
WHATEVER SUCCESS human society has mustered over the past hundred years is in large measure a result of widespread educational investment by nations in the skills, attitudes, and behaviors of all children. Schools are part of the essential fabric of life in a modern society. Although schools are so commonplace we often overlook them, they play a crucial role in the making of our social world. In the global community, a high-quality public system of education is the *sine qua non* of a modern democratic society. Many economists and others who study how nations develop stress that high-quality schools are essential for the human capital development and economic growth of nations (OECD, 2001). Beyond economic development, a nation would be hard-pressed to consider itself a functioning country without a national system of education.

With all the importance attached to schools, it is no wonder that politicians and policy makers around the world place much emphasis on providing quality public education to their constituents. Operating and regulating a nation's schools—public or private—is of extreme importance to national leaders, and governments everywhere guide and direct the kind of education that children receive. In a very short time, public schooling has become the major means by which governments try to promote positive economic change, strengthen national identity, and inculcate citizenship values and behavior in entire populations of people. Consequently there is incessant public discussion about schooling, and political campaigns in all sorts of nations make educational policy and the performance of schools a central point.

By and large, most people most of the time think about education solely as a national undertaking. The trends we examine here, however, lead to quite a different vision, one where there is a considerable global process

nation's) schools as separate national entities. After all, what could be more deeply embedded in a nation's society than its schools preparing citizens for future adult lives in that country? The reigning image of education today is that schools are designed and managed within a national context to meet the specific needs and goals of a particular nation.

This vision also assumes that schooling is organized to educate and socialize children in a specific way that is directly linked to the future needs of a particular nation. For example, German schools are thought to prepare German adults with the technical skills, linguistic capabilities, and cultural awareness necessary to carry forth the entity of Germany into the future. The national product of educated citizens issuing forth from the school system is the main image of what schooling does in every nation. Educators are not aware of the larger global world, but their predominant image of a national school is as a means to pass on a sense of national uniqueness and history, as well as meet the technical needs of its particular labor market. This image implies that schooling is limited to the specific needs of a nation, that international schooling would not expand except as is needed for national reasons, and that would schools engage in education that is separable from traditional education of the nation. Additionally, this image of schooling holds that because labor markets are hierarchical, so should schooling be hierarchical. For efficiency, the argument continues, the best and the brightest of a nation deserve the best educational opportunities for the best national outcomes, and those with lesser endowments should receive less. All of this is wrapped up in a picture of a national system of education operating uniquely to produce sufficiently adults with the kind of skill necessary for a range of tasks in the labor market and adult life within a national context.

This common image of schooling bound up in a national context is further reinforced by the rhetoric of official comparisons of educational systems across nations (Schümer, 2004). Observing schooling across nations is thought to reveal significant differences in specific and unique national features, and relative differences in academic outcomes, such as national achievement scores among nations. A common extension of this idea is that the specific characteristics of a nation's schools are partly responsible for its relative position in the world's economy, and that nations are different enough from one another

has been the need to investigate the tools of the educational systems of which the world around us shows such a striking diversity. In the *search for causative factors behind development and "productivity" of educational systems* there is a need for empirical and for cross-nationally valid variables pertaining to these systems as they act in function [Husén, 1967, p. 19, emphasis added].

Now listen to how he perceives schooling as inseparable from national context: "Any educational system can only be fully understood in the context of the culture, traditions, history and general social structure of the nation it is designed to serve" (p. 220, emphasis added).

This image of national schooling is how many think the educational world works, but ultimately it is mostly inaccurate, and becoming more so every moment. In spite of the fact that nations (and their subunits, provinces and states) have immediate political and fiduciary control over schooling, education as an institution has become a global enterprise. We show that there are all kinds of trends suggesting that ideas and demands and expectations for what school can, and should, do for a society have developed well beyond any particular national context. The same global ideas, demands and expectations filter into nations, greatly shaping their schools in use all over the world with school all over the world. Over the last century, there have been the steady expansion of schooling into our daily lives and deepening of education's meaning for things people hold dear. The current situation in schooling across nations is wholly unpredictable from the image of unique national models of schooling.

