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Globalization and Classroom Practice: Insights on Learning about the World in Swedish and Australian Schools

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Abstract: Globalization and global education implies changes to practices at the classroom level to adapt to new imperatives associated with technology use and awareness, and environmental sustainability. It also implies much more. It implies that teachers apply their classroom pedagogy to take account of students' new found global understandings of which they, and the school community, is largely unaware. This article addresses and discuses three key consequences of globalization for classrooms worldwide; an increased diversity of experience of the students within the classroom, an increased competitiveness of educational outcomes between national states and subsequently some standardisation of curriculum across nations to enable this, and an increased emphasis on teaching skills and values associated with intercultural understanding. Young children's map knowledge and their resultant, and associated, interpretations of the world from a comparative study a from Swedish and Australian primary classrooms is used as examples of some of these implications of the impact of 'global culture' and 'global issues' on current and future classroom practice.

KEYWORDS: GLOBALIZATION IN CLASSROOMS, METHODOLOGY OF CLASSROOM RESEARCH; INTERCULTURAL UNDERSTANDING IN TEACHING, GLOBAL EDUCATION; TEACHING GLOBAL EDUCATION

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Introduction

In this article we explore the impact of globalization on education and relate its consequences to classroom practice. We demonstrate how these changes have an effect at the individual level as well as educational policy level and also at a normative ideological level. We provide examples from a study of what children from different parts of the globe know about maps and their mental conceptions of the world.

Robertson (1992) argued that 'globalization as a concept refers both to the compression of the world and the intensification of the world as a whole' (p.8). Although originally most often mentioned in the context of environmental issues that crossed national boundaries and the security issues associated with the Cold War the term now refers to the;

> *present sense of the world as a single place […] the expansion of the media of communication, not least the development of global TV, and of other technologies of rapid communication…[and] has made people all over the world more conscious of other places and the world as a whole. (p. 184)*

Discourses about globalization in education and global education has replaced discourses of international education and development education largely because today's world is linked not simply through nation states but by a complex interrelationships between transnational companies, international and regional organisations, non-governmental agencies, and individual citizens as well as nation states (Fujikane, 2003). Fujikane argued that globalization debates concentrate on the intensity of interdependence in many areas of life; constant changes in national states and influential groups in the world including economic groups that influence many different areas of the world; and 'the growing moral sense of "oneness" transcending national borders' (Fujikane, p, 143). This has many implications in education.

At its most basic globalization has resulted in an increased diversity of experience of the children in our classrooms – classrooms are made up of individual students who can differ quite dramatically from each other in terms of their world experience. Globalization 'involves considerable increase in global, including "local", complexity and density' (Robertson, p.188). For example economic global interdependence where products are partly produced in many parts of the world and shipped to many other parts of the world has led to a fluid movement of capital and expertise. Both prosperity and poverty (often from wars where munitions and soldiers can be quickly mobilised from around the world) but also from the constantly changing outsourcing of production, has led to the diversity of students in our classrooms due to migrations across all kinds of borders – socioeconomic, regional, state, national, cultural, and the knowledge economy. Some basic understandings of these movements can be ascertained simply by examining the migration statistics. 214 million people are migrants today and that is a number that has increased by more than 40% since 2010.

Although the percentage of the total number of people in the world migrating (3.1%
of the world's population or the population of the fifth most populous country in the
world) has been relatively stable in the last decade, today migration affects more
countries than previously and is thus a global issue (International Organization for
Migration, 2012).

Australia and Sweden, the two countries where we conducted the research which
we use as examples in this study of globalization and classroom pedagogy,
demonstrates such diversity and change of population as mentioned above. In
Australia the 2011 census revealed that almost 25% of the population were born
overseas and 43% of the population have at least one parent born overseas. The largest
group of 'new' Australians were those from the United Kingdom (20%) followed by
New Zealand (9%), China (6%) and India (5.6%). The fastest growing group were
Indians followed by Chinese, whereas numbers of new Italian and Greek residents
were lower than in previous census collections (ABS, 21 June 2012 |CO/59). In
Sweden the population born outside Sweden has increased from being 11% around
2000 to now being 15 % of Sweden's nine and a half million inhabitants today. Half
of those born outside Sweden came from Europe with Finland and Poland as the most
common countries of origin. Additionally about 30 % came from an Asian country
(with most people from Iraq), 9% came from an African country and 5% from a South
American country. At the beginning of 2012 7 % of the Swedish population foreign
citizens came from close to 200 countries (Statistics Sweden SCB, 2012).

The notion of peoples negotiating different conceptions of boundaries is strongly
associated with the rhetoric around globaization and how schools should address
globaization. Akkerman and Baker (2011) argued that the Bakhtinian notion of
dialogicality implies that interaction at these boundaries of difference involves
dialogues between those with different perspectives, without there needing to be
homogeneity. No consensus is required. This idea of constant dialogues with new
learning emerging - becoming hybrid third spaces (Bhabba, 1990), has become
popular in educational theorising and implies that meeting grounds of difference can
be very positive places creating new understandings of the world (Giroux, 2001, 1992,
1991). Our classrooms are becoming these hybrid spaces. Children of diverse
experience are meeting and interacting and creating new dialogues in our classrooms.

Globalization in classrooms

For the purposes of this study we have identified three key globalizing influences
on classroom practice to be furthered explored and discussed in the article each aspect
demonstrating different foci on globalization. Examining the diversity of children in
our classes indicates that globalization impacts at many levels. We are able to shed
light on these impacts on classroom practice via the use of the lens of mapping and
map interpretations with examples from our comparative research on children's
mapping and world views in selected elementary schools in Sweden and Australia
(Reynolds & Vinterek, 2012; Reynolds & Vinterek, 2010). We have thus explored
how maps and map representations can provide some illumination on the impacts of

globalization on classroom practices. We have used examples from different parts of the world to clarify the extent that these are global influences and to raise issues that seem worthy of future investigation.

