
Educational Reform in a Globalised Age: What is globalisation and how is it affecting Education world-wide?

Professor Graham Vulliamy

University of York, UK

Abstract

The processes of globalisation are having profound effects on education across the world. The paper addresses two questions, each of which has led to a variety of controversies in the academic literature. The first is ‘what is globalisation?’ It is argued that the latter is a multi-faceted rather than a singular condition that is associated with various consequences at the economic, political and socio-cultural levels. The second question is ‘how is globalisation affecting education world-wide?’ The direct impact of globalisation on curriculum and pedagogy has been relatively small. However, the more general effects of economic restructuring and associated economic and political ideologies have been great. The implementation of neo-liberal economic reforms and associated structural adjustment policies have led to the increasing privatisation of educational provision, with the emergence of a new managerial and professional discourse adapted to a competitive market-led model of education. Research on the impact of globalisation on education suggests that, contrary to the predictions of some hyperglobalists that the influence of nation states would wither away, national control over education has remained strong. The similarities and differences in national educational responses to global pressures are illustrated in the paper by two comparative qualitative research projects comparing the work of primary school teachers in England and Finland and England and New Zealand respectively. On the one hand, in Finland, the pressures of globalisation have been mediated by pre-existing national ideologies of social welfarism and equity. This has led to marked discontinuities of response in England and Finland. For example, where England introduced a national curriculum, Finland dismantled its previous national curriculum and moved instead to school-based curricula, arguing that this was more appropriate for the kind of flexible and lifelong learning approach required in a globalised era. In addition, unlike the strong target-based and audit culture developed recently in England, Finland abandoned its national school inspection system and moved to a policy of school self-evaluation. On the other hand, in New Zealand, whose government shared with England a neo-liberal market ideology, there were strong continuities in response between the two countries. There were very similar changes to curriculum and pedagogy and the development in each country of a strong audit culture and discourse of ‘new professionalism’ in primary schools.

Introduction

The processes of globalisation are having profound effects on education across the world. This paper addresses two questions, each of which has led to a variety of controversies in the academic literature. The first is 'what is globalisation?' It is argued here that the latter is a multi-faceted rather than a singular condition that is associated with various consequences at the economic, political and socio-cultural levels.

The second question is 'how is globalisation affecting education world-wide?' In this paper I suggest that the direct impact of globalisation on curriculum and pedagogy has been relatively small. However, the more general effects of economic restructuring and associated economic and political ideologies have been great. The implementation of neo-liberal economic reforms and associated structural adjustment policies have led to the increasing privatisation of educational provision, with the emergence of a new managerial and professional discourse adapted to a competitive market-led model of education.

Finally I will argue in the paper that research on the impact of globalisation on education suggests that, contrary to the predictions of some hyperglobalists that the influence of nation states would wither away, national control over education has remained strong. The similarities and differences in national educational responses to global pressures are illustrated here by two comparative qualitative research projects comparing the work of primary school teachers in England and Finland and England and New Zealand respectively.

What is globalisation?

As reviewed elsewhere (Vulliamy, 2004), there is an extensive literature on the causes and consequences of globalisation and the degree to which it is a distinctive new phenomenon. It has been viewed as 'a set of processes by which the world is rapidly being integrated into one economic space via increased international trade, the internationalization of production and financial markets, [and] the internationalization of a commodity culture promoted by an increasingly networked global telecommunications system' (Gibson-Graham, quoted in Tatto, 2006, p.232). It is widely argued that the nature of contemporary globalisation is best viewed as a multifaceted rather than a singular condition and that it is associated with various consequences at the economic, political and socio-cultural levels.

Writing in 1992, the sociologist Roland Robertson suggested that 'globalisation as a concept refers both to the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole' (1992, p.8). He argued both that there were objective changes taking place and that an effect of these changes was that people's subjective views of the world and their place within it were changing. A central feature of the objective changes taking place is the manner in which, as a result of recent developments in

telecommunications using satellite TV and the linking of computers through cyberspace, economic and cultural activities can take place on a planetary scale in real time. This has led to, as Held et al. put it, a 'widening, deepening and speeding up of worldwide interconnectedness in all aspects of contemporary social life, from the cultural to the criminal, the financial to the spiritual' (1999, p.2).

