments to learning/ assessment formats	Provide voice-recorded learning materials and assessments	L	L	L
	Use a computer for learning and assessment presentation	-	-	L

Interview data revealed Ms Daisy's wish to implement additional differentiation strategies for the focus students but she perceived they did not suit her current classroom practice, stating "sometimes it just doesn't suit what the class is doing" (Interview, 28 June 2018, line 510). As for Chapter 6, the reported (mCLAAS), intended and enacted differentiation strategies are categorised and discussed as general differentiation strategies, and differentiation relating to content, process and product (Tomlinson, 2017).

General differentiation strategies

Ms Daisy's general differentiation strategies, evidenced in interview, observation and survey data (mCLAAS Categories 1–3), focused on (a) supporting engagement (Seth and Charlie) and (b) wellbeing (Harry). For example, in her interview Ms Daisy described Seth and Charlie's hesitance to change their answer in their notebooks. She stated, "I just have to explain to them that it's okay that we've made this mistake, we just need to fix it up, so then the next ones are great" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 498–499). This enabling strategy was used by Ms Daisy to encourage Seth and Charlie to sustain their effort.

The teacher attempted to support Harry's wellbeing through various strategies including providing Harry with a choice of how to respond to his levels of anxiety. For example, observation data showed how Ms Daisy provided Harry with the option to leave the classroom when he became flustered during a group activity where no clear roles for each group member had been advised. Ms Daisy approached him to ask "How are you doing? Is it a bit noisy?" (Classroom observation, 21 June 2018). Harry nodded and Ms Daisy proceeded to ask,

> What can we do to make you feel a bit better here? Do you want to go into different group? Do you want to tell the girls what you want to have on the paper? Do you want to head out? Do you want to get up and go grab some pens and take a walk? Do you want to stand up, go outside and get a drink and then when you come back in, we can

> go to the desk and grab some pens and bring them to this group? (Classroom observation, 21 June 2018)

Ms Daisy's strategy to ensure Harry "feels comfortable" (Interview, 28 June 2018, line 477) reflected her understanding of Harry's required emotional support: "He takes everything to heart and is very personal, so he can get very worked up in the classroom" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 474–475). However, the large number of questions or options may be perceived as overwhelming for students with receptive communication difficulties, like Harry. Ms Daisy's intention to give Harry agency through his coping mechanism, resulted in her asking many "do you want to" questions. The observed effect was that Harry was able to recognise the provided option of going for a walk as he was observed leaving the classroom. When he returned a few minutes later, he was visibly more relaxed and managed to engage in the group work.

Differentiation of Content

Ms Daisy's differentiation of content, as evidenced through survey data (mCLAAS Categories 4 and 7), interview data and observation data, took place on a whole-class level and involved showing students videos to explain new concepts. She described how this replaced her own verbal instruction:

> I try and put videos of the concepts on, because, you know, just standing there listening to me or watching me doing it on the board is very just one track, so I try and break it up with some videos explaining it, 'cos there's always someone who can explain it better. (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 579–583)

Ms Daisy's concern for student engagement is evident here, as implied by her description of students "just listening to me or watching me doing it" as being "one track". She identified that providing students with an alternative mode of representation would "break it up". However, while classroom observations included 1 hour 10 minutes 41 seconds of instructions, only one short instructional video (3 min 46 secs) was observed to be shown,

inconsistent with UDL principles. Providing instructions grounded in UDL principles would give students options to engage with different representations, including through technology (CAST, 2019). In the observed lessons, students mostly engaged with new content through Ms Daisy's verbal explanations and her modelling of strategies on the board. This reliance on verbal and written communication is inconsistent with the recommended use of visual representation by the school's pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012). Research has identified that students with DLD (like Seth and Charlie) and ASD (like Harry) benefit from the use of visuals in instruction, to minimise the need to rely on verbal memory and requirement to process long verbal instructions (Bishop et al., 2017; Ravet, 2013).

Differentiation of Process

Survey data (mCLAAS Categories 1, 4 and 6), interview data and classroom observations revealed evidence of differentiation of process in Ms Daisy's classroom practice, including differentiation of activities students undertake to make sense of lesson content (Tomlinson, 2017). For example, Ms Daisy was observed to check in regularly with the focus students to support their transition to the next activity. She stated in interview that she ensured to check in on Harry, as she indicated "I know he's not as willing to ask questions" (Interview, 28 June 2018, line 841), consistent with literature noting limited self-advocacy of students with ASD (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Zuber & Webber, 2019).

The following instances of differentiation of process, identified through self-report (mCLAAS Categories 2 and 4), interview and observation, were found to be responsive to the focus students' characteristics and how they interacted with the context of the learning environment, including assigned activities. However, these differentiation strategies were required so students could negotiate an environment that was not fully suitable to them. For example, Ms Daisy described how she would not ask Harry to work out sums on the board, because she recognised that "he does not want to be up in front of everyone. In first term I tried to get him to do it and he got upset, so I'll stay clear of that" (Interview, 28 June 2018,

lines 608–611). Instead, Ms Daisy described how she would ask him to answer questions while he remained seated, which was supported by classroom observation data. This differentiation of process gave Harry an opportunity to demonstrate his learning on the same content but under different conditions. It is responsive to Harry's requirement to negotiate a classroom activity that presented barriers to him. Research (Tomlinson, 2017) has recommended creating a safe environment for students by removing "emotional danger" (p. 44) and providing required support at a social-emotional level, as reported in Chapter 4. While Ms Daisy "added on" adjustments to avoid a situation where Harry experienced adverse effects from her planned strategy of working at the board, research has identified strategies that could enable Harry to participate in such activities on the same basis as his peers. Research on ASD recommends the use of priming strategies (e.g., communicating to Harry in advance which exercise he will work out on the board) to decrease unknown elements (i.e., unexpectedly being asked to work out exercises on the board) and prepare students with ASD, like Harry, to engage in the desired activity (Denning & Moody, 2018). While differentiation can mitigate barriers present in the classroom for students with disability, such barriers could also be removed by planning instruction strategies that enable students with disability, like Harry, to participate on the same basis as their peers.

Similarly, reliance on verbal or written instructions required Ms Daisy to differentiate instructions for the focus students. Ms Daisy identified in interview that Seth and Charlie, specifically, needed to hear instructions more than once before they could start their work, indicating that "sometimes they'll just sit there until you come over" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 485–486). Ms Daisy highlighted Seth and Charlie's hesitance to commence a task, as was also reported by the HoSE in descriptions of how DLD impacts on their learning (see Chapter 4). Ms Daisy's prompting of students at the start of an activity was observed once for all three focus students (as they were seated next to each other), after they were observed to be disengaged from starting a new activity:

> Okay, so do we understand what we're doing? So which method do we like the best? (students reply) … Okay, so we all like the butterfly method, that is also my favourite. So, you are going to show your working out, so you are going to show the actual butterfly method in your book and then you can write the answer on the sheet. So, you are going to start at question one. (Classroom observation, 21 June 2018)

Ms Daisy repeated the instructions she had given to the whole class just before, although the students indicated they knew the activity (evidenced by Ms Daisy's question "Which method do we like best?"). Ms Daisy's prompt led the focus students to engage with the exercise, addressing the difficulty students with ASD can have with stopping and starting tasks (Ravet, 2013). Her repetition and simplification of instructions by summing up aspects of the task ("you are going to show", "you can write"), aligning with her self-reported strategy of restating the task with simpler words (mCLAAS Category 4), effectively mitigated some potential language barriers and difficulties students with DLD can have processing verbal and written language (Bishop et al., 2017). While Ms Daisy's strategy was effective—as students were observed to engage with the task—the use of visual supports (such as a checklist indicating individual steps) would increase accessibility of instructions for all students (Qld DoE, personal communication, June 18, 2018a, 2018b; Ravet, 2013) and could remove the need for such individual differentiation.

Differentiation of process was further observed in Ms Daisy's implementation of group work, aligning with the CITW framework (Dean et al., 2012), which prescribes cooperative learning using small group sizes and distribution of roles to ensure individual accountability (CITW strategy 3). This aligns with Tomlinson's (2017) notion of differentiation through flexible grouping, where group tasks should "call for a meaningful contribution from every group member" (p. 47). However, the enacted group work as evident in observation data was not compatible with group work as intended through the pedagogical

framework (Dean et al., 2012) or as recommended in differentiation literature (Tomlinson, 2017).

Two types of group activities were observed. During two of the nine observed lessons, an online mathematics game ("Quizlet") was played. Students were automatically assigned to groups of four to six students and had to answer questions that appeared on their iPad. Observations showed that the competitive nature of Quizlet—the group who answered the most questions correctly in the shortest amount of time won—resulted in only one or two students per group answering questions, while pressing the answers on their group members' iPads as well. This did not encourage students with less mathematical knowledge, or students who required a longer processing time for written questions, like the focus students, to contribute meaningfully or learn from their peers (Tomlinson, 2017), presenting a discrepancy with intended enactment of group work as a differentiation strategy.

Another example of group work concerned the activity of producing a written poster. Observations revealed that the activity's instructions did not provide sufficient roles for each group member to meaningfully contribute. This disjuncture with the expected implementation of cooperative learning, including individual accountability (Dean et al., 2012), impacted on student engagement. This is the group activity, described earlier, during which Harry was observed to become overwhelmed during the activity and was given the option by Ms Daisy to go for a walk outside. Such difficulty in participating in group work is commonly reported for students with ASD, with research highlighting how limited interpersonal skills and anxiety can impact on executive functioning of students with ASD, like the focus students, when they are required to participate in peer group work (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007; Ravet, 2013). A timed quiz, or an unstructured group activity, may not provide students with disability equal opportunity to participate in activities as their peers. The lack of a clear structure, communication rules and role division especially in group work

may not suit those students in need of a structured learning environment, such as Harry. Group work needs to be enacted using processes that enable accessibility for all students.

It is notable that Ms Daisy had identified in survey (mCLAAS Category 6) and interview the use of manipulatives (for Harry) and iPads (for Seth and Charlie) as beneficial but did not implement these as she perceived them to be modifying content (to a lower academic standard) and adding to her workload, rather than perceiving them as resources that should be part of the classroom's shared repertoire for all students to mediate as part of everyday, accessible, classroom practice. For example, she believed that the use of manipulatives and iPads did not always "suit what the class is doing and it feels worse to give them something completely different to focus on when everyone else is (pause) and when they are capable" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 510–514). Her description of these resources as "different" and her characterisation of the focus students as "capable" indicate that Ms Daisy saw these resources as compromising the academic standard of the content, rather than as a different form of engagement with content at the same level as the focus students' peers. In addition, she described how "you can't just spend a lesson" working with iPads when there was "so much we have to fit into one term" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 535–538). This reference to "fit" curriculum coverage "into one term" highlights Ms Daisy's perception that providing multiple modes of engagement obstructs curriculum coverage, rather than acting as a mediating artefact to enable all students to engage with the curriculum. Ms Daisy's perception is inconsistent with research findings showing increased participation and engagement of students with disability when all students in the mathematics class were offered a choice of using virtual, alongside manual, manipulatives (Friesen, 2016).

Classroom observations revealed that students always completed activities using pen and paper and only used their iPads to access a digital version of their textbook or participate in Quizlet. The associated writing load, especially when completing tasks that were written on the board, was reported by Seth to cause difficulty, because:

> We have to write down the question and answer, I been used [in primary school] to writing just the answer down. It takes longer 'cos I have to look up, write, write, write, look up, write, write – oh, made a mistake – so it takes a bit longer for me. (Interview, 27 June 2018, lines 579–585)

This comment indicates Seth's difficulty with having to rely on memory ("write, look up, write") when copying tasks from the board. This is consistent with characteristics of students with DLD (Bishop et al., 2017). Ms Daisy's interview and survey data did not indicate awareness of Seth's struggle with writing. Principles of UDL (CAST, 2019) recommend that all students should be provided with multiple modes of engagement to increase accessibility, not just students with disability. Tomlinson (2017) also described how students' required support differs per task and per student, and resources should therefore differ accordingly. The use of technology—identified as a notable omission from the school's pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012)—could mitigate the barrier that Seth experienced when required to copy from the board. Further, while school policy documents identified the usefulness of electronic devices for students, this did not extend to typing; electronic devices with keyboards were only explicitly recommended for students in senior secondary education, as noted in Chapter 5.

Differentiation of Product

Survey and interview data revealed differentiation of product (Tomlinson, 2017), which is understood in this study as concerning differentiation of summative assessment. Summative assessments are established practice in the classroom, and, as noted in Chapter 2, need to be accessible in order for students to mediate them to demonstrate their learning. Differentiation of summative assessment enables accessibility, which has been identified as a feature of quality assessment (ACACA, 1995, 2012; ARG, 2002; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Ms Daisy self-identified as being "moderately" skilled and confident, and "reasonably well-prepared" in designing or adjusting assessment to ensure

accessibility and saw this as a “very important” part of her job (TAII, TUDSE). Further, Ms Daisy’s self-reported summative differentiation practice included providing additional time, circling or highlighting instructions on assessment tasks, restating tasks with simpler words, and providing practice in test format (mCLAAS Categories 2, 4, and 5). Despite these reported enablers for accessible assessment, interview data and analysis of the assessment task revealed that the focus students received the same summative test as their peers, with the provision of additional time (see Element 6). As will be discussed under Element 5 of the chapter, Ms Daisy’s interview data suggests that she had to negotiate school procedures during assessment design, an identified part of teachers’ assessment literacy in practice (Xu & Brown, 2016). These negotiations led to compromises that meant that identified barriers in the task remained, and that the focus students could not all access this resource sufficiently to demonstrate their learning.

Element 3: Deployment of Support Staff

As noted in Chapters 5 and 6, support staff in the classroom have overlapping and complementary roles (Wenger, 1998) with classroom teachers. Both support students with disability and support staff’s disability-specific knowledge can complement the teacher’s student-specific knowledge. Following Daniels’s (2016) notion that persons can act as mediating artefacts, classroom teachers and support staff should mediate each other’s expertise to develop relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009). This can strengthen their joint response to include students with disability in the classroom, and specifically in responding to classroom assessment. However, as Chapter 2 showed, research has highlighted the under-preparedness of support staff (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Sharma & Salend, 2016) and identified that teacher–student interaction is commonly replaced with teacher aide-student interaction (Blatchford et al., 2012; Harris, 2011).

Video and observational data identified Ms Daisy as the predominant provider of support for the focus students. Ms Daisy interacted with the focus students more frequently

and for a longer duration than did support staff. Six SEP TAs and one LANI TA were observed to visit the classroom during the nine observed lessons. Despite this "revolving door" of support staff engagement in the classroom, as noted in Chapter 5, observations showed that Ms Daisy provided continuity of support for the focus students. Table 7.2 presents an overview of the presence of support staff, using a coding system continued from Chapter 6; SEP teacher aide "C" here is the same person as SEP teacher aide C in Chapter 6.

Table 7.2

Presence of Support Staff During Classroom Observations

Lesson	SEP teacher	SEP teacher aide	LANI teacher aide
1 – 11 June 2018	-	-	-
2 – 13 June 2018	-	E, F	-
3 – 15 June 2018	-	G	-
4 – 18 June 2018	-	F	-
5 – 20 June 2018	-	E, F	-
6 – 21 June 2018	-	F, H	-
7 – 22 June 2018	-	I (5 minutes)	J
8 – 27 June 2018	-	F	-
9 – 28 June 2018	-	C, H	-

The presence of a LANI TA in only one observed lesson indicates that students' numeracy support requirements were predominantly covered by SEP staff. Overall, Ms Daisy was predominantly supported by SEP TAs during the observed lessons. No SEP teacher was observed to visit her classroom during the observed lessons.

Interview data or observation data did not reveal any planned strategy relating to the deployment of support staff in the classroom, aligning with Blatchford et al.'s (2012) finding, in the UK, that "teachers provided little, if any, detail about the specific role they wanted TAs [teacher aides] to take in a lesson" (p. 62). Although the SEP roster was not known to Ms Daisy (as discussed in Chapter 5), she stated she provided support staff access to term planners and "as they walk in the room, or if I see them in the room, I'll give them a

quick run-down" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 392–393), to facilitate their role. These brief verbal interactions were observed during some lessons. This supports the HoSE's statement (Chapter 5) that there were no structured communication procedures in place between the SEP and classroom teachers.

Ms Daisy recognised that the three focus students were entitled to support from TAs in the classroom (see Chapter 5), but indicated that the aides "can just float around" (Interview, 28 June 2018, line 383) instead of sitting next to them. This "floating around" was commonly evident in the data; SEP staff were observed to walk around the classroom, dividing their time between different students in the SEP without communicating with Ms Daisy. An exception was one SEP teacher aide, who did not walk around but usually sat next to a student in the back row as part of individual full-time TA support requirements. Another SEP TA was sometimes observed to sit next to another student, with whom Harry often formed a group, but was not observed to provide any academic support; Ms Daisy still approached their group to explain next steps in an exercise. This may highlight a possible lack of subject knowledge among TAs, or the fact that this TA mainly provided motivational, and not academic support.

Despite their presence in the classroom, the observed lack of purposeful deployment of support staff and limited communication indicate that relational agency—identified as important in a learning community—was not developed between Ms Daisy and support staff. There was little evidence of mutual negotiation of their common role of supporting students with disability in the classroom, or of how expertise was distributed to complement each other's skills and knowledge (Edwards & Kinti, 2009; Wenger, 1998). This implies that support staff and Ms Daisy did not share a common way of doing and being related to supporting students with disability in the classroom, including shared knowledge, joint goals or concerns and common understandings of how to behave within the classroom (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

An exception to this lack of common understanding was evident in Ms Daisy's interview and observation data, indicating she appeared to have developed relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) with one SEP TA ("Tracey") in particular. She described how Tracey "even deal[s] with the kid better than I will" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 459–460). Here Ms Daisy described Tracey's skills in what Blatchford et al. (2011) termed development of "positive approaches to learning" (p. 445). Evidence suggests that the deployment of TAs can reduce students' distractibility and disruptiveness and increase independency (Blatchford et al., 2011). Ms Daisy's recognition of Tracey's skills and how these could be applied to her classroom shows that she mediated Tracey's expertise to inform her behaviour management strategies.

In this study, Harry also described his positive relationship with Tracey, stating, "to me she's like a mother … and yeah, I feel safe" (Interview, 26 June 2018, lines 82–84), aligning with research showing the term "mother" being used by students to describe their admiration for support staff (Broer et al., 2005). Observation data showed how Harry remained engaged with classroom activities after interacting with Tracey. Tracey was observed checking in with Harry during class and talking in a friendly manner, such as "How are you going, spunk kid? Look at you fly!" (Classroom observation, 21 June 2018). These data, while anecdotal, reflect the positive correlation between teacher–student relationships and students' emotional well-being (Murray & Pianta, 2007) and engagement (Quin, 2017), and indicate that these findings may extend to support staff as well.

Distribution of Interactions During Individual Work

Analysis of video data from nine lesson observations (totalling 9 hrs 40 min 3 secs) indicated that Seth and Charlie—both in terms of frequency and duration of interactions—interacted more with Ms Daisy than with support staff (Seth; 41 times/17 min 51 secs versus 12 times/5 min 18 secs, and Charlie; 23 times/8 min 48 secs versus 13 times/5 min 50 secs; Table 7.3). Harry interacted equally with Ms Daisy and support staff (13 times/3

min 42 secs versus 11 times/3 min 55 secs). Overall, Ms Daisy was the predominant provider of support. These interactions took place when students were working on lesson activities individually, and Ms Daisy and support staff walked around the classroom to provide support. Figure 7.1 shows the percentage of interactions the focus students had with Ms Daisy and with support staff, as part of their total duration of interactions with Ms Daisy and support staff.

Table 7.3

Frequency and Duration of Teacher/Support Staff Interactions With Focus Students

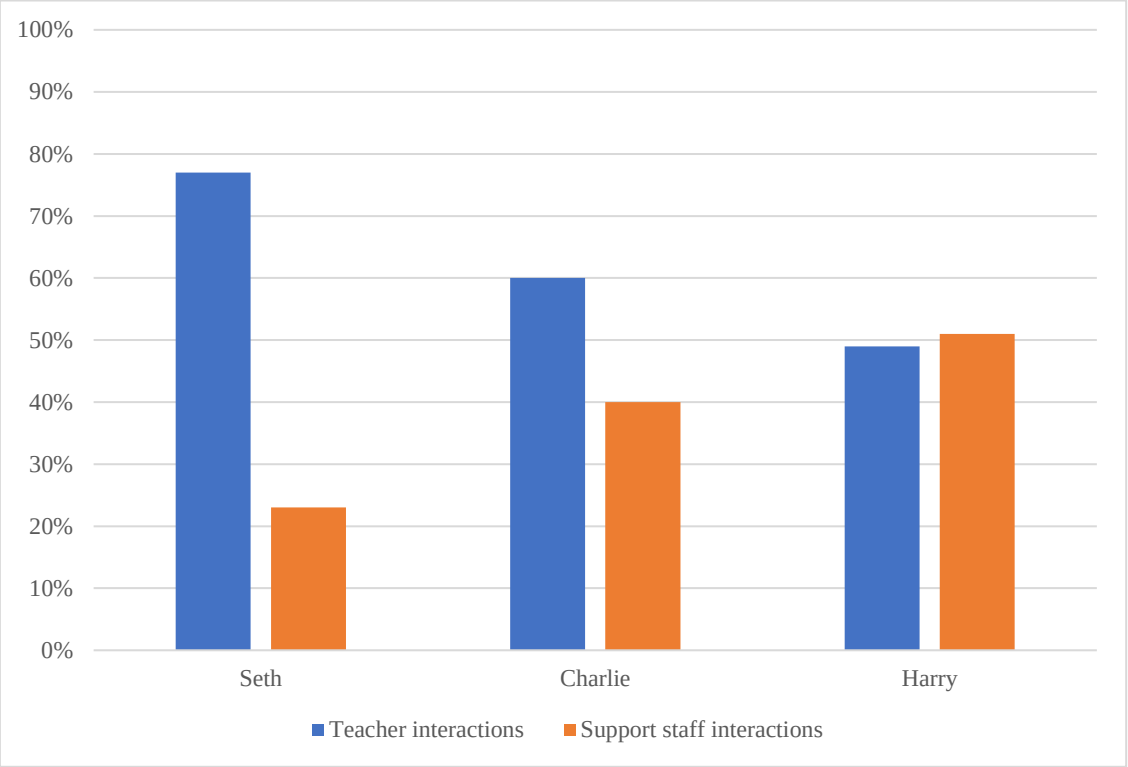
Interactions with	Seth		Charlie		Harry[a]		
	Frequency	Time	Frequency	Time	Frequency	Time	Total
Teacher	41	17:51	23	8:48	13	3:42	30:21
Support staff	12	5:18	13	5:50	11	3:55	15:03
Total	53	23:09	36	14:38	24	7:37	

Note. Data gathered across nine lessons.

[a] Harry was absent for one lesson and spent part of another lesson completing a science exam.

Figure 7.1

Relative Distribution Duration Teacher/Support Staff Interactions With Focus Students



Note. Data gathered across nine lessons.

Figure 7.1 shows that Ms Daisy interacted much more with Seth (77%) than did support staff (23%), whereas the difference was smaller for Charlie (60% versus 40%), or negligible, for Harry (49% versus 51%). This may reflect Seth's self-reported aversion to receiving help from support staff, as identified in Chapter 6.

Seth's general observation that support staff "don't know it" (Interview, 27 June 2018, line 185) echoes Howard and Ford's (2007) anecdotal evidence of TAs reporting that students do not trust them if they believe TAs do not know the lesson content. While support staff were present in the classroom, Seth's comments show that he perceived he could not mediate their support (Daniels, 2016) for his learning. Indeed, Seth was observed multiple times to raise his hand and tell an approaching TA that he was waiting for Ms Daisy.

Analysis of the total time Ms Daisy spent supporting all students, the number of students in class and the time spent supporting focus students (Table 7.4) indicates that the focus students—representing 11% of the class population—received 17% of Ms Daisy's support (30 min 21 secs), even with Harry absent for one lesson. These observations contradict findings that TA support replaced support from the teacher (Blatchford et al., 2012; Harris, 2011).