The research literature comes to discussions of global understanding in young people from different discipline areas. Taylor (2009) argued that there are two distinct strands, one from the psychological perspective investigating studies of environmental and mapping cognition and another group of studies is based on sociology and social anthropology. Geography as a discipline is also of value in investigating these ideas and key spatial skills help develop world understanding. Maude (2009) argued that geography is the study of place, including iterations of what that may mean, and so geographers examine globaization, and the resultant sense of place in all its various forms, from a human/ social perspective and also a physical perspective. This study likewise builds on themes from these disciplines attempting to capture research from a variety of fields that can help clarify the various influences on children's sense of their world and how this may be changing in a more globalized world.

The first aspect of the impact of globalization on the classroom we will consider, is that of the challenge of teaching the diversity of students and cultures in the classroom and in school systems. Teachers do not easily understand the background of understandings and experiences of the children in their classrooms without considerable investigation and so there are increased difficulties in knowing where to start, what knowledge can be considered most basic, and therefore most common, in these groups of diverse experiences. Classroom practice must also respond to constant and on-going student access to the diversity of global perspectives and global information via such technology as I phones and internet. What is new in all issues associated with technology is that all this information is unfiltered though a national lens of civilly appropriate content; it is not vetted by national curriculum or by national standards of morality or ethics. In fact policy documents seem irrelevant to these other sources of information and perspectives. The multiplicity of types of information and perceptions requires clarification in classrooms and in classroom pedagogy as to how to judge the varying points of view.

The second aspect of globalization, and its impact on world knowledge and world perspectives, we will consider is that of the impact of narratives about the importance of being globally competitive and having school systems which will enhance national capacity to be economically competitive. Skills associated with maths, science, technology, languages, intercultural competency and communication skills are emphasised (Wang, Lin, Spalding, Odell, & Klecka, 2011). Tests are devised to assess national competency in these things and common curricula compiled to ensure adherence to some set standards. As Zhao (2010) pointed out schools are now challenged to face the reality of international tests and the trend of homogenization of educational practices in order to make the test valid. There is danger of simplifying curriculum internationally to make it easier to compare nations in areas seen to be economically important. Thus educational policy associated with global comparisons influences national curriculum documents which in turn influences local classroom practice many arguing that teachers are becoming increasingly deskilled as

professionals in an attempt to develop standardized teaching curriculum and pedagogy
(Assaf, 2008).

The final aspect of globalization in the classroom we consider is the emphasis on
intercultural competencies in diverse classrooms. If education is perceived as essential
for developing citizens committed to social justice it is important that we focus
particularly on intercultural understanding, education for sustainability, skills for
cooperation and collaboration and provide an emphasis on building attitudes and
dispositions which link, rather than compete with others (Wang, Lin, Spalding, Odell,
& Klecka, 2011). As Ladwig (2010) would term it, many of the latter are non-
academic outcomes of schooling, including beliefs, norms, values, motivation and
behaviours. These are not so easily 'seen' or assessed but nonetheless extremely
important in a globalized world. They are not so easily tested.

The next section of our paper will now examine research from different discipline
areas that helps clarify world knowledge, skills and attitudes in school classrooms
under the three identified globalizing classroom themes; diversity of classroom
experience; the impact of competitive economies on classroom pedagogy and;
intercultural competencies, and particularly focuses on research on children's mapping
and mental conceptions of the world associated with those themes. Within each theme
we will provide examples from our comparative research on children's mapping and
world views in selected elementary schools in Sweden and Australia (Reynolds &
Vinterek, 2012; Reynolds & Vinterek, 2010) to illustrate the theme from 'real'
classroom experiences in those countries.

Diversity of classroom experience and globalization: Individual complexity

The diversity of classroom experience has huge implications for the classroom
pedagogy as well as the knowledge expected as part of the school curriculum. Firstly
teachers must always ascertain the current knowledge of the students in order to take
them further, but then it is about considering what knowledge and skills is of most
worth to such a varied cohort of students. The students' initial knowledge, as a
beginning point, will be dependent on a number of factors including family, political,
economic, social, cultural and educational factors including the nature of the schooling
the children received before they arrived in the local classroom (Spencer, 2005). The
teacher thus must plan for diversity, rather than commonality and in this world of
migrating populations they must be culturally responsive. Villegas & Lucas (2002)
argued that culturally responsive teachers:

> *(a) are socioculturally conscious, (b) have affirming views of students from
> diverse backgrounds, (c) see themselves as responsible for and capable of
> bringing about change to make schools more equitable, (d) understand how
> learners construct knowledge and are capable of promoting knowledge
> construction, (e) know about the lives of their students, and (f) design*

*instruction that builds on what their students already know while stretching
them beyond the familiar. (p. 20)*

One strategy for this, suggested by Gay (2002), is that the images displayed in
classrooms represent a wide variety of age, gender, time, place, social class, and
positional diversity within and across ethnic groups. Displaying a variety of maps fits
within this practice as they are visual images of how different people perceive their
world. This is not a strategy simply aimed at exploring picture maps and personal
maps. As Wright pointed out:

*Despite the efforts of the past, misunderstandings about world maps still
appear almost universal. A vacuum seems to have developed in map
appreciation, and courses on map projections have disappeared from
tertiary, secondary and primary education in many jurisdictions (p.2).*

Classrooms can display different commercial maps, some based on Europe, some
based on the Pacific, some based on the Americas for a start. The different projections
of the globe onto two dimensions is a focus for debate and dialogue and should be
elucidated for children. The shape and size of nations vary quite considerably between
a Peters projection and a Mollweide projection for example. Of course displaying a
globe as a true representation of the dimensions of the world is essential. As Wright
(2010) pointed out there is very widespread use of maps with oversized Arctic lands
and undersized tropical lands. These are images for discussion.

