

Continuing Professional Teacher Development and Inclusive Education: Teaching in Perpetual Transit!

Lerato Irene Shelile¹ and Dipane Hlalele²

***School of Education Studies, University of the Free State, Private Bag X13,
Phuthaditjhaba, 9866, South Africa***

E-mail: ¹<leratoshelile@yahoo.com>, ²<hlaleledj@qwa.ufs.ac.za>

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ABSTRACT It has been agreed that change remains the inevitable feature in the teaching and learning environment. This gave rise to the implementation of continuing professional teacher development programmes which are sometimes patchy, inconsistent and inadequate. On the other hand, the paradigm shift towards the creation of inclusive communities and the call for 'Education for All' implied that teachers in schools should be ready to welcome learners with disabilities. The desirable outcome, that teachers should be at their best at any point in their careers, posed an additional challenge to educators. Through a literature review, we argue that the teaching exercise, in dealing with the twin challenges mentioned above, assumes a state of perpetual transit.

INTRODUCTION

We live in a rapidly changing world, such that whatever knowledge and skills teachers acquire in the pre-service training become stale very fast as new challenges and realities emerge in the socio-economic and political environments (Mohammed 2006:4). This assertion by Mohammed highlights the importance of Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) to the professional lives of teachers. It is true that the world that the

teachers are preparing the youth to enter is changing so fast that the knowledge and the skills, which teachers have at the beginning of their career, will not be relevant throughout the 30 to 40 years of their career. The conceptualisation and introduction of (CPTD) as well as inclusive education, we argue, puts teachers in a state they may never say they have garnered enough knowledge or skill and they do not need further development and capacitation. In such a state-where humanity is continually challenged to re-skill adjust and up-skill, which is a state of perpetual transit. Dichaba and Mokhele (2012) concur that throughout the world, education systems are changing, thus offering opportunities for serious and promising educational reforms. One of the key elements in most of these reforms is the continuing professional development of teachers.

CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

According to Teachernet (2009) Continuing Professional Teacher Development supports individual needs and improves practice. Dichaba and Mokhele (2012) assert that the real challenge facing most schools may no longer be how to improve, but how to sustain the improvements these schools have made. Muijs and Lindsay (2006), argue that the concept of CPTD is often ill defined, in many cases, however, being conflated with the related concepts of in-service training and on-the-job training. The authors further suggest that both concepts are more limited than CPTD, as CPTD can encompass a wide variety of approaches and teaching and learning styles in a variety of settings (inside or outside of the work place). Galloway (2000) is of the opinion that it is distinguishable from the broader concept of lifelong learning, which can include all kinds of learning. Mohammed (2006) summarises the broad nature of CPTD by stating that it may be regarded as all forms of in-service, continuing education, on-the-job-training, workshops, and post qualification courses, whether structured or unstructured, formal or informal, teacher initiated or system initiated, accredited or not. The above information is important since it highlights the broad nature of CPTD and may help programme developers to look beyond one day work-shops as a way of developing teachers for career life. Bubb and Earley (2007: 2) argue that CPTD is not just about the knowledge and skills; it is much more than that, *“It is an on-going process encompassing all formal and informal learning activities that enable all staff in schools, individually and with others to think about what they are doing, enhance their knowledge and skills and improve ways of working so that pupils’ learning and wellbeing are enhanced as a result. It should achieve a balance between individual, group, school and national needs encourage a commitment to professional and personal growth; and increase resilience, self-confidence, job satisfaction and enthusiasm for working with children and colleagues”*. It is a shared

responsibility between the professionals and their employers, because it serves the interests of both (Madden and Mitchell 1993). From the information above, it is clear that professional development is very important for the successful school development, as it is for the teachers' personal and professional growth. There can never be quality teaching and learning if the quality of teachers is compromised as a result. Teachers and head teachers have to work together to identify the areas of need and to ensure that quality programmes are offered to teachers so that pupils' learning and well-being are continuously enhanced.

THE NEED FOR AND SIGNIFICANCE OF CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

The need and importance of CPTD is recognised worldwide for a number of different reasons. According to the Ontario Ministry of Education (2004) challenges of teaching students today are many and very different from those of previous generations; there are higher expectations by students, families and society. Students need to know more, they are less in awe of authority, and there is a broad diversity of students, e.g. culturally and in how they learn. Teachers therefore have to update their skills and knowledge to keep up with these challenges. Steyn (2008:257) further suggests that the quality of education has been a global concern for decades. To address this concern, many reform initiatives have focused on the quality of classroom teaching and more specifically on the teacher. The issue of the quality of education is also highlighted by Mohammed (2006:1) when stating, "more than ever before there is now a serious public outcry concerning education standards nationwide" (referring to the situation in Nigeria). National conferences, seminars and workshops have bemoaned and catalogued the multifaceted cause of this "falling standard" of education. He went further to say that the teacher is seen as the critical element in actualising the vision of reforming the educational system. There is an increased focus on schooling as a means of increasing economic prosperity in a globally competitive workplace. This also has led to an increase in managerial professionalism, where business approaches are adopted (Smyth et al. 2000). This too is a new phenomenon which could be mastered through CPTD. Another point to be taken into consideration is that teachers perform many different roles at school. These roles include being a counsellor, minister, parent and social worker. The reality is that the majority of teachers, taking South Africa for example, were never trained for these roles (Engelbrecht and Green 2007:40). This is also a problem in other countries as well and it too can be tackled through CPTD.

The world that teachers are preparing young people to enter is also changing so rapidly. The teaching skills required are also evolving at an alarming rate, hence the need for CPTD.

Societies expect a great deal from their educational systems. New roles are continuously being set, e.g. HIV/AIDS education, life skills education for most African countries, especially those located south of the Sahara where the pandemic has hit very hard. Phillips (2008:1) argues that the most important thing a teacher can do is to continue to learn. Continuous high quality professional development is essential to nations' goal of high standards of learning for every child. Given the rapid changes in the work practices, such as the use of technology, it is absolutely necessary for teachers to be computer literate. Professional development is critical for maintaining continuous improvement in teacher quality. It is assumed that improving teacher quality can improve learning outcomes for students. CPTD should ensure an individual's progress from novice or advanced beginner status to that of an expert. The journey from novice to expert teacher will be quickened and be made less stressful by well-planned professional development programmes (Mohammed, 2006). Expert status is, however, not a once and for all achievement. It is on-going due to new demands (Bubb and Earley 2007). The great diversity in the candidates who enter the teaching profession has a great insinuation for increasing CPTD programmes. Robinson and Lantchem (2003:5), indicate that teachers vary in the number of years of education received and the level attained; the nature and the amount of training completed; average age; social status; location (urban or rural) and income levels; their skills as adults and independent learners; their beliefs and model of an ideal teacher; their level of motivation; their access to information and communication technologies and learning resources; their opportunities for professional development and support, etc. These diversities require that specially made CPTD courses are organised. Until the mid1990's CPTD was often taken up as a matter of voluntary commitment or just as something for those with career ambitions. The present climate in education means that this attitude is no longer appropriate (Craft, 2000: 7). Gone are the days when initial and induction were seen as a total or final preparation for a career in teaching; nowadays they have to be seen as merely providing a platform on which further or continuing professional teacher development will be built (Bubb and Earley 2007:3). CPTD remains the only way in which serving teachers can be facilitated with knowledge and skills for dealing with new trends in education, trends such as the move from special to inclusive education. Being aware of the different sources of CPTD will make the work of CPTD programme developers much easier as they will have a variety of sources to choose from in order to avoid the monotonous use of one source over the others.