The economic changes associated with contemporary globalisation are reflected in the dominance of transnational corporations (TNCs) in the global economy. They are estimated to be responsible for over half of the world's value-creation and over half the largest economies in the world are TNCs and not countries. These corporations superimpose their own global network of integrated production and investment activities across various continents, driven not by national considerations but by their own requirements to cut costs and boost profits - a process helped by their location in low-tax countries coupled with the use of untaxable off-shore accounts. Innovations in satellite communications and computerised information networks mean that not only can capital be moved around the world instantaneously - with over a trillion dollars being bought and sold on the foreign currency markets each day - but so can labour with, for example, telephone information services being provided in one country in real time by workers thousands of miles away in another country.

The ensuing forces of global competition mean that goods and services produced within a domestic national economy have to meet standards of quality and costs of production that are set globally; this in turn produces an awareness of global competition - a subjective awareness on behalf of industrialists and national policy-makers that can be viewed as an aspect of Robertson's 'global consciousness' (Hoogvelt, 2001, p.124) - that constrains their behaviour to conform to a global market discipline. The economic dominance of transnational corporations has been accompanied by the dominant global political ideology of neo-liberalism that is currently being promoted by transnational organizations such as the World Trade Organization, the IMF, the World Bank and OECD. These economic policies are designed to lower production costs and attract foreign investment in order to promote export-led economies. Tax rates must be kept low to stop either individuals or companies moving their business to more tax-friendly environments.

Such economic changes result in political changes whereby governments no longer have the discretion to opt, as many Scandinavian countries used to do, to charge high rates of tax in order to fund high-quality government public services, such as education and welfare. For some theorists, such as Ohmae (1995), part of a group referred to as 'hyperglobalists' (Held *et al.*, 1999), this has led to a loss of power by national authorities over their own economies, a process that is leading to the decline of nation-states as the primary economic and political units in the world. Instead, they argue, that global economic networks - based upon ideologies of free trade, consumer choice, marketisation and privatisation - have become far more powerful and influential than the policies of individual national governments.

The processes of globalisation have had not only widespread economic and political consequences, but also socio-cultural ones. Sociologists such as Castells (1996) have emphasised the power of cultural and informational interchange in creating a global society based upon a dense network of transnational exchanges and affiliations in a world where time and space are compressed. Access to knowledge and information enable those participating in such networks to wield greater power. This too is viewed by many theorists as diminishing the role of the nation-state since communities of people can have social relations irrespective of the territory to which they belong. Cultural theorists, such as Giddens (1990), have argued that globalisation produces two contradictory socio-cultural tendencies: pressures towards global conformity on the one hand associated with satellite television, the media industry and the global spread of McDonalds and pressures towards local diversification and identity formation on the other, with, for example, resistance to global ideology from groups such as Islamic fundamentalists and postmodern environmentalists.

How is globalisation affecting education world-wide?

Various views are expressed in the literature concerning the impact of contemporary globalisation on the structure and processes of education worldwide. Part of this debate concerns the difficulties of disentangling the consequences for education of the processes of globalisation and those of the accompanying global political ideology of neo-liberalism. Carnoy (1999) has suggested that the direct impact of globalisation on both curriculum and pedagogy at the school classroom level in most countries had to date been minimal. There is little evidence that such an assessment would be any different over a decade later. Thus, for example, whilst there have been some attempts in Western industrialised countries to inject more global awareness into the content of school curricula, these have generally remained very low status add-ons.

There has, however, been one influence from processes associated with globalisation that is beginning to make a marked impact on teaching styles in primary schools in England, if not on the content of the curriculum. This is the widespread introduction of interactive whiteboards and the growing spread of ICT more generally in English primary school classrooms. In our research on teaching in 50 primary schools in England in 1992-1994 (Webb and Vulliamy, 1996), we found that the use of ICT in classrooms was generally restricted to individuals, pairs or small groups of children working largely unsupported at one or two classroom computers while the teacher taught and monitored the rest of the class engaged in often unrelated work. However, in a follow-up research study in the same schools over a decade later we found that nearly all school classrooms had interactive whiteboards (Webb and Vulliamy, 2006). This enabled teachers to access material from the internet in their teaching and pupils

to experiment with devising their own PowerPoint presentations.

Carnoy (1999) continues to argue that, whilst the direct effects of globalisation on curriculum and pedagogy have been limited, the more general influences of economic re-structuring and associated economic and political ideologies have been great. Thus, for example, changes in the global organization of work are putting a considerable premium on highly skilled and flexible workers, fuelling the demand both for university education and for lifelong learning.