The second consideration, what knowledge is of most worth to such a diverse
group of students, requires consideration of building some form of uniform identity
from such disparate identities. In many nations a key focus in schools as a response to
this diversity has been to address citizenship education. National states have tried to
establish some unifying sense of national as well as global identity and schools have
been enjoined to help students better understand how their cultural, national, regional
and global identifications are interrelated, complex and evolving (Banks, 2008). Osler
and Starkey (2006) argued that such increased interest in citizenship education was
due to perceptions of global injustice and inequality, globalization and migration
among other things and that;

*Within multicultural democracies there are perceived tensions between the
need to promote national unity or cohesion and the need to accommodate,
and indeed support, a diverse range of cultural communities within the
nation state (p. 436).*

The concept of national identity in curriculum, and in education generally, is
constructed from a political and negotiated standpoint and is dependent on power
relations (Gillborn, 2006; Murray, 2008). The classroom teacher must acknowledge

difference and diversity but also meld a national citizenship identity. There is
considerable international interest in how to do this (Avery et. al., 2012).

Maps and diversity

Place experiences are very important in mediating views of other places and of the
world (Gruenewald, 2003) and even distant places are mediated by local experiences
(Taylor, 2009). This extends to representations of the world as evidenced in popular
media and other literary, graphic and visual sources, including maps, and has
implications for teachers in helping students interpret and deconstruct these sources
(Morgan, 2001). Holloway and Valentine (2000) explored children's imagined views
of another country and then linked them to children in that country via email to
explore the extent to which their imagined views were supported. They based their
study on ideas from Said (1985) who proposed that our conceptions of 'self' are often
supported by our conception of 'others', thus clarifying the boundaries and
differences:

> *there is no doubt that imaginative geography and history help the mind to
> intensify its own sense of itself by dramatizing the distance and the
> difference between what is close to it and what is far away (Said, 1985, p.
> 55).*

In the classroom examples Holloway and Valentine used in Britain and New
Zealand, children saw themselves as essentially the same although relying on history
teaching, popular media and products purchased in the supermarket to compile their
imaginary picture of the other nation.

The notion that identity is strongly attached to a spatial view of the world indicates
that geographical tools such as maps provide both a clue to understanding children's
identity at that time and place and also a tool for dialogue around that identity and the
perspective consciousness that it may entail. Maps can enable dialogue in that third
space (Bhabba, 1990), as indicated above. As research into attitudes to other countries
by Jahoda and Talfel (1967) indicated, students at very young ages begin to compile
mental maps of the world and these maps included emotional attitudes. Schleinck
(2007) found that students' mental maps of the world influenced their general
competence in map making. Their mental map was related to spatial structures,
perceived relative location of countries to each other, sizes, conceptions and attitudes
and it was clear that drawn maps were the result of very different and individual
experiences:

> *an age-related development could neither be diagnosed in the context of the
> study nor in the pilot survey with children from kindergarten to university
> (Schleinck, p. 208).*

The different factors influencing the children's competence included the media,
current events, travel activities, migration biography, personal interests and special
characteristics of countries. Schleinck's work indicates that the overall manner in
which children learn about the world in this globalized world has not changed, in that
children gradually accrue knowledge according to how important that knowledge is to
them, and conceptions of distance in terms of how long it takes them to get there, but
these conceptions are now influenced by modern technologies such as air flights and
internet access. The mapping ability of 10-year-olds over eight different countries
varied considerably, thus implying that it is not a physical or cognitive developmental
skill but is rather related to the extent that they have seen and used maps (Schlienck,
2005, 2007). This is an area in which national curriculum and the classroom teacher
can be strongly influential in developing global perspectives simply because of the
emphasis, or lack of it, in establishing mapping expertise.

Examples from classrooms in Sweden and Australia

Using the previous Reynolds' study (2004) as a guide (which in turn was
influenced by Wiegand, 1992 and Tajfel, 1966) the researchers collected data in
elementary schools from 609 Australian pupils in 2008/2009 and 137 Swedish pupils
in 2010. The researchers personally collected all the data in actual classrooms. The
students were middle to lower socio economic status, from regional centres and
matched for years of schooling. Students were aged 7 to 11 years and were in their
2nd to 6th year of schooling. All participation was voluntary. Partial support for the
project was provided by the International Assembly of National Council for Social
Studies (NCSS) and fund for Advancement of Social Studies Education (FASSE).
There were three components of the data gathering. Students were asked to do a hand
drawn map of the world with a ten minute time limit. Maps were scanned and
compared. Students were also asked to list all the places they knew with a ten minute
time limit. Places indicated by each student were coded and compared across groups.
Simple descriptive analyses were compiled including most countries known, least
countries known, and areas of the world where countries are unknown. Lastly children
were asked to indicate up to five places in the world that they liked and five places in
the world that they disliked and they wrote or drew why they answered this way.

As with Schleinck's (2007) study above the maps drawn and the places known in
the Swedish/Australian study revealed mental conceptions of the world influenced by
a variety of experiences – not clear developmental approaches to understandings.
There was much diversity in that children identified holiday places, homes of
relatives, media and television, prominent countries, and places of appealing climate
in their countries known. When children gave reasons for liking particular countries in
this study it was primarily because of positive family or personal experiences and
factors such as climate, sights and scenery (Reynolds & Vinterek, 2012; Reynolds &
Vinterek, 2010).

With reference to diversity the data exhibited a wide variety of world experiences
in both countries. Although not always directly linked to age and years of schooling

there appeared to be a gradual increase in the number of countries known in both
countries and initially children's understandings were linked to proximity to their own
nation. The children knew on average 5 nations in their third year of schooling and 25
nations on average in their fifth year of schooling. The actual countries known and
able to be mapped was related to their location in the world with Swedish children
knowing more Scandinavian and nearby European countries while the Australian
children knew more Asian and Oceanic countries than the Swedish children. The
Australian children in the study knew on average 5.8 countries in Asia and Oceania
while the Swedish children knew only 2.8. However, with reference to Europe,
Australian children on average knew only 3.2 countries whereas the Swedish knew
12.5 on average.