SOURCES OF CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

According to the information presented by the concentric circles above, there are many sources of CPTD. It can take place within school, through school networks, or be delivered by external providers. All teachers should have access to high quality training and development opportunities throughout their careers (Teachernet 2009).

CPTD within schools

In the literature on professional development, one sees increasing attention to embedding teacher learning opportunities in the day to day work of schools and spending less time in formal, instructor-centred situations and more time developing expertise in the context of collaborative problem solving that characterises professional learning communities (National Education Association 2009). This enables staff to learn with and from each other and from their pupils. The role of CPTD in this case is to help staff identify colleagues who have skills and experience they can pass on. Advice and suggestions from experienced or particularly skilled colleagues can help other staff gain new skills and improve their performance (Training and Development Agency for Schools 2010). Several activities have been identified by different authors as opportunities for continuing professional development within the school. Phillips (2008: 7) asserts that Professional Development opportunities for teachers may take on many forms, ranging from mentoring, induction and external study for higher qualifications to reflective studies of facilitative learning. The Training and Development Agency for Schools (2010) has suggested an even longer list of such opportunities, some of which are more cost effective than others, the examples include working with different colleagues, coaching or mentoring, shadowing, peer support and networking, professional development days, staff or team meetings, observation, such as watching a colleague teach a lesson, providing advice and support to colleagues, particularly those on initial teacher training placements, early career teachers and new members of staff, discussing a lesson or group activity, collaborative planning, teaching as a team, listening to pupils' views, observing pupils, trying to see school life through the eyes of a pupil, action research and school based enquiry, trying new ways of working, taking on a new role on a temporary basis to find out what it involves. Some of these activities are so basic that one would have overlooked them. Anderson (2004), states that mentoring is non-formal learning and that it is context bound. He presents the view that a school is a very specific context, and emphasising learning over training is particularly relevant to the setting. Coaching like mentoring is considered to be a "learning relationship". In both coaching and mentoring, there is a one-to-one relationship, normally between two teachers, which is designed to support CPTD (Kennedy 2005:242). Despite the realisation that these two concepts share several

characteristics, authors, such as Rhodes and Benecke (2002:301) have attempted to show the disparity between the two by stating that coaching is skills based and mentoring involves an element of counselling and professional friendship. Authors like Garvey (2010:342), however, argues that mentoring and coaching share the same practices, skills and processes as a result the distinctions do not... make much of a difference. Indeed it does not matter which name is used as long as the two partners involved are happy with the outcome of the learning relationship.

CPTD through cross-school networks

Cross-school collaboration provides opportunities to share and develop good practices. Cross-school networks include formal or informal networks, visits to schools similar, or different to your own, only discussion forums, working with staff from other schools, job swapping between schools for a short period of time, shadowing colleagues with similar roles in other schools, networks of local schools or ones set for a specific project, as well as developing people from other schools (Training and Development Agency for Schools 2010). These cross-school networks could be even more applicable to the case in Lesotho where there are only few teacher trainers to serve the whole country.

CPTD through accessing further expertise

External continuing professional teacher development opportunities can provide a source of expertise which is not available within the school. Examples include one day events, courses leading to a qualification or status, blended learning programmes, combining external expertise with school-based activity, conferences, working with or seeking advice from consultants, local authorities or community groups, universities, government agencies and professional associations. The use of one day events and conferences have been criticised for not being effective, since they did not sufficiently change teachers' subject knowledge or pedagogical skills (Mewborn and Huberty 2004:4). Lee (2005:39) argues that these approaches adopt a technical and simplistic view of teaching and believes that teachers' knowledge and skills could be improved by using experts from outside schools. The problem stems from using these approaches as the only, or the most predominant forms of CPTD. These approaches cannot, however, be totally discarded because they are very useful for transmission of information. The notion of balance is very crucial when working within the ecosystemic framework. The selection of the model should correspond with the purpose of the CPTD. In most developing countries transmissive models have, however, been used to facilitate transformation. This mismatch has often resulted in failure to implement the

necessary changes. Models of continuing professional teacher development will be discussed next.

MODELS OF CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Several models of CPTD have emerged and the use of some models has been more predominant than others. A distinction is often made between workshop models and school-based teacher professional support models. Unfortunately, the main model for teachers is still a one short programme which often does not emphasise subject content or pedagogical skills (Desimone, Smith and Ueno 2006:183). Hoban (as cited by Kennedy 2005:235), has argued that while an increasing range of literature focuses on particular aspects of CPTD there is a paucity of literature addressing the spectrum of CPTD models in a comparative manner. Failure to study the CPTD models in a comparative manner has resulted in an inappropriate selection of models. This often hinders the effectiveness of CPTD programmes resulting in programmes which are rendered ineffective and inappropriate. Craft (2000:16) declares that thinking about professional development from several different perspectives can help one to analyse previous professional development experience, and to clarify future plans. She further suggests that the models should be provided with tools for analysing the professional development you are concerned with - both your own and, if appropriate, the learning of others.