All the while that schooling has been considered a national technical project, from nation to nation considerable global forces are at work shaping and changing schooling in fundamental ways that many people are not aware of as they view education mostly from a national perspective. But like the shrinking of the world's marketplace, media, and politics, education too is undergoing intensive globalization. Whether you find them in Mexico City, a small town in Pennsylvania, or in rural Kenya, schools all over the world appear to run in much the same way everywhere. Whether we were educated in a public school in New York City or a Catholic school in Toronto we experienced the same basic patterns of education. Today we can walk into almost any public school around the world and be able to understand

dents, parents, teachers, and administrators remain mostly unappreciated.

This book is about the global state of education, and about how wide forces interact with local ones to create educational change in students, their families, teachers, and administrators in your neighborhood school. Although we focus on mathematics and science in the fourth, eighth, and twelfth grades, we generalize to all academic subjects in elementary and secondary schooling. We tell this story of globalized education through separate tales of educational trends, using some of an ever-growing store of complex information intended to compare schooling across many nations.

Over the past three decades, there has been an explosion of information comparing schools and their outcomes, particularly the academic achievement of their students across nations. In most nations, this kind of information has become part of the dialogue about education improvement, but this information is often misinterpreted or misused, deliberately or through for certain results and highlighting a particular political point within a national debate. Two good examples are the massive debates arising from the Reagan administration's *Nation at Risk* report, with its gratuitous negative misinterpretation of American student performance relative to other nations (Bradburn, Haertel, Schwille, and Torney-Purta) and last year's debate in Germany over the causes of achievement differences among its provinces on the international assessment called PISA, in which politicians attributed educational outcomes to all sorts of unrelated political causes.

With this recent flood of international information about schooling in various nations, it is not clear that national policy makers, educators, or even some policy analysts really understand how to interpret such information in conjunction with the global forces driving their school systems. We recognize that educational policy for running and improving schools is always aimed at national or subnational issues, and always will be. As the saying goes, all politics is local. Policy makers all over the globe have been organizing and reorganizing national school systems nationally or seminally since at least the end of World War II, and in some nations well before that. But there is another major part of the story (increasingly becoming the central part of the story), namely, the effects of the globalization of schooling. National and local educators alike are bombarded with comparative

Bank, OECD, and development foundations (see, for example, Dale Robertson, 2002).

Using analyses of the data from the Third International Mathematics Science Study (TIMSS), we give the reader a look at how schools vary around the world, and how complex forces are affecting all nations, shaping both their understanding of educational problems and solutions to them. We highlight the dramatic changes that have occurred in the recent past and speculate on where current trends will take the institution of mass education in the future.

TIMSS collected a massive amount of data in 1994, in schools in forty-one nations across three grades (fourth, eighth, and twelfth). In addition to some analyses we use data from TIMSS-99, an identical study (done in 1999) that also included other nations, making a total of fifty-three nations participating in one or both TIMSS studies.¹ TIMSS sampled thousands of students in hundreds of schools and classrooms in nations as diverse as the United States, South Korea, Kuwait, Colombia, Germany, and Latvia. In addition to a mathematics and science test, students were asked a number of questions about themselves, their schooling, and their parents. Their mathematics teachers and the headmaster of the school were also asked a number of questions about the mathematics and science curricula, teaching, and the school. This huge data set was then compiled by the International Association for Educational Achievement and Evaluation (IEA) and made available to nations and researchers. We augmented the original cross-national data with more than one hundred indicators of other qualities of nations drawn from a range of international sources. Complete technical details about the TIMSS data and study can be found in Martin, Gregory, and Stemler, 1999.