However the USA was well known and often located on children's maps of both
countries and when asked about countries they liked, all children at three stages of
elementary schooling in both countries all indicated the USA as a place they liked
(despites its geographic distance), the only country that was signalled in this manner.
It is probably important to indicate here that many of the Australian children at all
ages also indicated the USA as a country they disliked (for different reasons) whereas
older Swedish children did not hold similar poor views of the USA. Reasons given for
liking the USA were primarily associated with movie stars and theme parks and
reasons for not liking the USA were linked with gun violence and poverty.

MAP 1

Younger Australian child's map of the world

This Australian child after 3 years of schooling sees the world as essentially about five countries with the America and North America seen as separate entities within one whole and a little away from Australia. The rest of the world is in South East Asia (Indonesia, China and Japan) with Australia depicted quite large although not as large as 'America/North America'.
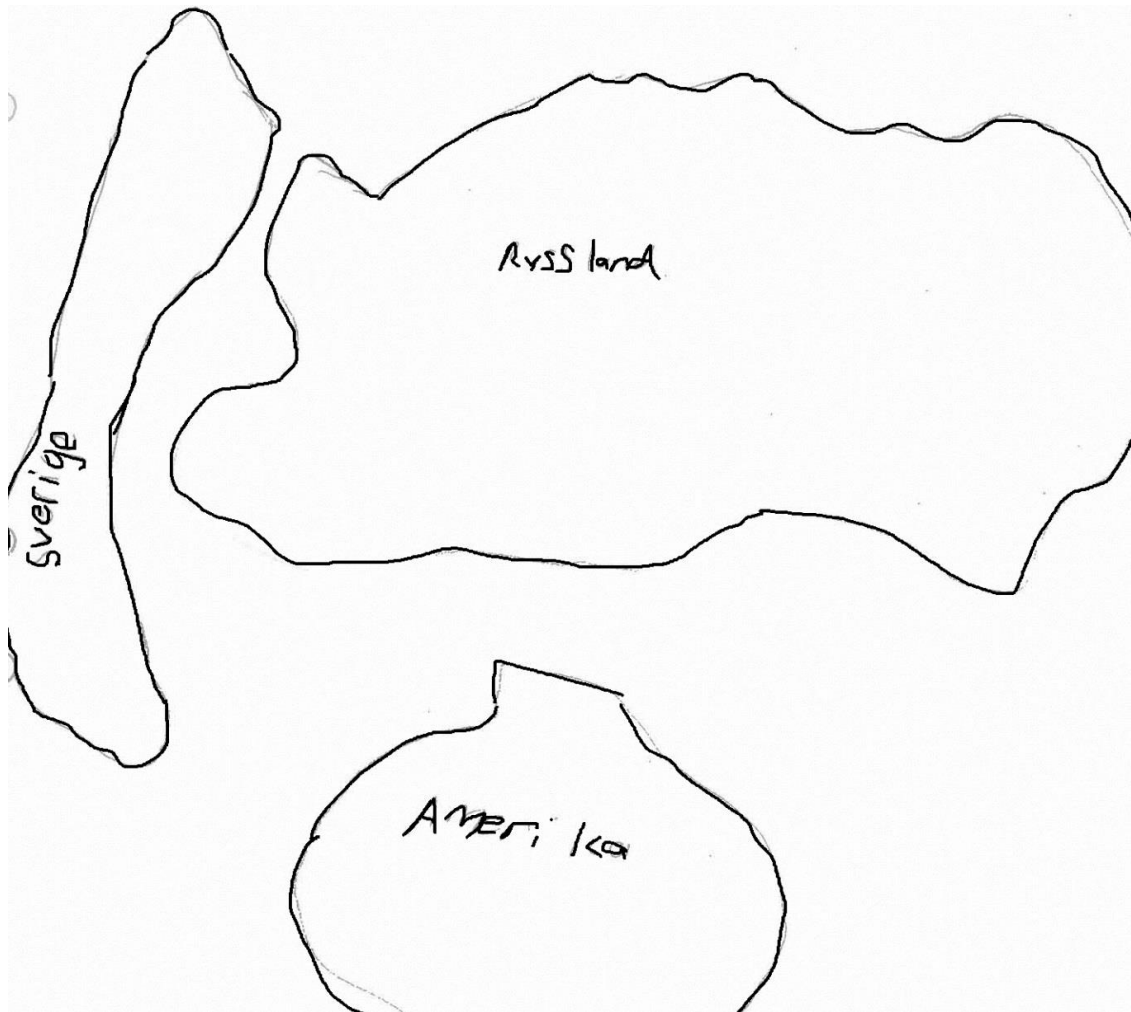
MAP2:

Younger Swedish child's map of world

This Swedish child after three years of schooling sees the world as three major countries, Sweden, Russia and America with Sweden reasonably close to Russia and America a little further apart.

Thus, in terms of globalization, we can say that these students at different ends of the world see the world in different ways. Their sense of place in the world, as demonstrated by their map drawing and their comments about their maps, is

influenced by where they see themselves spatially in the world. Thus a teacher in a classroom in Sweden will teach about the world in a different way to a teacher in a classroom in Australia. Their beginning points, addressing the initial conceptions of the students, are different and so the pedagogy of their classrooms will be different.

Impact of Competitive Economies and globalization: Changes in curriculum emphasis

Globalization has led to a growth in nations competing with each other to produce top grades in international testing with the view being that top marks equate to economic superiority. Zhao (2010) pointed out that the international PISA and TIMSS tests results have been widely used to judge a nation's quality of education and its future citizens' ability to compete in the global market. The number of nations competing in these tests is increasing. Literacy, numeracy and scientific skills appear to be most highly valued. This skills based approach is accompanied by standardised outcomes, assessment and professional teaching and teacher standards aimed at enforcing compliance. The Melbourne Declaration in the Australian context acknowledges this when it avowed:

> In the 21st century Australia's capacity to provide a high quality of life for all will depend on the ability to compete in the global economy on knowledge and innovation (Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs [MCEECDYA], 2008, p.4).