A learning continuum

Kennedy (2005:235) sees teacher learning as occurring on a continuum which ranges from transmissive learning, through transitional types of learning, towards learning that is perceived to be transformative. He proposes nine categories under which models of CPTD might be grouped. These nine categories are then grouped according to the form of learning they are considered to fall under. This analysis focuses on the perceived purpose of each model, identifying issues of power in relation to central control, individual teacher autonomy and profession-wide autonomy (Kennedy 2005:236). The following models of CPTD are placed under the transmissive category, namely the training model, the award bearing model, the deficit model and the cascade model. What is common in these three models is that they are concerned with developing skills that will help teachers teach rather than developing them as learners. They see teachers as the managers of student learning rather than reflective practitioners who consider how appropriate the pedagogy is for the students (Sachs, 2008:9). Kennedy (2005:237) asserts that these models support a technocratic view of teaching. They are generally delivered to the teacher by an expert, with an agenda determined by the deliverer and the participant is placed in a passive role. Kennedy further argues that these

models are concerned with transmission; they are more concerned with modifying existing practices to ensure that teachers are compliant with government change agendas. There are some criticisms levelled against these models of CPTD. Dadds (1997:32) depicts this type of CPTD as delivery or empty vessel model. She continues to elaborate that, on their own, these models of CPTD are extremely limited, because they have little, if anything, to say about the crucial role of teachers understanding about, and experiences of children, in the development of their work. Nor do they have anything to say about the variety and complexity of processes which teachers undergo as they continue to learn about their professional craft; as they continue to gain new knowledge and understanding; reconstruct their attitudes, beliefs, practices and struggle with the difficulties of the change process. Inclusive education requires teachers to reflect on their attitudes and beliefs about learners with special education needs, so that they can make the necessary changes in order for them to teach these learners. If these models do not touch on the beliefs and attitudes of teachers then they cannot effect the necessary changes required to make teachers inclusive. Another criticism levelled against these models of CPTD is that they develop a type of controlled professionalism where teachers can best be described as craft workers. At its worst this type of CPTD is unintellectual-anything redolent of the worst kind of pop psychology jargon filled with no explanations (Sachs 2008:12). When there is no collaboration between the teachers and the programme planners, teachers are often not inspired or encouraged to learn anything. Out of the four models grouped under the transmissive category, the cascade model is said to be the one commonly used in developing countries. For this reason this model will be discussed in much detail to highlight some of the advantages and disadvantages it might have for these countries.

The cascade model

The cascade or the “multiplier” approach transmits the knowledge or information from the top to the lower stratified groups of teachers (Ono and Ferreira 2010:60). This approach to CPTD involves individual teachers attending training events and then cascading or disseminating the information to the colleagues. Kennedy (2005:240) asserts that it is commonly employed in situations where resources are limited. This idea is also highlighted by Leu (in Ono and Ferreira 2010:60) when suggesting that in most developing countries, professional development of teachers has been neglected, because of budget constraints and heavy emphasis on pre-service education, but when it is provided, the cascade approach is popular for reaching many participants in a short time. This implies that for some countries this is the prominent if not the only approach for CPTD that is being utilised and will

continue to be utilised in many years to come. Some of the noted benefits of using this model of CPTD are that it allows for training in stages, so that progress can be monitored and information can be disseminated quickly and to a large number of teachers as more and more of them receive training. Again in theory, cascade training is cost effective as those who have been trained can now train others, thus limiting expenses (Ono and Ferreira 2010:60). Leu (2004:2) further suggests that the cascade model can be an effective strategy to transmit messages about the educational reform.

This model has, however, been criticised for a number of reasons. Engelbrecht and Green (2007:154) argue that the message of the workshop becomes diluted as it passes down the cascade. Solomon and Tresman (cited in Kennedy 2005:240), suggest that one of the drawbacks of this model is that what is passed on in the cascading process is generally skills-focused, sometimes knowledge-focused, but rarely focuses on values. Nieto (2003:395) argues that teacher education needs to shift from a focus on questions of “*what and how*” to also consider questions of “*why*”. Thirdly, Kennedy (2005:240) argues that the cascade model neglects to consider the range of learning contexts ...assuming that it is the knowledge per se that is the important part of the process and not necessarily the context in which it is gained or used. This model also regards teachers as passive receivers of knowledge (Ono and Ferreira 2010:61). Under the transitional forms of learning Kennedy (2005:248) has mentioned three models, namely the standards-based, the coaching/mentoring and the community of practice models. These models are transitional in the sense that they have the capacity to support underlying agendas compatible with either the transmissive or transformative models. The standards-based model represents a desire to create a system of teaching that can generate and empirically validate connections between teacher effectiveness and student learning (Beyer 2002:243). The coaching/ mentoring model emphasises the importance of a one-to-one relationship between two teachers, which is designed to support CPTD. It involves an equitable relationship which allows the two teachers involved to discuss possibilities, beliefs and hopes. One of its tenets is confidentiality. The community of practice model generally involves more than two people. Importantly, members need to create their own understanding of the joint enterprise, therefore allowing members of that community to assert a certain level of control over the agenda (Kennedy, as cited in Sachs 2008:14).

The **transitional models** of CPTD connect teachers with other teachers and with the needs of students. Their focus is primarily on teacher learning, in particular professional renewal through opportunities to rethink and review practices and in so doing become reflective practitioners. It ensures learning from colleagues in day-to- day work (Sachs 2008:13).

Teachers demonstrate collective autonomy by developing fluid, informal, collaborative learning opportunities which appear as a response to more teachers being confronted with the same problems and requests of information (Rae and O'Brien 2007:437). Proponents of inclusive education support the transitional models of CPTD. They believe that teachers can learn a lot from collaborating with other teachers through co-teaching, sitting in to observe other teachers, etc. Transformative learning is highly valued because it has the potential for the realisation of professional autonomy and collaborative engagement (Kennedy et al. 2007:68). Under this form of learning Kennedy et al. (2005:246) mention two models, namely the action research and the transformative models. Transformative models equip teachers individually and collectively to act as shapers, promoters and well informed critics of reforms. It leaves teachers energised and ready to try new things (Sachs 2008:15).

The **action research model** has a greater impact on practice when it is shared in communities of practice or enquiry. Weiner (2002:3) asserts that in supporting teachers to carry out action-based research, the problem of relevance will be addressed. She continues to state that education research needs to be more relevant to practitioners and that action research has practitioner development and transformation as its main aim. Sachs (2008:15) stipulates that action research requires building collaborative partnerships between various stakeholders whose task is to work together, combining their experience, expertise and resources. The benefit of this collaboration is emphasised by Burbank & Kauchack (as cited in Kennedy, 2005:246) when stating that collaborative action research provides an alternative to the passive role imposed on a teacher in traditional models of professional development. This model is also acknowledged as being successful in allowing teachers to ask critical questions of their practice. Kennedy (2005: 246) argues that the transformative model is not a clearly definable model in itself. It rather recognises the range of different conditions required for transformative practice. It is a combination of aspects drawn from other models. It is a better balance between the teacher-centred, context specific models of CPTD and the transmission focused models (Hoban cited in Kennedy 2005:246). Sachs (2008:16) concludes this discussion by stating that transformative models of CPTD create situations where risk taking is promoted and supported and where negotiating change and dealing with ambiguity is something that provokes excitement rather than fear and insecurity.