If we combine the nations represented in the TIMSS of 1994 and TIMSS-99, there are now extensive data on how schools run and what

1. Australia, Austria, Belgium (Flemish), Belgium (French), Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Hong Kong, Taipei, Colombia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, England, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hong Kong, Hungary, Iceland, Indonesia, Ireland, Islamic Republic of Iran, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Republic of Korea, Kuwait, Latvia, Lithuania, Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Malaysia, Moldova, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Philippines, Portugal, Romania, Russian Federation, Scotland, Singapore, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey, United States.

zens, political regime, economic productivity, level of violence, and others.² Most of the OECD nations are here, along with nations from America, the former Soviet East Bloc, and the Pacific Rim. There are, however, no sub-Saharan African nations, not many in South America, and many extremely poor ones. So we take some liberty when we say that the trends described here are worldwide, but we are confident that they are the fact trends found in developed nations and many developing nations and not the case of extremely poor nations, or those with severe health or political crises; it is less clear what is happening in their educational systems; we consider what the case might be for nations of this kind only in passing. A picture of education in the most impoverished and politically dysfunctional nations is much needed, but it is beyond the scope of this work.

Each of the nine tales is interesting in itself; together they plot the state of education now and what it might look like in the near future. In all good stories there are subplots, and ours has three.

Subplot One: The Worldwide Success of Mass Schooling

In developing these tales about cross-national trends in education, we were struck by how successful schooling is in the world. But we don't mean any kind of schooling; rather, we refer to a particularly successful kind of schooling that has spread around the world and has become the *model* of educating children, regardless of a nation's political regime, economic wealth, cultural heritage, and social problems. This is often referred to as *state-sponsored mass schooling*, or "mass schooling" for short. It is mostly public schooling for large masses of children, hence the name.

2. The TIMSS sample of nations is technically not a random one; all nations are invited to participate and those that wish to are included. In each participating country, a two-stage sampling design was used in TIMSS, where first a probability proportional to the size of the sample of schools was selected from a sampling frame of all schools in a participating country that had most of their students in the target ages. The second stage sampled all students in two mathematics classrooms per school with an equal probability of selection. Sampling weights are used to take into account any disproportional sampling of subgroups and nonresponse (U.S. Department of Education, 1999). Some variation applies to the study at the twelfth grade, which is noted in some of our technical papers.

recorded history, education was practical, situational, and highly limited with an apprenticeship to gain a set of skills—and it often did not require literacy. Most of the time, children learned all they needed to know within their family, clan, or tribe. Much of the content of premodern formal schooling was “religious” in nature: learning the legends, beliefs, and sacred traditions of a people or culture, and some limited literacy for reading religious texts. It was in this situation that premodern schooling became most elevated; a small, elite group of students were taught how to read, write, and memorize the texts important to that culture. Practical apprenticeships were available for some nonelites, but this was not available for all and aimed at a specific craft.

This all started to change some 150 to 200 years ago with the rise of mass schooling in many Western nations. There were still elite forms of education, but over time schooling was developed in principle for all children to learn academic skills through a more or less common curricula. Since then mass schooling has become one of the most impressive cases of successful transmission of a cultural model in the history of human society, developing and spreading in a relatively short time without limitations. Using mass schooling, most nations have achieved mass literacy within just the last hundred years, and currently there are no real alternatives to mass schooling anywhere. Full enrollment in elementary education was achieved before the middle of the twentieth century in wealthier nations and over the next forty years in poorer nations. Mass secondary education expanded to the same full enrollment a decade or two after elementary reached full enrollment, and the growth of higher education continues unabated in many nations today. Mass schooling has developed and intensified over time as an institution, deepening its meaning for everyday life. A big part of our story is what effects this resilient institution has on students, families, teachers, and school administrators.

Subplot Two: Schooling Is an Institution

At the core of the spread of mass schooling is a set of fundamental ideas that were unique just a short time ago but now have become widely accepted and even cherished. For instance, the ideas that all children should be educated

sition in labor markets all over the world. Now in human society, schooling has an unprecedented monopoly on the issuing and controlling of these credentials that lead to so many aspects of adult life.