Table 7.4

Duration of Teacher Interactions Focus Students and Other Students

Teacher interactions	**Focus students (n=3, 11%)**	**Other students (n=24, 89%)**
Duration (h:mm:ss)	0:30:21	2:26:12
Percentage	17%	83%

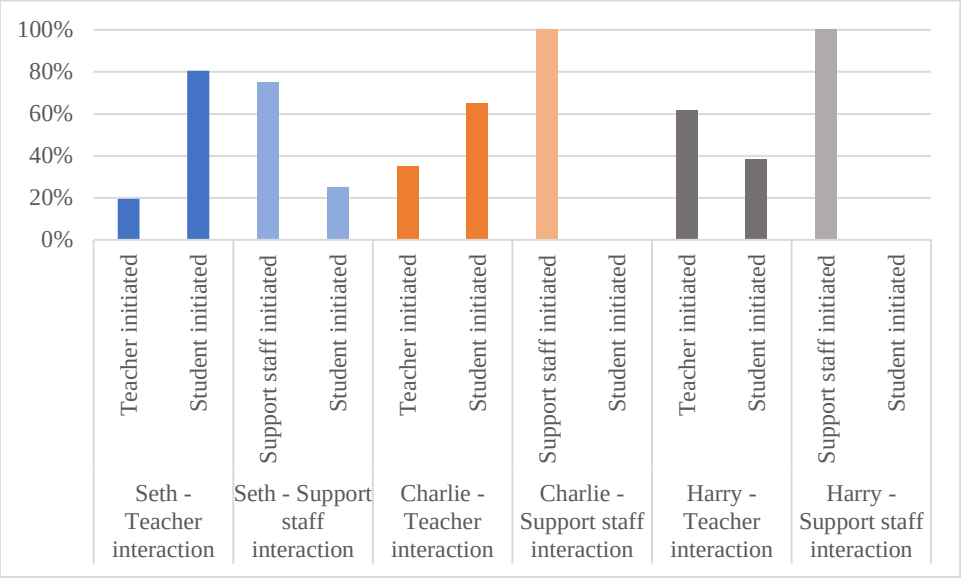
Note. Data gathered across nine lessons.

Initiation of Support

To determine how interactions between the focus students and Ms Daisy, and between focus students and support staff (i.e., SEP TAs) came to be, initiation of support was considered (Figure 7.2). As reported in Chapter 6, in interviews all three focus students indicated that they would ask the teacher or support staff for help, except for Seth, who indicated his preference to receive help from the classroom teacher alone. As in Chapter 6, interactions were coded as being initiated by students if they had raised their hand or called for help immediately preceding the interaction with, for example, support staff. This does not imply that help was sought from the person who responded to the call for help.

Figure 7.2

Relative Distribution of Initiation of Interactions



Note. Data gathered across nine lessons.

While Ms Daisy had self-reported to initiate repeating instructions to Seth and Charlie (mCLAAS Category 4, interview data), they initiated substantially more interactions (80% and 65%, respectively) with her than she did with them (20% and 35%, respectively). Similar to the findings presented in the preceding discussion of English (Chapter 6), Seth only occasionally initiated interactions with support staff (25%). In such cases, he usually stated he wanted Ms Daisy instead, or was observed to raise his hand again after they had left. Observations showed that Tracey usually persisted with helping Seth, while other TAs complied with Seth's wishes and walked away.

Charlie was never observed to initiate interaction with support staff. This observation is consistent with his help-seeking behaviour during English lessons (Chapter 6). Although Charlie agreed with Seth about lack of knowledge of support staff, he disagreed with Seth's unwillingness to engage with them: "If my teacher aides know what they're doing I'll actually try to see what (pause) how they're helping me" (Interview, 27 June 2018, lines 229–230). Despite this difference between Charlie and Seth, Table 7.3 showed Charlie's

interactions with support staff were of a similar duration (5 mins 50 secs) to Seth's (5 mins 15 secs). This is largely attributed to Tracey's persistence to support Seth.

Harry was observed to initiate 38% of his interactions with Ms Daisy, often asking her a question when she was finished helping Seth or Charlie (seated on either side of Harry). This differs from his lack of help-seeking behaviour during English lessons, as reported in Chapter 6. Although Harry did not initiate any interactions with support staff, he expressed some frustration that SEP staff did not always understand the content or were too busy with other students. He described how he would ask, "Do you know how to solve this question?' and then they're like 'no' and now I was like 'I don't know where the teacher is'" (Interview, 26 June 2018, lines 116–117). Thus, there were instances when Harry could not mediate the support of support staff (Daniels, 2016), despite his willingness to engage with them.

Overall, the focus students' comments bring into question the value of support staff who are not expert in the subject content or in students' specific requirements. The focus students' comments show that support staff were not always able to adequately help students, which discouraged students to ask questions in future. This finding is consistent with Howard and Ford's (2007) reported lack of trust of students in TAs, and relates to Blatchford et al.'s (2012) finding that TAs provided incorrect answers to students. Further, the data showed that support staff did not always recognise when students, specifically Harry, required their support. For example, TAs were observed to ask Harry general questions, such as "Everything okay here?" and "How are you going?". Harry usually replied he was doing well or nodded his head. As students with ASD can have difficulty interpreting non-literal questions (Tay & Kee, 2019), Harry may not have interpreted those questions as meaning, for example, "Do you need help solving question 2?". This highlights the importance of disability-specific knowledge of support staff, so students with ASD, like Harry, can mediate their support.

Element 4: Formative Teacher–Student Interaction

As noted in Chapter 3, formative teacher–student interaction was identified as an element relating to how participating teachers in the case study enabled students' engagement with classroom assessment. Chapter 6 discussed how formative teacher–student interaction can contribute to mutual negotiation of the meaning of actions in the classroom (Wenger, 1998) and serve as an artefact that teacher and students mediate to elicit evidence of student learning and identify next steps in teaching. Teachers and students further interact to develop a shared understanding of assessment expectations so students can demonstrate their learning. Further, teachers interact to scaffold students' learning, provide feedback on learning in the moment, question, and communicate the next steps for student learning[26] (ARG, 2002; Black, 2013; QCAA, 2018b; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Video data of nine lessons (two lessons took place before the mathematics test, seven lessons after the test) were analysed and coded to identify how Ms Daisy interacted with students in the classroom, as described in Chapter 3. Data on interactions between support staff and focus students, as well as focus students' comments to the teacher and support staff were used illustratively, as the limited recordings of these interactions did not enable in-depth analysis, as noted in Chapter 3.

To facilitate coding of formative teacher–student interactions, overall teacher activity was coded first, as noted in Chapter 3. Five areas of teacher activity were identified: Administration (e.g., roll call, writing activities on the board), Instructing, Questioning (i.e., whole-class questioning), Walking around/Supporting, and Engaging with content (e.g., whole-class reading, showing a video). Analysis revealed that Ms Daisy spent the majority (46%) of her overall time in class Walking around/Supporting students (Table 7.5) while they worked individually or in small groups. Ms Daisy interacted with students during this time to

[26] As noted in Chapter 6, diagnostic assessments to gather evidence of student learning and inform differentiation (Qld DoE, 2018a) were not referred to by either the HoSE or the teachers in interview.

enable them to engage with and succeed at lesson activities, reflecting principles of AfL (ARG, 2002). She was often observed walking around the entire class responding to raised hands (requests for support) or attending to students who had disengaged from the task. Similarly, students spent the majority of their time (55%) working individually (3 hr 19 min 51 secs) or as part of a group (1 hr 59 min 18 secs; Table 7.6). The activity "Walking around/Supporting" was isolated to enable coding of formative teacher–student interactions during students' individual and group work.

Table 7.5

Cumulative Duration of Ms Daisy's Educational Activities

Activity	Time (h:mm:ss)	Percentage
Administration	2:29:12	26%
Instructions	1:10:41	12%
Questioning (whole class)	0:07:26	1%
Walking around/Supporting	4:28:25	46%
Engaging with content	1:24:19	15%

Note. Based on observations across nine lessons (9 hours 40 minutes 3 seconds).

Table 7.6

Duration of Type of Student Work

Type of work	Time (h:mm:ss)	Percentage
Individual Work	3:19:51	34%
Group work	1:59:18	21%
Other (e.g., teacher explanations, engaging with content)	4:20:54	45%

Note. Based on observations across nine lessons (9 hours 40 minutes 3 seconds).

Video data of interactions between Ms Daisy and the three focus students during individual and group work were coded using the framework described in Chapter 3 (repeated in Table 7.7) to explore the nature of these interactions. Eight areas of activity were

identified: (1) Observing, (2) Instructing, (3) Questioning, (4) Providing next steps, (5) Evaluating, (6) Directing, (7) Talking, and (8) Providing the answer. Coding took place in a similar manner for observations of English and mathematics lessons, but activity '(8) Providing the answer' was only identified during observations of mathematics lessons (and not in English lessons). As noted in Chapter 6, these areas were coded while considering the function of Ms Daisy's interactions; a question, for example, would be coded as Directing if it served to prompt students to start or continue their work.

Each interaction sequence between Ms Daisy and the focus students could represent multiple codes. For example, Ms Daisy could explain a task ("Instructing"), ask a question ('Questioning') and evaluate the response to that question ('Evaluating'). The eight codes were assigned 525 times to a combined 104 interactions (27 interactions with individual focus students and 77 interactions with groups to which the focus students belonged). Reflecting earlier analyses showing differences in the frequency of interactions between Ms Daisy and the focus students (Tables 7.3 and 7.5), 53 interactions were coded between Seth and Ms Daisy (during individual and group work), 37 interactions were coded between Charlie and Ms Daisy, and 25 interactions were coded between Harry and Ms Daisy.

Table 7.7

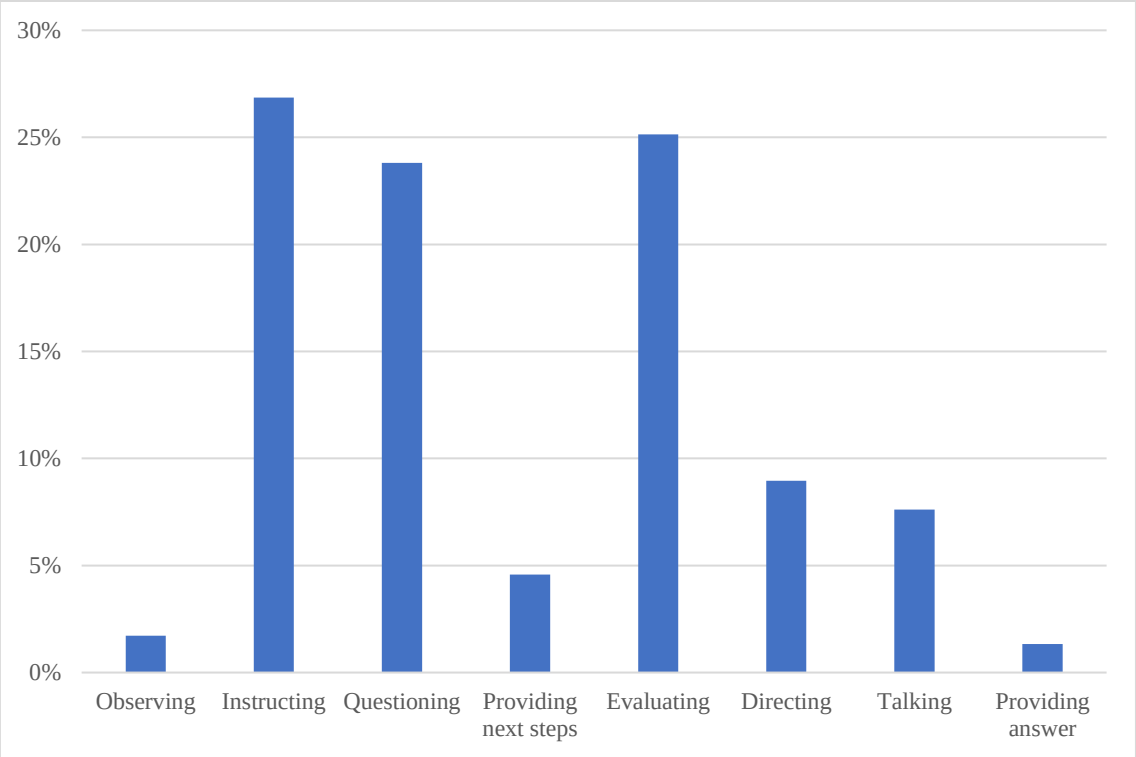
Final Coding Scheme Mathematics Observations

Final code	Code description	Previous code	Description of codes merged into final code
1	Observing student (at) work	C	Teacher observes student at work (process)
		D	Teacher examines work done (product)/silently or out loud
2	Giving task-related instructions	A	Teacher communicates or negotiates task criteria (what has to be done in order to complete the task) or negotiates them with student.
		I	Teacher gives instructions
		Q	Teacher reads/rereads/rewords instructions
		AA	Teacher connects back to previous learning/experience
		FF	Teacher provides info to continue task (e.g., writing on board)
3	Questioning	E	Teacher asks principled question (seeks to elicit evidence of what student knows, understands, or can do: substance).
		F	Teacher asks for clarification about process: what has been done, is being done or will be done.
		R	Teacher checks if student understands their explanation/ instruction
		Y	Teacher asks a rhetoric question
		CC	Teacher asks for clarification (after mishearing/ mispronunciation)
		DD	Teacher questions to elicit deeper thinking
4	Providing information on next steps for the task or for future work	K	Teacher suggests or negotiates with student what to do next
		L	Teacher suggests or negotiates with student what to do next time and discusses ways of organising similar contexts for knowledge in future
		T	Teacher assigns next activity
5	Evaluating behaviour/work/effort	M	Teacher comments on quality/accuracy/effort of student action/work
		O	Teacher gives brief affective statement (good/nice)/praise
		EE	Teacher summarises and checks student's answer
6	Directing student towards action	U	Teacher prompts student to start/continue/finish work or get them to focus/refocus
		P	Teacher directs students to do something
7	Talking personally with student (emotional, social, checking in)	S	Teacher asks student how they're going (opening statement, checking in)
		V	Teacher engages in emotional talk (e.g., "Are you okay?")
		W	Teacher engages in social talk (not task-related)
		GG	Teacher explains why student has to do something
8	Providing the answer	BB	Teacher provides answer/solution

The results show that Ms Daisy's interactions with the focus students were concentrated on Instructing, Evaluating and Questioning (Figure 7.3), which will be discussed separately. The distribution of these codes as percentages of Ms Daisy's total interactions with the focus students represents a characteristic interaction during which Ms Daisy asked students brief questions as part of solving an exercise, evaluated their answer and gave them instructions to continue with the exercise. This reflects an Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequence, where the teacher asks a student a question, the student responds and the teacher provides feedback after evaluating that response (Hargreaves, 2012; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). The distribution of Ms Daisy's interaction types when combined for all three focus students resembled the distribution when analysed as a percentage of each student's total number of coded interactions (Figure 7.4).

Figure 7.3

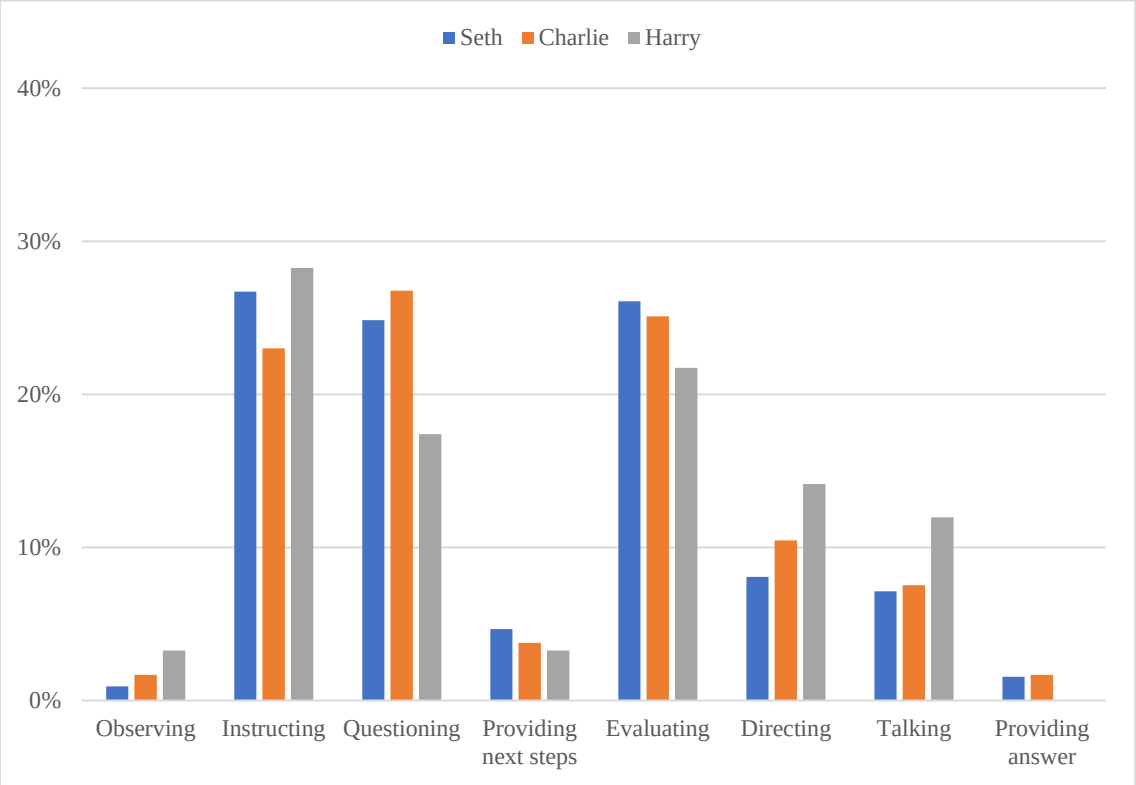
Relative Distribution of Types of Ms Daisy's Interactions With all Focus Students



Note. Based on observations across nine lessons during individual and group work.

Figure 7.4

Relative Distribution of Types of Ms Daisy's Interactions With Seth, Charlie and Harry



Note. Based on observations across nine lessons during individual and group work.

Instructing

Ms Daisy most commonly used Instructing, representing 27% of her 525 assigned codes. This involved communicating criteria to complete the task, giving instructions, reading or rewording task instructions, or connecting back to previous learning experiences. The prevalence of Instructing codes illustrates Ms Daisy's scaffolding practices, where she used instructive statements responsively, or adapted to support different students, guiding them through mathematical exercises. This coded interaction type aligns with features of quality assessment, including scaffolding to instruct students on part of the task that they cannot yet do independently (van de Pol et al., 2010). While instances of contingency (responsiveness), fading and transfer of responsibility—key aspects of scaffolding (van de Pol

et al., 2010)—were observed, the data showed how Ms Daisy tried to balance engaging with quality assessment practice with the need to be responsive to the focus students.

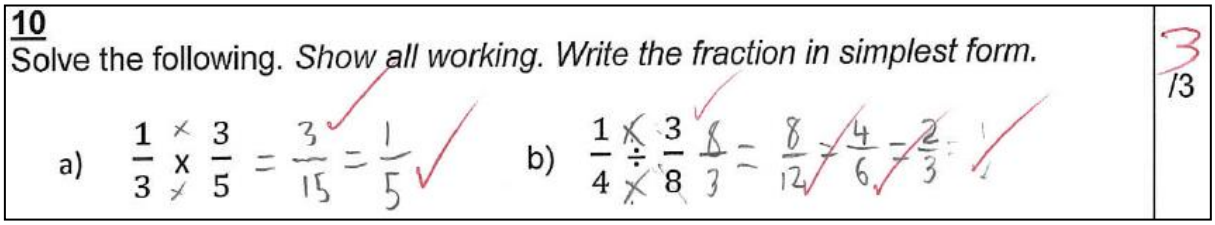
For example, contingency, but not fading and transfer of responsibility, were evident in Ms Daisy's restating of a recently taught method for dividing fractions ("keep-flip-change") to help Seth complete a division:

> Okay, this is the keep-flip-change. (Seth repeats the words and writes them in his notebook.) Yeah, and then we change the symbol.
>
> So remember, we turn this into times instead of a divide. (Seth writes in his notebook.)
>
> (Classroom observation, 22 June 2018)

Here, Ms Daisy instructed Seth what method to use ("this is the keep-flip-change") and repeated the procedures associated with division of fractions immediately thereafter ("we turn this into times"). This interaction shows Ms Daisy's responsiveness, as she perceived Seth required "telling … what to do" (van de Pol et al., 2010, p. 277) as opposed to "providing hints" or "questioning" him. Ms Daisy's instructions further related to cognitive structuring, as she provided explanations to structure Seth's approach of dividing fractions and used the word "remember" to encourage Seth to link back to previous, similar instructions. Ms Daisy took over part of the task that she perceived Seth could not yet perform independently (i.e., choosing the correct method), although this lesson observation was conducted after Seth had successfully chosen and applied the "keep-flip-change" method during the mathematics test (Figure 7.5). As Seth had already demonstrated these skills, fading and transfer of responsibility would have been suitable scaffolding practices in this instance.

Figure 7.5

Excerpt of Seth's Marked Mathematics Task



Note. Section shows correct application of "keep-flip-change" method in Question 10b.

When Ms Daisy confirmed and prompted Seth to start a task, she was enacting a recommended strategy as confirmed by the HoSE (see Chapter 4). To develop Seth's autonomy in learning (Marshall & Drummond, 2006), the next step for Ms Daisy would be to apply scaffolding with an increased transfer of responsibility from Ms Daisy to Seth (van de Pol et al., 2010).

Similarly, students with ASD, like Harry, may experience difficulty with executive functioning impacting on their capacity to identify next steps (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007). For example, the following interaction with Harry identified how some transfer of responsibility occurred but was not maintained throughout the interaction:

> Okay so, so we need to turn this into the same denominator as that one.
>
> So eight times what would give us 40? (Harry: five)
>
> Good!
>
> So we are going to times this one and this one by five. (Classroom observation, 22 June 2018)

The question ("so eight times what would give us 40?") indicates some transfer of responsibility. However, the last comment shows the responsibility being transferred back to Ms Daisy, when she told Harry the next step ("we are going to times this one and this one by five"). Quality AfL practice promotes active student engagement (Heitink et al., 2016;

Marshall & Drummond, 2006) which means that teachers have to know how to balance support for students with ASD while moving towards promoting student autonomy.

The data further evidenced how Ms Daisy used Instructing interactions to negotiate Seth and Charlie's language processing difficulties while providing scaffolding. She regularly engaged in reading and rewording instructions, for example when she rephrased a question for Seth: "'Can I justify my solution?' So, does your answer make sense?" (Classroom observation, 20 June 2018). Here, she enacted the self-reported adjustment (mCLAAS Category 4) of reading, rereading and restating instructions by restating the question using simpler vocabulary ("make sense" instead of "justify"). This strategy reduced the impact of semantic issues (i.e., reduced the linguistic barriers) associated with DLD (Bishop et al., 2017) so Seth could engage with the task. While Ms Daisy tailored scaffolding to Seth's language difficulties (van de Pol et al., 2010), providing accessible instructions, for example by supplying a glossary, can reduce the need for Ms Daisy to provide individual instructions to students.

Similarly, Ms Daisy was observed to read task instructions to Charlie and provide him with a sub-task:

> So, (reads instructions) in a box of 80 chocolates, three fifths of the chocolates had wrappers, and the rest did not. Of the chocolates with wrappers, 25% is strawberry flavoured. So how many were strawberry flavoured?
>
> So, the very first thing that we are going to need to do is find three-fifths of 80.
>
> (Classroom observation, 13 June 2018)

Ms Daisy used individual instructions to negotiate the interaction between Charlie and the task instructions. As students with DLD, like Charlie, may have limited short term memory (Bishop et al., 2017), breaking down the task mitigated the need to rely on memory.

These examples have brought to light the demand placed on teachers to provide support to individual students, and the need for teachers to balance responsive

provision of support with enactment of quality assessment practice that promotes student autonomy. In inclusive classrooms, historical practices of individual support provisions—as observed above—can be mitigated by applying principles of UDL that ask teachers to consider how lesson activities can be accessible to all students while managing the amount of time teachers can dedicate to each student and while maintaining the integrity of the Year-level curriculum.

Evaluating

Ms Daisy used Evaluating in 25% of the 525 assigned codes. This involved giving a brief evaluative statement or praise or commenting on quality, accuracy or effort of students' work or actions. Analyses showed that Ms Daisy's evaluative statements were mostly brief and related to the task, which reflected recommended practice in the CITW framework (Strategy 2; Dean et al., 2012) and feedback research suggesting student learning is encouraged when teachers provide clear and constructive feedback on areas where students need to improve and how they should do so (ARG, 2002; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996).

The prevalence of evaluative statements by Ms Daisy reflects the nature of most of her interactions; she instructed or questioned students to break tasks down and briefly evaluated their response. For example, she would comment "good!" after reading the focus students' work or in response to them answering her question. More detailed evaluative statements included reference to why she evaluated something positively. Both examples can be seen in the following interaction with Harry:

> So it is good that you have done this, because turning this into something over 100 is going to be easier than turning that.
>
> So, how would you turn 10 into 100? (Harry: times 10)
>
> Good! So, we do 10 times 10 that will equal 100. Good!