There is a strong focus in schools in Australia at the moment on literacy and numeracy with tests conducted annually for each student in years 3, 5, 7 and 9 and sample testing conducted every year in science, ICT and civics and citizenship, and this testing regime is expected to expand (Ferrari, 2012). A recent survey of more than 8300 teachers in Australia found that more than 80 percent of them felt that the national testing regime meant test preparation was adding to an already crowded curriculum while just over two-thirds believed it had led to a timetable reduction for other subjects (Hosking, 2012). The Swedish school system has recently changed its national curricula and also its syllabuses and there have been political decisions that have also changed the national assessment system with more national testing in more subjects and in additional grades. There used to be national tests in English, Swedish and Maths but now there are also tests in biology, chemistry and physics and more will come. Besides the focus on the native language and English there is also an emphasis on maths and science as in Australia. In the near future Sweden will probably also have national tests in history, civics religion as well as in geography (Åström & Eklöf, 2011).

To test and compare students from across the nation and across the world there must be a common curriculum - a common set of key ideas and skills. This has led to the classroom teacher having less time and opportunity to cater for individual or class

based capabilities, interests and contexts. Globalization has led to a restricted curriculum, one that can be tested. However, it is not necessarily agreed that these universally tested concepts are those of most worth for global citizenship (Marshall, 2007). Coalitions in the world are changing and conventional educational practices based on the previous international worldviews may no longer be appropriate. For example educators in Africa can be teaching individual or whole classes of students in China or South America. Visual approaches to presentations have become more favored. Culturally different approaches to teaching and learning emerge. The Arts are favored as useful in developing intercultural competence.

Maps and competitive economies

One of the areas of the curriculum which has been reduced globally is the social studies area where geography, mapping and social and cultural interpretations of spatial patterns is located. It is ironical that we may find ourselves advocating for testing of mapping as an essential globally competitive skill to try to keep it within the newly homogenised 'world' curriculum. Basic spatial knowledge of the world is of great value to global citizens and it is of value to clarify the research around when and how it should be developed in classrooms. We do not necessarily advocate for its testing, as the diversity of interpretations and experiences we and others have found mean that it will be very difficult to standardise this area of the curriculum, but skills of map recognition, analysis and interpretation are essential global skills currently quite underrated (Wright, 2010).

Maps are an essential guide to world understanding. Maps provide only a perspective of the world, in that they are a flat representation of what is a sphere, but there are many different ways of representing that sphere. They are also an historical perspective of how the world should be represented often reflecting a national world view (Sweerts & Cavanagh, 2004). Examining different projections and maps produced in different countries and times and comparing them is a very useful way for students to develop an understanding of how they and others fit into the world as well as developing some concepts of time zones, seasons, and climate generally (Reynolds, 2012). It appears that students' geographical knowledge of their own country starts at around the age of five and knowledge of other countries is acquired at a later age, around eight years of age, but this is dependent on cognitive capacities and ability to put the different aspects of the world together in an integrated manner (Spencer & Blades, 2006). Plester, Blades and Spencer (2006) found that even young children (four to five year olds) had to capacity to use the required cognitive skills to interpret aerial photographs and maps, and photographs were useful for children in learning about the world. They argued that children of school age were ready cognitively to read maps and photographs and so they should be introduced to them as a way of learning about their world along with their other sources of information such as television and computer games. Consensus seems to be that by about the age of five years children have the competence to understand that a map is a representation of real space and have mastered some conventions used to represent space on a maplike

representation even if it is more a pictorial diagram than what may be considered a
conventional map. The progression of their mapping skills from that point is then
more closely related to their experiences, socially through the family and community
experiences, their schooling and insights into place acquired through media and things
like computer games (Morgan, 2001; Schlienck, 2007; Gillespie, 2010). Maps provide
an insight into children's perceptions of their world and their 'world views'
(Thommen et al, 2010; Firth & Biddulph, 2007; Wiegand, 2006, 1993; Sobel, 1998;
Catling, 2005; Spencer, 2005; Harwood & Usher, 1999; Blaut, 1997; Matthews,
1992).

Globalization has led to standardized curriculum and assessment and as a
consequence of the competition between countries in a 'global knowledge race' there
is a reduction of subjects like geography in the timetable in favor of subjects such as
math. This new global assessment culture has not only led to less time for social
science it has also led to a restricted curriculum, one that can be tested. Our examples
from children's geography knowledge and understanding of the world demonstrate
how difficult it is to standardize this area of the curriculum and point out the need for
education to help students to orientate in the world and to interpret presentations of the
world.

Examples from classrooms in Sweden and Australia

The mapping data from Sweden and Australia indicated varied skills within
classrooms and an overall lack of knowledge of the world. Students had difficulty
understanding how near or far various countries were from their own and reduced and
expanded sizes of countries according to personal perceptions in a similar manner to
previous studies (Wiegand, 2006). For example some of the younger children from
Australia listed and mapped 'countries' such as 'city', 'Dreamworld', 'Amazon',
'Mecca', 'town', 'Harbour Bridge', 'snow' and 'Opera House'. From these younger
children's responses we can gain a glimpse into the way they view the world as it
extends from their own place. As Yi-Fu Tuan (1977) indicated a person's mental map
is a picture of a map - not of the reality itself, and can be indicative of a world view or
a 'picture of experience' that is not necessarily recognised outside personal experience
(Hirt, 2012). Such a personal worldview is an important component of identity but it is
also important to be able to recognise and interpret more standardised views of the
world particularly with constant representations of it in digital form such as in Google
Map and car GPS navigation devices.