ASPECTS INFLUENCING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Research reveals several sources and models of CPTD, which may assist programme developers to come up with appropriate inclusive CPTD programmes which are based on

teachers' needs (Kennedy 2005:235). Steyn (2009:265), however, argues that a crucial question emerges; and that is, what aspects play a role in the effective implementation of CPTD for teachers? He goes further to suggest that the following major aspects can be identified from a literature review: (a) a focus on teachers' learning, (b) the commitment of teachers, (c) quality leadership, (d) the school context and (e) requirements for PD programmes. The aspects mentioned above can either hamper or promote the effectiveness of PD programmes. As a result they need to be monitored closely. A discussion of each of the aspects and how it may inform CPTD follows.

Focus on teachers' learning

The learning processes of the individual teacher tend to be under-examined, and thus an important source of information about what a teacher actually learns during participation in a community during a process of change is lost (Artiles, Kozles, Dorn and Christensen 2006). This implies that when individual differences between adult learners are not taken into consideration during the development of CPTD programmes, this may have a negative impact on their learning. Hutchings et al. (2006:80), argue that owing to diversity of needs and experience across the teaching population in relation to CPTD there is certainly "no one size fits all" solution possible. Like pupils, teachers benefit from personalised learning and require access to a diversity of differentiated provision to facilitate and promote their learning and careers (McNamara, Brundrett and Webb 2008:28). As a result Robinson and Carrington (as cited in Steyn 2009:265) stipulate that CPTD programmes should therefore be individualised and fully differentiated to meet teachers' individual needs and preferences. According to King and Newmann (2001), critics claim that professional development has not substantially improved teaching, because traditional approaches violate key principles of teacher learning, such as the following:

- Teacher training is most likely to occur when teachers can concentrate on instruction and student outcomes in the specific context in which they teach. Because professional development often presents material that the teacher sees as irrelevant to student learning in their specific school setting, teachers often do not learn and apply what professional development programmes offer.
- Teacher learning is most likely to occur if teachers have sustained opportunities to study, to experiment with and to receive helpful feedback on specific innovations. Yet most professional development activities are brief workshops, conferences, or courses that make no provision for long term follow up and feedback.

- Teachers' learning is most likely to occur when teachers have opportunities to collaborate with professional peers, both within and outside of their schools, along with access to the expertise of external researchers and program developers.

Because teachers respect the expertise of professional peers and have common experiences to communicate about, peer collaboration offers a powerful vehicle for teacher learning, a necessary supplement to published materials and advice from other authorities. In contrast traditional professional development relies almost exclusively on outside experts and materials, without integrating these resources into strong systems of peer collaboration. Finally, teacher learning is most likely to occur when teachers have influence over the substance and process of professional development. If teachers have some control over the course of professional development, this increases their opportunity to connect it to specific conditions of their schools and it provides opportunities for them to exercise professional discretion. Empowerment facilitates a sense of personal ownership which promotes internalization of learning. In contrast, traditional professional development is often dictated by school, district, or state authorities without significant input from teachers. A focus on teachers' learning is not enough; attention also needs to be paid to the aspect of teachers' commitment. There can never be learning if teachers are not committed to the process. This implies the need for a perpetual drift in being a teacher.

The commitment of teachers

Blackmore (2000:3) contends that CPTD programmes will be futile without the teachers' whole-hearted commitment, even if such programmes were well designed. Van Eekelen (as cited in Steyn 2009:267), defines a commitment to learn as a psychological state in which the teacher desires to learn and experiment. Teachers generally support the notion of quality teaching and learning. They are, however, often not willing to change their teaching practices on the basis of quality standards (Desimone et al. 2006:179). Change process may give rise to distressing feelings, such as panic, fear, inadequacy, frustration, loss, anxiety, sadness and incompetence. Dealing with these feelings in an appropriate way, however, leads to deep learning (Swart and Oswald 2008:98). Teachers with less content often struggle with change. The challenge of CPTD is to motivate teachers to become committed to their own development and learning. An incentive scheme to reward teachers for successfully implementing their acquired knowledge and skills may have a more motivational value compared to the punitive measures which are often used (Steyn 2009:267). Quality leadership will be discussed next.

Quality leadership

CPTD does not happen in a vacuum; as a result of the role played by the school leadership in the implementation of these programmes is important. The quality of leadership at school and departmental level and relationships with colleagues are major factors which positively or negatively influence the teachers' commitment and their motivation to remain in or leave a school (Lee and Shiu 2008:40). Quality leadership means that managers are involved in the learning process, which requires reflection on teaching and learning practice and evidence that the CPTD of teachers has taken place (Steyn 2009:268). Successful head teachers are those who attend to the broad moral, social, and ethical issues in educating teachers. They are also those who recognise that successful schools need many leaders. They encourage the development of communities of learning, supporting a strong, mutually supportive collective service ethic (Maclaughlin and Talbert 2001:18). They ensure that one supports the other, despite the tensions evident between their purposes. They form collegial relationships with staff and develop an appreciation for the value of working together and caring about each other. Such head teachers, display through who they are and how they act, a deep and passionate commitment to their work (Day 2004). Head teachers are expected to provide opportunities for collaborative decision –making and team-building among teachers. It is also important for head teachers to provide appropriate support to teachers to continue developing new classroom habits after CPTD programmes (Somers and Sikorova as cited by Steyn 2009: 269).

The school context

Teachers' learning is affected by variables in the school context, which may either enhance or hamper the professional learning of teachers. These variables include the school culture, teacher collaboration and the school environment. The school culture refers to the way things are done in a particular school. A positive school culture is required for successful CPTD, otherwise precious time and resources would be spent on achieving only minor growth among teachers (Steyn 2009:270). The culture influences and shapes the way that teachers, students and administrators think, feel and act. A positive culture builds commitment; it strengthens motivation and improves effectiveness and productivity. Teachers are more likely to succeed in a culture that fosters hard work, commitment to valued ends, attention to problem solving and a focus on learning for all students (Peterson and Deal 2009:11). Another important aspect to consider under the school context is that teacher collaboration is very important. Teachers should not learn alone. Informal opportunities for teachers to learn together are an effective part of meeting different needs. Their learning should be facilitated by giving these teachers ample opportunities to interact with peers, to report about their

learning and access resources for learning (Hoekstra, Brekelsmans, Beijard and Korthagen 2009: 10). When the school recognises accomplishments, values effort, and supports commitment, staff and students alike feel more motivated to work hard.