So then if we turn to this … so, we have got 10 times 10 that we know equals…? (Harry: 100)

100, good.

So then we do the same thing to the top, so then 6 times 10, which will equal? (Harry: 60)

Good! (Classroom observation, 11 June 2018)

In Ms Daisy's first comment, she explains why Harry's demonstrated strategy was good ("because turning this into something over 100 is going to be easier"). She then proceeded to break the task into sub-tasks ("how would you turn 10 into 100?") and praised Harry each time ("good!") for his correct answer.

However, not all observed feedback may be able to be guide students' future work. For example, Ms Daisy offered a general "Good job, Harry" without specifying what Harry had done that was a "good job" and how he could replicate this achievement or build on it during the next steps in learning. While this feedback provided social-emotional encouragement, an identified requirement related to Harry's disability (see Chapter 4), connecting feedback to student performance on the task is an encouraged practice in the CITW framework. Research has identified that feedback should relate to "critical dimensions" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 89) of learning goals to inform students' progress towards success criteria. The observed Evaluating practice indicates the need to balance social-emotional support and required cognitive scaffolding for students with disability with the need to provide quality feedback to progress learning.

Questioning

Questioning was recorded as an interaction type for 24% of the 525 assigned codes. This code represented various functions, such as seeking evidence of students' knowledge, understanding or skill, asking to gauge student understanding of instructions, asking rhetoric questions, or asking for clarification after mishearing. As noted in Chapter 6,

questioning has been identified as a key component of formative assessment practice (Black & Wiliam, 2009) and can contribute to student learning if it elicits information of students' reasoning (Mercer & Howe, 2012; Torrance & Pryor, 2001). Questioning as observed during this study predominantly served for Ms Daisy to seek evidence of what students knew, understood or could do, involving mostly questions to scaffold students through an exercise.

For example, the following interaction between Ms Daisy and Charlie shows how questioning facilitated the step-by-step approach Ms Daisy took to help Charlie solve an exercise involving fractions:

> So, this one, now you have got 60 cents and you've got five dollars, so we need to turn this five dollars into cents.
>
> So, how many cents are in a dollar? (Charlie: 100)
>
> So how many cents would be in five dollars? (Charlie does not respond verbally but writes in his notebook)
>
> Hang on, hang on, you just said there are 100 cents in one dollar, so we have got five dollars, how many cents? (Charlie: Ah, 100 times five)
>
> So, we are just going to do 100 times five. (Classroom observation, 11 June 2018)

Here, Ms Daisy used Questioning to break the task down into sub-tasks ("how many cents are in a dollar?"). These brief, closed-ended questions focused on a small part of a task and were the most commonly observed form of questioning by Ms Daisy in interaction with all three focus students (107 out of 125 assigned Questioning codes). This strategy responded to, in this instance, Charlie's requirement for confirmation by confirming his progress during every step of the task. This aligns with a relatively high degree of teacher-direction and limited fading and transfer of responsibility (van de Pol et al., 2010), as the questions take students through the tasks step by step, the predominant focus being on recall of number. It differs from the focus of the school's pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012) on questions that are inferential and analytic (CITW strategy 4), so that questions to which students already

know the answer are avoided. These types of interactions are illustrative of the requirement for Ms Daisy to balance the perceived need to take a step-by-step approach due to the focus on a new unit of work (seven out of nine lessons related to new content), and the need to engage in quality, divergent assessment practice to elicit evidence of students' reasoning (Torrance & Pryor, 2001).

Instead, Questioning strategies were observed to match convergent assessment (Torrance & Pryor, 2001), where closed questions are asked focusing on task completion. The observed questions were relatively simple (e.g., "If you times four by 10, what would that equal?", and "What is two times one, and what is two times three?"), representing the steps students had to take to complete an exercise. The reported and observed requirement to prompt and scaffold the focus students to commence and sustain engagement during tasks indicates that higher-order level questioning may not yet have been appropriate for the focus students. There is a delicate balance between supporting students with disability while promoting independent learning and student autonomy, as prescribed through AfL practice (Heitink et al., 2016; Marshall & Drummond, 2006).

Other Types of Teacher Interaction

Ms Daisy engaged less often with the focus students in Observing (2%), Providing Next Steps (5%), Directing (9%), Talking (8%) and Providing Answer (1%). Since Ms Daisy's support was usually a result of a raised hand, Observing was only marginally evident in the data as she moved to Instructing immediately. It is notable that Ms Daisy did not engage in Providing Next Steps (i.e., suggesting what to do next, what to do in future, similar situations, or assigning the next activity) as much as she engaged with Instructing. As students were often observed to receive scaffolding (Instructing and Questioning) until an exercise was completed, Ms Daisy did not create many opportunities to Provide Next Steps. As stated above, this reflects Ms Daisy's perceived need to maintain control over scaffolding;

in the observed lessons, little transfer of responsibility from Ms Daisy to the focus students took place, providing little room for student-centred AfL practices to be implemented.

Ms Daisy further marginally engaged in Directing, which concerns prompting students to start work, or directing students to do something. The latter involved directives such as "simplify that" or "move the decimal after that [number]" and differed from Instructing as it left students less room to explore the right way to get to an answer. Although survey and interview data showed that Seth and Charlie required frequent prompting (which would fall under Directing) to start their work, the directive nature of Ms Daisy's Instructing practice removed the need for explicit prompts.

Ms Daisy's Talking interactions (i.e. social-emotional talk), while observed during only 8% of her interactions with the focus students, addressed the focus students' requirement for social-emotional support and promoted student engagement. For example, as described under Element 2, Ms Daisy talked to Harry when he became overwhelmed during a group activity and provided him with the option to go for a walk, after which he re-engaged with group work. Similarly, Charlie was observed to be disengaged from a task and Ms Daisy initiated an interaction by asking "How are we going, Charlie?" (Talking), followed by:

> Do you want me to do a couple with you here and then you do it yourself?
>
> Answer number 4, so do 4A. So, you can do the butterfly method if you like, you can do it on the sheet, or you can do it in a book.
>
> Are you feeling okay? Yeah, was the last activity a little too loud? You look a bit aggravated; do you think that's why? (Classroom observation, 21 June 2018)

Ms Daisy's Questioning ("Do you want me to do a couple with you?") and Instructing ("Answer number 4") helped Charlie to refocus on the task. However, her social-emotional talk ensured that she addressed Charlie's reason for being disengaged ("Was the last activity a little too loud?") and Charlie was observed to continue to work independently after Ms Daisy had left. Ms Daisy's talk had addressed his emotional requirements and given him the prompt

to continue with his work. These two examples evidence the role social-emotional interaction plays in promoting wellbeing and engagement of students with disability.

While only marginally observed, Ms Daisy Provided the Answer to focus students eight times during the observed lessons. Five times this took place during a game of Quizlet, where she engaged in the competitive nature of the game and helped different groups of students at a time.

Alignment of Formative Teacher–Student Interactions With the Purpose of AfL

As noted in Chapter 6, AfL should enable teachers to elicit evidence of student learning and evaluate this evidence to determine where students are in their learning and to inform next steps in teaching and learning, while promoting student autonomy (ARG, 2002; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). Ms Daisy would therefore have to engage in Observing or Questioning to elicit evidence of student learning, engage in Evaluating to evaluate this evidence, and engage in Instructing or Providing Next Steps to progress student learning. The codes of Directing and Talking related to prompting students to focus on an activity or to support a positive teacher–student relationship, respectively. To examine whether Ms Daisy's interactions aligned with the purpose of AfL, Table 7.8 shows the distribution of codes across the aspects of AfL.

Table 7.8

Distribution of Teacher Interactions With Focus Students Related to the Three-Fold Purpose of AfL

Purpose of AfL	Code	Seth		Charlie		Harry	
Eliciting evidence of learning	Observing	1%	26%	2%	29%	3%	20%
	Questioning	25%		27%		17%	
Evaluating evidence of learning	Evaluating	26%	26%	25%	25%	22%	22%
Communicating next steps in learning	Instructing	27%	32%	23%	27%	28%	31%
	Providing next steps	5%		4%		3%	

Note. Data gathered across nine lessons.

Table 7.8 shows that Ms Daisy appeared to focus her formative interactions with Seth and Charlie on the three elements of AfL, with similar percentages recorded for each element (26%, 26% and 32% for Seth, and 29%, 25% and 27% for Charlie). For Harry, a slight emphasis on communicating next steps in learning is visible (31%) compared with eliciting evidence of learning (20%) and evaluating evidence of learning (22%). However, as above analysis of codes revealed, Ms Daisy's use of Questioning, Evaluating and Instructing served to guide students towards task completion, instead of promote student autonomy, with questions resembling convergent assessment practice (Torrance & Pryor, 2001) and Ms Daisy transferring little responsibility to the focus students (van de Pol et al., 2010). The distribution shown in Table 7.8 is therefore consistent with the letter of AfL, indicating formative interactions without promoting student autonomy as prescribed through the spirit of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006).

Summary: Pedagogy and Instruction

This section has provided an analysis that addresses research sub-question 2, *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?* First, while interview data and observation data revealed an absence of barriers in representation and communication of LO and SC, limited

opportunities were provided to students in the classroom that allowed for self-assessment of progress. Active student involvement in using criteria for self-assessment is required to promote AfL's goal of student autonomy (ARG, 2002; Heitink et al., 2016; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). However, as students were not observed to be explicitly taught how to monitor their progress against criteria, student autonomy could not be promoted (Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019).

Second, differentiated teaching strategies, as identified through survey, interview and observation data, were predominantly responsive to the requirement for the focus students to negotiate learning environments that were not structured to suit their requirements. While some proactive teaching strategies were identified, the data did not show that consistent implementation of proactive UDL principles (CAST, 2019) was part of the classroom's shared repertoire. The use of multiple modes of representation and engagement (such as the use of manipulatives or technology) were perceived by the teacher to be modifying content (to a lower academic standard) and adding to teacher workload, rather than making lesson content more accessible to all students. This is in contrast with literature on differentiation (Tomlinson, 2017) and UDL (Meyer et al., 2014), which promotes accessible teaching practices without modifying content.

Third, quantitative analyses of formative teacher–student interaction revealed lack of planned strategy relating to the deployment of support staff in the classroom. While Ms Daisy was observed to be the predominant provider of support for the focus students in the nine observed lessons, the presence of one or two SEP TAs in most lessons complemented this support. However, the observed lack of communication between Ms Daisy and SEP staff indicates that a shared understanding of common ways of doing and being, including shared knowledge and joint concerns (Lave & Wenger, 1991) was not developed. This resulted in a lack of relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) between Ms Daisy and SEP TAs. These

findings agree with those of Blatchford et al. (2012) that little communication takes place between teachers and TAs regarding their role in class.

Fourth, analysis of formative teacher–student interactions highlighted how Ms Daisy's interactions with the focus students focused on prompting or sustaining student engagement, and on posing closed-ended questions to scaffold students toward task completion. This finding is consistent with enactment of the letter of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006), as interactions did not serve to transfer responsibility to the student (van de Pol et al., 2010) or promote student autonomy (Heitink et al., 2016). It further points to the delicate balance between the need for teaching to be responsive to students with disability and to engage with quality assessment practice to promote student autonomy, reflecting the spirit of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006).

Enabling Access to Summative Assessment

This section focuses on how elements related to summative assessment supported the focus students to demonstrate their learning. It is based on interview data with the focus students and Ms Daisy, data from teacher, parent and student surveys, as well as analysis of video-recorded classroom observations and artefacts related to assessment, such as the assessment task sheet. Following the analytical approach described in Chapter 3, three elements were identified that related to assessment: (1) assessment design processes; (2) assessment task design; and (3) interaction of the students with the summative assessment task. They address research sub-question 3, *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?*

Element 5: Assessment Design Processes

Research literature has identified the need for collaboration between a range of parties to develop accessible assessment and establish inclusive practices (ARG, 2002; QCAA, 2018b; Thurlow et al., 2016; UNGC4, 2016; Watkins, 2007; Wyatt-Smith, 2008), and

identified relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) as a skill to enable participation between professionals across community boundaries. Ms Daisy self-identified as being "moderately" skilled and confident in designing accessible assessment tasks or adjusting existing assessment tasks and regarded these aspects "very important" parts of her role (TAII). She further self-reported to have "strong" skills in collaboration during assessment design. However, the data showed that opportunities for collaboration in assessment design were limited and that Ms Daisy had to make compromises on accessibility while negotiating school structures (Xu & Brown, 2016).

The data showed that the focus students completed a summative test covering two units of work. As noted in Chapter 4, Ms Daisy expressed her dissatisfaction with this unit outline and stated that she had voluntarily rewritten the sequencing of taught content to improve this for the next year. The test consisted of questions at different achievement levels. "Simple familiar" (C-level) questions are those tasks that students do in class regularly, for example during warm-up exercises at the start of class, whereas "complex familiar" (B-level) questions require students to take "a few extra steps" (Ms Daisy, interview, 28 June 2018). "Complex unfamiliar" (A-level) questions were difficult tasks that students should be able to solve with the conceptual knowledge they had acquired throughout the unit of work. All questions were weighted according to their complexity level and assigned to either A-, B-, or C-level in the marking rubric.

Interview data showed that school practices impacted on assessment task design, resulting in a mathematics task for summative purposes that posed accessibility barriers to the focus students. Literature on accessible assessment underscores the need for readability (i.e., containing sentence structures that enable comprehension) and comprehensible test questions (Thompson et al., 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Therefore, assessment design needs to consider the student population that will engage with the task, or applying principles of UDL to ensure maximum accessibility. Such considerations or use of

UDL principles during assessment design were not evident in the data. Interview data showed that Ms Daisy, responsible for designing the assessment task, had identified linguistic barriers due to the presence of cognitive verbs in the task. Ms Daisy was required to design the task by combining set questions from previous assessment tasks. As noted in Chapter 5, collaboration between Ms Daisy and SEP staff did not occur while designing assessment tasks. She described how the HOD—who endorsed the assessment task—checked the task's alignment with the achievement standards and the curriculum. This was understood by the HOD and Ms Daisy to include that the cognitive verbs used in the assessment task matched the cognitive verbs in the Year 7 mathematics curriculum's achievement standard. As noted in Chapter 6, cognitive verbs indicate what mental operations students engage in to demonstrate skills and knowledge (QCAA, 2019a). The use of these verbs in assessment is a valued practice in senior secondary education in Queensland and common in junior secondary education at Summerfield as well. However, using these verbs in junior school-based assessment tasks is not mandated within state assessment policy (QCAA, personal communication, November 26, 2011) and, instead, reflected a school practice.

The meaning of cognitive verbs was not commonly understood by students, as interview data showed that students, including the focus students, required additional translation of such terms—both during teaching and during the test—before they were able to understand and mediate them to demonstrate their learning. Ms Daisy highlighted this linguistic complexity, stating, "I would've written it more simplistically, so that the kids read the question and know exactly what they've got to do" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 104–105). Here Ms Daisy indicated her willingness to redesign, or adjust, the assessment task by restating some cognitive verbs. However, she had to make compromises while negotiating school practices, reflecting Xu and Brown's (2016) teacher assessment literacy in practice. Ms Daisy highlighted procedures at the school: "It's a little bit annoying having to use [cognitive verbs], but it's what's expected of us, so it's a bit frustrating" (Interview, 28 June

2018, lines 114–116). Her use of the words “annoying” and “frustrating” indicates Ms Daisy’s dissatisfaction with the procedures (“it’s what’s expected of us”) in place at the school. Inclusive assessment systems (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007) call for accessible assessment design, however these procedures were not engrained across the school level which presented a barrier for Ms Daisy to work outside of these boundaries.

To address the perceived barriers in the task, Ms Daisy explicitly instructed students on the meaning of cognitive verbs:

> There's things like “model” which was in the achievement [standard], … so this word that I had to use, so I try to … use that a bit in class, but … through the test [students] were all asking me “what does this mean”? (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 105–107)

By “using that a bit in class”, Ms Daisy instructed students in the mathematical literacy (Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2000) associated with “learning the language of assessment” (p. 23) and the discipline. This contributed to students having “opportunity to learn” (Gee, 2003, p. 27) concepts as part of the semiotic domain related to the skills on which they were assessed. However, Ms Daisy’s comments on students’ questions during the test (“What does this mean?”) indicated that the identified linguistic barriers were still in place, and the onus was on the students to remove them.

Additional measures to mitigate these barriers were not evident in the data. Interview data showed lack of collaboration with SEP staff, despite Ms Daisy’s comments highlighting accessibility factors potentially impacting on students’ engagement with the task. The lack of SEP consultancy in assessment processes could be explained by Ms Daisy’s belief that the SEP team could only help in creating tasks with modified achievement standards, as described in Chapter 5. Another explanation is that relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) was not developed between Ms Daisy and support staff; since there was a lack of communication between Ms Daisy and TAs, and a lack of recognition of the expertise of each other related to accessible assessment, a context was not established that was conducive to

processes of negotiation or to the development of mutual trust. Interview data with Ms Daisy revealed that assessment adjustments were not provided to the focus students beyond the provision of extra time.

Element 6: Assessment Task Design and Implementation

As stated in Chapter 6, the summative assessment task is regarded as a cultural artefact for student mediation to demonstrate their learning, and for teachers to elicit, interpret and use evidence of learning for formative and summative purposes. This chapter builds on this understanding and considers the accessibility of the summative assessment task, using principles of accessible assessment design, as discussed in Chapter 2. Therefore, issues relating to readability, comprehensibility and legibility (ACACA, 1995, 2012; QCAA, 2018b; Thompson et al., 2002; Wyatt-Smith, 2008), as well as visual, procedural and linguistic complexity of the task (Graham et al., 2018) are considered. Similar to Chapter 6, attention is paid to whether second-order expectations of the task pose a barrier to student engagement with completion of the focus of the assessable elements, that is the first-order expectations (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999).

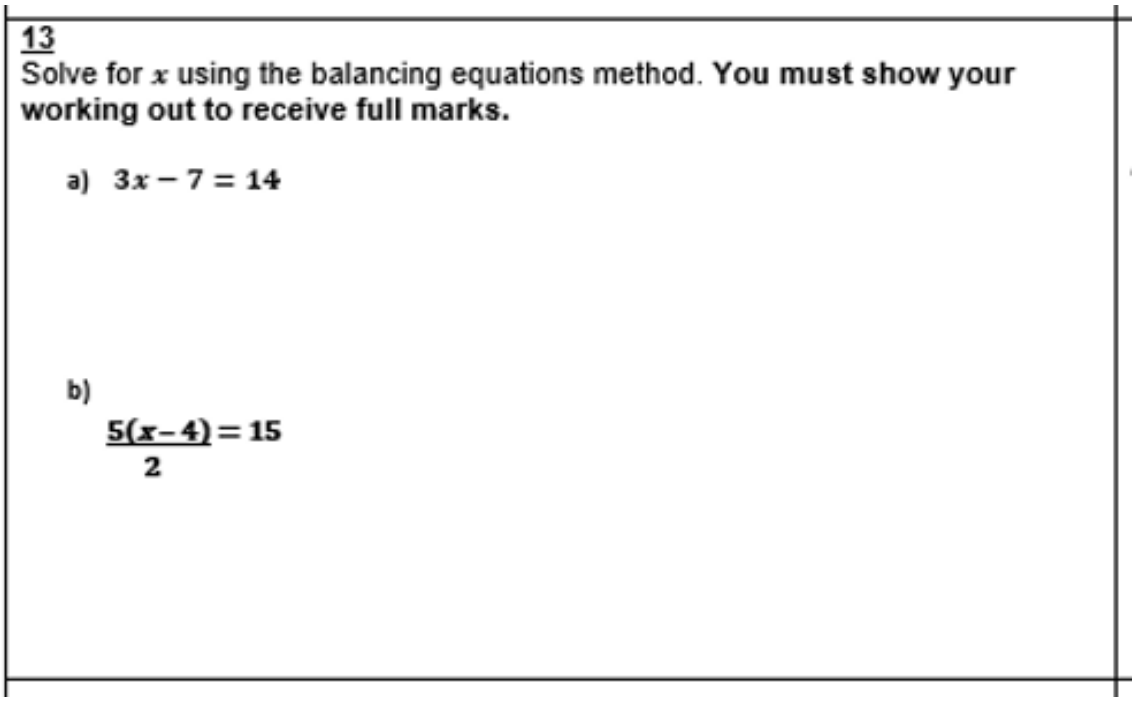
The summative assessment task consisted of a paper-based task sheet consisting of five pages with 15 questions (see Appendix 2), accompanied by a cover page showing the Year 7 achievement standard and a page showing the marking guide[27], which also showed the achievement level possible for each question. Students were required to write their answers on the task sheet and show their working for each question. While elements of the summative test aligned with principles of quality assessment, analysis of the cover page, marking guide and task sheet identified visual, procedural and linguistic barriers that impacted on accessibility of the task.

[27] In Australia, teachers use "task-specific standards" (QCAA, 2019c, p. 1) as a guide to judge students' summative work against the achievement standards as set out in the Australian Curriculum. Teachers can list these task-specific standards in a marking guide, which also informs students' understanding of the required quality of their work and provides opportunities for self-assessment.

Visually, the structure of the task sheet is clear: the instruction is displayed first (e.g., “calculate the following”) and followed by the task (Figure 7.6). Procedurally, the fact that test questions do not build upon one another benefits students; if students have difficulty solving one question, they can still succeed on the next question. This gives students a chance to achieve full marks at a question even when previous questions have been answered incorrectly. In addition, only one sub question builds on another sub question (Question 14a and 14b, see Appendix 2). Most questions are short, contributing to clarity around what procedures need to be followed.

Figure 7.6

Sample Test Question



Note. Figure shows clear visual and procedural structure, with no dependence between questions.

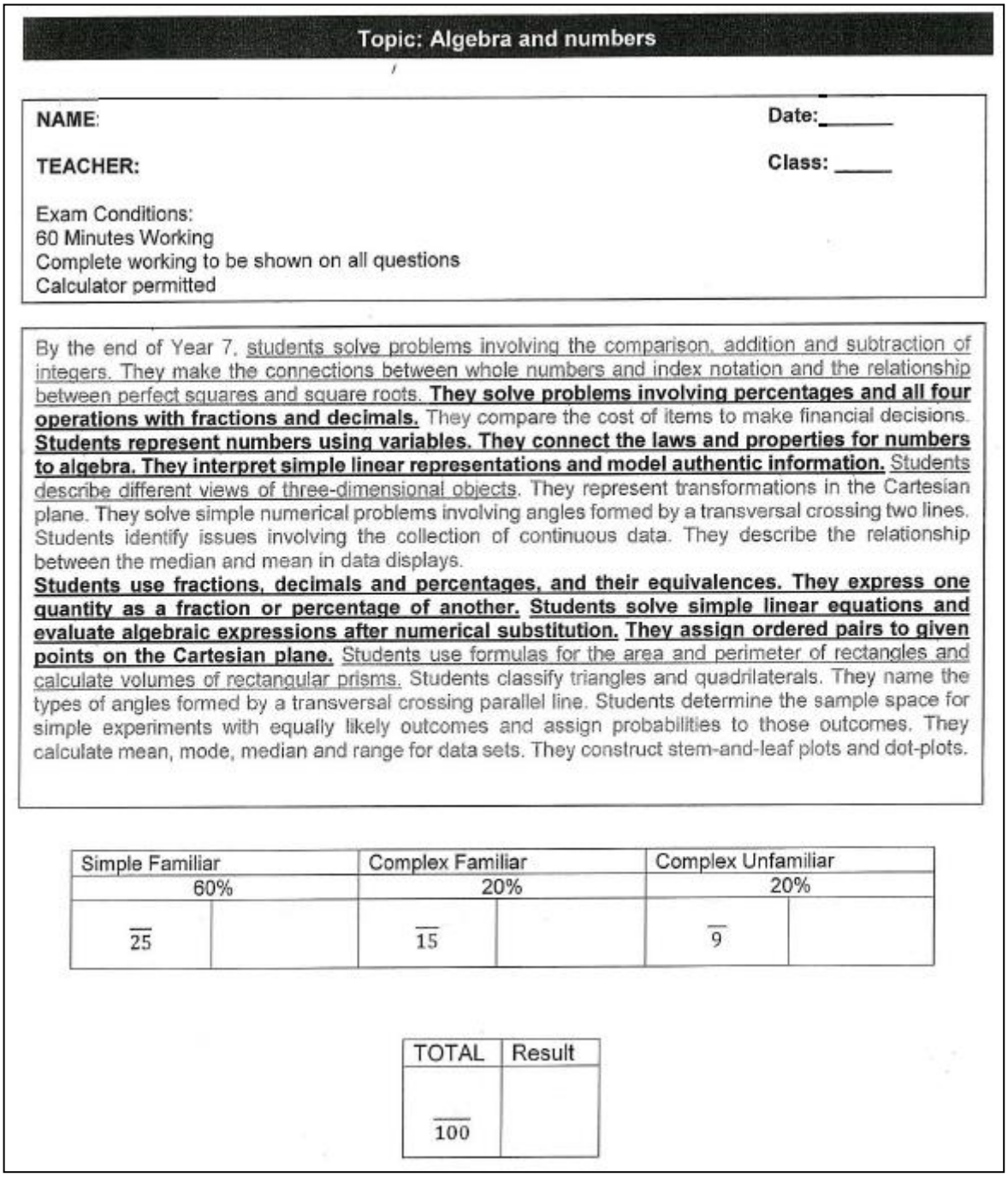
Linguistically, the task sheet’s syntax, limited sentence length and spacing between test questions contribute to accessibility. In addition, questions are written using only one to three sentences. These linguistic features align with principles of accessible assessment, as

Thompson et al. (2002) identified short sentence length and spacing between questions as contributors to readability and legibility.