It was obvious from both Sweden and Australia that the students had less exposure
to globes than two dimensional maps and so Africa (if it appeared) was quite small,
Greenland was large and Antarctica was a long horizontal space at the bottom of the
page (if it appeared). It seems students tend to picture parts of the world that they
recognize as larger than reality and remember more economically important countries.
In a study similar to a part of our study Saarinen (1973) asked students from Canada,
Finland, Sierra Leone and USA to draw their mental maps on a blank sheet of paper.
He found that the pupils seemed to put their own country in the centre and also tended

to over emphasize it. Saarinen et. al (1996) pointed out that students tend to
overestimate the size of their own countries and also rich countries in the West and
how countries in poorer regions tend to be smaller than in reality.
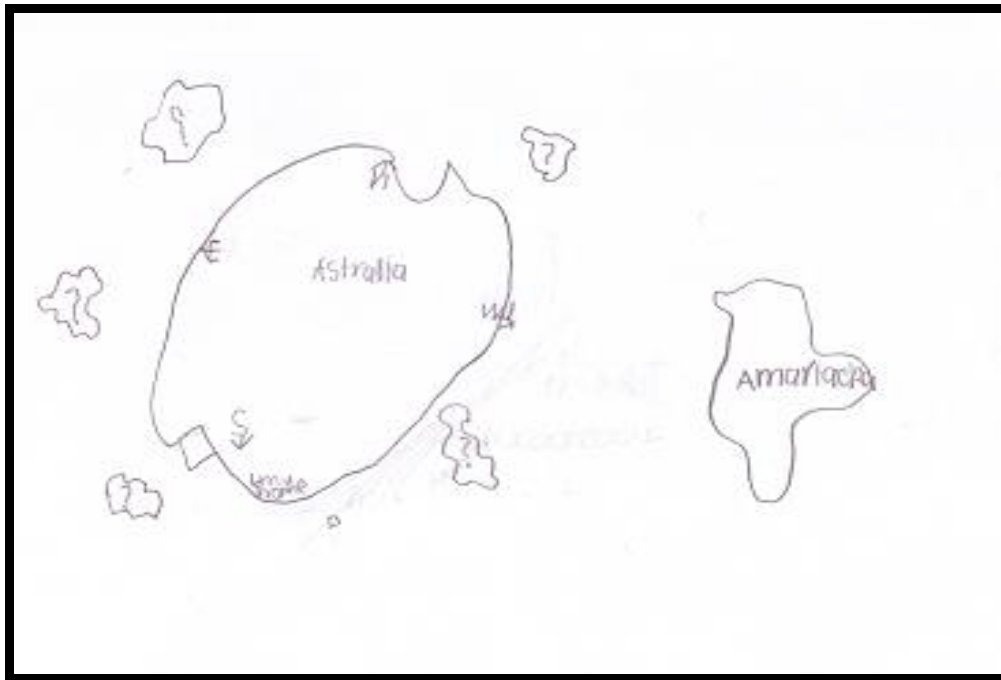
MAP 3:

Young Australian student's view of the world

This might be a consequence of competitive economies reflected in media with
little room for parts of the world of less economic influence. With restricted space for
teachers to meet this unbalance the media picture of the world will not be challenged
in education. We also found signs in our study of how this skewed media view
influenced the children's understanding of the world. For example countries that were
often and recently featured in the media were also pictured by the students, something
Saarinen (1973) also found in his study.

Intercultural skills and globalization: Values in the classroom

The third focus of our study of changes in classroom practices as a result of
globalization considers the increased emphasis on intercultural skills including
intercultural dispositions. The notion of a multidimensional citizenship (Cogan and
Grossman, 2010; Cogan and Derricott, 1998) provides some insights into how
children respond to a globalized world and how teaching for this responsiveness can
be enhanced. There are four dimensions of a citizen in the 21st century - personal,
spatial, social and temporal. These four dimensions are interrelated and require

citizens, including young citizens, to approach problems in the world as a member of a global society working with others cooperatively, thinking critically and systematically, resolving conflict in a non-violent manner and understanding and tolerating cultural differences (Kubow, Grossman and Ninomiya, 1998). They argued that spatially, although citizens are increasingly seeing themselves as part of the wider world, their sense of identity is still fixed within the local and personal. This is linked to Hanvey's perspective consciousness; 'the recognition or awareness on the part of the individual that he or she has a view of the world that is not universally shared' (1976, p. 4) BUT there is a need to work with others who do not have this world view.

Parker, Grossman, Kubow, Kurth-schai & Nakayama (1998) recommended a school curriculum that dealt with 'big' ethical questions and key concepts, enabling a multinational approach, with a focus on dialogue and deliberation, thus once again focusing on schools and classrooms as hybrid places. Using this form of curriculum, classroom practice would emphasize diversity of human experience; depth of understanding over superficial treatment of issues; a classroom climate 'characterized by open discussion; divergent questioning; and freedom to express opinions contrary to that of the instructor' (p.146), harnessing the diversity of the classroom, community, region or nation. Such a curriculum could also investigate historical factors that help students understand unequal global relationships. It would deal with issues beyond the nation state, examining power and privilege; it would have a reflective ethical perspective; and it would value marginalised knowledge such as third world traditions and perspectives (Gay, 2002; Merryfield, 2009). The UNESCO perspective on intercultural curriculum incorporates many of these ideas (UNESCO, n.d.). The UNESCO report, *Learning: The treasure within* (Delors, 1996) argued that the central pillar of education should be learning to live together. The emphasis in schooling is thus on developing global values. This involves both knowledge and attitudes, thus reinforcing the imperative to investigate curricular models that engage both.