Structural adjustment policies, designed to make countries more attractive to global investors and more competitive economically, involve cuts in the growth of public spending on education and the promotion instead of user charges for public services and increased privatisation. A striking illustration of the impact of such policies on primary schooling was given to us when re-visiting the same primary schools in Poland in 1993 (Vulliamy and Webb, 1996) in which we had researched five years previously before the demolition of the Berlin Wall (Webb and Vulliamy, 1989).

While in 1988 communist Poland was suffering from economic crisis, schools were nevertheless fully funded by the state. However, following the 'short, sharp shock' transition to a capitalist economy in 1989-1990 (Zukowski, 1993), a period of structural adjustment economic policies ensued, similar to those imposed by the World Bank on many developing countries (Ilon, 1994) as part of the neo-liberal economic ideology for development. This led to the state withdrawing from the funding of almost all educational expenditure in Poland other than teachers' salaries and also to the progressive devaluation of such salaries themselves (resulting in most teachers having to have additional jobs for evenings and weekends in order to be able to survive). Financial management was delegated to the schools themselves who were required to raise funds for all school expenses, such as heating, lighting, building repairs, books and other resources. They raised such funds through a combination of charging parents fees and business activities such as hiring out school classrooms in the evenings and weekends to organisations running leisure classes or private language teaching. Not surprisingly, some schools were in a very much better position to make extra money than others, depending on their location and the relative wealth and job prospects of the pupils' parents. Thus, whereas in 1988 all the primary schools we had visited had had very similar standards and resources, within a five-year period we had witnessed a marked divergence between high quality and well resourced schools at one end of the continuum and lower quality and poorly resourced ones at the other. This continuum, reflecting parental social class background, was similar to that which had been observed in England five years after the introduction of financial management of schools and a market ideology of schooling (Ball, 1993).

Another general consequence of globalisation for schooling is that the quality of national education systems is increasingly being compared internationally, with a growing emphasis upon mathematics and science curricula, English as a foreign language and communication skills. This, in turn, has led to

policy-makers' concerns about countries' relative positions in the international league table of test results and the desire to copy the policies of those countries who appear to be doing well. For example, the introduction of the New Labour government's National Numeracy Strategy in English primary schools in 1998 was directly influenced by the practice of mathematics teaching in Taiwanese primary schools. An influential review of the results of international comparative studies of educational achievement (Reynolds and Farrell, 1996) found that England was doing poorly in mathematics tests in comparison to Pacific Rim societies such as Taiwan. This was followed by a television programme in England looking at what we might learn from the experience of the use of whole-class teaching methods with Professor David Reynolds filming mathematics lessons in Taiwanese primary schools. He was then appointed the Chair of the Labour Government's Numeracy task force in England which was responsible for introducing the National Numeracy Strategy with its strong emphasis upon the use of whole class teaching – a very different approach to the more individual and group-based style of teaching mathematics that had hitherto been used in English primary schools.

In common with some other educationalists in England, I wrote an article that was highly critical of this attempt at policy borrowing (Vulliamy, 1998). The article drew upon a combination of brief observations in five Taiwanese primary schools that I made during a 1997 visit and the research literature on the international transfer of educational innovations that demonstrates that what works in one culture is unlikely to work in another, unless very careful attention is paid to contextual factors. Interestingly, however, later research suggested the need to re-assess such a critique (Vulliamy, 2004, pp.268-270). I had anticipated that English primary school teachers would complain that the context of their teaching was such that greater moves towards whole-class teaching in the newly introduced Literacy Hour were not appropriate. However, in our research based on extensive interviews with primary teachers (Webb and Vulliamy, 2007), we found that the Numeracy Hour was viewed very favourably and its focus on mental maths was identified as a considerable change from past mathematics teaching. It was seen to be increasing children's motivation, capacity to work independently, confidence in maths, attainment in tests and also as providing new understandings for teachers of the processes of children's mathematical learning.

Before concluding this section on the impact of globalisation on education world-wide, it is worth adding two more general comments. The first is that these wider processes are very uneven in their geographical and social impact. As Hallak puts it, there are 'those who globalise, those who are globalised and those who are left out by globalisation' (2000, p.25) - processes that are leading to new patterns of global inequalities (Hoogvelt, 2001). Thus the beneficiaries of globalisation include the United States, Europe and the newly industrialised economies of the Far East, such as China, whilst countries such as those in sub-Saharan Africa are the losers.