However, accessibility is negatively impacted by complexities that were identified in the cover page, marking guide and task sheet. The cover page (Figure 7.7) lists the Year 7 achievement standard in a visually complex manner; the use of many words across paragraphs contributes to lexical density, as does the lack of space between the paragraphs. The use of underscored and bold text, to highlight which part of the achievement standard was being assessed, is a perceptual feature that Mislevy et al. (2013) identified as restricting accessibility. Technical vocabulary, while disciplinary appropriate, is also presented in a complex linguistic manner (Graham et al., 2018), such as “a transversal crossing parallel line”. The presence of this term reflected unnecessary information, as it belonged to a part of the Year 7 achievement standard that was not being assessed on this test. This first page that students see when starting their test could distract, or dishearten, them from accessing instructions that will provide important information for completing the assessment task, unless they are told that this information is for school purposes only with the instruction to start at the second page.

Figure 7.7

Cover Page of Mathematics Assessment Task Sheet



Topic: Algebra and numbers

NAME: **Date:**_____

TEACHER: **Class:** _____

Exam Conditions:
60 Minutes Working
Complete working to be shown on all questions
Calculator permitted

By the end of Year 7, students solve problems involving the comparison, addition and subtraction of integers. They make the connections between whole numbers and index notation and the relationship between perfect squares and square roots. **They solve problems involving percentages and all four operations with fractions and decimals.** They compare the cost of items to make financial decisions. **Students represent numbers using variables. They connect the laws and properties for numbers to algebra. They interpret simple linear representations and model authentic information.** Students describe different views of three-dimensional objects. They represent transformations in the Cartesian plane. They solve simple numerical problems involving angles formed by a transversal crossing two lines. Students identify issues involving the collection of continuous data. They describe the relationship between the median and mean in data displays.
Students use fractions, decimals and percentages, and their equivalences. They express one quantity as a fraction or percentage of another. Students solve simple linear equations and evaluate algebraic expressions after numerical substitution. They assign ordered pairs to given points on the Cartesian plane. Students use formulas for the area and perimeter of rectangles and calculate volumes of rectangular prisms. Students classify triangles and quadrilaterals. They name the types of angles formed by a transversal crossing parallel line. Students determine the sample space for simple experiments with equally likely outcomes and assign probabilities to those outcomes. They calculate mean, mode, median and range for data sets. They construct stem-and-leaf plots and dot-plots.

Simple Familiar		Complex Familiar		Complex Unfamiliar	
60%		20%		20%	
25		15		9	

TOTAL	Result
100	

Note. Figure shows visually and linguistically complex Year 7 achievement standard.

The marking guide—page two of the assessment task—was provided so students could develop a common understanding of what they had to do to succeed in the assessment (Figure 7.8). This page was visually complex, containing many text boxes, text

printed both horizontally and vertically, and small font sizes. This impacts on readability, which can pose a barrier to students' engagement with the marking guide. One purpose of the marking guide was for students to see which test questions related to which achievement level. However, the assignment of question numbers to an achievement level may be confusing to students; four question numbers are assigned to both C-level and B-level grades. As interview data and classroom observations revealed that students were told that the test would have C-level and B-level questions—instead of questions where the response defined whether they achieved at a B-level or C-level on that question—it may be confusing for a question to be described at both C-level and a B-level. Linguistically, the vocabulary used in the marking rubric, while complex and technical, is aligned with the institutional examples of the Year 7 elaborations of curriculum standards provided through the QCAA (2019d). For example, ranging from level A to C, students need to discern the difference between "effective and clear use", "consistent use", and "satisfactory use" of appropriate mathematical terminology, respectively. The use of such qualitative terms relies on students' ability to interpret their meaning. These fuzzy standards (Sadler, 1987) contain linguistic terms that convey quality expectations of mathematical thinking. Without explicit teaching of this "language of assessment" (Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2000, p. 23), students cannot mediate this marking guide to inform their engagement with the assessment task.

Analysis of the assessment task sheet further showed inconsistencies between test questions and the marking guide, which does not reflect alignment as prescribed in literature on quality assessment (Wyatt-Smith, 2008). For example, Question 3b (Figure 7.9) allocates 1.5 marks in the CF column (complex familiar; representing a B-level question) whereas the marking guide (Figure 7.8) categorises Question 3—in its entirety—as a C-level question. The inconsistency may cause confusion for students who want to mediate this artefact (Daniels, 2016) to decide the level of question to attempt, and to self-monitor their performance.

Figure 7.8

Mathematics Assessment Marking Guide

			A+ ≥92	A ≥87	A- ≥80	B+ ≥72	B ≥68	B- ≥56	C+ ≥48	C ≥40	C- ≥34	D+ ≥28	D ≥22	D- ≥16	E+ ≥10	E ≥5	E- ≥0
Understanding and skills dimensions	Understanding & Fluency	Conceptual understanding	Connection and description of mathematical concepts in complex unfamiliar situations Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Connection and description of mathematical concepts and relationships in complex familiar situations Q5, Q7, Q11a,b, Q13a, Q15, Q16			Recognition and identification of mathematical concepts and relationships in simple familiar situations Q1,Q2, Q3, Q4, Q6, Q8, Q10, Q12, Q14, Q15			Some identification of simple mathematical concepts			Statements about obvious mathematical concepts		
		Procedural fluency	Recall and use of facts, definitions, technologies and procedures to find solutions complex unfamiliar situations Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Recall and use of facts, definitions, technologies and procedures to find solutions in complex familiar situations Q5, Q7, Q11a,b, Q13a, Q15, Q16			Recall and use of facts, definitions, technologies and procedures to find solutions in simple familiar situations Q1,Q2, Q3, Q4, Q6, Q8, Q10, Q12, Q14, Q15			Some recall and use of facts, definitions, technologies and simple procedures			Partial recall of facts, definitions and use of simple procedures		
		Mathematical language and symbols	Effective and clear use of appropriate mathematical terminology, materials, diagrams, conventions and symbols Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Consistent use of appropriate mathematical terminology, materials, diagrams, conventions and symbols Q5, Q7, Q11a,b, Q13a, Q15, Q16			Satisfactory use of appropriate mathematical terminology, materials, diagrams, conventions and symbols Q1,Q2, Q3, Q4, Q6, Q8, Q10, Q12, Q14, Q15			Use of aspects of mathematical terminology, materials, diagrams, conventions and symbols			Use of everyday language		
Understanding and skills dimensions	Problem Solving & Reasoning	Problem-solving approaches	Systematic application of relevant problem-solving approaches to investigate complex unfamiliar situations Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Application of relevant problem-solving approaches to investigate complex familiar situations Q5, Q7, Q12, Q13a, Q16			Application of problem-solving approaches to investigate simple familiar situations Q4, Q7, Q12			Some selection and application of problem-solving approaches in simple familiar situations			Partial selection of problem-solving approaches		
		Mathematical modelling	Development of mathematical models and representations in complex unfamiliar situations Q13b, Q17			Development of mathematical models and representations in complex familiar situations Q2b, Q5, Q13a, Q15			Development of mathematical models and representations in simple familiar situations Q1, Q2, Q14, Q15			Statements about simple mathematical models and representations			Isolated statements about given mathematical models and representations		
		Reasoning and justification	Clear explanation of mathematical thinking and reasoning, including justification of choices made, evaluation of strategies used and conclusions reached Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Explanation of mathematical thinking and reasoning, including reasons for choices made, strategies used and conclusions reached Q5, Q12a,b, Q14a, Q16			Description of mathematical thinking and reasoning, including discussion of choices made, strategies used and conclusions reached Q4, Q8			Statements about choices made and strategies used			Isolated statements about given strategies or conclusions		

Note. Figure shows many text boxes, discipline-specific vocabulary (marked with) and Q15 assigned to both B- and C-level standard (highlighted in grey).

Figure 7.9

Questions 3a and 3b

QUESTION	SF	CF	CU
1 Model an expression using algebraic symbols to show the following: a) The product of 5 and y b) The sum of a and b c) 12 less than p d) A number (n) divided by 3 and the result is decreased by 6	 /1 /1 /1.5 /1.5		
2 Model the situations below as a rule using an algebraic equation: a) y is equal to x plus 2 b) To find y, add 5 to x, then divide the result by 10	 /1.5	 /1.5	
3 Simplify the following expressions a) 12x + 4x b) 15x + 3y – 6x + 5y	 /1	 /1.5	

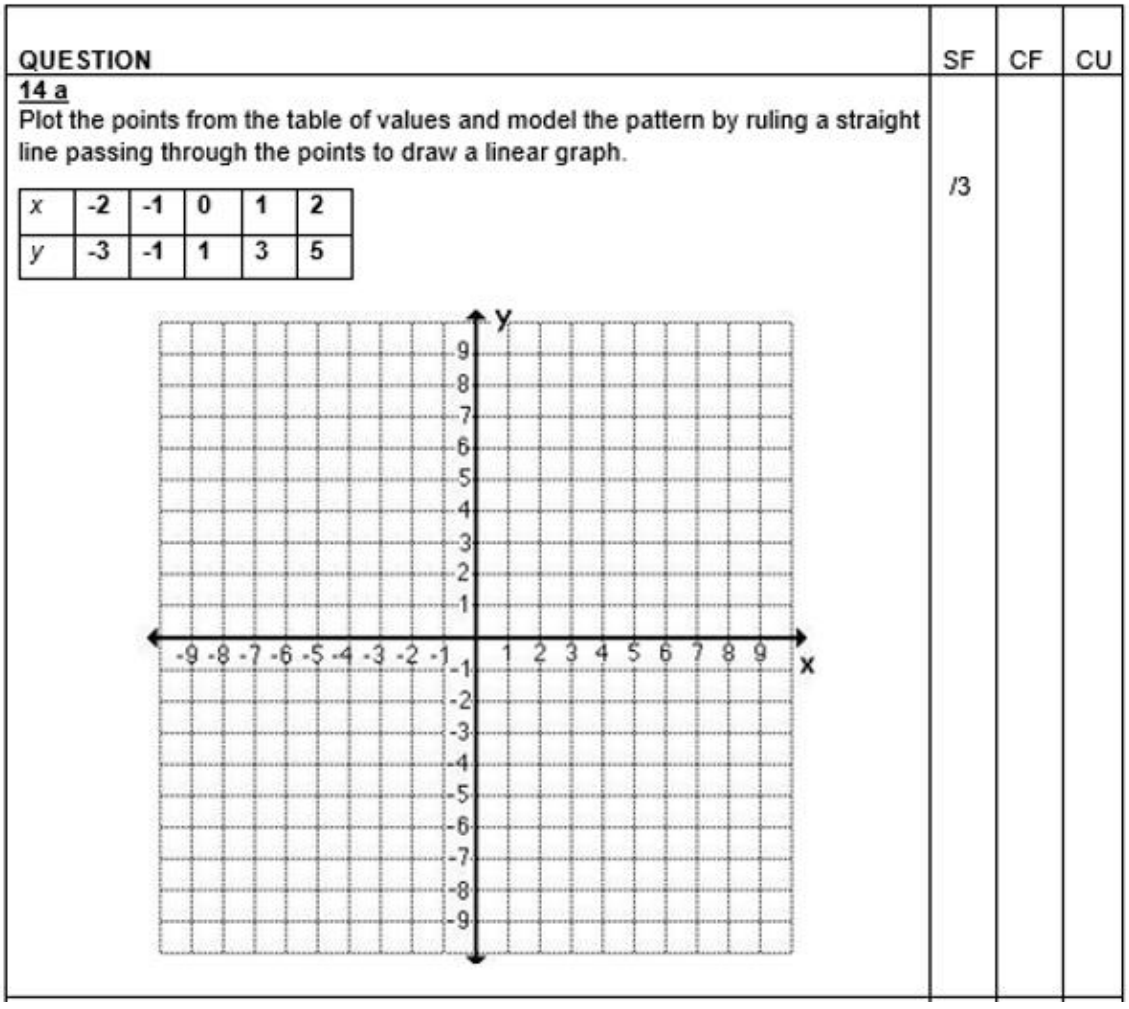
Note. Figure shows marks allocated to simple familiar (C level) and complex familiar (B level).

While the test predominantly used short sentences with sufficient spacing in between sentences, linguistic and procedural complexities were identified that impacted on accessibility. Question 14a (Figure 7.10) asks students to “plot the points from the table of values and model the pattern by ruling a straight line passing through the points to draw a linear graph”. While the permitted use of a ruler helped students with limited fine motor skills, such as Harry, the multiple components in this question placed a heavy demand on

students' working memory, which Mislevy et al. (2013) identified as contributing to inaccessibility. The requirement to process these components forms a second-order expectation (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999), as the sentence asks students to (a) plot the points, and (b) model the pattern, by (c) ruling a straight line, to (d) draw a linear graph. This procedural complexity could be reduced referring only to the question's first-order expectation: (a) plot the points from the table of values, and (b) draw a straight line through the points to model the pattern.

Figure 7.10

Question 14a

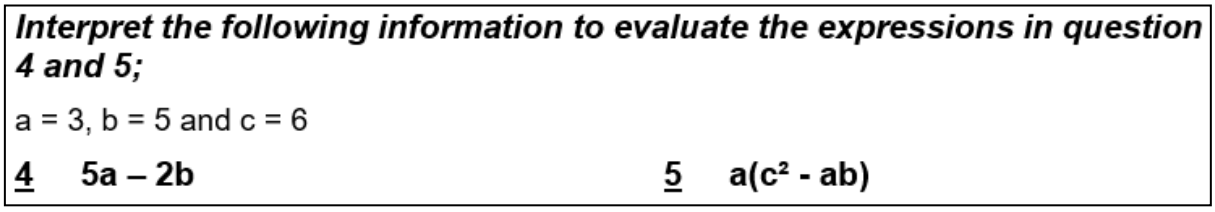


Note. Figure shows linguistically complex instructions.

The test was written using many discipline-specific, cognitive verbs, which can pose barriers to students with language difficulty if explicit instruction of the meaning of such verbs has not, or not sufficiently, taken place. If students do not understand the meaning of cognitive verbs used at the beginning of each instruction, they may not access the test without further support, giving them a disadvantage over others. The DSE (2005) requires students with disability to access assessment on the same basis as their peers, rather than being advantaged or disadvantaged. Further, the DSE (2005) identifies that the "integrity" of an assessment does not need to be compromised. Two examples highlight the balancing act of promoting accessibility while maintaining integrity. First, one purpose of the test was for students to demonstrate that they could calculate mathematical expressions, which was stated using terms as "interpret" and "evaluate" (Figure 7.11). This relies on students' ability to comprehend that those terms mean "calculate" and contributes to linguistic complexity. Second, students had to demonstrate their ability to find an equation using mathematical data (as represented in Question 14b: "Synthesise the rule modelled by the data in Question 14a"). Comprehending "synthesise" does not indicate whether students are able to find the relevant equation which is the first-order expectation. Further investigation would be needed to identify whether the language used in these examples was a first-order expectation matching the standard (Question 4) and above-standard (Questions 5 and 14b) achievement levels, or a second-order expectation, impacting on students' ability to demonstrate their learning (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999).

Figure 7.11

Instruction for Questions 4 and 5



Note. Figure shows linguistically complex terms ("interpret" and "evaluate").

Implementation

Ms Daisy recognised linguistic barriers in the questions she was required to use to design the task. However, provision of assessment adjustments—beyond the provision of additional time—was not evident in the data. In preparation for the summative assessment, Ms Daisy self-reported the use of cognitive verbs throughout her lessons, and further tried to familiarise students with the vocabulary and structure of the test by providing them with work sheets for revision and a practice test, called "revision sheet".

The revision sheet was presented by Ms Daisy as a practice test that "looks and goes the same way as the test will" (Ms Daisy, interview, 28 June 2018, line 767). Students worked on this individually in the classroom but were provided with support by Ms Daisy if they had raised their hands. After students had completed the practice test, Ms Daisy was observed to discuss the entire test with the class, verbally explaining solutions and writing the correct working out on the board. In interview, she stated, "I went through all the questions in class and said 'this is what I expect – if you see a question like this, this amount of working out, you need to write it this way'" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 830–833). Although these explanations were not observed to refer to the test's marking guide, they formed a mediating artefact that students could use to develop an understanding of expectations for success on the task. This mediation was evident in classroom observations, when many students asked how

many marks they would receive if they reached the same solution but showed different working to that Ms Daisy had modelled on the board.

Interview data showed that Ms Daisy did not provide the three focus students with any materials different from those provided to other students in order to prepare them for the test. However, as shown in the interview and observation data, she did spend more time with them than she did with other students across the two lessons during which they completed the practice test. In the first lesson, 17% of Ms Daisy's time was spent supporting them where they represented 11% of the students in class. They received approximately the same time as other students during the second lesson (11%). Ms Daisy indicated she would specifically check Harry's progress through the practice test, stating, "I know that he's not as willing to ask questions, so I just go and check in and make sure he's at least got the hang of the simple ones [simple familiar questions]" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 841–843). In this statement Ms Daisy can be heard indicating her expectation for Harry's minimum level of achievement to be at C-level, as illustrated by "at least" ensuring he understood C-level questions. Although it is important that Harry did understand these questions, this statement indicates an approach to assessment that focused on sufficient rather than optimal expected demonstration of learning for Harry—i.e., test preparations for a C-grade instead of a higher grade. The expectation of optimal demonstration of learning aligns with the Qld DoE (2017) aim to improve A–E scores of students with disability; however, in this instance this goal was not pursued.

Despite the identified barriers in the assessment task, Ms Daisy provided the focus students with the same test as their peers. The only provided adjustment concerned the provision of ten minutes of additional time, to which all three focus students were entitled. As stated earlier in the chapter, this does not reflect Ms Daisy's responses on the mCLAAS (Category 4), where she stated she would circle or highlight aspects of the assessment task. Through a sociocultural lens, students' demonstration of learning through this uniform

summative assessment task was the result of the interaction of their characteristics and the barriers inherent in the task design. Therefore, the analysis of the summative task should also measure students' interaction with the task.

Observations revealed that the summative assessment was only used for summative purposes and not for formative purposes to inform next steps in teaching. Classroom observation data showed that, when reviewing the answers of the test afterwards, Ms Daisy verbally explained the working out and answers to each question to the whole class while writing on the board. However, this happened at a fast pace and she did not check for students' understanding. Students did not ask any questions during this time. This modelling of solutions to the test mainly served the purpose for students to check they had received the correct marks and that these were added up correctly, rather than as an opportunity to check why students did not do well at some questions and inform next steps in teaching. Furthermore, Rose et al. (2018) suggested that evidence elicited through assessment can reveal the "disabilities" (p. 169) within the interaction of students with the task, for example if it became evident that some students misunderstood the task instructions. This information could then be used to design more accessible assessment tasks.

Element 7: Interaction Between Students and the Summative Assessment Task

Viewed through a sociocultural lens, assessment is a social practice including students in interaction with the task (as a cultural artefact) within a certain sociocultural context (Gipps, 1999). As students differ, so do their interactions with the task including what may present as barriers. Therefore, Rose et al. (2018) referred to assessment as "measuring interactions rather than just individuals" (p. 169). Examination of the focus students' interactions with the summative test showed that all three students "passed" the mathematics task, with interview data showing that their experiences with the test were generally positive. Interview data revealed that Seth and Harry mitigated identified barriers in the task by making use of the provided additional time (Seth) and asking Ms Daisy questions during the test (Seth

and Harry). Seth achieved a B+ (mark of 73.6 out of 100), Charlie received a B- (mark of 65.9 out of 100) and Harry received a C (mark of 45.9 out of 100).

Seth and Charlie's Interaction With the Assessment Task

To varying degrees, the design of the task sheet and, especially, the assessment cover page (including the achievement standard) and marking guide contained complex vocabulary, lexical density and required heavy reliance on working memory. As students with DLD, like Seth and Charlie, experience difficulty with semantics and verbal short-term memory (Bishop et al., 2017), these task features can impact on their interaction with the test.

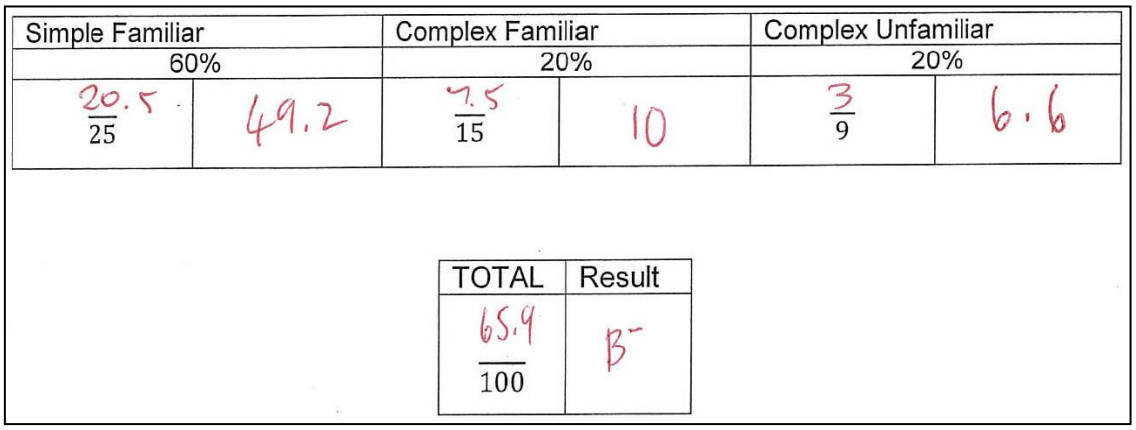
Neither Seth nor Charlie stated that they had read the achievement standard on the first page of the test. This implies that they did not recognise this page as a mediating artefact to shape their engagement with the test, or they could not access this resource due to the barriers identified above. In addition, only Charlie reported using the marking guide. Seth called himself "a rebel" (Interview, 27 June 2018, line 314) when stating he did not use the guide, indicating his perception that he went against recommended practice. However, Charlie used the marking guide to identify which questions were B-level questions, so he could self-regulate his efforts accordingly; he stated that he tried his "hardest" on the B-level questions and "didn't really worry" about the A-level questions: "When I found out I'm getting a lot of B's, I'm predicting that I'll get at least a C or B" (Charlie, interview, 27 June 2018, lines 325–326). Charlie's self-knowledge is evident here, indicating he might consider himself a "B-student" in mathematics. However, this may restrict his willingness to challenge himself with A-level questions. Although Charlie stated in interview he finished the test, he did not attempt to answer Question 11c, which was an A-level question. This supports Charlie's statement that he focused more on B-level questions.

Charlie further stated that he did not use the additional time that was provided, because he completed the test in time and did not have any questions: "I wasn't really rushing, but I … know what I was doing, so I could get ahead" (Charlie, interview, 27 June 2018, lines

432–433). Charlie's confidence during the test ("I knew what I was doing") became further evident through his statement that he did not ask Ms Daisy any questions during the test. Figure 7.12 shows Charlie's marks for each level of questions. Due to the weighting of questions, Charlie's engagement with the simple familiar and complex familiar questions helped him achieve a B-. The independent nature of Charlie's engagement with the summative task indicates that his engagement with classroom activities—during which he interacted frequently with Ms Daisy—sufficiently scaffolded his ability to interact with the summative task.