Requirements for CPTD programmes

Programmes for continuing professional teacher development need to be relevant, informative and up-to-date. They should also act as tools for reform. Craft (2000:8), stipulates that a key issue, both for those planning and participating in professional development, is the match between the methods and purpose. It is only when these programmes achieve what they have been planned for that we can claim that CPTD has taken place. Traditional CPTD programmes are criticised for not giving teachers the time, activities and the content to improve their knowledge and skills (Birman, Desimone, Porter and Garet 2000:29). They include workshops, seminars and conferences. The use of school based programmes which involve approaches, such as mentoring, coaching and study groups are found to be more beneficial to teachers. When programmes are designed for teachers in a particular school, who teach the same subjects or the same grade, teachers are able to share experiences, skills and any problems which they may encounter. Lee (as cited in Steyn 2009:272), argues that the duration of CPTD influences the depth of teacher learning. This takes us back to the criticism laid against the traditional short programmes, which do not emphasise subject content or pedagogical skills. The key features of the Professional development programmes include content focus, active learning and evaluation. One other general but important point to consider when planning these programmes, is that trainers should be experts and well prepared. In conclusion, Engelbrecht and Green (2007:145) declare that continuing and lifelong development should not be viewed as a luxury for a selected few, but a necessity for all teachers and other role players within education institutions. They further suggest that professional development initiatives should consider the more recent shifts in professional development theory and practices, and will benefit from honouring the principles of adult education and learning and acknowledging the contextual, complex and time-consuming nature of change. The concept of continuing professional development is being addressed in conjunction with the implementation of inclusive education. As a result the subsequent part of this literature review will concentrate on the development of the inclusive philosophy in education from the period of exclusion to the current state of inclusive education.

THE PARADIGM SHIFT: FROM EXCLUSION TO INCLUSION

Garciulo (2003:16) asserts that the history of special education can perhaps best be characterised as one of evolving or changing perceptions and attitudes about individuals with disabilities. He goes further to say, generally speaking, at any given time, the programs, resources and practices that affect citizens with disabilities are a reflection of the current social climate. This means that the way people with disabilities are treated in society reflects the belief system that is dominant in that society at that given time in relation to disability and people with disabilities. Inclusive education as we know it today with its multiple forms has its roots in the special education of the twentieth century. Du Toit (1996:6) stipulates that it was only towards the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth centuries that educationists became involved in the education of the disabled. Engelbrecht and Green (2007:3) call attention to the beginning of special education by saying; *“the first half of the twentieth century was the heyday of the so-called ‘medical model’, which conceptualised those with disabilities as ‘abnormal’ and in need of the attention of the specialists.”* The first initiative to teach people with disabilities can be traced back to the efforts of dedicated reformers and pioneer thinkers, such as Jean Marc-Gaspard Itard who attempted to teach Victor, a 12 year old boy who was discovered by a group of hunters in a forest near the town of Aveyron (Garciulo 2003:16). When Itard met him, the boy was 12, but did not speak and had no social skills. The educational tasks Itard undertook on behalf of that boy are often identified as the beginning of special education (Sands, Kozleski and French 2000:18).

Prior to the nineteenth century there was no provision for education for anyone who was conceived to be ‘different’. Kanner and Preen (as cited by Du Toit 1996) indicates that in primitive communities, for example where the basic struggle was to survive, children with severe disabilities were either exterminated or abandoned to their fate. Garciulo (2003:17) reiterates that by the middle of the nineteenth century, several institutions, commonly referred to as asylums, or sometimes as “schools” were established to benefit citizens with disabilities. These facilities provided primarily protective care and management other than treatment and education. These early initiatives were begun by enlightened individuals working with concerned professionals and they were frequently sponsored by wealthy benefactors and philanthropists rather than state governments. Though this practice of putting people with disabilities in asylums continued through the middle ages, it gradually deteriorated due to a number of reasons, including overcrowding and lack of fiscal resources (Garciulo 2003:17). The practice was also accompanied by ignorance and superstition, with the result that disabled people were rejected (Du Toit 1996: 6). This was the peak of the lay discourse.

Engelbrecht, Green and Naicker (1999:14) describe it as the discourse which relates to prejudice, hate, ignorance, fear and even paternalistic tendencies. Much of this has to do with isolation of people who deviate from the normal physical appearance. Engelbrecht and Green (2007:3) declare that when developed countries did begin to take responsibility for the education of children with disabilities, it took the form of special education, which developed as a system parallel to mainstream education with unique policies and regulations, funding, organizational structures and personnel and professional practices. This was a logical step as special education was an unfamiliar territory for mainstream education. The system of special education services and programs that emerged provided educational opportunities for many children who would not otherwise have been educated (Sands et al. 2000:19). Inherent in the original approach to special education was the belief that the appropriate services could be provided to children based on an identification of a major handicapping condition. It became received opinion that special schools provided a sensible way of meeting the needs of a minority of children, at the same time safe-guarding the efficient education of the majority in the mainstream. The system of special schools was widely accepted throughout Western Europe. It was one of which society as a whole was proud (Topping and Maloney 2008:18). Specialised programmes were designed around each type of disability. Once students were identified and then labelled by disability, school systems assumed that their needs were being met, since services followed labelling. It was also assumed that all students with the same label had common educational needs and therefore could be helped by the same kind of program. As a result most school systems had classrooms designed for students with different disabilities, Sizwe (in Sands et al. 2000:19). The aim of education was, therefore, to remove or alleviate the particular deficiencies of such children (Du Toit 1996:6). The following were seen as the potential merits of classification-by-label systems:

- Diagnosis may lead to specific treatment
- Labels help to organise and communicate research findings
- Funding is often based on specific categories
- Labels can assist special interest groups to promote specific programs, sponsor legislative action or increase public awareness (Sands, Kozleski and French 2000:19).

Engelbrecht and Green (2007:3), reiterate that concerns about segregated special education appeared gradually. It was suggested that it might not be in the best interests of those with disabilities, or even of society as a whole, for them to be separated from the mainstream. This point is also raised by Sands, et al. (2000:19), when they say despite the overall benefits, many special and general education reformers have suggested that segregated special

education resulted in unforeseen and unfortunate outcomes. In particular, three critical issues have been raised repeatedly, (1) the benefits and the drawbacks of categorising and labelling students for specialised services, (2) the unintended overrepresentation of children from diverse ethnic, linguistic, and socio-economic backgrounds in special education and (3) student outcomes from special education. Because of the reasons mentioned above people began to argue that resources assigned to special education might be better spent in creating more flexible forms of mainstream education. Segregated special education was condemned as part of an oppressive social system through which people with disabilities were excluded from participation in society (Barton in Engelbrecht and Green 2007:3). This gave rise to the concept of integration or mainstream education which was a recommended strategy for addressing this concern. This strategy involved placing certain learners from special education settings into mainstream classes under certain conditions, but neither assumed that all learners have an unquestioned right to belong in a mainstream school and classroom (Engelbrecht et al. 1999:8). We can therefore conclude by stating that even though segregated special education was implemented with the good intentions of providing education to learners who were excluded from the mainstream of education, it was later discovered that the way it responded to this problem led to unfortunate outcomes to the same people it was meant to help. The concept of integration or mainstream education which was recommended for addressing the concerns for special education was also questioned later. As Skrit (1991:150) states, the new practices associated with ...mainstreaming simply reproduced the special education problems of the 1960s in the 1980s. The exclusionary practices are still there: there is still labelling; exclusion shows no signs of declining. Today, a new way of thinking about specialised education has led to the policy of inclusion (Du Toit 1996:7).

INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

The promise of Quality Education for All and the recognition of education as a right for all have driven the move towards inclusive education. Since Salamanca, 1994, the term inclusion has come to be a “global denominator”, signalling a shift of policy focus from special education to responding to the diversity within the common school for all students (Vislie 2003). Inclusion in education is, however, not a universal term; it differs according to context. Peters (2003) reiterates that Inclusive education being implemented at different levels embraces different goals and is based on a range of varied motives. Because of these differences in the meaning of inclusion, a question, such as what exactly inclusion is and why it is important often comes to mind. Loreman, Deppler and Harvey (2005:1) emphasise that sometimes teachers are misinformed and confused about inclusion. Part of the confusion

strikes at the heart of the matter and arises from the meaning of the term itself. In an attempt to clarify this confusion, they went further to give examples of what inclusion is not. Educating children part-time in special schools and part-time in regular schools is not inclusion. Educating children in special, mostly segregated environments in regular schools is not inclusion. Educating children in regular classes, but requiring them to follow substantially different courses of study in terms of content and learning environment to their peers is not inclusion (unless all children follow individual programmes). These examples are worth mentioning, because this is what some teachers believe inclusion to be.

Engelbrecht and Green (2007:5) stipulate that an examination of literature suggests the existence of a tension relating to both the meaning and the definition of inclusion. On the one hand some definitions refer to inclusion specifically as the teaching of the children with and without disabilities within the same neighbourhood school, while some definitions focus on the inclusion of all pupils in a school, regardless of their weaknesses in any area. These definitions refer only to children whom society and institutions deem to have special needs. On the other hand there are definitions that are based on the diversity and/or the social change perspectives. Common understanding in respect inclusive education is desirable. This shared understanding of inclusive education will be in line with the United Nations Educational Scientific Cultural Organisation's (UNESCO) view of what inclusive education is supposed to be. UNESCO defines inclusive education as an approach to education that seeks to address the learning needs of all children, youth and adults with a specific focus on those who are vulnerable to marginalization and exclusion. As previously mentioned the principle of inclusive education was adopted at the Salamanca World Conference on Special Needs Education (1994) and at the Dakar World Education Forum (2002) (UNESCO 2003:3). It was after Salamanca that different countries took necessary measures to prepare for inclusive schooling. This is where UNESCO'S definition was adapted by different nations to fit into their own contexts. The Republic of South Africa came up with *Education White Paper 6: Special Needs Education* (July 2001), building an Inclusive Education Training System. The Education White Paper 6 (2001:7) defines inclusive education as:

- Acknowledging that all children and youth can learn and all children and youth need support.
- Enabling education structures, systems and learning methodologies to meet the needs of all learners.
- Acknowledging and respecting differences in learners, whether due to age, gender, ethnicity, language, class, disability, HIV or other infectious diseases.

- Broader than formal schooling and acknowledging that learning also occurs in the home and community and within formal settings and structures.
- Changing attitudes, behaviour, teaching methods, curricula and environment to meet the needs of all learners.
- Maximising the participation of all learners in the culture and the curriculum of educational institutions and uncovering and minimising barriers to learning.

This definition is not focused on the inclusion of learners with disabilities only; it is broad and encompasses other barriers to learning and development as well. From the above discussion it can now be elicited that inclusive education is about teaching all learners together, with the aim of bridging the gap between learners with and without disabilities. It is about creating opportunities for children to learn from one another. Children need to be taught from a young age that people are different and that all people need to be respected regardless of how different they look from others. When integrated in normal schools, disabled learners and their non-disabled peers learn to accept, respect, tolerate and behave humanely towards each other. In order to be able to accommodate all learners in the mainstream classrooms, it is important to know the changes that need to be made to the current structure of our classes in order to make them accessible to all learners, especially learners with special needs, which are a result of disability. We also need to be aware of the different ways in which a classroom can be structured to make it more inclusive. As a result the next section of the paper focuses on the concept of inclusive classrooms.

THE INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM

The classroom is the primary site where teaching and learning takes place in the school. It is also the place where the new knowledge and the skills that teachers acquire during professional development are executed. Even the best planned PD programmes can fail to produce the intended goals if the classrooms are not conducive for the implementation of such programmes. Some schools fail to implement even the most basic principles of inclusion, because their classrooms have not been restructured to accommodate all learners. Organising children and staff in the classroom is an issue of prime importance for good teachers (Loreman et al. 2005:177). In the following discussion, the concept of the inclusive classroom will be addressed, paying specific attention to the changing physical, instructional and social aspects of such a classroom.

The changing physical environment

Certain major physical dimensions may have to be changed in order to remove barriers to learning. All barricades in the physical space of the classroom should be removed to make

classrooms accessible for all learners, especially those with physical disabilities. Access to the classroom is the most important prerequisite to learning in an inclusive classroom. It is the responsibility of the class teacher to ensure that children are able to access the classroom and that any required modifications to structures are communicated to the appropriate person in the school (Loreman et al. 2005:178). These modifications should not be seen as a luxury, but must be seen as a minimum requirement for a school to meet the needs of its children. Some of the modifications will include the installation of ramps in areas where there are stairs. Ramps will be important for access of both learners in wheelchairs and those using walking frames. As this might take some time, it would be necessary to place these learners in classrooms which can be reached with less difficulty. Narrow doorways may need to be widened; door handles may need to be lowered so that learners in wheelchairs may easily reach them. Once in the classroom, the space needs to be adequate for the number of students. The space available in the classroom influences the possibility for social interaction and general active learning (Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana 2007: 141).

For learners with visual impairments, doors should always be fully closed or fully open so that these learners may not bump into half-open doors. Clutter at below the knee level, including mats and rags may represent a tripping hazard or cause the wheels of a wheelchair to become stuck. Learners with visual and hearing disabilities may need assistive devices. Learners with visual disabilities may need instruction in brail or audio tapes. If partially blind they make use of an enlarger for reading and writing. Learners with hearing problems may be fitted with a radio hearing aid. Some learners are taught to use sign language (Engelbrecht et al. 1999:73). Adequate lighting is also important for these learners to help them to see better and to lip read. The frequent moving and reorganising of furniture in classrooms with visually impaired learners should be avoided at all cost. Classroom organisation is another important aspect to consider. There are many ways of organising and grouping children for learning in the classroom. Children may be expected to work individually or in groups. Depending on the kind of learning that is expected, children may be grouped into homogeneous or mixed ability groups. Homogeneous groups are often used to assist learners with a common special educational need. These groups are, however, expected to be flexible and not fixed as groups in special classes. Heterogeneous groups on the other hand are used to encourage learners to take responsibility for each other's success. McInerney and McInerney (in Loreman et al. 2005:183) stipulate that since children are able to interact easily, a variety of constructivist child-centred strategies can be employed, such as peer tutoring and co-operative group work. This may allow the teacher some time to move around

the room with greater ease to assist individual children. For individual learning authors such as Engelbrecht et al. (1999) and Loreman et al. (2005) encourage teachers to set up what they call small learning places/learning centres/workstations to which learners can retreat according to their preferences and the task they are expected to complete. The above discussion cannot be considered to be exhaustive, but it has summarised some of the important aspects of the physical environment of an inclusive classroom. The discussion of the instructional environment will now follow.