Our stories lead us to appreciate how these ideas about mass schooling have formed a broad globalizing process making schooling a pervasive and powerful institution. As we have just described, the schooling-as-a-national-enterprise perspective tends not to appreciate the complex institutional nature of education, or its ability to reach across national borders as do the ideas behind modern capitalism and democratic government that have spread worldwide. A big part of this underlying subplot is what is happening to the institution of mass education, more than what is happening institutionally in any one nation, or even type of nation.

Education is an institution, like modern health care or the family, that may take on differing forms from nation to nation and even from region to region within a nation, but that at a deeper level is strongly affixed to a set of norms and rules about what education is and how schools should operate. If one turns a blind eye toward the image of schooling as a world-wide institution, one is easily led astray in interpreting trends in schools, particularly cross-national trends that appear to differ so much from our individual experience (chiefly with a particular nation's schooling).

The trends we describe in this book are essentially meaningless without the aid of this institutional perspective. For example, why is it that in TIMSS nations the educational background of parents has a large impact on school achievement even though school quality has been on the decline over the past three decades? Why have gender differences in eighth-grade mathematics almost vanished across so many national school systems? Why do teachers from diverse nations have similar core beliefs about the nature of teaching and the role of the student? Why have so many national adaptations of schooling produced a paradoxical mix of centralized and decentralized operating procedures for managing schools? The answers to these questions, and similar ones asked in each chapter, are found in understanding the consequences of the deepening of institutional ideas about schooling and how nations respond to this institutional force.

themselves are simultaneously so fundamental to our behavior and so powerful in constructing how we make sense of our daily world that they are hard to observe. All of us are part of institutions, within them more than we are outside observing them. Historians have long known that time offers a useful perspective on institutions, and to a degree we use that perspective here. Also, cross-national difference, or a perspective from multiple places, is a useful technique to observe institutions. If we hold the social world like a prism at just at the right angle to the light, we can see something of its institutional structure underneath; cross-national analyses help make things happen.

Institutions are the building blocks of human society at any time or place. By *institution* we do not mean a specific place with bricks and mortar, but in the vernacular sense that a particular mental hospital is an institution. Instead, we mean a set of rules for behavior and social roles to be played in a particular sector of life. Institution is more process than entity, more cognitive than physical, powerful in its control of human behavior through the production of shared meaning in all realms of human existence. The social world is a world of social institutions providing meanings and values about how to think and act in the everyday world. Individuals and collective entities—formal organizations, informal groups, and the individual human—observe and create realities through social institutions. From an institutional perspective, the very essence of social change is institutional change (see Berger, Berger, and Kellner, 1974). In terms of schooling as an institution, we borrow an analogy from educational historians Larry Cuban and David Tyack: the institutionalness of education constitutes the “grammar” of how things work in schools.

Our point here is that to a large extent the grammar of schooling is global. This means that much of the grammar of schools and the ideas behind them are reproduced and reinforced at a global level. Every individual school is still influenced by local, regional, and national factors, but the basic image of a school—what it is and what it should do—is commonly defined in the same way globally. Consequently, the organization of national school systems (French, German, American, and so on) is now influenced by transnational

As a global institution, schooling has developed powerful world and beliefs about children, learning, teaching, and the administration of schools. Over a thirty-year research program with colleagues, institutional theorist and comparative sociologist John Meyer has convincingly established a strong case for thinking about schooling as a product of a culture that renders education as a resilient and powerful institution in modern society (see, as examples, Baker, 1999; Meyer, 1977; Ramirez, Boli, 1987; Meyer, Ramirez, and Soysal, 1992; Fuller and Rubinson, 1996). They have shown that mass schooling takes similar forms throughout the world, and that there are common beliefs in what schooling can and should do for society. This process, they argue, has to a large degree been driven by a dynamic world culture.