Figure 7.12

Charlie's Marks on Mathematics Assessment Task



While Seth, like Charlie, successfully passed the task (B+), the data showed how he mediated the provision of additional time to mitigate the barriers presented in the task. He stated:

> While Charlie and everyone else like left, I was the only person to go with some of the last questions that I did not complete or did not get … I think that raised my mark a bit. A bit. For like completing some others. (Interview, 27 June 2018, lines 425–429)

In this talk segment, Seth's struggle to complete the task on time can be heard, revealing his awareness that he needed additional time to do so. However, interview data revealed that additional time was predominantly used to overcome barriers caused by inaccessible

assessment design. Seth described how he used the additional time to clarify questions with Ms Daisy: “I put my hand up a lot [and asked] ‘What does this mean? I don’t get it.’ Something like that” (Interview, 27 June 2018, lines 439–441). In addition, Ms Daisy stated that the extra time allowed her to read questions out loud to Seth and provide him with a quieter environment for part of the test. While reading out questions and providing a distraction-free space were reported assessment adjustments by Ms Daisy (mCLAAS Categories 3 and 4; Table 7.1), interview data indicated that these adjustments only occurred in the period of “additional” time, after other students, who were not entitled to these adjustments, had left. If these adjustments were purposefully planned, for example by providing all students the option of wearing noise-cancelling headphones, then Seth would have been able to take the test in a quieter environment for the entire duration of the test.

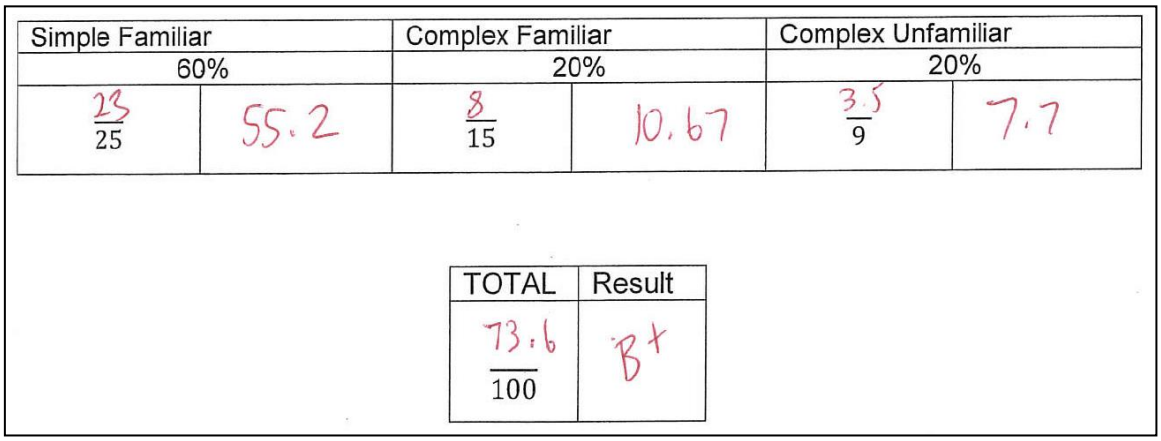
This use of additional time as a retrospective assessment adjustment brings to light the importance of accessible assessment tasks. Accessible task design incorporates readability by ensuring that the requirement to understand vocabulary (second-order expectation) does not impede on students’ ability to demonstrate their learning (first-order expectation) in mathematics (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999; Graham et al., 2018; Mislevy et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2002). Following principles of UDL, students could be provided with multiple modes of representation, for example a text-to-speech option to read out the instructions (Rose et al., 2018; Thompson et al., 2002). An accessible summative task that still aligned with the curriculum and achievement standard could have removed the need to provide additional time for Seth, as he no longer would have had to negotiate barriers identified in the task.

Analysis of Seth’s marked assessment task shows that he completed all questions. His marks also represent awarded scores across all complexity levels (Figure 7.13). Feedback provided on the test shows the summative purpose of the test with Seth receiving

only one piece of written feedback, which stating that he had to "show the method" (Figure 7.14).

Figure 7.13

Seth's Marks on Mathematics Assessment Task

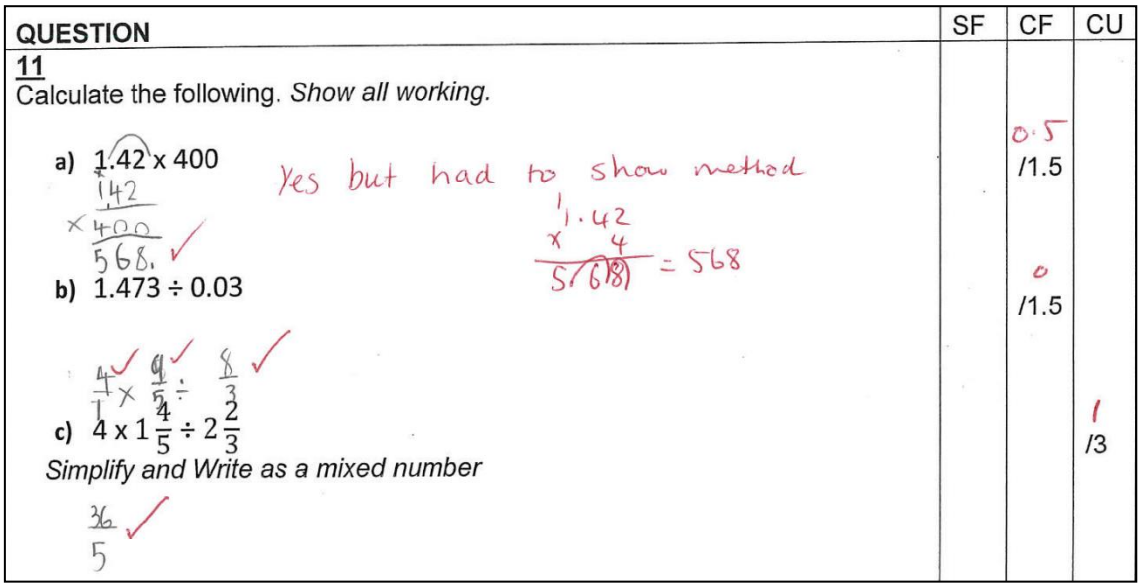


Simple Familiar		Complex Familiar		Complex Unfamiliar	
60%		20%		20%	
$\frac{23}{25}$	55.2	$\frac{8}{15}$	10.67	$\frac{3.5}{9}$	7.7

TOTAL	Result
$\frac{73.6}{100}$	B+

Figure 7.14

Excerpt from Seth's Marked Assessment Task



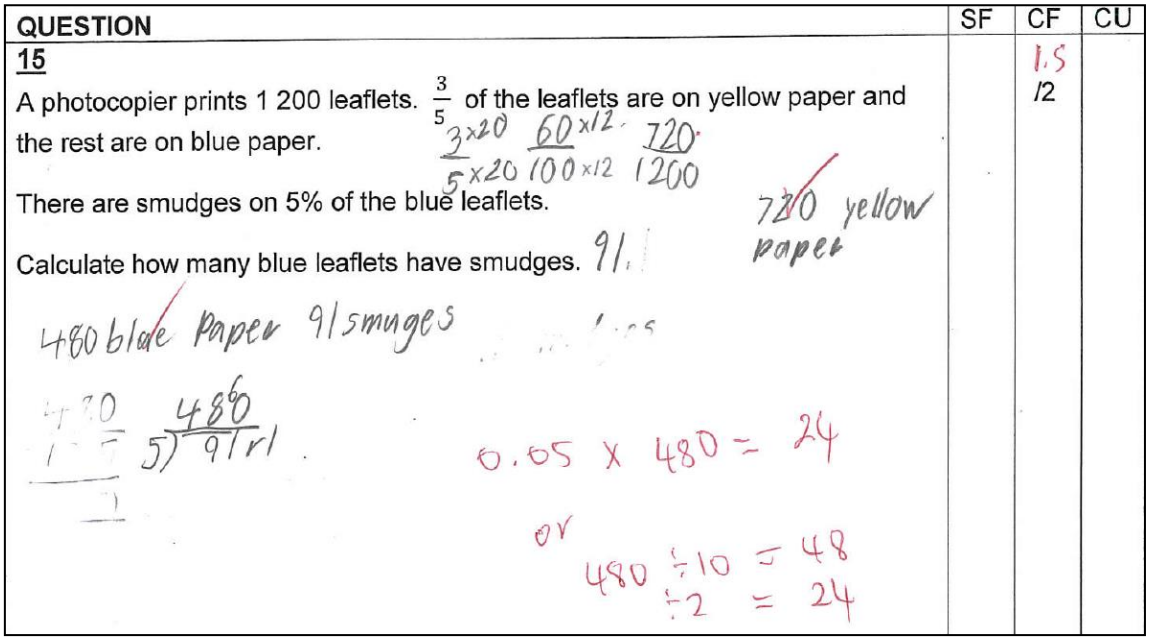
QUESTION	SF	CF	CU
11 Calculate the following. *Show all working.*			
a) 1.42×400 Yes but had to show method $1.42 \times 4 = 568$		0.5 /1.5	
b) $1.473 \div 0.03$		0 /1.5	
c) $4 \times 1\frac{4}{5} \div 2\frac{2}{3}$ *Simplify and Write as a mixed number* $\frac{36}{5}$			1 /3

Note. Figure shows Ms Daisy's feedback.

Charlie did not receive any written feedback beyond Ms Daisy writing correct answers throughout the test where applicable (Figure 7.15). However, as this feedback did not reflect scaffolding principles of contingency, fading and transfer of responsibility (van de Pol et al., 2010), but merely provided the correct answer instead, Charlie would likely not be able to reproduce this process in the future.

Figure 7.15

Excerpt from Charlie's Marked Assessment Task



Note. Figure shows Ms Daisy's provision of correct answers.

Harry's Interaction With the Assessment Task

The identified inaccessible features of the cover page, marking guide and task sheet present barriers that impacted on Harry. Interview data showed that the identified visually complex achievement standard on the cover page (Figure 7.7) "disabled" Harry's interaction with the task (Rose et al., 2018). He described how he did not engage with this page, as "to be honest, when I first saw it, it actually made my eyes go very blurry at that… I just went over to the next page 'cos I couldn't see it that well" (Interview, 26 June 2018, lines

385–390). Harry's description of visual distress illustrates the negative impact that visually complex test content can have on students. Harry's physical reaction ("it actually made my eyes go very blurry") is common for students with ASD, who can have issues with sensory processing (Ozonoff & Schetter, 2007). Assessment task design should therefore consider the adverse effects a task can have on students and offer multiple ways for content to be represented (Rose et al., 2018). This experience put Harry in a situation where his first engagement with the mathematics test was negative. As it caused him visual distress, it impacted on his ability to engage with the marking guide (which he stated he did not see) and the test questions.

Despite the identified barriers, Harry received only additional time as an assessment adjustment. However, although Harry stated he struggled with some questions on the assessment task, he indicated he did not ask for much help during the test as "I felt like doing it, like, all by myself, see how I go" (Interview, 26 June 2018, line 426). This illustrates Harry's independence, as he consciously did not use provided TA support or additional time. He described how TA Tracey checked in on him during the test to ask how he was going, and he replied "Good". Ms Daisy further stated that Harry did not use the additional time beyond "a couple of minutes". This illustrates that Harry chose to measure what he could do independently ("see how I go"), without mediating artefacts such as support from Ms Daisy or support staff, or additional time. Analysis of Harry's marked assessment task showed that he received full marks on the question that was identified as showing high linguistic complexity (Figure 7.10), indicating that he did not experience this complexity as a barrier. Moreover, interview data did not provide evidence that he had relied on support to answer this question.

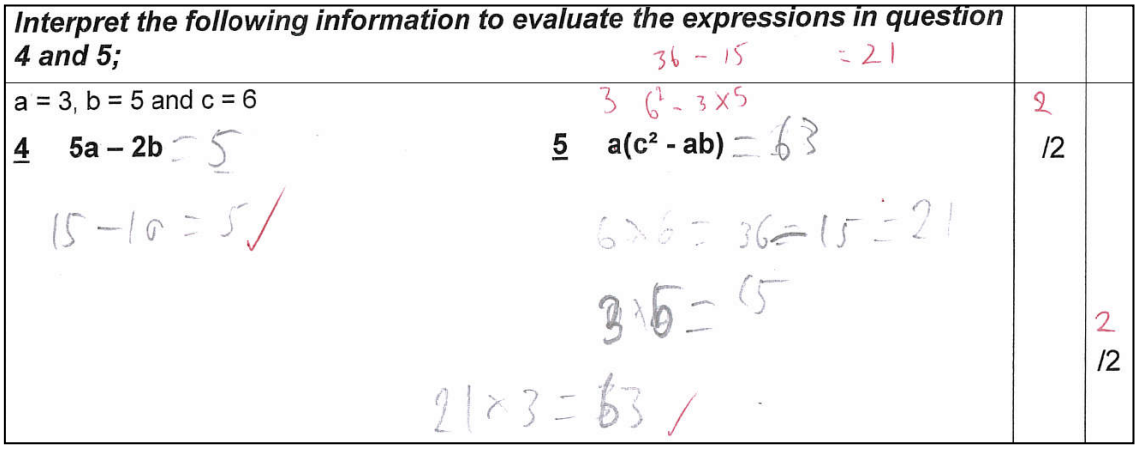
However, although Harry stated he did it "all by myself", interview data showed he received some support from Ms Daisy. He described how he could not remember the correct procedure for Questions 4 and 5 and that "when Ms Daisy said the answers, or

helped me, then I knew it" (Interview, 26 June 2018, lines 419–420). This was reflected in the full marks awarded to his response by Ms Daisy (Figure 7.16). Although Harry passed the test with a C grade, his mark of 45.9 out of 100 indicates that he answered more than half of the test incorrectly[28]. Unless these gaps are identified and addressed, Harry may have an insufficient knowledge base to proceed in his learning. For example, while Harry successfully divided fractions at Question 10b (Figure 7.17), his incorrect simplifying of the answer resulted in him receiving partial marks on that question. Ms Daisy's feedback by providing the solution ($\frac{4}{6}$, which is not in simplest form as required in the instructions; Figure 7.17) did not provide scaffolding for future success on this type of task. In addition, Harry did not receive any marks on questions labelled complex unfamiliar (Figure 7.18), despite attempting some of these. This indicates that Harry was not able to transfer learnt concepts to unfamiliar situations. This challenge was also reported by his parents (PRCC) and corresponds with characteristics of students with ASD, who may have difficulty generalising and transferring knowledge (Ravet, 2013).

[28] Interview data revealed that, in Term 1, students required at least 50% of the marks to "pass". However, Ms Daisy stated that low passing rates led the mathematics department to lower this percentage; students could "still get a C-level grade without the 50% marks" (Interview, 28 June 2018, lines 33-35). This reflected an assessment design which did not include enough C-level questions (i.e., simple familiar) for students to accumulate enough marks to achieve a grade of C; instead, A- and B-level questions were favoured disproportionally.

Figure 7.16

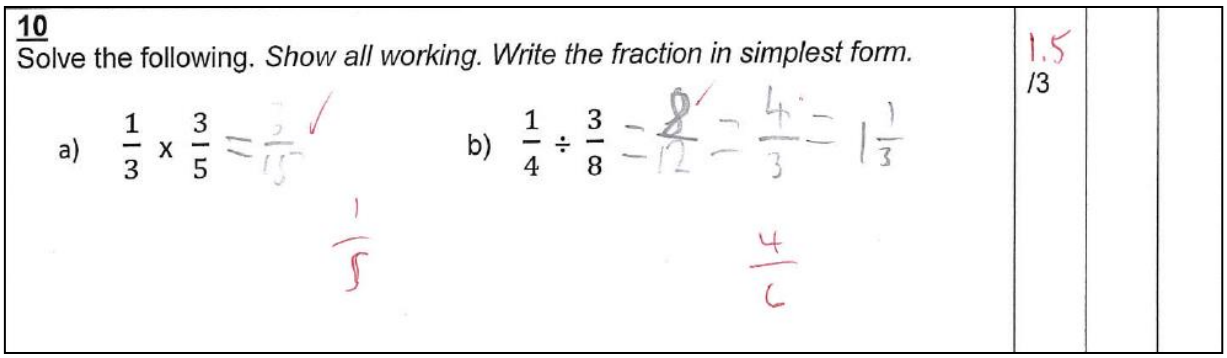
Excerpt from Harry's Marked Assessment Task



Note. Figure shows full marks on questions 4 and 5.

Figure 7.17

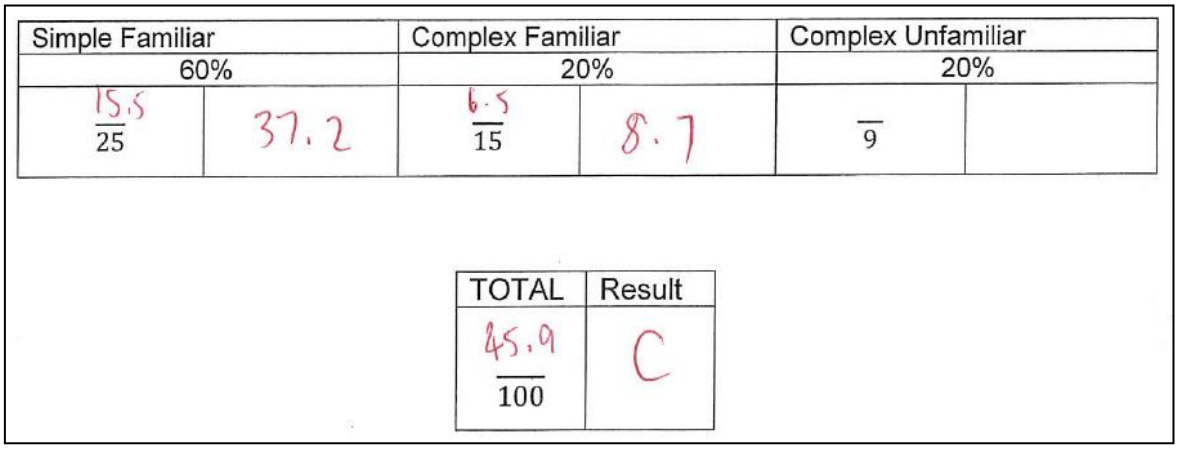
Excerpt from Harry's Marked Assessment Task



Note. Figure shows partial marks on Question 10 and feedback from Ms Daisy.

Figure 7.18

Harry's Marks on Mathematics Assessment Task



Simple Familiar		Complex Familiar		Complex Unfamiliar	
60%		20%		20%	
15.5/25	37.2	6.5/15	8.7	/9	

TOTAL	Result
45.9/100	C

Note. Figure shows no marks received on complex unfamiliar questions.

Since the explanations of test questions served predominantly to check whether marking was correct, Ms Daisy was not observed to check Harry's understanding of questions that he incorrectly answered or did not attempt. This may take place in an out-of-class SEP or LANI support class, where expertise is distributed from Ms Daisy to support staff and engagement with the marked assessment task can complement Ms Daisy's engagement. However, this was not communicated or evident at the time of the study, and students were required to hand their marked assessment task back to Ms Daisy. This summative purpose of the task may therefore impact on Harry's future academic achievement in mathematics.

Summary: Enabling Access to Summative Assessment

This section has provided an analysis that addresses research sub-question 3, *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?* First, the data showed that opportunities for collaboration in assessment design were limited and that Ms Daisy had to make compromises on accessibility while negotiating school procedures. This is consistent with Xu and Brown's (2016) notion of assessment literacy in practice, highlighting the need for teachers to negotiate institutional structures and making compromises resulting from those

negotiations. Ms Daisy recognised that the school's requirement to use cognitive verbs in the test provided an accessibility barrier to students. The meaning of cognitive verbs was not commonly understood by students, as interview data showed that students, including the focus students, required additional translation of such terms—both during teaching and during the test—before they were able to understand and mediate them to demonstrate their learning. Analysis of the task further revealed visual and procedural complexity (Graham et al., 2018) due to inconsistent alignment between the classification of test questions at different grade levels (A, B and C) and their qualification as printed on the marking guide. This is consistent with literature suggesting assessment tasks can disable students' demonstration of learning (Graham et al., 2018; Rose et al., 2018).

Second, the lack of SEP consultation in assessment processes indicates that relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009) was not developed between Ms Daisy and support staff; Ms Daisy did not recognise that support staff had the expertise to contribute to assessment design or assessment adjustments. This finding aligns with literature on collaboration between teachers and support staff; while not specifically related to assessment design, research has highlighted lack of collaboration between teachers and support staff (Basford et al., 2017; Bourke, 2008; Howard & Ford, 2007; Vlachou et al., 2015). Further, the observed lack of collaboration is in disjuncture with features of inclusive assessment, which stipulate the need for collaboration between teachers and other professionals at the school to ensure accessible assessment processes (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007).

While analysis of the task identified accessibility barriers for students with disability, assessment adjustments were not provided to the focus students beyond the provision of extra time. All three focus students were assessed as achieving an overall pass on the assessment task, with Charlie indicating he did not use the additional time, revealing he was confident that he could pass the test without requesting any support. However, Seth identified he used the additional time to ask clarifying questions where he did not understand

task instructions. While additional time can enable students with disability to demonstrate their learning through assessment, the chapter identified how it served as a retrospective strategy to compensate for complex instructions. This is in contrast with inclusive assessment principles, emphasising accessibility (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007) to remove the need for retrospective adjustments (Morningstar et al., 2015).

Harry also did not use additional time and stated in interview that he denied the help of support staff during the test. His low pass mark indicates gaps in Harry's understanding that will need to be addressed to ensure success in future assessment tasks. However, observation data showed that the test was used for summative purposes alone, as discussion of the test answers predominantly served for students to check they had received correct marks. Ms Daisy was not observed to check that students understood the questions that were incorrectly answered. This finding is in contrast with the recommended formative purpose of summative assessment (Black, 2013; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2014) where assessment information is used to inform future teaching and learning. Furthermore, this finding is in contrast with the identified need to analyse students' errors on tasks to highlight barriers in assessment task design (Rose et al., 2018). This information could then be used to design assessment tasks that enable students with disability to demonstrate their learning.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided an analysis that addresses research sub-question 2, *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?* and research sub-question 3, *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?* The analyses related to the second sample (Merriam, 1988) as part of the identified case, "teachers' enactment of classroom assessment for students with disability in a mainstream secondary classroom". They examined the focus students' engagement with summative assessment in mathematics and how their

mathematics teacher, Ms Daisy, interacted with them to scaffold their learning and assessment work during classroom practice.

The sociocultural lens adopted in the study sees assessment as a social practice between teachers, students and contexts at classroom, school, and society levels (Broadfoot, 2006; Colbert & Cumming, 2014). Assessment evidence is not fixed, but rather "describe[s] the relationship between the learner, the teacher and the assessment task in the social, historical and cultural context in which it is carried out" (Elwood, 2006, p. 230). Following the analytical lens of the study, such relationships are considered within a community of practice where participants—teachers, students and support staff—are mutually engaged to work towards a common goal. Ms Daisy's engagement towards inclusion was evident in her self-critical disposition and wish to improve her inclusive practices. However, the data showed that, while Ms Daisy and support staff had overlapping and complementary roles (Wenger, 1998), they had not developed relational agency (Edwards & Kinti, 2009); negotiation of their common goal of enabling students with disability to demonstrate their learning was not evident in the data.

Further, the chapter revealed Ms Daisy's negotiation of sociocultural factors, such as school-based assessment processes, led to compromised inclusive assessment practice. As part of a joint enterprise, participants in a community of practice negotiate sociocultural factors with other members in the community, whereby members are mutually accountable (Wenger, 1998). However, the data identified that Ms Daisy and support staff were not mutually accountable for inclusive assessment processes. Ms Daisy designed the assessment task without involving support staff, and communication regarding the deployment of support staff was not evident in the data.

The chapter further identified that Ms Daisy's classroom assessment practice presented a disjuncture with features of quality assessment, features of inclusion and features of inclusive assessment. As identified in Chapter 2, such features must come together as part

of the shared repertoire of inclusive classroom assessment. However, the chapter identified classroom assessment practice aligning with the letter not the spirit of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006); for example, students could engage with the LO and SC but not use these as mediating artefacts to self-assess their learning. Similarly, while formative teacher–student interaction appeared to focus on eliciting evidence of learning and promoting students' next steps learning, the data revealed little transfer of responsibility of the teacher to the focus students. Quality assessment practice and features of inclusion and inclusive assessment further prescribe accessibility so students with disability can engage with classroom assessment on the same basis as their peers (ACACA, 1995, 2012; QCAA, 2018b; Rose et al., 2018; Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). The chapter highlighted several issues with accessibility, indicating that accessible pedagogy and summative assessment were not part of the classroom's shared repertoire. For example, instances of group work were not enacted commensurate with the school's official pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012) or with differentiation principles (Tomlinson, 2017). Learning environments were not purposefully structured to suit the requirements of students with disability, requiring responsive differentiation strategies to enable them to negotiate the environment. Further, accessibility issues were evident in the summative assessment task, impacting on students' ability to optimally demonstrate their learning. As relational agency had not developed between Ms Daisy and support staff, the disability-specific expertise of support staff was not an artefact that could be mediated by Ms Daisy to establish inclusive assessment practice.