The Melbourne Declaration in Australia acknowledges this:

> *As well as knowledge and skills a school's legacy to young people should include national values of democracy, equity and justice and personal values and attributes such as honesty, resilience and respect for others (MCEECDYA, 2008, p. 5).*

The Australian Curriculum, newly developed since 2009 and in varying stages of implementation, has established key capabilities to be incorporated into all areas of the curriculum including critical and creative thinking, personal and social capability, ethical behaviour and intercultural understanding (ACARA, 2012).

In the Australian context, engagement with Asia and Asian-based cultural groups has been at the forefront of curriculum initiatives in this area. Being a country lying in the Asian region, and having the majority of our trading links with Asian countries, has meant there is a great incentive to do so. National government sponsored research, by Griffin, Woods, Dulhunty, and Coates (2002), surveying over 7000 10 year old and

14 year old students' knowledge and attitudes towards Asia, found that those who had
made use of multiple forms of learning (often using the nationally sponsored Access
Asia materials), including formal structured classroom teaching, had a more accurate
and deeper knowledge of Asia than those who had mainly been educated through
informal activities such as excursions or festivals. However, the distribution of
attitudes was very different from that of knowledge and understanding, indicating that
growth and development in attitudes was not necessarily related to exposure to an
Asia-related curriculum or to learning. This suggests that two levels of curriculum
intervention are required, one at the level of attitudes and values, and one at the level
of subject knowledge and awareness, thus validating approaches advocated above in
focusing on the notion of a multidimensional citizenship education.

In Sweden democracy, solidarity and the respect of others are referred to as
fundamental values on which the school system is based and these can be found in the
Education Act (Skollagen, 2010, p.800) as well as in the Curriculum for the
compulsory school, preschool class and the leisure-time centre (2011). The education
should impart and establish these values. In the national curriculum for the
compulsory school there are direct links to globalization:

> *It is important to have an international perspective, to be able to understand*
> *one's own reality in a global context and to create international solidarity,*
> *as well as prepare for a society with close contacts across cultural and*
> *national borders. Having an international perspective also involves*
> *developing an understanding of cultural diversity within the country*
> *(Skolverket, 2010, p. 12).*

There is no doubt that the global perspective has found its way into the Swedish
curriculum.

Maps and intercultural skills

Maps, and the ideas associated with these maps, assist identification of intercultural
skills as well as assisting in developing these skills and values. If we acknowledge that
stereotypes and racist attitudes develop at a very young age then they need to be
addressed at a young age in our schools (Wiegand, 1992; Cameron et al., 2001;
Harrington, 1998; Reynolds, 2004). Wiegand (1992) found that younger children
relied on observable features such as physical features and clothing when deciding
whether people were like us or not like us. He argued that attitudes to distant places
were formed at the same time and probably before knowledge was gained about these
places and teachers needed to provide information and different perspectives about
places if students were to gain a well-rounded view of other peoples and places.
Cameron et al. (2001) argued that young people under the age of seven would not
have the cognitive capacities to truly exhibit prejudice although they will display
ingroup favouritism towards those they perceive to be the same as them. Attitudes
towards others, however, seemed to have been fixed by about the age of ten so it is the

primary/elementary school teacher who must work hard in this area and it seems that there is a small window of opportunity (Barrett & Short, 1992). Barrett (2006) summarized previous studies of the development of, and attitudes to, national identity and found: knowledge, attitudes, feelings and stereotypes about nations and national groups begin to develop from about 5 years of age; by mid adolescence, children hold very detailed stereotypes of the people who live in many different countries, including their own; geographical knowledge (particularly of other countries) is often very poor, even in mid adolescence; children typically show a preference for their own national ingroup right from the outset, at the age of 5; and many national outgroups are still positively liked by most children, just to a lesser extent than the ingroup; but national groups which are the traditional enemies of the child's own nation are often strongly disliked. He conducted a series of studies across national groups and found that the strength of children's national identification was dependent on: the child's nation; the child's geographical location within the nation; the way in which the state category is interpreted within the child's local environment; the child's ethnicity; the use of language in the family home; and the child's language of schooling. Factors influencing this variability included school curriculum, school textbooks and school processes, media representations, travel to other lands and family discourses and practices in relation to other nations as well as the child's motivational and cognitive processes.

Understanding of national identification is thus a very complex matter with the child at the center of it as an active agent in her own learning. This is implicit in the work around children's personal geographies as a strong feature of primary geography teaching (Catling, 2005). This approach emphasizes not only the known school environment, but also children's knowledge of their community place, and their own world knowledge, in planning classroom activity with the children. The local community influences children's mapping and conceptual maps of their world (Gillespie, 2010). Explorations of older primary school children's conceptions of 'them' and 'us' found that despite the transnational experiences of so many of the children interviewed, the big collectives like nation, religion and so on did not play a large role. In Hengst's words; ' "We" are the people who act and relate in the micro-worlds of everyday life, the family, friends, cliques (at school), relatives.' (Hengst, 1997, p. 60).

> *We need to understand children's experiences from their own perspectives, and also to strive to make sure that environmental planning and education meet children's real needs and interests, so that children will have a real sense of ownership and connection to what they experience and learn. (Derr, 2006, p. 119)*

Maps provide a glimpse into children's views and their local community mediates these views.