By *world culture*, we do not mean a culture that is void, ersatz, or mythical. Institutionalists see a dynamic world culture that (for better or worse) evolved out of Western ideals of rationality and purposefulness (Berger, Berger, and Kellner, 1974). Rationality as a pervasive cultural product (some would say even a hegemonic product) of the historical rise of the West serves to bureaucratize, marketize, individuate, and homogenize the institutions of the world (Finnemore, 1996; Scott and Meyer, 1994; Trow, Ramirez, Boli, and Meyer, 1987). Homogenization produces common norms of behavior across a set of modern institutions, thus tying institutions such as the modern nation state and formal education together in the political sphere. Rationality, along with its offshoots of marketization, individualization, bureaucratization, and homogenization, plays the tune to which modern global institutions march to, but it is itself a cultural product that acts as such throughout the social system.

All this is not to suggest that local and national cultures do not have influence in schooling; they do. Perhaps a better way to think of culture is in terms of a *dynamic mix of cultures*, as discussed in comparative anthropological studies. Global institutions can traverse and shape local, regional, and national versions of particular areas of human life such as education. This is from the perspective of wide-open dynamics of culture, national cultures, if they exist at all—have only vague boundaries. Culture is far too dynamic to stay purely national, yet subglobal cultures do mix with global ones.

Culture . . . refers to shared designs for living. It is not the people or things or behaviors themselves. Culture can be equated with the *shared models* people carry in their minds for perceiving, relating to, and interpreting the world around them. Sociocultural systems therefore include customary, agreed upon, *institutionalized* *actions* which influence most individuals to behave in a predictable manner most of the time, but never all of the time [1977, pp. 4–5; emphasis added].

One of the major consequences of a dynamic cultural model is that world cultures are easily imagined, as are global or transnational institutional solutions applied to common human problems across nations (Boli and Thomas 1985).

An institution heavily shaped by a world culture of schooling more accurately depicts the cross-national trends we observe here than a vision of many national cultures of schooling operating independently. Further, this perspective offers a rich description of how organizations such as schools and institutional ideas interact to produce consequences for the people participating in them. This also offers us a way to think about what will change in schooling in the future, and this leads us to the last of our subplots, educational change.

Subplot Three: Educational Change Is Institutional Change

Institutions by their very nature impart deep meaning to our everyday world, hence they are resistant to change. When we go to a hospital, we expect things to run in pretty much the same way the last time we were there. If we were to experience a completely different organization each time we had to rely on a hospital for our health care, most of us would be extremely upset. The same is true for schools. Change does occur, but most of us expect that basic patterns of interaction have not changed all that much from when we were in school. But the schooling and the political discussions surrounding it, in most nations, are full of rhetoric about change.

In fact, institutions do change, and institutional theorists have recognized this for some time. They tend to see two main types of force that make institutional change: those outside the institution itself and those working from within. Outside forces tend to be large and progress over a long historical period. They also interact between institutions over time. Forces from

change and will likely continue to do so in the near future. First is the force of standardization and universalism, meaning that organizations and individuals within a particular institution tend to become more similar over time and place. The pioneering works of sociologists of neoinstitutionalism suggest that there are strong global tendencies toward homogeneity within the education sector. We examine this force of *isomorphism* in schooling in a number of the chapters.

The second type of endogenous change in institutions occurs through the process of institutionalization itself. In other words, as a particular institutional pattern deepens and spreads, it creates wider consequences that in turn have an impact on the original pattern. We sense this kind of process at play in a number of our stories. For example, the deepening link between school credentials from mass schooling and the labor market has created in recent times increased pressure on families to seek help outside schools for their children, which in turn has an impact on the way schools themselves are doing things. Many of our tales show the consequence of greater institutionalization for educational change.

Mass schooling is the predominant model of education in the world today. It pervades every part of people's lives in modern society and creates a new way of education unparalleled in human existence. Although nations have adapted and will continue to make their own modifications to the model, mass schooling chiefly develops as a world institution. But it is far from static or monolithic; global forces dynamically interact with national ones and the resulting changes often change unpredictably. This is the image of institutional change that we take to our stories of cross-national trends in schooling.