The chapter identified, similar to the findings for the first sample, the English classroom, a delicate balance between the need for teaching to be responsive to students with disability and to engage with quality assessment practice to promote student autonomy. This balance can be mitigated by applying principles of UDL (CAST, 2019) that ask teachers to consider how lesson activities can be accessible to all students. Further, the teacher's need to

compromise on accessibility of the assessment task while negotiating school structures (Xu & Brown, 2016) indicates the need for collaboration of all participants in a school to develop a shared understanding of inclusive assessment practice and implement assessment tasks based on inclusive values (Thurlow et al., 2016; UNGC4, 2016; Watkins, 2007).

Chapter 8: Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter presents the key findings of the study, their significance in relation to previous studies, and the contribution made by the study to the field of inclusive assessment practice. The study has addressed the gap in literature relating to classroom assessment and students with disability. As noted in Chapters 1 and 2, few studies have examined such assessment practice using ground-level data. Instead, studies addressing classroom assessment for these students are often limited to theoretical considerations of such assessment practice (Cumming et al., 2013; Ravet, 2013; Rose et al., 2018; Tay & Kee, 2019) or focus on assessment task design (Graham et al., 2018). Therefore, the study has drawn on data obtained from surveys, interviews as well as video-recorded classroom observations to conduct an in-depth study enabling consideration of authentic teacher and student voice in reporting the findings.

First, the findings for the two samples in the case study ("teachers' enactment of classroom assessment for students with disability in a mainstream secondary classroom") as presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, are distilled in relation to the three research sub-questions. The chapter then turns to address the main research question, *How do teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment?*, using the concept of community of practice as an analytical lens. The three dimensions of a community of practice—mutual engagement, a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998)—are examined in relation to the study's findings on classroom assessment practice for students with disability. The discussion focusses on the extent to which these dimensions coalesce to form a community of practice, conceptualised in this study as a community of inclusive assessment practice (CoIAP), to support teachers and students in this practice. Here, the supports and the barriers to the enactment of the official and intended practice of inclusive classroom assessment are identified.

The five key conceptual contributions of this study to the field are then identified. The study's limitations are also discussed. Finally, implications of the findings from this study for inclusive assessment practice, research, and policy are presented.

Restating the Research Questions

The aim of the study was to examine classroom assessment practice for students with disability. Adopting a sociocultural lens, assessment is regarded as a social process with teachers' assessment practice framed by sociocultural, including historical, contexts. To address the aim of the study, the following main research question and three research sub-questions were formulated:

How do teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment?

1. *What elements impact on how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment?*
2. *How do different elements within pedagogy and instruction impact on engagement of students with disability with classroom assessment?*
3. *How do different elements within summative assessment design and implementation impact on engagement of students with disability with summative assessment?*

These questions are consistent with the study's focus on examining how teachers negotiate elements in policy, educational contexts (i.e., larger education systems and smaller school contexts), pedagogy, and assessment design and implementation, to enable students with disability to enhance and to demonstrate their learning.

Research Sub-Question 1: What Elements Impact on how Teachers Enable Students With Disability to Engage With Classroom Assessment?

The case study identified that teachers' classroom assessment practice for students with disability was shaped by three elements: federal and state legislation and education policy frameworks, school expectations of pedagogical strategies and the use of

disability funding to shape the organisational arrangements by which support staff were deployed to classrooms. First, federal and state legislation and education policy frameworks informed the context within which schools and teachers are required to provide equal access for students with disability, through adjustments and differentiation (DSE, 2005; Qld DoE, 2018b, 2019b). Second, while teachers mediated classroom assessment practice through the school's official pedagogical framework, which endorsed differentiation (Dean et al., 2012), this framework did not explicitly direct teachers towards making teaching and assessment strategies accessible for students with disability. Teachers may enact the pedagogical framework without adequately meeting the learning needs of all students. This impacted on the ability of students with disability to access the knowledge and skills of a subject. To mitigate the risk of inaccessibility to the curriculum for students with disability, the HoSE had identified a focus on the inclusion of UDL within the school's pedagogical framework, but this approach had not yet been formalised in school documentation or taken up in practice at the time of data collection.

Third, Summerfield's use of the categorical approach to disability funding, associated with a medical model of disability (de Bruin et al., 2020), impacted on teachers' classroom assessment practice for students with disability. Summerfield created social structures at the school (Daniels, 2013) where students with verified disability, including the focus students, could access SEP support and students without verified disability could only access LANI (literacy and numeracy) support. This categorisation aligns with Graham's (2020) notion of integration as "business as usual with add-ons" (p. 14). The opportunity for teachers to use these two agencies of support as a resource in classroom assessment practice was hindered due to limited communication and collaboration between SEP and LANI, among members of the SEP team and between teachers and both agencies. This finding is consistent with international studies showing lack of collaboration between teachers and support staff (Basford et al., 2017; Bourke, 2008; Howard & Ford, 2007; Vlachou et al.,

2015). As a result, teachers could not mediate SEP staff's disability-specific expertise to design accessible assessment tasks for the focus students; SEP staff were not involved in such assessment design processes and students were required to demonstrate their learning through assessment tasks that were not fully accessible to them. This is in contrast with recommended practices of inclusive assessment, which emphasise collaboration between professionals to share different knowledges to establish accessible assessment practice (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007).

Research Sub-Question 2: How do Different Elements Within Pedagogy and Instruction Impact on Engagement of Students With Disability With Classroom Assessment?

The case study brought to light enabling elements across English and mathematics classrooms relating to differentiation strategies and formative teacher–student interactions. Teachers' differentiation practices intended to promote the focus students' engagement, and their formative interactions with focus students contributed to student engagement and task completion. However, the case study illustrated several elements within pedagogy and instruction that inhibited students' engagement with classroom assessment. For example, both samples identified that the focus students could not use learning objectives (LO) and success criteria (SC) as mediating artefacts to self-assess their learning and become autonomous learners, as per the focus of AfL (ARG, 2002; Heitink et al., 2016). The observed enactment of LO and SC is consistent with Wiliam's (2018) notion of "a wallpaper objective" (p. 56), where students do not meaningfully negotiate objectives and the use of LO and SC becomes a tokenistic practice. Further, analysis of formative teacher–student interactions identified a focus on student engagement and task completion, rather than informing next steps in learning and teaching and promoting student autonomy. This finding is consistent with practice enacted to the letter and not the spirit of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006) as interactions did not serve to transfer responsibility to the student (van de Pol et al., 2010).

The case study further identified a limited repertoire of proactive pedagogical practices. While differentiation strategies contributed to students' access to and engagement with learning, the case study demonstrated that these strategies (e.g., providing Harry with an option to go for a walk) were implemented to mitigate inaccessible pedagogical practices (e.g., requiring Harry to participate in an unstructured group activity). This finding is inconsistent with features of inclusion which prescribe teachers' strong repertoire of accessible classroom practices as the basis for all students, with adjustments required where necessary (CAST, 2019; UNGC4, 2016; Tomlinson, 2017).

Last, the case study revealed how support staff regularly provided support "on the spot", without purposeful joint planning with teachers taking place. This finding is similar to that reported in support staff literature, highlighting lack of communication and clarity regarding the expected role of support staff in the classroom (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Butt & Lowe, 2012).

Research Sub-Question 3: How do Different Elements Within Summative Assessment Design and Implementation of Summative Assessment Impact on Engagement of Students With Disability?

Interview data and analysis of assessment artefacts (e.g., criteria sheets, assessment task sheets) identified elements in summative assessment design across both samples that impacted on students' engagement with the summative assessment task. The case study highlighted features of inaccessible assessment practice, such as the use of complex vocabulary as used in criteria sheets and assessment task instructions. While disciplinary appropriate, such words made considerable demands on students as readers, even before they began the assessment, and required explicit teaching so students would understand their meaning. This finding is consistent with studies highlighting the disabling function of assessment tasks (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999; Graham et al., 2018; Rose et al., 2018), as the

discussion showed that these assessment materials presented students with barriers to their success.

The case study further brought to light the retrospective use of assessment adjustments, such as additional time provided on the mathematics test, which served to mitigate barriers inherent in assessment tasks. In addition to such provisions, out-of-class parental support, with the English summative assessment task, was required to enable students' engagement with the task. These required adjustments to inaccessible tasks are inconsistent with the requirement of accessibility as a feature of quality, inclusive assessment (ACACA, 1995, 2012; QCAA, 2018b; Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007; Wyatt-Smith, 2008) and indicate the need for proactive assessment design processes that are based on a shared understanding of inclusive assessment practice. Such shared understanding could develop within a community of inclusive assessment practice (CoIAP), as discussed next.

Overall Findings: A Fractured Community of Inclusive Assessment Practice

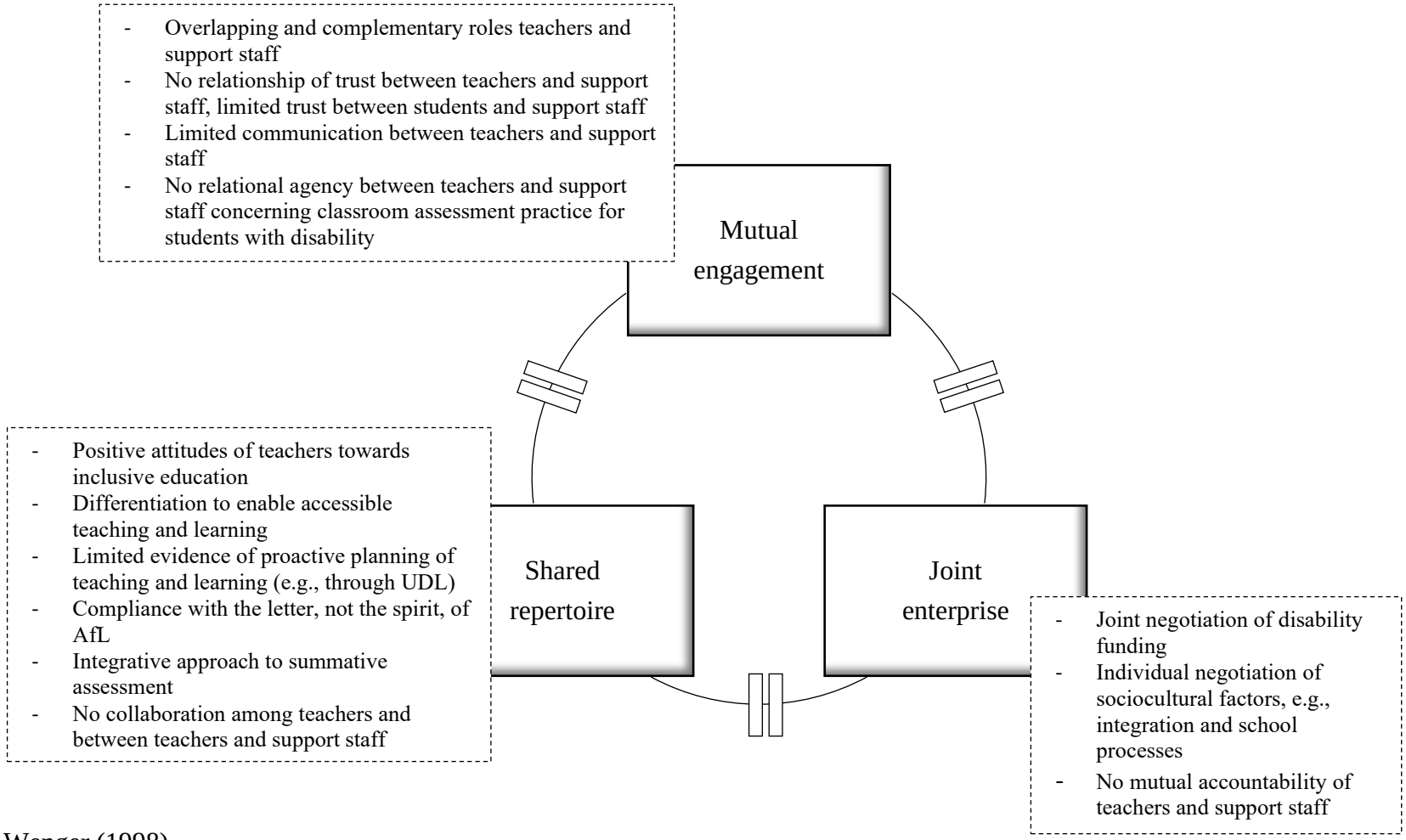
Teachers' negotiation of the elements in school organisation, pedagogy and summative assessment task design and implementation were analysed through the concept of a community of practice (Wenger, 1998). This enabled investigation of the interactions between members of a community and how they communicated and collaborated to support learning. As Mulholland and O'Connor (2016) suggested, "successful teacher collaboration is rooted in the concept of communities of practice" (p. 1072). The study's literature review (see Chapter 2) identified that the establishment of a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) is an enabler to facilitate inclusive education (Ainscow, 2005; Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016).

Focusing on three dimensions of a community of practice, mutual engagement, a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire, a community of inclusive assessment practice (CoIAP) was conceptualised. However, the study found that a CoIAP was not established. Establishing a community of practice in inclusive assessment can be obstructed when non-

inclusive practices are engrained within the community, despite intentions of inclusive practices within the community (Ainscow, 2005). Therefore, the specific focus is on how classroom teachers are enabled or hindered by the sociocultural contexts, including legislative and historical contexts and the school context, to enact inclusive classroom assessment practice that enables students with disability to demonstrate their learning. Figure 8.1 shows how inclusive assessment practice as evident in the study's findings was fractured, and how the three dimensions could not come together to form the CoIAP.

Figure 8.1

Research Findings: Fractured Community of Inclusive Assessment Practice



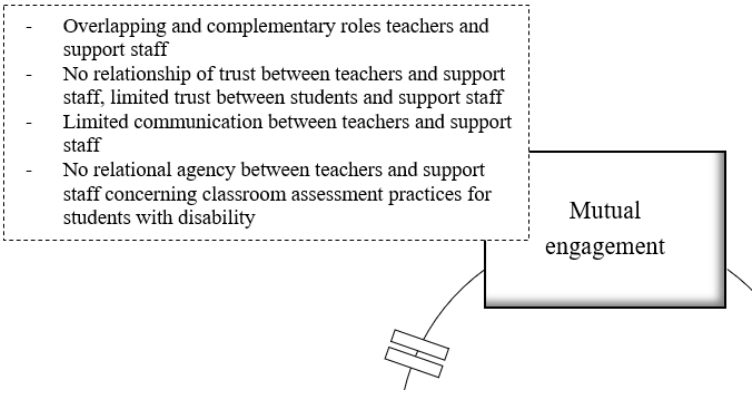
Note. Adapted from Wenger (1998).

Mutual Engagement

The case study showed that mutual engagement between classroom teachers and SEP staff did not take place in a way that enabled a CoIAP to form (Figure 8.2). Applying the sub-elements from a community of practice (Wenger, 1998) to the case study, mutual engagement within the conceptualised CoIAP included overlapping and complementary roles of teachers and support staff, but disrupted communication between teachers and SEP staff hindered the establishment of a relationship of trust and relational agency.

Figure 8.2

Fractured Elements of Mutual Engagement in the CoIAP



Note. Extracted from Figure 8.1.

While teachers and SEP staff are intended to have overlapping roles (i.e., they shared responsibility for the same students in the classroom) and complementary roles (i.e., SEP staff's disability-specific expertise could complement the teacher's subject-specific expertise), their lack of communication and collaboration inhibited the establishment of a relationship of trust. As a result, teachers and SEP staff did not develop relational agency required to form a CoIAP. While the case study evidenced relational agency between Ms Daisy and a SEP teacher aide, this concerned predominantly Ms Daisy's adoption of the

teacher aide's classroom behaviour strategies and did not extend to classroom assessment practice. Similarly, the case study identified limited trust of the focus students in the capability of support staff to progress their learning, leading to a rejection of their support. Thus, joint negotiation of the meaning of actions (e.g., how to support individual students with disability in the classroom) between teachers, support staff and students was not evident in the data and SEP staff remained peripheral to decisions about assessment.

Development of relational agency between teachers and SEP staff was impacted by the organisational structure of the SEP team, and the "revolving door" of SEP staff engagement in classrooms. Communication has been identified as a "central component in ensuring cohesiveness of the support provision offered in a school" (Colbert, 2011, p. 138). This study has identified that the organisational structures inherent within schools can weaken communication between teachers and SEP staff. The teachers did not have an established point of contact from which to discuss issues and seek advice, as the responsibility for the provision of support for a student with disability was not attributable to a single person within the SEP, and the schedule of deployment of SEP staff to classrooms was not a shared artefact between teachers and SEP staff.

The lack of relational agency created separate entities at the school, despite the close proximity of teachers and SEP staff in the classroom. Given the evidence of lack of collaboration across these entities in planning classroom support provisions and in designing summative assessment tasks, the different knowledges and skills were not brought together as intended to ensure appropriate assessment processes for students with disability (Wilkes et al., 2015). This lack of collaboration between teachers and support staff is commonly reported in the literature (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Bourke, 2008; Howard & Ford, 2007; Vlachou et al., 2015) and indicates a discrepancy between school expectations and enacted practice. This was evident in, for example, exclusion of SEP staff from assessment

task design, leading to accessibility issues in assessment for students with disability. Similarly, Ms Naomi's intended deployment of support staff (i.e., they were not to provide support to Seth and Charlie) contradicted the enacted deployment as observed in classroom practice (i.e., support staff were the predominant provider of support for the focus students).

The disjuncture between intended and enacted approach of classroom assessment practice for students with disability in the classroom led to a narrative of hope instead of "purposeful actions" (Edwards & Kinti, 2009, p. 128) of members who are mutually accountable for the results of their actions (Wenger, 1998). The HoSE expressed her hope that support staff deployment was effective and, as noted in Chapter 7, Ms Daisy described how she would "hope for the best" (Interview, 28 June 2018, line 895) when reflecting on the effectiveness of her approach to teaching all students in her classroom. However, mutual engagement in a CoIAP cannot be built on hope; it involves purposeful engagement as part of overlapping and complementary roles, trust, joint negotiation of enabling students with disability access to assessment, and relational agency.

This study has identified that a purposeful response to the complex task of supporting students with disability to engage with classroom assessment, as intended by the HoSE and prescribed through inclusion policies (Qld DoE, 2018b; UNGC4, 2016), becomes fractured when organisational structures restrict support staff working as a resource for classroom teachers. Webster et al.'s (2011) "wider pedagogical role model" (p. 3) emphasises the "factors that govern [teacher aides'] employment and deployment" (p. 12) to co-determine the effect of their support on students' academic progress. The case study identified that teachers' ability to use support staff as a resource was also largely determined by elements outside the classroom. This inhibited use of support staff impacts on the opportunity of students with disability, for whom support provisions were required, to access, enhance and

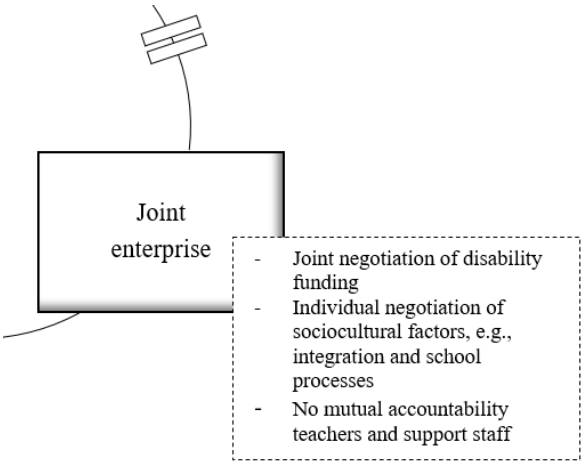
demonstrate their learning on the same basis as their peers, for whom support provisions were not or to a lesser degree required.

A Joint Enterprise

The study highlighted that, as a result of lack of mutual engagement between teachers and SEP staff, teachers' classroom assessment practice for students with disability was the result of their individual negotiated response to sociocultural contexts, including school and historical contexts, rather than a joint negotiated response across the school and with support staff. The following discussion identifies that negotiation of the three interconnected sociocultural factors of disability funding, the historical approach of integration, and school-based assessment procedures and organisational processes, did not support the pursuit of a joint enterprise required to form a CoIAP (Figure 8.3).

Figure 8.3

Fractured Elements of a Joint Enterprise in the CoIAP



Note. Extracted from Figure 8.1.

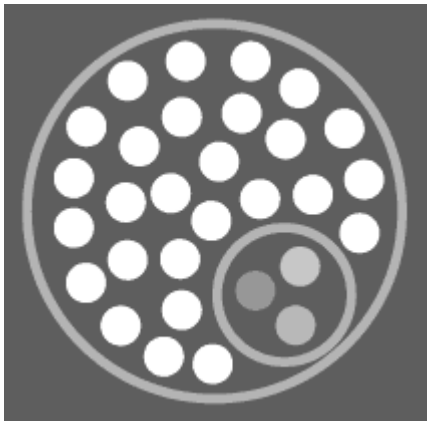
Organisation of support at the school was shaped by the sociocultural factor of Queensland's categorical resource allocation approach to disability funding, resembling a

medical model of disability; funding was determined based on medical diagnoses and categories of disability, without consideration of attitudinal and environmental barriers that impact on student learning (de Bruin et al., 2020). This medical determination of funding reflects an historical approach of integration to mitigate students' impairments (Graham, 2020). Summerfield's utilisation of disability funding to establish SEP and allocate its support staff—special education teachers and TAs—solely to students with medically verified disabilities, further evidenced this integrative approach, and created social structures at Summerfield that teachers had to negotiate as part of their everyday teaching practices (Daniels, 2013).

The integrative approach was evident in the classroom through the observation that SEP staff divided their attention between different students belonging to the SEP, therefore creating what Webster and Blatchford (2013) coined a "subtle expression of separation" (p. 475). This resembles a form of integration (see Figure 8.4), where students (dark dots) are placed in a mainstream educational setting (large circle) and are expected to adapt to its rules and expectations, thereby still experiencing barriers (small circle) and not fully being able to access the learning opportunities in the classroom (Hehir et al., 2016; UNGC4, 2016).

Figure 8.4

Visual Representation of Integration

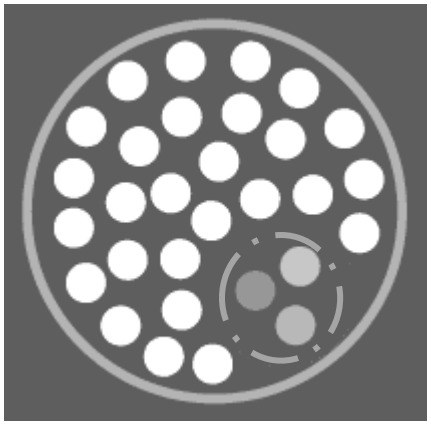


Note. Figure reproduced from Hehir et al. (2016, p. 3).

Hehir et al.'s (2016, p. 3) visual representation of integration depicted in Figure 8.4 has been refined to represent the observed movements of the SEP staff (dashed circle; Figure 8.5) around the desks of students with disability who came under the purview of the SEP (dark dots; Figure 8.5). This formed a similar barrier to the one represented in Figure 8.4. While the students in Figure 8.5 were placed in the mainstream classroom, the intensive support by SEP staff still marked them as "different".

Figure 8.5

Visual Representation of SEP Staff Assisting Students With Disability in Class



Note. Figure adapted from Hehir et al. (2016, p. 3).

Summerfield's use of disability funding and SEP staff's support provision in the classroom to a particular group of students with disability created an organisational structure that impeded teachers' negotiation to establish a CoIAP. Teachers had to negotiate inclusive values—where students engage with education on the basis of equal opportunity (UNCRPD, 2008)—in a context where students with (verified) disability were marked as different (Figure 8.5) by the school's organisation of support. As mutual engagement between teachers and SEP staff regarding classroom assessment practice was not evident in the study, teachers negotiated these sociocultural factors, including historical and school factors, individually; limited communication with SEP staff regarding deployment took place, and teachers and SEP staff remained separate entities. As a result, mutual accountability, characteristic of a joint enterprise (Wenger, 1998) within a CoIAP, was not evident between teachers and SEP staff.

While inclusion-oriented policies have been in place for a considerable time (e.g., DDA. 1992; DSE, 2005; Salamanca Statement, 1994; UNCRPD, 2008) and expectations were that inclusive values were upheld at the school, sociocultural and historical

factors related to integration hindered teachers' negotiation of inclusive policies. This illustrates that inclusive assessment practice cannot be established when its principles do not match the existing toolkit (Wertsch et al., 1995) of values and structures embedded in the school context to which teachers belong. This finding is consistent with Ainscow's (2005) observation that non-inclusive practices at a school can hinder the establishment of inclusive education.