Examples from classrooms in Sweden and Australia

As with many other researchers (Barrett, 2006; Tajfel, 1966) we found in our study of maps and views towards other nations that, in both the Swedish and Australian classrooms, stereotypes seem to develop at a very young age. We found that the children in our investigation seemed to form an attitude towards different distant places before they know very much about these. Sometimes not even being able to identify places on a map and having not even listed them as a place they know, students could name for example Iran and Afghanistan as places they did not like. 43% of Swedish students disliked Iraq despite the fact they had no idea where it was and without even listing it as a known country. 15% of Australians also disliked Iraq and overall it was the most disliked country by both groups of students. Afghanistan also featured strongly as a disliked country despite almost universal ignorance of its location in the world. The Swedish children selected Germany as their second most disliked country and many of the responses as to why this was so mentioned WW2 and Germany's association with Hitler. Japan was the fifth most disliked country chosen by Australian children and there were a few comments as to WW2 experiences in this reference, but more commonly reasons for this were associated with unusual food and language difficulties, and whale hunting was often noted as a negative aspect of that nation. The Swedish children also disliked Russia and the USA in their five most disliked countries whereas Australian children mentioned USA (second most disliked) and China. These were countries they could identify on a map, and although individually there was consistency in that a particular country did not appear on both lists, overall children usually indicated that they liked a country because of one factor but disliked them because of another. For example China was liked because it had pandas and the Great Wall but disliked because 'the people are rude'. Overwhelmingly the children indicated war and insecurity as the key factors in disliking a country (over 50% in both groups) with climate, people, food, language and poverty as factors that led to dislike of a country.
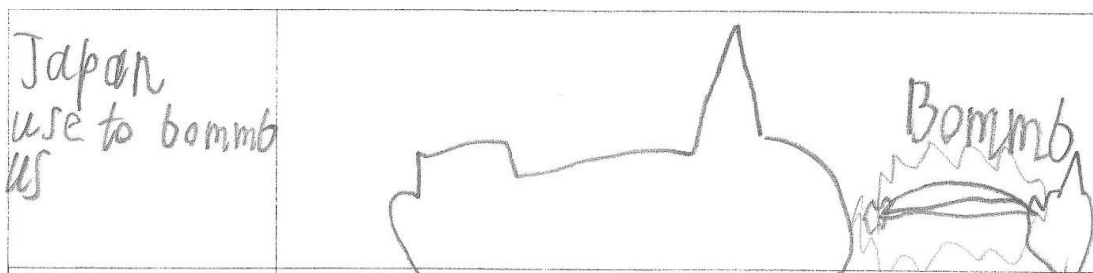
DRAWING 1

YoungAustralian reason for not liking Japan

This drawing indicates the links between war and insecurity and past historical events which underpinned why this child indicated that she didn't like Japan. The

drawing does not take into account any notions of scale but simply establishes the key factors, from her point of view, of the relationship between the two countries.

We also learnt that personal connections with friends or classmates from places abroad often influenced their understanding of other places in a positive and more nuanced way. For instance one Australian child liked Italy because 'that is where my Poppy comes from' and another liked Fiji 'because we go for a holiday and we get to hang out with our family'.

Thus there is an imperative to teach for intercultural understanding in our schools in an increasingly globalized world because the values associated with groups of people and places are exhibited through global connections such as media, music, Facebook as well as students' personal connections. Students have particular views on the world which the classroom teacher and the school community should clarify, examine and question. Increasingly classrooms become places of questioning of values and attitudes as important community tools for democratic practice and international cohesion.

Conclusion

The rhetoric of globalization is built around interdependence and interrelationships and there is a sense of newness and urgency in addressing this in education. Globalization appears to have impacted on classroom practice at three levels and areas – the individual level, the policy level and the ideological area. But how this manifests itself becomes a dilemma in school practice. Globalization at an individual level provides children and young people many diverse experiences through meetings with people, and cultures from many different places, in person or through media - it creates other students and other classrooms – hybrid classrooms. Often in today's classrooms are children originating from many places in the world which is also an effect of globalization. In a school context, one has to respond to this new situation, and interpreting the changes we have been able to discern, from national and unicultural values to more global and intercultural values as an attempt to adjust to this. These hybrid classrooms also demand a greater flexibility and responsiveness of education to meet students' diverse experience background and manage the many attitudes and values that can be expressed.However, the dilemma arises in that globalization has led to a restricted curriculum, both in terms of space for subjects where questions of values and attitudes have a specific location, and that the curricula in these subjects has also been restricted. This has occurred as a result of a global competition that includes education. As a consequence of the need to measure knowledge in relation to the rest of the world instruments for international comparisons in the form of tests have been created. When these instruments control national curricula the need for flexibility and diversity in the new classrooms clashes with the new requirements for uniformity. Standardization has led to the classroom teacher having less time and opportunity to cater for individual or class based capabilities, interests and contexts.

Both Sweden and Australia are committed to reacting to global contexts and global imperatives and their increasingly diverse populations attest to the need to do this at the local as well as the national level. It is seen as important to address diversity in classrooms and communities, to compare schooling achievements with other nations and to learn to interact with others who may have different experiences including different knowledge and understandings and values.

Research using children's drawn maps and attitudes associated with map reading and interpretation internationally indicates that young children do not have a very accurate or well-formed view of the world and that they gain their world knowledge through varied experiences often unrelated to classroom practices. Their initial understandings of the world are linked to their local community in that they often learn about countries physically close to them first and then countries associated with popular culture and technology use. They also learn about places and develop understandings and attitudes towards countries to which they have made a personal (often family associated) links to such as holiday places, nations where relatives live or places people they trust have recommended or made reference to. International competition between educational systems is exacerbating a situation where learning about the world spatially and attitudinally is becoming a lesser priority in a rush to be the best at areas of the curriculum such as maths and literacy. This aspect of globalization in our classrooms is a backward step if our overall aim is to enhance global understanding. Thus we can say that although globalization is having a similar influence on classroom practices as regards our three themes of diversity of students, global competitiveness and an increased need for intercultural skills the students in our different classrooms are not the same and the teaching in our classrooms cannot be the same.

The comparative study of Swedish and Australian children's maps and views of the world demonstrated that both countries have similar challenges in addressing globaization in that students are not being provided with a consistent and measured view of the world, visually as well as perceptually, and the varied power groups within that world, with which to compare and clarify the multiple sources of information they receive. Instead they are susceptible to media manipulation in 'news' sessions as well as through fictional drama and entertainment avenues. There is a great imperative to address this if our young citizens are to be able to become fair minded global citizens. The empirical study referred to in this article demonstrated the value of visual diagrams such as maps as a guide to clarifying children's world views.

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