The changing instructional environment.

Donald et al. (2007:143) assert that instructional aspects of the classroom environment relate to how the actual teaching and learning process happens. They continue to state that teaching and learning is the very heart of the curriculum, which in turn, is central to effective education. In order for all learners to achieve in the inclusive classroom, teachers first have to believe that all learners are 'educatable' and that each individual has a potential to learn (Engelbrecht et al. 1999:70). It is those teachers who believe that all learners can learn who are always willing to adapt their teaching methods to cater for a diverse learner population in their classrooms. Hammeken (2007:52) argues that good teachers are continually modifying and adapting the curriculum throughout the day to accommodate students who learn differently. For most teachers it is simply good teaching practice and occurs without thought. Donald et al. (2007:144) stipulate that the key to responding effectively to the diversity in the class is to be sensitive to each student's cultural, social and economic background and also to each one's particular physical, social, emotional and spiritual needs. Only then teachers can respond flexibly to the students' world view, socio economic circumstances and specific learning needs. The important factor here is flexibility; teachers need to be flexible in their approach in order to reach all learners in a positive manner. Some learners, especially those with disabilities, need assistive devices in order to learn effectively. Therefore such materials must be available in the classroom to assist these learners. Other teaching and learning materials, such as text books, work books, reference books and other necessary materials should also be available in the classroom. Unfortunately some schools do not have such materials and as a result teachers have to be creative enough to improvise. Donald et al. (2007:144) argue that access to teaching materials has an influence on the process of teaching and learning and that it is important that the materials used are accessible, relevant and understandable. Another important aspect to consider is that learners should be actively engaged in the learning process and that they should be able to connect whatever they learn in class to their daily lives. Downing and Eichinger (2008:1) indicate that children and young

adults with disabilities tend to learn better when they are actively involved in the learning process and provided with tactile cues, pictures, objects, parts of objects and a clear model of behaviour in addition to verbal information. They need to be allowed time to examine objects of interest and given many opportunities to perform meaningful tasks which are relevant to their daily lives. As much as this information applies to learners with disabilities, it also applies to learners who are without disabilities. Loreman et al. (2005:12) stipulate that in many ways children without disabilities or giftedness benefit from inclusion just as much as children with diverse abilities.

The changing psychosocial environment

When among other children of the same age, pupils gain good models of appropriate play, language and behaviour. Other pupils in the school learn about difference and disability and become accepting of diversity in society. In order to make this a reality in inclusive classrooms, teachers can learn to create social environments that encourage co-operation and reduce the likelihood of attaching stigmas to difference. Interpersonal relations that are present in the classroom are crucial, because they may either hinder or promote successful learning. Good interpersonal relations within the classroom are critical in the process of developing an effective, inclusive, health promoting classroom culture (Donald et al. 2007:145). It is only when all learners feel that they are an important part of the classroom, that education for all can take place. Engelbrecht et al. (1999:72) underscore this point when stating that the classroom needs to provide a safe and supportive atmosphere where all learners are prepared to take risks and learn from their own mistakes without being reprimanded or ridiculed. In an inclusive classroom the special needs of learners are thought of as related to aspects of the classroom and curriculum rather than as defects located within individuals. It is the responsibility of the teacher to create and to maintain a classroom atmosphere which nurtures collaborative learning, where learners look after one another and take responsibility for the achievement of others. Teachers should facilitate language interaction, peer mediation and co-operative learning to encourage tolerance and acceptance among learners (Donald et al. 2007:143). This point is also emphasised by Loreman et al. (2005) in the foreword when stating, *“Unless we teach our children how to live and work together, not only tolerating but valuing differences in culture, ethnicity, language, background and yes even dramatically different cognitive socio-emotional, and sensory–physical abilities, we almost always teach the opposite-systemic forms of segregation, oppression and elitism”*.

An inclusive classroom is democratic by nature. As much as there are situations where the teachers' insight, responsibility and influence should determine decisions, there are certain situations where the teacher can share or delegate the decision making. When the teacher involves students in the decision making process, students are usually much more willing to co-operate and commit themselves to decisions that affect the whole group. This is the most effective strategy to overcome discipline problems (Donald et al. 2007:159). Instead of implementing strict discipline, punishment can be replaced with a modified reward system (Engelbrecht et al. 1999:73). An understanding of how inclusive classrooms can be organised is the first step in eliminating barriers to learning and development for all learners. The knowledge of teacher attitudes, features and responsibilities are, however, equally important and therefore the inclusive teacher is discussed next.

THE INCLUSIVE TEACHER

The inclusive teachers are seen as agents of change in an inclusive school. They are expected to influence the attitudes of the school community towards learners with disabilities (Engelbrecht et al. 1999:71). In order for the teacher to carry out this important task s/he needs to be sensitive to the needs of learners with special education needs. Being sensitive to the needs of these learners may require the teacher to have knowledge on how to identify and address such needs. This they can acquire through CPTD. Teachers' own background and experiences influence their attitudes towards learners with special education needs (LSEN) so teachers also need to develop a critical understanding of common stereotypes and prejudices related to disability and reflect on how this has influenced their own attitudes (Engelbrecht et al. 1999:71). Through this experience they will be more in touch with themselves; they will be able to know their strengths and their weaknesses; in this way they be able to effect the necessary changes in their schools. The inclusive teacher needs to be adaptive and knowledgeable of different strategies which can be employed in an inclusive classroom to ensure success for all learners. The teacher also has to ensure that there is positive interaction and good relationships between all learners in the classroom, especially between learners with disabilities and their non-disabled peers. The teacher can make use of strategies, such as co-operative learning and peer tutoring. Co-operative learning is a teaching strategy in which small teams, each consisting of pupils with differing levels of ability, use a variety of activities to improve their understanding of subject matter.