Stories from Cross-National Analyses of Schooling

In Chapter 2, "The Declining Significance of Gender and the Rise of Egalitarian Mathematics Education," the first of our tales of cross-national trends tells the story of how and why gender differences in mathematics and science achievement are vanishing worldwide, and it illustrates the power of mass schooling to flatten traditional distinctions between categories of people (with male and female). Building off an analysis of gender differences in

with some irony, that the considerable institutional strength and public support of mass schooling have created a situation where smaller and smaller differences in family resources take on greater saliency in creating differences in achievement in most nations in the world.

Pressure to teach and learn mathematics and science has increased dramatically over the past few decades. This has led to growth in the supply of outside school tutoring services; rising demand by families with children in public schools to buy them is an unexpected and potentially transforming addition to mass schooling. Chapter 4, “Demand for Achievement: The Worldwide Growth of Shadow Education Systems,” examines the cross-national dimensions of this rapidly growing private sector of educational services oriented toward a student’s performance in public school that has been termed, as the chapter title suggests, “shadow education.”

Chapter 5, “Rich Land, Poor Schools: Inequality of National Educational Resources and Disadvantaged Students,” develops a related theme. Perhaps the most sacred of principles of modern mass schooling is the notion of equality. Access to schooling for all children and the fundamental social justice and benefits to society are assumed to stem from this goal and drive the organizational development of school systems everywhere in the world. The jumping-off point for the chapter is an empirical study of disadvantaged students and their mathematics and science achievement cross-nationally. The analysis shows American schools placing socially disadvantaged students at considerable risk of school failure compared to similar students in other national systems. We then examine some of the causes of this problem and compare educational resource inequalities cross-nationally, with some revealing findings about their patterns and levels across nations. The chapter then discusses the institutional basis for beliefs in universal education, the practical problem presented by inequality of resources, and it speculates where issues of equal quality are likely to take national systems of education in the future.

School violence is the subject of intense study and national prevention efforts in the United States and elsewhere; it is the topic examined in Chapter 6, “Safe Schools, Dangerous Nations: The Paradox of School Violence.” Over the past decade many Americans have come to wonder if public schools

determined by cultural values, school organization, and national and regional factors. Worldwide, teaching is a tapestry with many commonalities, but a few striking differences. Teachers' work in schools is increasingly similar around the world, which in fact has created an independent culture of teaching." At the same time, the cultural role of "teaching" is highly developed in many nations before the modern age. The chapter concludes with a discussion of what a teacher's job in the future will look like as teaching is pushed toward homogeneity by increased global discourse, but also pushed toward diversity as wealthy nations continue to reform their education in order to increase the national level of academic achievement.

Chapter 8, "Schoolwork at Home? Low-Quality Schooling and Homework," explores the fact that homework is ubiquitous in schools around the world but has not garnered the international attention that the teaching practices have, even though some scholars argue it can be a significant factor in student academic success. Cross-national patterns in the use of homework and its relationship to the national level of achievement are more complicated than most people think. For example, in the most successful systems little homework is given. Around the world, teachers give virtually the same type of homework (textbook assignments and worksheets), but nations vary considerably in how teachers use homework (whether it is included in grading or not, used for class discussion, and so on) as well as how much homework they give. Homework in poor-quality national education systems appears to be underused and serves as a way to try to support weak national curricula.

Chapter 9, "Slouching Toward a Global Ideology: The Devolution of Education Governance," explores the dramatic change in ideology and practice of managing public school systems occurring during the last three decades. Many nations are adopting a mixture of decentralized and centralized procedures without a clear rationale for doing so. Using universal quality control as an example, the chapter explores what this kind of devolution means for school-level decision making across nations and predicts where this trend will lead nation-state governance of public schools in the future.

the institution of schooling motivates so many to engage in educational reform and reorganization across all nations.

We conclude the book by looking to the future. If the trends we identified continue (and there is every indication they will), then we make some general predictions about what schools will be like, and what problems educators or reformers will have to address. These predictions serve a scientific purpose—they suggest a future way to assess whether the institutional perspective we have used is indeed accurate. We hope that the tales and the perspective we bring to them provide some new ways to think about global trends in education in the future.