The second comment is that research on the impact of globalisation on education suggests that, contrary to the predictions of some hyperglobalists that the influence of nation states would wither away, national control over education has remained strong. For example, a book presenting case studies of Malaysia, Papua New Guinea and Australia argues that ‘there is no essential determinacy to the ways in which globalisation processes work, since for various globalisation pressures there are also sites of resistance and counter movements’ (Taylor *et al.*, 1997, p.72); or again, Green *et al.*’s (1999) research shows the manner in which the new globalised concept of ‘lifelong learning’ has been interpreted and applied in very different ways in different countries. Even within a country, there can be marked variations in the ways in which global influences and constraints are mediated locally, as Rhoten’s (2000) analysis of educational change in three provinces within Argentina demonstrates. Thus, as Carnoy and Rhoten (2002, p.6) put it, ‘policies prescribed by the same paradigm but applied in different contexts produce different practices – so different in some cases – that it is difficult to imagine that they were the result of the same policy’ – an observation which in the remainder of this paper I will illustrate with reference to two comparative qualitative research projects comparing the work of primary school teachers in England and Finland and England and New Zealand respectively.

The York comparative research projects in Finland and New Zealand: research rationale and methodology

Since the middle of the 1990s, we have been engaged on a number of comparative research projects together with Finnish researchers examining the differential effects of educational reforms arising from global pressures in Finland and England (for an overview of these see Vulliamy and Webb, 2009). We also conducted a similar such study with New Zealand researchers (Vulliamy *et al.*, 2004; Locke *et al.*, 2005). Our research strategy was based on the premises that, in addition to comparative analyses of national educational policies, research into the impact of globalisation on education should also examine the manner in which such policies are variously translated into practice and teachers’ identities, embedded within certain cultural traditions with their own history, are vital to an understanding of this.

Such an approach, characterised by Ball (1994) as ‘policy ethnography’, has been used in studies of the implementation in schools of national reforms (e.g. Bowe *et al.*, 1992) and in the impact of such reforms on teacher identity (e.g. Welmond, 2002). However, with very few exceptions (e.g. Broadfoot *et al.* 1993; Alexander 2000), comparative research on primary schooling policy across different countries tends to be restricted to discussions of the influences of globalisation on national policies. Thus, for example, both Gordon and Whitty (1997) and Thrupp (2001) examine the manner in which the pressures for globalised reform led to policy changes in New Zealand and England, whilst Klette (2002) discusses the way in which globalisation has impacted on the national educational policies of Finland and three

other Nordic countries.

The adoption of a qualitative methodology for our comparative research has led to its being viewed as part of a 'new' comparative research tradition 'developing innovative methodologies in order to undertake studies which take account of tradition, context and national and local education policy' (Troman and Jeffrey 2005, p.207). A more detailed discussion of the methodological issues arising from such an approach can be found elsewhere (Vulliamy and Webb, 2009). Here it is suffice to say that examining the manner in which policy reforms are implemented in practice necessitates the analysis of data collected from those teachers on whose work practices such policies impact.

In Finland our work began with a mid-1990s research project based on ethnographic case studies of six primary schools in each country, with data from both fieldwork observations and transcribed interviews. The later research projects in the early 2000s, which examined the theme of primary teacher professionalism in England, Finland and New Zealand, used a data base of semi-structured interviews from samples of primary school teachers in each of the three countries. In the following two sections of the paper I will give a flavour of some of the main findings, first from New Zealand and then from Finland. They illustrate something of the complexity of the processes of globalised educational reform in that, not only, can the same global pressures lead to very different national reforms but also the same national reforms can be mediated and adapted in different ways in different local school contexts. Moreover, the responses of teachers can only be understood with reference not only to the nature of the required reform but also to the cultural context and values of the teachers themselves.

Thus, we find examples of contrasting policies, such as on the curriculum and pedagogy in England and Finland, leading to similar teacher responses, with increased workloads and stress in each of the countries. We find examples of similar policies, such as the promotion of more collaborative working and teamwork within schools, being viewed in a similarly positive fashion in each of the three countries and similar curriculum and pedagogy reforms in England and New Zealand being viewed similarly by their teachers. And we find examples of different national policies leading to very different teacher responses in the different countries. For example, on the one hand, in England and in New Zealand the governments have introduced harsh teacher inspection regimes as accountability measures which are resented by teachers who interpret them as indicating the government's lack of trust in their abilities; on the other hand, the absence of any national testing regime in Finland is in accord with this country's very weak accountability framework and this is welcomed by teachers as a positive espousal of the 'culture of trust' (Sahlberg, 2007) in their work.