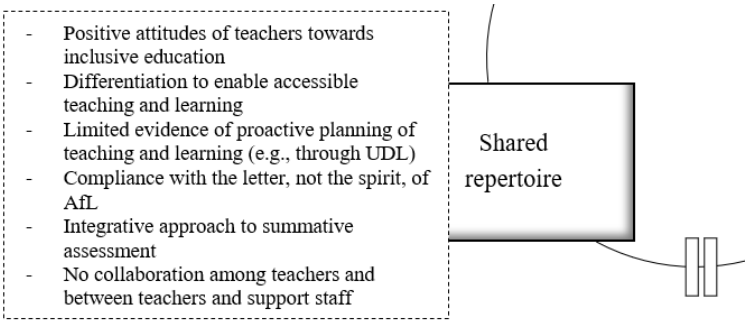
A Shared Repertoire

The case study identified that the routines, and ways of doing, talking and being (Wenger, 1998) of teachers, SEP staff and other members of the school, as observed in the study, reflected features of integration and not inclusive classroom assessment practice. Despite teachers' intended inclusive approaches to teaching and assessment, the study identified lack of mutual engagement, relational agency and lack of "joint pursuit of an enterprise" (Wenger, 1998, p. 82) between teachers and support staff. Consequently, the above discussion identified that the collaboration needed to establish inclusive classroom assessment practice, as identified in the literature review (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007), was not part of the shared repertoire of teachers observed in the study.

The repertoire of teachers in the conceptualised CoIAP included positive attitudes towards inclusion, which can enable inclusive education (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002), and differentiation strategies for students with disability. However, a strong repertoire of teachers engaging with inclusive assessment should further include proactive planning of teaching and learning (e.g., UDL; Rose et al., 2018) and compliance with quality assessment practice (ACACA, 1995, 2012; QCAA, 2018b; Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007; Wyatt-Smith, 2008). Data from this case study suggest these features were occurring in limited ways (Figure 8.6), but that barriers remained for students with disability to optimally demonstrate their learning through classroom assessment.

Figure 8.6

Fractured Elements of a Shared Repertoire in the CoIAP



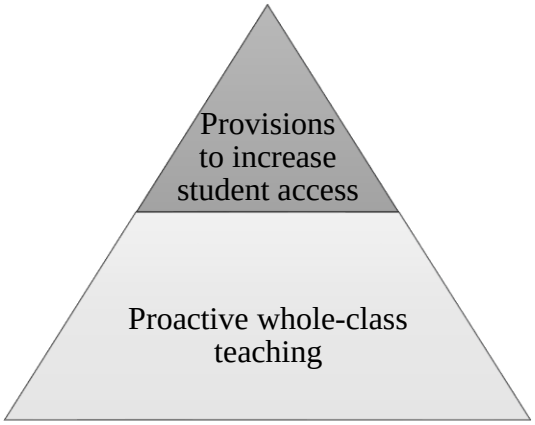
Note. Extracted from Figure 8.1.

Accessible Teaching Practices

Proactive, accessible teaching practices for students with disability were not found to be common practice in everyday teaching for the teachers in the case study. In a CoIAP, inclusive education policy and instruments are effectively negotiated to provide proactive teaching suitable to a wide range of students, with layers of differentiation, including adjustments, added (Cologon & Lassig, 2020; Figure 8.7). Proactive teaching is recommended, for example, through implementation of UDL (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017; UNGC4, 2016) or through a base level of teaching that includes differentiated teaching practices, as prescribed through the APST and the NCCD (AITSL, 2017; ESA, 2020).

Figure 8.7

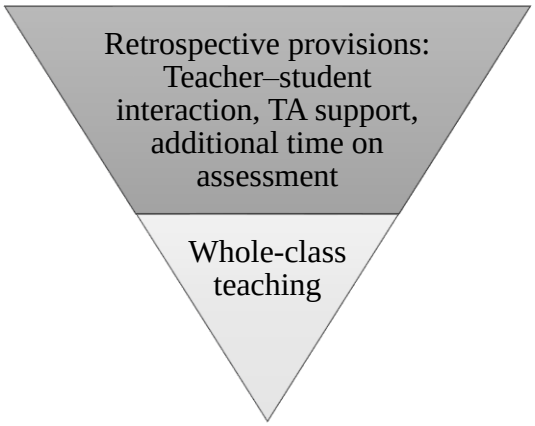
Proactive Whole-Class Teaching With Layers of Provisions for Students With Disability



While differentiation strategies were evident in teachers' repertoire, they were responsive to planned instructions, activities and assessment processes that were not fully accessible to the focus students. This required a considerable amount of retrospective adjustments for the focus students (Figure 8.8), such as extensive in-class support or a scribe. Despite the identified barriers, no or very limited adjustments were made to classroom instruction, lesson materials and assessment tasks.

Figure 8.8

Whole-Class Teaching With Considerable Retrospective Provisions for Students With Disability



The case study identified a disjuncture between teachers' evident student-specific knowledge, aligning with expected teacher standards (Standard 1; AITSL, 2017), and how they used this knowledge to plan effective teaching strategies (Standard 3; AITSL, 2017) for these students. The responsive, retrospective nature of differentiation as observed in the study concurs with other studies and reviews pointing to issues in accessibility for students with disability in mainstream classrooms (ACTGET, 2013; Deloitte Access Economics, 2017; Graham et al., 2018; NSW Ombudsman, 2013; VEOHRC, 2012). This responsive differentiation practice risks marking students for whom whole-class provisions are not suitable, as "different". The identified gaps in accessible teaching practices impacted on students' ability to access the resources (e.g., instructions, worksheets) needed to participate in teaching and demonstrate learning on the same basis as their peers as prescribed through the DSE (2005).

Inclusive Assessment for Formative Purposes

The case study demonstrated that classroom teachers need to balance quality assessment practice that promotes student autonomy with the requirement to "differentiate teaching to meet the specific learning needs of students across the full range of abilities" (Standard 1.5; AITSL, 2017, n.p.). The result of this balancing act was that inclusive assessment practice for formative purposes was not engrained in the teachers' shared repertoire. In a CoIAP, quality classroom assessment practice is designed and implemented with students with disability in mind (Graham et al., 2018; Ravet, 2013; Rose et al., 2018; Tay & Kee, 2019), to enable them to enhance, and to optimally demonstrate their learning. Formative teacher–student interactions in the study focused on task completion and did not serve to transfer responsibility of learning to the students. Barriers to promoting student autonomy were observed when sharing objectives and criteria, as expected through the school's pedagogical framework, posed linguistic and procedural barriers to students' ability

to mediate these artefacts to self-assess their learning. This reflects that teachers' repertoire included compliance with the letter (i.e., sharing objectives and criteria), not the spirit (i.e. promoting self-assessment skills and student autonomy), of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006). The case study identified that practices that adhere to the letter of quality assessment and the pedagogical framework do not enable students with disability access to teaching and learning on the same basis as their peers, indicating a disjuncture between expected and enacted practice. Decisions on how to elicit evidence of student learning should take into consideration students' distinct requirements in relation to learning and assessment, and should be made in consultation with parents and students (as per DSE [2005] requirements) and other professionals. These decisions should include identifying strategies to progress students' self-regulatory behaviours commensurate with their level of knowledge and skills within a discipline (Ravet, 2013; Tay & Kee, 2019).

Inclusive Assessment for Summative Purposes

The case study identified that inclusive assessment for summative purposes was not part of the teachers' and support staff's shared repertoire, resulting in tasks that posed barriers to the focus students. The design and implementation of summative assessment tasks was a negotiated practice between the teacher and school procedures, not between teachers and support staff or teachers and students. In a CoIAP, educators at a school collaborate to ensure accessibility of all assessment practices (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007) so assessment processes do not disable students' demonstration of learning (Rose et al., 2018). The case study highlighted that school procedures obstructed the design of accessible summative assessment tasks, for example through processes (i.e., assigning assessment design to a specific group of English teachers) that saw Ms Naomi excluded from assessment task design, so she could not judge its accessibility. Further, while Ms Daisy recognised that the complexity of cognitive verbs could present barriers to students with disability, compromises

to accessibility were made as she negotiated this school procedure, and attempted to explicitly teach students the meaning of these verbs before including them in the task. This finding is consistent with Xu and Brown's (2016) notion of "assessment literacy in practice" (p. 150) which recognises that teachers' negotiations with, for example, assessment knowledge and sociocultural and school procedures influence their enacted assessment practice.

Integrative approaches to summative assessment tasks prevailed in the case study, despite the official policy of inclusion and the intended practices of schools and teachers. The need to rely on retrospective assessment adjustments—such as additional time or receiving out-of-class parental support for assignments—instead of being presented with an accessible assessment task, impacts on students' demonstration of learning. The onus on students with disability to mitigate barriers in the summative task, such as complex vocabulary or unclear procedures, means that they could not demonstrate their learning on the same basis as their peers. For example, Harry received an additional writing task as punishment for handing in his assessment task late, when Mr Harris did not recognise his entitlement to additional time. Seth and Charlie's strong reliance on parental support brings forth the question of how students with disability can demonstrate their learning if their parents are not able or capable of providing such support. Within a sociocultural lens, such demonstration of learning is only evidence of students' interaction with the summative assessment within a specific environment (Rose et al., 2018). As a result, the interpretation of such evidence may not be appropriate to judge next steps in teaching and learning (Baird et al., 2017; Bennett, 2011) which could hinder students' academic progress. While the formative use of assessment for summative purposes was not evident in the case study, the identified barriers in summative tasks mean that teachers would not have been able to discern what students know and can do independently.

This study confirms that assessment tasks can present barriers to students with disability (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999; Graham et al., 2018; Rose et al., 2018) and highlights the tension between school practice and the intended inclusive assessment practice that teachers have to navigate as part of their everyday teaching and assessment practice. The study identified that students with disability are still being required to demonstrate their learning through assessment tasks that are not fully accessible to them despite the official policy of inclusion and the intended practices of schools and teachers.

Contributions of the Study to the Field

Five key conceptual contributions to the fields of assessment and inclusive education are identified. First, the conceptualisation of "community of inclusive assessment practice" (CoIAP) is introduced in the study as an extension of Wenger's (1998) community of practice. Constructed from elements of literature on assessment, inclusive education and inclusive assessment, a CoIAP seeks to capture how teachers, support staff and students are mutually engaged in inclusive assessment practice. As part of that engagement, they negotiate a joint response to sociocultural factors, including historical and school factors, related to inclusion and assessment, while continuously negotiating routines, and ways of doing, talking and being as part of the shared repertoire of the community. The concept of CoIAP provides a sociocultural lens through which assessment practice for students with disability can be viewed and evaluated for their inclusivity. It provides a framework within which stakeholders and researchers in inclusive education can identify how elements related to a CoIAP (Figure 8.1) come together in a particular context to enable inclusive assessment practice.

The study demonstrated that inclusive assessment practice needs to be negotiated within the sociocultural context but cannot, yet, be established when its principles of inclusion do not match the cultural toolkit (i.e., historical approaches of integration) of the community within which teachers participate (Wertsch et al., 1995). The study took place

during a time when new inclusive education policies (Qld DoE, 2018b)—giving shape to Australia's commitments as outlined under UNGC4 (2016)—built on existing inclusion-oriented policies (e.g., DDA. 1992; DSE, 2005; Salamanca Statement, 1994; UNCRPD, 2008). Thus, teachers' classroom assessment practice for students with disability took place in a context framed by changing policies and existing organisational structures. Policies and policy instruments currently in place promote inclusive practices, but school leaders are responsible in guiding schools towards implementation of these policies. The study follows Harris et al.'s (2017) notion that school leaders have a "moral responsibility to promote equity" (p. 157), and their acknowledgement that implementing policies requires time and an opportunity for flexibility to ensure centralised policies can be adapted to a school's local context. Summerfield's location on the road to inclusion has implications for how they can establish inclusive education, and within what timeframe. A CoIAP cannot form if many elements, as identified in Figure 8.1, are missing, or if the sociocultural context does not enable teachers to change their practice to reflect policy.

The second conceptual contribution is identification that additional elements need to be embedded within both the fields of quality assessment and of inclusive education. Chapter 2 identified a gap in research where studies on assessment and inclusion overlap. The study brought these fields together and confirmed that quality assessment practice cannot be implemented without consideration of the requirements and characteristics of students with disability. Similarly, inclusive education practice needs to consider features of quality assessment, to ensure promotion of student autonomy. The study highlighted the difficult task for teachers to implement quality assessment practice that enables all students to demonstrate their learning. Without purposeful planning of assessment strategies that are accessible to all students, such as providing different options of representation (e.g., providing visual as well as written instructions) or response, assessment practice may not progress the learning of

students with disability, and may not enable students with disability to optimally demonstrate their learning.

Third, the study extends the conceptual notion that assessment is social practice (Broadfoot, 2006; Elwood, 2006) by highlighting that inclusive assessment is also a social practice. The study has presented a body of data and analysis that reveals new insights into the talk, texts, and interactions that teachers and students rely on as they enact inclusive education in classroom contexts. Teachers' assessment practice at Summerfield did not occur in a vacuum, but represented social practice where teachers, students with disability and support staff negotiated sociocultural factors, including historical and school factors. As a result, the case study identified a disjuncture between official and intended expectations of inclusive assessment practice and enactment of assessment practice aligning with integration. The school or classroom teachers did not deliberately enact assessment practice that was inaccessible to students with disability, nor did they necessarily aim for a fragmented, integrative approach to inclusive education. Rather, teachers intended to provide quality assessment practice for students with disability, and Summerfield was committed to enable those students access to teaching, learning and classroom assessment on the same basis as their peers. Further, the school's adopted pedagogical framework (Dean et al., 2012) endorsed differentiation and was intended to be applied by teachers to create an environment in which all students can learn, develop understanding and extend and apply knowledge. However, teachers had to navigate quality assessment practice in a context influenced by historical approaches of integration and school-based barriers. Further, schools received funding that was tied to a medical model of disability reliant on diagnoses and had to rely on a team of part time support staff to establish a cohesive approach to support students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. The study therefore demonstrated that inclusive assessment is not a fixed construct, but also describes "the relationship between the learner,

the teacher and the assessment task in the social, historical and cultural context in which it is carried out" (Elwood, 2006, p. 230). Enactment of inclusive assessment will appear different in response to the varied sociocultural contexts involving students with disability and their individual requirements.

Fourth, the study demonstrated that lack of collaboration between teachers and support staff, as noted in the literature (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Bourke, 2008; Howard & Ford, 2007; Vlachou et al., 2015), also extends to collaborative practices in classroom assessment practice, thereby contributing to existing research on the deployment of support staff. If classroom teachers have not developed relational agency with support staff during everyday classroom practice, then collaboration during design and implementation of assessment practice is unlikely to occur. Collaboration in inclusive assessment practice is important to bring together the expertise of different professionals to ensure design and implementation of accessible assessment practice (Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007). The study showed that support staff's disability-specific expertise was not used as a resource by teachers, impacting on the accessibility of summative assessment tasks.

Fifth, this study brings together the fields of assessment and disability and contributes that inclusive assessment processes should be aimed at enabling students with disability to optimally demonstrate their learning. Although the term "optimal" demonstration of learning is not formalised through the DDA (1992) or DSE (2005), the Melbourne Declaration's (MCEETYA, 2008) goal of promoting equity and excellence in Australian schooling implies that all students should be able to access and optimally demonstrate learning. In addition, Queensland's aim to "improve the A–E performance for students with disability" (Qld DoE, 2017, p. 2) also indicates that optimal demonstration of learning is pursued. The pursuit of optimal demonstration of learning provides the warrant for schools to focus on academic achievement, but should also lead schools to take into account the

sociocultural context within which students are asked to demonstrate their learning (Rose et al., 2018). The study's analysis of ground-level data confirms that classroom assessment processes disable students' learning when formative assessment processes and summative assessment tasks present barriers to students with disability (Graham et al., 2018; Ravet, 2013; Rose et al., 2018; Tay & Kee, 2019). The study identifies the ongoing, implicit expectation that students with disability should demonstrate their learning through classroom assessment processes that are not fully accessible to all students. This identifies the need for removal of barriers in summative assessment design, including the format, procedures and language used to communicate the task. Further, it requires consideration of individual processes for accessibility to formative and summative assessment processes (e.g. use of technology), beyond generic responses such as more time provided to complete summative tasks, or a scribe to reduce the need for writing. Therefore, accepting the notion of optimal demonstration of learning identifies the need for school systems to monitor progress of students with disability in relation to the range of opportunities afforded to them to demonstrate this progress.

Limitations

The data collection for this case study included survey data from two classroom teachers, three focus students with disability and their parents, as well as interview data with the classroom teachers, the preservice teacher, focus students and the HoSE. Further, video-recorded classroom observations were used to examine authentic interactions, capturing teacher talk and enabling analysis of the deployment of support staff and of formative teacher–student interactions. An extended research design including the collection of more detailed data could provide further evidence of how teachers enable students with disability to engage with classroom assessment. Such data would capture student talk so every interaction between the classroom teacher and all students, including the focus students, could

be fully transcribed and analysed. Further, capturing teacher–student interactions during an entire unit of work preceding a summative assessment task would enable analysis of linear alignment between formative interactions and summative practices. The study did not provide this opportunity, as a preservice teacher taught students during the relevant unit of work in English, and the timing of data collection meant that only two mathematics lessons could be observed prior to the summative test taking place. Further, capturing support staff interactions with students would enable in-depth analysis of how support staff's interactions enable students' engagement with assessment.

This case study included the voices of classroom teachers, focus students and the HoSE, who were all interviewed for the study. Including their voice—through talk segments—when reporting on the findings of this study reflected participants' own construction of reality at the time of data collection. The study could be extended by also including the voice of SEP staff, as their voice was represented by the HoSE in the current study design. Further, the voice of parents of students with disability could be embedded in an extended study design, to recognise more strongly their role in supporting their children's learning as well as schools' requirement to consult with and partner with parents to establish inclusive education (DSE, 2005; UNGC4, 2016). Last, the voice of students without disability could be captured to examine their perception of differentiation and adjustments in inclusive classrooms.

Recommendations for Practice

The study identified a discrepancy between intended and enacted practice. While teachers intended for students with disability to engage with teaching, learning and assessment on the same basis as their peers, the study identified barriers in enacting such accessible classroom assessment practice. The study highlighted teachers' assessment literacy in practice (Xu & Brown, 2016), as part of which they negotiate, for example, assessment

skills and knowledge and school practices. However, teachers' assessment literacy should also include skills and knowledge related to inclusive assessment practice, that is, assessment practice should be seen through a lens of inclusion. Warford's (2011) "zone of proximal *teacher* development" (p. 253, emphasis in original) recognises how teachers mediate expert knowledge (e.g., evidence-based teaching practices) and experiences to develop their practice. Teachers' potential capacity to implement inclusive assessment practice therefore relies on the development and distribution of inclusive assessment expertise within schools, so teachers can mediate this knowledge to become capable at implementing inclusive assessment practice. As described in Chapter 2, school-based assessment processes should provide a context that enables teachers to collaboratively contribute to inclusive assessment practice, and schools should continuously improve processes to increase accessibility (Rose et al., 2018; Thurlow et al., 2016; Watkins, 2007). Awareness of the need for accessible assessment processes for students with disability needs to be at the forefront of teachers' everyday practice to reduce the need for retrospective adjustments for students with disability. Therefore, teachers need to be competent in designing accessible assessment that is suited to measure curriculum content and suited to enable a diverse group of students to demonstrate their learning. Such assessments further enable teachers to use assessment evidence formatively to improve teaching and learning, as outlined in Australia's teaching standards (Standard 5.4; AITSL, 2017) and identified as an area in which preservice teachers are underprepared (Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group, 2014; Wyatt-Smith et al., 2017).

To enable accessible classroom assessment practice, the study has identified the opportunities that proactive planning of teaching and assessment afford to enable students with disability to demonstrate their learning on the same basis as their peers. The HoSE's call for classroom teachers to apply principles of UDL to their teaching and assessment practice

may be one way forward. However, it must be recognised throughout schools that any new teaching or assessment strategy requires purposeful planning and time to let implementation of such strategies come to fruition. The identification of UDL as a contributor to accessible education practice (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017; Meyer et al., 2014; Mislevy et al., 2013; Rose et al., 2018; UNGC4, 2016) is compatible with the requirement for teachers to "meet the specific learning needs of students across the full range of abilities" (APST Standard 1.5; AITSL, 2017, n.p.) and to provide a base level of quality differentiated teaching practices, as required by the NCCD (ESA, 2020). Moreover, the use of technology to provide students with, for example, multiple modes of engagement and representation (principles of UDL), aligns with teachers' requirement to "select and use [Information and Communication Technology] with effective teaching strategies to expand learning opportunities and content knowledge for all students" (APST Standard 2.6; AITSL, 2017, n.p.). If teaching and assessment practices are purposefully planned with all students in mind, then teachers can reduce the need for the implementation of retrospective adjustments. Following Meijer's (2003) notion that what is good for students with disability, is good for all students, universal practices of teaching and assessment can enable all students, regardless of medical diagnosis, to optimally demonstrate their learning.

The study further identified the barriers to accessible assessment that resulted from unstructured communication and collaboration between classroom teachers and support staff. The observed onus on support staff to provide "on the spot" support in classrooms and the observed lack of purposeful use of support staff as a resource by classroom teachers warrant a stronger focus in teacher education as well as in schools on the use of support staff. As Blatchford et al. (2012) illustrated, the deployment of support staff can have negative effects on the academic achievement of students with disability. Various studies have highlighted the tension between the presence of support staff in classrooms and teachers'

management of such staff (Basford et al., 2017; Blatchford et al., 2012; Bourke, 2008; Howard & Ford, 2007; Vlachou et al., 2015). Given the common presence of, and therefore reliance on, support staff in Australian classrooms, the deployment of support staff should be interwoven through all units in teacher education degrees. For example, a unit that solely focuses on quality assessment practice should also consider the role support staff can play in designing and/or implementing accessible assessment practice, recognising Wilkes et al.'s (2015) notion that a collaborative approach to assessment can bring together different knowledges and skills. Similarly, schools should also promote effective communication and collaboration between teachers and support staff, and facilitate joint planning time. This ensures that teachers and support staff share a common understanding of the objectives and success criteria of a unit of work, and can renegotiate barriers in teaching and assessment that may impact on how students with disability can demonstrate their learning.

Recommendations for Research

In recent years there has been a focus on inclusive education and quality assessment practice throughout policy and research. The study brought together inclusive education and assessment, two concepts which have been reported in the literature as acting as separate entities, or "silos" (Wyatt-Smith & Elkins, 2011, p. 1). While this case study provided in-depth data on classroom assessment practice for students with disability, a concerted effort is needed to provide large-scale data on accessible classroom assessment practice in Australia. Such data could address questions related to how teachers enact inclusive classroom assessment practice across different classrooms, socio-economic areas, school systems, and states and territories, and related to how teachers worldwide negotiate inclusive education values, policies and classroom assessment practice to enable students with disability to demonstrate their learning. They could further incorporate the voice of students with and without disability, to address issues of fairness in classroom assessment. The

ratification of the UNCRPD (2008) by 181 countries including Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the United Kingdom, the European Union and large parts of the continents of South America and Africa means that many more countries, beyond Australia, have committed to providing students with disability with "equal opportunity" (art. 24, para. 1) to demonstrate their learning. Large-scale, international in-depth research is necessary to enable sharing of best practice and identify common barriers and enablers in establishing inclusive assessment systems.

The study was situated in a context where a new policy on inclusive education had recently been introduced, following many reports highlighting lack of inclusive practices in Australian schools. While the study's finding that existing structures and implicit integration-related values can form a barrier to inclusive practices has been identified previously in research (Ainscow, 2005; Watkins, 2007), the increasing call for inclusion, as evidenced by recent Australian government reports and Australia's ongoing Disability Royal Commission, warrants a stronger research focus on how existing school systems can transition into inclusive settings.

The study further identified the deployment of support staff at the school as an element impacting on how teachers enabled students with disability to engage with classroom assessment practice. The ubiquitous presence of support staff in Australian classrooms hosts the potential for quality support for all students, including students with disability. While some Australian studies on the use of support staff exist (Bourke, 2009; Butt, 2016; Butt & Lowe, 2012; Carter et al., 2019; Fielding-Barnsley, 2005; Gibson et al., 2016; Howard & Ford, 2007), more ground-level research is needed into the deployment of support staff in Australia. Such research is warranted to examine how support staff are deployed in primary and secondary education classrooms and what takes place inside these classrooms. Despite the common practice of employing support staff in Australian schools, questions related to

preparedness of classroom teachers to use support staff as a resource in their classroom and how that affects the deployment of support staff have not been addressed. In addition, questions related to the impact of support staff on student learning in Australia require research attention. This study has provided a partial insight into the deployment of support staff in one Australian school, and argues for broadening research to capture the sociocultural context within which support staff are deployed.