Furthermore, inclusive teachers have to be well-informed about different disabilities and how they affect learners both socially and academically. Research indicates that teachers with little experience of people with disabilities are likely to have negative attitudes to inclusion. It

has, however, also been found that experience tends to change attitudes. Engelbrecht and Green (2007:7) assert that teachers have to act as facilitators of a network of support around a particular child, avoiding alienating any members of the team while at the same time keeping the focus firmly on the child's social and learning needs. Teachers, who know themselves well and admit their fallibility, always seek help whenever necessary. Another good asset an inclusive teacher can have is team-spirit. Collaborative and reflective practice amongst teachers is a great tool for teaching. Working in collaboration with others allow teachers the benefit of other view points, sharing of difficulties, of seeking solutions in a group and receiving feedback (Lithebe 2007:74). Engelbrecht et al. (1999:70) are of the opinion that teachers need time and the psychological space to re-examine their general understanding of teaching and learning. They also believe that teachers need support to be able to focus on the positive rather than the negative aspects of change. Teachers can only be change agents if they allow themselves to give in to change, especially when that change is for the benefit of the learner, especially the learner with special educational needs in the inclusive classroom (Lithebe 2007:74).

DISCUSSION

Research has indicated that inclusion is not a goal that can be reached, but a journey with a purpose. Gafoor and Muhammed (2009:1) reiterate that inclusive education operates on the principle that almost all children begin in a general classroom. Moreover, the concept places emphasis on changing the system as a whole rather than the child. It needs a shift in our educational system, a shift in structure and practice to a more flexible, more collaborative setup to accommodate all children. Over and above, inclusive education calls for essential changes in the roles and responsibilities of teachers (Engelbrecht and Green 2007:140). Though regular classroom teachers are willing to take responsibility of all children, including those with special needs, they will not be confident if they are not equipped with necessary skills. Inclusion was found to fail because, in part, teachers were unable to meet demands of modifying and delivering an appropriate curriculum to children with disabilities (Ysseldyke in Loreman et al. 2005: 6). During the course of the journey of inclusion, teachers will build on their experience and increase their skills in reaching all children. They will, however, also have a right to expect proper professional development and support along the way, just as parents have the right to expect that their children will be taught by teachers whose training prepares them to teach all children (Mittler 2000:133). For a long time there has been a sharp division between special and mainstream teacher education programmes. This division contributes to the barriers experienced in inclusive education. Because of this division the

majority of teachers in the mainstream have not had a chance to work with learners with special education needs, because some have been sent to special or independent schools. Also, because of this division, there is a long standing belief that teaching learners with special education needs requires special expertise. It is because of these circumstances that teachers fear that they may not have the specialised knowledge and skills to work with students with special education needs. Teacher training would seemingly be a solution to this problem. Authors like Mittler (2000) and Jordan et al. (2009) suggest that specialised skills for teaching learners with special education needs may not be crucial for effective inclusion. They further suggest that teachers already have the knowledge and skills to teach inclusively and those teachers who are effective overall with all their students are also more likely to be skilled in inclusive practices. This assertion might imply that teacher training for inclusion is not important, since teachers already possess skills necessary for inclusion.

Lloyd (in Loreman et al. 2005:6) reported that teachers in New Zealand were unable to modify curricula to accommodate the perceived educational needs of children with disabilities, despite being aware of those needs. This shows that teachers are still unable to make the necessary modifications for accommodating special needs, despite being effective teachers. This takes us back to a point mentioned earlier on the previous page that inclusion was found to fail because, in part, teachers were unable to meet demands of modifying and delivering an appropriate curriculum to children with disabilities. Therefore teacher training is absolutely necessary for the successful implementation of inclusive education. The level of success of inclusion can be connected to several factors, perhaps the most significant being teachers' preparation, attitudes and opportunity for collaboration. Engelbrecht and Green (2007:148) assert that teacher education needs to address teachers' perspectives, values, motivations and views and their natural resistance to change. They feel that teachers have to be supported to make a shift from the medical pathological model of difference and disability to the social-contextual or social ecological model of understanding issues related to the accommodation of difference. This view is also supported by Loreman et al. (2005:6), who state that positive attitudes towards children with diverse abilities are essential to the success of inclusive programmes; these attitudes can, however, and need to be fostered through training and positive experiences with children with diverse abilities. Another important aspect that might be addressed through further training is teacher collaboration. Inclusive education requires classroom cultures and practices to change and may increase teachers' workloads. Teachers need to form partnerships with each other, with parents, learners, support personnel and other community members for both emotional and technical support.

Learners' interests, needs and goals become the focus of collaborative decision making. To collaborate successfully, teachers, however, need to develop skills in problem solving, interpersonal communication, dealing with differences and managing themselves and their time. Teacher education has to accept the responsibility of promoting the development of these skills (Engelbrecht and Green 2007:149). The main aim of teacher training is to empower teachers to be agents of change and to develop the teachers' commitment to inclusion. The importance of training teachers for inclusive classrooms cannot be denied. Many of the teacher development programmes that were intended to promote inclusive education have, however, proved both inadequate and inappropriate, resulting in negative feelings towards the implementation of inclusive education (Engelbrecht and Green 2007:143).

The failure of the CPTD programmes for inclusive education to empower teachers to become agents of change and to work effectively in inclusive classrooms have been made evident by the fact that to date only some teachers have received training. Secondly, there are instances where uneven implementation of inclusive education policy even within schools. Moreover, in the many of other schools, there is apparently little understanding of disability, an inadequate amount of inclusive pedagogy, and little aspiration on the part of teachers to take on additional challenges of teaching a diverse learner population (Mariga and Pakacha 2007:10). The following two challenges have also been documented in literature, to be common in many countries (Phillips 2008:2; Engelbrecht and Green 2007: 143). Firstly these CPTD programmes fail to take into account the nature of adult learning and secondly the programmes fail to acknowledge the full complexity of individual school settings. Phillips (2008:2) asserts that schools are areas with very specific needs and requirements in terms of CPTD. For CPTD programmes to be effective, they should be able to address the following questions: What adult learning principles might influence the effectiveness of professional development for teachers? What factors might inhibit or enhance Professional Development success for teachers? Are there factors within the school environment that may affect learning outcomes? Failure of CPTD programmes to address these issues may lead the provision of ineffective and inappropriate programmes for the implementation of inclusive education, resulting in negative feelings towards the implementation of inclusive education as indicated by Engelbrecht and Green (2007:143). The implication of the changing demands and environment for teachers and inclusive education is that teachers are always in transit. You may never, at any one point in time say: *I have successfully handled this inclusive class this*

year because the following year may have students or learners requiring different forms of support.

CONCLUSION

In this article we critically presented arguments that support the perpetual need for professional training and development of teachers for catching up with the changing world of education as well as the advent of inclusive education for inclusive communities. The discussions show that there can never be a moment when teachers would say they have all desirable knowledge, skills and in addition, attitudes.

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