Globalisation and educational reform in New Zealand

Policy reforms for primary schooling in England and in New Zealand in the last two decades have been strongly influenced by the neo-liberal global ideology. Since the nature of these reforms in the English context is addressed elsewhere (Webb conference address; Vulliamy and Webb, 2006), I will focus on the New Zealand ones here. While there have been some differences in national policy reforms in the two countries arising from their different historical and cultural traditions (Dale and Ozga, 1993), in very general terms they have both embarked on the same attempted reform of the teaching profession. This has involved moves towards the financial management of schools with a market-driven approach to cost-cutting, a greater emphasis upon consumer choice, and a drive to raise standards through curriculum and pedagogy reform, together with an accountability system to audit school effectiveness. A managerialist culture derived from industry is imported into schools with concepts such as workforce remodelling, performance management and performance indicators. A discourse of 'new professionalism' (Vulliamy, 2006) has emerged, together with a refocusing of initial teacher education and of teacher in-service training to provide the new competences required in teaching.

Our comparative research showed that changes in pedagogy and curriculum organisation in primary schools in England and New Zealand have shown some remarkable parallels in following aspects of the 'new professionalism' discourse. Following the introduction in English primary schools of a National Curriculum in the 1988 Education Reform Act, a New Zealand Curriculum Framework was introduced in 1993. Whilst this was less detailed and prescriptive than the English one, it similarly conceptualised school-based learning in terms of achievement levels and pre-established outcomes that could be measured. This in turn facilitated the kind of audit culture required by the neo-liberal public accountability model. Thus in New Zealand the Education Review Office increasingly took on an inspectorial and policing role that was very similar to the role of the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) inspection regime in England that had been implemented following the 1992 Education Act. As Thrupp's (1998) comparison of these approaches to inspection makes clear, there was direct policy borrowing/influence between the two countries and this is made much easier in a globalised world with both the speed of travel for policy-makers and advisers and the real-time communication possibilities via the internet.

The importance of gaining teachers' perspectives on policy innovations is illustrated by our finding that the centralised prescription of curriculum and pedagogy by the government in each of the two countries was viewed much more positively by teachers than had been predicted by educationalists. Thus, whilst many academics argued that such centralised prescription would result in the deprofessionalisation and deskilling of teachers (e.g. Davies and Edwards, 2001), this is not generally the way in which teachers perceived it. They viewed it as increasing teachers' professionalism by

increasing their effectiveness and giving them the confidence and awareness to explain precisely what they were doing and why. While primary teachers in both New Zealand and England generally viewed the curriculum and pedagogy reforms positively, they shared also a negative view of the assessment reforms in each country. For example, New Zealand teachers talked of the manner in which the growth of assessment to pre-defined objectives, and the reporting of this to parents and in the context of teacher appraisal and performance management, constrained their teaching practices. Similar negative reactions to primary school testing and the ensuing national league tables of school results can be found in our research in English primary schools (Webb and Vulliamy, 2007).

Globalisation and educational reform in Finland

Finland has also seen the introduction of market-driven reforms and associated moves towards greater accountability to parents as consumers. However, any notion that globalisation necessarily implies homogenisation is belied by the very different manner in which such global forces were accommodated from both England and New Zealand. Finnish policy analysts have stressed the manner in which changes to their national educational policy were a response to globalisation but filtered through a peculiarly Nordic welfare state tradition that had always put a high premium on the goals of equality (Rinne *et al.*, 2002; Sahlberg, 2007).

Thus one of the underlying rationales for beginning our collaboration with Finnish researchers was to research the policy and practice of primary schooling in each country at a time when, in some respects, these were moving in opposite directions. Whilst England introduced a detailed and prescriptive National Curriculum with the 1988 Education Reform Act and the government increasingly advocated whole-class teaching and separate subject instruction, Finnish legislation in 1994 dismantled its longstanding subject-based national curriculum and encouraged schools to develop school-based curricula incorporating thematic work and accompanied by more active-learning pedagogies (Webb & Vulliamy, 1999a and 1999b). Finnish policy-makers felt that these were more appropriate for the kind of flexible and lifelong learning approach required in a globalised era.

The two countries' policies on inspection and monitoring were also moving in opposite directions with Finland abandoning its national inspection system and promoting school self-evaluation, whilst in England external accountability had been imposed on schools through OFSTED inspections (Webb *et al.*, 1998). Policy-makers' conceptions of teacher professionalism in Finland and England also differed markedly, with each country responding to different aspects of the pressures of globalisation (Webb *et al.* 2004; 2006). In England, notions of the professional teacher have been transformed by the New Labour government to indicate the degree to which teachers accommodate themselves to centrist agendas

associated with 'commercialised professionalism' (Hanlon, 1998) and with the drive to raise standards to ensure that the country can compete in the global market competition. In Finland, policy rhetoric on teacher professionalism is predicated on teacher autonomy, a commitment to enabling pupils to become active independent learners, engagement in lifelong learning and collaboration with various educational stakeholders.