Recommendations for Policy Makers

The study was situated at a secondary school that was framed by policy contexts related to inclusive education, teaching and assessment. The data showed that the policy intent for inclusive assessment practice is present (Qld DoE, 2018b), but enactment is complicated by existing institutional, school and class structures that were established under previous policies, as well as historical and recent contexts of segregation and integration. The study echoes Harris et al.'s (2017) call for policy makers to recognise that "the details of policy implementation are not amenable to central regulation. Rather, these have to be dealt with by those who are close to and, therefore, in a better position to understand local contexts" (p. 158). Implementation of such policies takes time, and this study highlighted some of the barriers impacting on implementation of policy.

However, a stronger focus in policy and procedures on inclusive assessment practice is necessary to ensure that all teachers and schools develop a common understanding of the disabling function of classroom assessment processes, following a social model of disability. Inclusive education in Queensland is situated in a context where disability funding remains based on medical diagnoses of disability (Qld DoE, 2020a) rather than on adjustments made for all students with disability (as part of the NCCD; ESA, 2019). This deflects the focus on inclusion required to honour the right of students with disability to an inclusive education (UNGC4, 2016). Further, the omission of the need for inclusive

assessment in Queensland's Inclusive Education Policy (Qld DoE, 2017) and in communicating Queensland's goal of raising A–E scores for students with disability, creates a policy context that implicitly, rather than explicitly, promotes inclusive assessment practice. Teachers cannot form a CoIAP if inclusive assessment features are not embedded in the policy context that they, and members of their school community, negotiate as part of their everyday practice.

Concluding Comments

Imagine you are a 12-year-old student in a classroom where you are expected to listen to instructions, learn new content and engage with lesson activities in order to prepare for a summative assessment task. Now imagine that you also have limited working memory and limited receptive language processing skills. The verbal instructions are accompanied by visual supports, and the teacher has provided all students with a checklist that sequences the instructions, using simple vocabulary or explanation of discipline-specific terms. You are expected to create a text to convince 12-year old students to donate pocket money to charity, and may choose to write a text in your notebook, type it on your device, record your text using an audio or video recorder, or develop a technology-based presentation. The teacher and support staff have planned how to divide their roles in the classroom based on each other's expertise, without singling out students with disability. They design and implement AfL practices with students with disability in mind, to promote learning of all students.

This can be the story of students in classrooms where classroom assessment activities have been proactively designed to enable all students access. The base level of teaching is characterised by multiple options for students to engage with and demonstrate their learning, and further differentiation and support can be provided where required. Such a classroom would align with features of inclusive education and quality assessment and

provide students with disability opportunity to access learning and assessment on the same basis as their peers without disability.

The study has brought together inclusive education and classroom assessment to identify processes that schools can enact to create, what this study has identified as, a CoIAP. Within this community, teachers, students and support staff are mutually engaged to negotiate a joint enterprise that enables optimal development and demonstration of learning for all students in an inclusive education context. The policy and school context framing such a community should inform inclusive assessment practice, to ensure that official, intended and enacted practice align. This alignment would provide essential guidance to schools to establish processes and procedures that do not pose barriers to students with disability. The establishment of such processes and procedures would provide students with disability opportunity to learn and optimally demonstrate learning without marking them as different to their peers.

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Appendix 1: Planning Booklet

Fairy Tale Perspective Swap

Planning Booklet

Part A (plan)

1. **Select a fairy tale and identify the antagonist**

The fairy tale I have chosen is _____.

The antagonist (evil character) is _____.

2. **Describe how the audience is positioned to see the main characters.**

Are they good or evil? Do we feel sorry for them, do we dislike them, do we love them?

Character 1 (good character):

_____

_____

_____

Character 2 (evil character):

_____

_____

_____

Character 3:

_____

_____

_____

Character 4:

_____

_____

_____

Character 5:

_____

_____

_____

3. **Decide how you can <u>change</u> the story to make the audience feel sorry for the evil character.**

The audience sees my character as evil because

_____

_____

_____

_____.

To show the <u>opposite</u>, I will need to make my audience feel that the character is

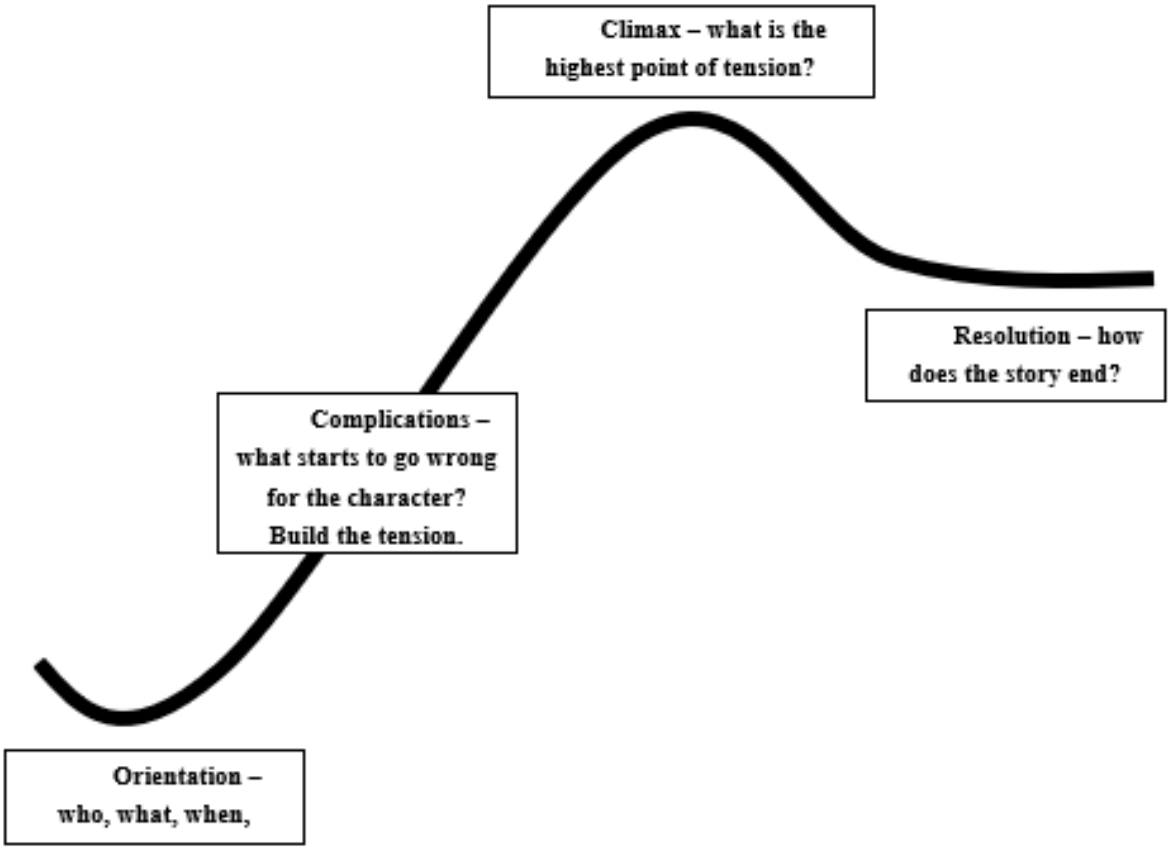
_____

_____

_____

_____.

Now you need to plan your new story. Use dot points to plan the specific sections of the narrative structure.



Complete the table by identifying the main negative actions your character took and 'flip' the motivations for that action to turn them from evil into good.

ACTION	NEGATIVE MOTIVATION (Original)	POSITIVE MOTIVATION (New)

4. Show your new story in the plot map below. Ensure you put in all the details of your story that are important **including the new motivations of your character**.

Orientation:	**Complications:**	**Climax:**	**Resolution:**

5. **<u>Select</u> a critical point in your new story that shows the alternative perspective of the evil character you have created. It needs to be a point that you could easily create your comic strip about.**

The section I have chosen to do is in the **orientation/complication/climax/resolution** (circle one).

This point includes these characters:

_____

_____

_____.

The action in this section shows:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____.

The most important things characters/actions/landscapes I will need to be able to show are:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Draft comic strip – *don't forget camera shots, angles, colour, bubbles (thought and speaking), narration boxes*

Appendix 2: Mathematics Assessment Task

Topic: Algebra and numbers

NAME: **Date:**_____

TEACHER: **Class:** _____

Exam Conditions:
60 Minutes Working
Complete working to be shown on all questions
Calculator permitted

By the end of Year 7, students solve problems involving the comparison, addition and subtraction of integers. They make the connections between whole numbers and index notation and the relationship between perfect squares and square roots. **They solve problems involving percentages and all four operations with fractions and decimals.** They compare the cost of items to make financial decisions. **Students represent numbers using variables. They connect the laws and properties for numbers to algebra. They interpret simple linear representations and model authentic information.** Students describe different views of three-dimensional objects. They represent transformations in the Cartesian plane. They solve simple numerical problems involving angles formed by a transversal crossing two lines. Students identify issues involving the collection of continuous data. They describe the relationship between the median and mean in data displays.
Students use fractions, decimals and percentages, and their equivalences. They express one quantity as a fraction or percentage of another. Students solve simple linear equations and evaluate algebraic expressions after numerical substitution. They assign ordered pairs to given points on the Cartesian plane. Students use formulas for the area and perimeter of rectangles and calculate volumes of rectangular prisms. Students classify triangles and quadrilaterals. They name the types of angles formed by a transversal crossing parallel line. Students determine the sample space for simple experiments with equally likely outcomes and assign probabilities to those outcomes. They calculate mean, mode, median and range for data sets. They construct stem-and-leaf plots and dot-plots.

Simple Familiar		Complex Familiar		Complex Unfamiliar	
60%		20%		20%	
$\overline{25}$		$\overline{15}$		$\overline{9}$	

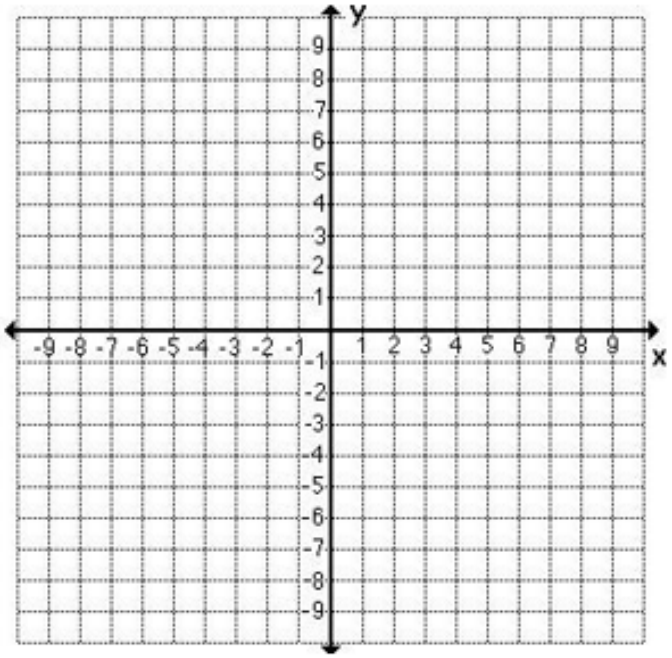
TOTAL	Result
$\overline{100}$	

			A+ ≥92	A ≥87	A- ≥80	B+ ≥72	B ≥68	B- ≥56	C+ ≥48	C ≥40	C- ≥34	D+ ≥28	D ≥22	D- ≥16	E+ ≥10	E ≥5	E- ≥0
Understanding and skills dimensions	Understanding & Fluency	Conceptual understanding	Connection and description of mathematical concepts in complex unfamiliar situations Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Connection and description of mathematical concepts and relationships in complex familiar situations Q5, Q7, Q11a,b, Q13a, Q15, Q16			Recognition and identification of mathematical concepts and relationships in simple familiar situations Q1,Q2, Q3, Q4, Q6, Q8, Q10, Q12, Q14, Q15			Some identification of simple mathematical concepts			Statements about obvious mathematical concepts		
		Procedural fluency	Recall and use of facts, definitions, technologies and procedures to find solutions complex unfamiliar situations Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Recall and use of facts, definitions, technologies and procedures to find solutions in complex familiar situations Q5, Q7, Q11a,b, Q13a, Q15, Q16			Recall and use of facts, definitions, technologies and procedures to find solutions in simple familiar situations Q1,Q2, Q3, Q4, Q6, Q8, Q10, Q12, Q14, Q15			Some recall and use of facts, definitions, technologies and simple procedures			Partial recall of facts, definitions and use of simple procedures		
		Mathematical language and symbols	Effective and clear use of appropriate mathematical terminology, materials, diagrams, conventions and symbols Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Consistent use of appropriate mathematical terminology, materials, diagrams, conventions and symbols Q5, Q7, Q11a,b, Q13a, Q15, Q16			Satisfactory use of appropriate mathematical terminology, materials, diagrams, conventions and symbols Q1,Q2, Q3, Q4, Q6, Q8, Q10, Q12, Q14, Q15			Use of aspects of mathematical terminology, materials, diagrams, conventions and symbols			Use of everyday language		
Understanding and skills dimensions	Problem Solving & Reasoning	Problem-solving approaches	Systematic application of relevant problem-solving approaches to investigate complex unfamiliar situations Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Application of relevant problem-solving approaches to investigate complex familiar situations Q5, Q7, Q12, Q13a, Q16			Application of problem-solving approaches to investigate simple familiar situations Q4, Q7, Q12			Some selection and application of problem-solving approaches in simple familiar situations			Partial selection of problem-solving approaches		
		Mathematical modelling	Development of mathematical models and representations in complex unfamiliar situations Q13b, Q17			Development of mathematical models and representations in complex familiar situations Q2b, Q5, Q13a, Q15			Development of mathematical models and representations in simple familiar situations Q1, Q2, Q14, Q15			Statements about simple mathematical models and representations			Isolated statements about given mathematical models and representations		
		Reasoning and justification	Clear explanation of mathematical thinking and reasoning, including justification of choices made, evaluation of strategies used and conclusions reached Q9, Q11c, Q13b, Q17			Explanation of mathematical thinking and reasoning, including reasons for choices made, strategies used and conclusions reached Q5, Q12a,b, Q14a, Q16			Description of mathematical thinking and reasoning, including discussion of choices made, strategies used and conclusions reached Q4, Q8			Statements about choices made and strategies used			Isolated statements about given strategies or conclusions		

QUESTION	SF	CF	CU
1 Model an expression using algebraic symbols to show the following: **a)** The product of 5 and y **b)** The sum of a and b **c)** 12 less than p **d)** A number (n) divided by 3 and the result is decreased by 6	/1 /1 /1.5 /1.5		
2 Model the situations below as a rule using an algebraic equation: **a)** y is equal to x plus 2 **b)** To find y, add 5 to x, then divide the result by 10	/1.5	/1.5	
3 Simplify the following expressions **a)** 12x + 4x **b)** 15x + 3y – 6x + 5y	/1	/1.5	
Interpret the following information to evaluate the expressions in question 4 and 5; a = 3, b = 5 and c = 6 **4** **5a – 2b** **5** **a(c² - ab)**	/2	/2	
TOTAL	/9.5	/5	

QUESTION	SF	CF	CU
6 Complete the table. Simplify fractions to lowest form. Show all working. **Fraction** | **Decimal** | **Percentage** | | 25% $\frac{3}{5}$ | | | 0.05 |	/4.5		
7 Round each decimal to the given number of decimal places a) 0.143 (1 decimal place) _____ b) 0.4657 (3 decimal places) _____ c) 1.49726 (2 decimal places)_____		/0.5 /0.5 /0.5	
8 Express 50g as a percentage of 250g	/1.5		
9 Express 14cm as a percentage of 2m			/2
10 Solve the following. *Show all working. Write the fraction in simplest form.* a) $\frac{1}{3} \times \frac{3}{5}$ b) $\frac{1}{4} \div \frac{3}{8}$	/3		
TOTAL	/9	/1.5	/2

QUESTION	SF	CF	CU
11 Calculate the following. *Show all working.* **a)** 1.42 x 400 **b)** 1.473 ÷ 0.03 **c)** $4 \times 1\frac{4}{5} \div 2\frac{2}{3}$ *Simplify and Write as a mixed number*		/1.5 /1.5	/3
12 In a class of 20 students, 6 in the class like basketball. a) Express as a fraction, the number of students in a class that like basketball (simplest form). _____ b) Express this fraction as a decimal. _____ c) Express this decimal as a percentage _____	/2		
13 Solve for x using the balancing equations method. **You must show your working out to receive full marks.** **a)** $3x - 7 = 14$ **b)** $\frac{5(x-4)}{2} = 15$	/1.5		/2
TOTAL	/3.5	/3	/5

QUESTION	SF	CF	CU
14 a Plot the points from the table of values and model the pattern by ruling a straight line passing through the points to draw a linear graph. 	*x*	-2	-1	0	1	2
---	---	---	---	---	---
y	-3	-1	1	3	5 |  	/3		
14 b Synthesise the rule modelled by the data in question **14a**.		/3.5	
TOTAL	/3	/3.5	

QUESTION	SF	CF	CU
15 A photocopier prints 1 200 leaflets. $\frac{3}{5}$ of the leaflets are on yellow paper and the rest are on blue paper. There are smudges on 5% of the blue leaflets. Calculate how many blue leaflets have smudges.		/2	
16 Synthesise the rule and complete the table of values; ***x*** 2 5 6 9 15 ***y*** 8 26 32 50			/2
TOTAL		/2	/2

END TASK: Check your answers and make sure you have shown all of your working out.

Appendix 3: Ethics Approval Pilot Study

2017-249H Modification approved ..

Ms Pratigya Pozniak <pratigya.pozniak@acu.edu.au>
Thu 16/11/2017 8:42 AM

To: Joy Cumming <Joy.Cumming@acu.edu.au>; Marijne Medhurst <marijne.medhurst@myacu.edu.au>
Cc: Pratigya Pozniak <Pratigya.Pozniak@acu.edu.au>

Dear Marijne,

Ethics Register Number : 2017-249H
Project Title : Pilot Study: Trialling video-recorded classroom observations
End Date : 30/06/2018

Thank you for submitting the request to modify form for the above project.

The Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee has approved the following modification(s):
-Recruit participants from upper primary classes from an after-hours [redacted] school, [redacted]

We wish you well in this ongoing research project.

Kind regards,
Ms Pratigya Pozniak

Research Ethics Officer | Office of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Research)
Australian Catholic University
T: 02 9739 2646 E: res.ethics@acu.edu.au

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Appendix 4: Ethics Clearance ACU

Human Research Ethics Committee
Approval Form

Principal Investigator/Supervisor: Prof Jacqueline Cumming

Co-Investigators: Prof Claire Wyatt-Smith, Dr Lenore Adie

Student Researcher: Marijne Slager

Ethics approval has been granted for the following project:
Achieving through Adjustment: Investigating assessment adjustments for students with disability in inclusive classrooms
for the period: 30/06/2019

Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) Register Number: 2017-160H

This is to certify that the above application has been reviewed by the Australian Catholic University Human Research Ethics Committee (ACU HREC). The application has been approved for the period given above.

Researchers are responsible for ensuring that all conditions of approval are adhered to, that they seek prior approval for any modifications and that they notify the HREC of any incidents or unexpected issues impacting on participants that arise in the course of their research. Researchers are also responsible for ensuring that they adhere to the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*, the *Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research* and the University's *Code of Conduct*.

Any queries relating to this application should be directed to the Research Ethics Manager (resethics.manager@acu.edu.au).

Kind regards

[redacted]

Date 8/02/2018
Acting Research Ethics Manager

Research Ethics | Office of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Research)
Australian Catholic University
T: +61 2 9739 2646
E: Res.Ethics@acu.edu.au
W: ACU Research Ethics

2017-160H Ethics Extension Approved

Ms Nina Robinson <nina.robinson@acu.edu.au>

Thu 24/10/2019 1:41 PM

To: Claire Wyatt-Smith <Claire.Wyatt-Smith@acu.edu.au>; Joy Cumming <Joy.Cumming@acu.edu.au>; Medhurst, Marijne <marijne.medhurst@myacu.edu.au>; Lenore Adie <Lenore.Adie@acu.edu.au>

Dear Joy

,

Ethics Register Number : 2017-160H
Project Title : Achieving through Adjustment: Investigating assessment adjustments for students with disability in inclusive classrooms
Data Collection Date Extended : 01/05/2020

Thank you for returning the Ethics Progress Report for your project.

The Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee has approved your request to extend the project. The new expiry date for the project is the 01/05/2020 .

We wish you well in this ongoing project.

Kind regards,
Ms Nina Robinson

Research Ethics & Integrity Officer | Office of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Research)
on behalf of ACU HREC Chair, Assoc Prof. Michael Baker
Australian Catholic University
T: 02 9739 2646 E: res.ethics@acu.edu.au

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Appendix 5: Approval to Conduct Research in Queensland State Schools

Queensland Government

Department of
Education and Training

30 January 2018

Miss Marijne Slager
Australian Catholic University
229 Elizabeth Street
BRISBANE QLD 4000

Dear Miss Slager

Thank you for your application seeking approval to conduct research in Queensland state schools titled *Achieving through adjustment: investigating assessment adjustments for students with disability in inclusive education*. I wish to advise that your application to invite research participants to be involved in your study has been approved. This letter gives you approval to approach potential research participants only.

You may approach principals of the schools nominated in your application and invite them to participate in your research project. In the first instance, please provide principals of these schools with the attached letter which provides important information to help inform their decision about whether they wish to participate in this study. Your approval is conditional upon provision of this letter to each of the school principals you have nominated (you may need to photocopy the attached letter to provide sufficient copies for all principals).

As detailed in the Department's research guidelines the following applies to the study:

- You need to obtain consent from the relevant principals before your research project can commence.
- Principals have the right to decline participation if they consider that the research will cause undue disruption to educational programs in their schools.
- Principals have the right to monitor any research activities conducted in their facilities and can withdraw their support at any time.

This approval has been granted on the basis of the information you have provided in your research proposal and is subject to the conditions detailed below.

- Adherence to the Department's *Terms and Conditions of Approval to Conduct Research* in Departmental sites is required as outlined in the document at: http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/research/terms_conditions.pdf
- Any changes required by your institution's ethics committee must be submitted to the Department of Education and Training for consideration before you proceed. Conversely, any changes required by the Department must be submitted to your institution's ethics committee to ensure you are not in breach of your ethics approval.
- Any variations to the research proposal as originally submitted, including changes to the research team, changes to data collection, additional research undertaken with the data, or publication based on the data beyond what is normally associated

Education House
30 Mary Street Brisbane 4000
PO Box 15033 City East
Queensland 4002 Australia
Telephone 07 3034 5929
Website www.dete.qld.gov.au
ABN 76 337 613 647

with academic studies, should be submitted to the research officer via email. Significant variations will require the submission of a new application.

- Papers and articles intended for publication that are based on data collected from Queensland state schools and/or Departmental sites should be provided to the Department for comment before release.
- Under no circumstances should any publications disclose the names of individuals or schools.
- You are required to contact the Department if you are contacted by the media about research activities conducted on Departmental sites or if you intend to issue a media release about the study.
- At the conclusion of your study you are required to provide this Office and principals of participating schools with a summary of your research results and any associated published papers or materials in hard copy. You are also requested to submit the documents in electronic format, or provide a link to an online location if possible, to ResearchServices@det.qld.gov.au. **Failure to provide a report on your research will preclude you from undertaking any future research in Queensland state schools.**

Please note that this letter constitutes approval to invite principals and teachers to participate in the research project as outlined in your research application. This approval does not constitute ethics approval or support for the general and commercial use of an intervention or curriculum program, software program or other enterprise that you may be evaluating as part of your research.

Research Services values your input into the research application process and is seeking your responses through the enclosed short feedback form. It is hoped that this feedback will enable Research Services to effectively assess whether its processes are efficiently streamlined, transparent and mutually beneficial to all stakeholders.

Should you require further information on the research application process, please feel free to contact Senior Research Officer, Tanya Murray, Strategic Policy and Intergovernmental Relations on (07) 3034 5945. Please quote the file number 550/27/1932 in future correspondence.

I wish your study every success.

Yours sincerely

[redacted]

Rebecca Libke
A/Director
Research Services
Strategic Policy and Intergovernmental Relations