We found that the contrasting policy responses in England and Finland to the growing global demands for accountability have had crucial differential effects on school cultures and teachers. In England narrow educational outcomes were to be achieved through curriculum and pedagogical prescription allied to national testing and school inspections, whereas in Finland the strong tradition of trust in teacher professionalism meant that, while the goals of education were identified, decisions about how these may best be realized were vested in the schools (Webb *et al.*, 2006). Finnish primary pupils have to date performed extremely well in international surveys and tests, such as PISA (Valijarvi *et al.*, 2002). As long as this continues, it seems unlikely that the Finnish government will increase curriculum prescription and audit. However, we suggest that the trust in teachers that sustains their professional freedom could prove fragile and subject to challenge should the level of pupil attainment slide down the international league tables (Webb *et al.*, 2009).

Conclusion

The processes of globalisation are leading to widespread changes that are impacting on education world-wide. While nation-states have always felt the need to reform their educational systems in response to international trends and modernizing ideas, I would agree with Dale (2000) that globalisation represents a 'new and distinct shift in the relationship between state and supranational forces, and it has affected education profoundly and in a range of ways' (p.90). However, Dale also notes that 'recent interpretations of the consequences for the idea of the autonomous nation-state of economic and political globalisation have placed the importance, even the survival, of the state in question' (p.87). For such hyperglobalists, there will be an increasing convergence of educational policies and practices worldwide. Drawing here on our comparative research on the work of primary school teachers in Finland, New Zealand and England I have challenged such a view. I have argued instead that global policies are mediated at the national level through differing cultural and historical traditions and thus produce different national policies in response to the same global pressures. Moreover, the implementation of such national policies in schools has the further potential for mediation according to different cultural traditions both between different countries and within a single country.

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全球化時代的教育改革：

什麼是全球化？

全球化如何對世界各地的教育造成影響？

Graham Vulliamy

英國約克大學教授

(翻譯：國立中正大學成人及繼續教育研究所博士班、南華大學講師嚴嘉明教授)

摘要

全球化的過程對世界各地的教育產生深刻的影響。本文著重於兩個議題，而這兩個議題分別導引出學術文獻上不同但頗具爭議性的討論。第一個問題是什麼是全球化？學者們主張全球化所涵蓋的層面應該是多面相的而非單一的情況，而全球化與經濟、政治、社會文化層面所造成的影響相結合。本文中討論的第二個議題即是全球化對世界各地教育所造成的影響為何？全球化對課程與教學所造成的直接影響相形之下是較小的，然而，全球化對於經濟體制的重建以及結合經濟、政治意識等問題所造成的影響更為明顯。新自由經濟改革及政策上結構性調整導致教育供給私有化的增加，加上採用新式管理及專業化的論述以應付當前市場為導向的現代化教育。有關於全球化對教育的影響研究建議：相對於一些極致全球學家(hyperglobalist)所預測的國家的權力將衰退，事實上，國家對教育的掌控及影響力依然很大。國家如何回應全球化對教育上所產生的影響之異同，本文將以兩個質性比較研究案例說明之：英格蘭與芬蘭小學教師工作之比較及英格蘭與紐西蘭之比較。另一方面，在芬蘭，全球化的壓力藉由已存在的社會福利主義及社會公平等國家意識所傳達。因而導致英格蘭及芬蘭全球化市場回應的中斷，例如：英格蘭實施國家課程制度，芬蘭則去除先前制定的國家課程制度，取而代之的是學校課程制度，並爭辯如此的做法反而較為適切，認為特別適合全球化時代所追求彈性化及終身教育的理念。此外，不同於英格蘭近年來發展以目標為導向及重視審查制度的文化，芬蘭則放棄公立學校審查制度改為學校自行評鑑的機制。同時，紐西蘭政府與英格蘭一樣追求所謂新自由市場的理念，針對課程與教學的回應仍持續當中，但回應的方式介於英格蘭及芬蘭兩國之間。英格蘭、芬蘭及紐西蘭各國對課程及教學的改變有其極度相似之處，但強烈審查機制的文化及小學「新專業化」的論述在各國發展之中。