

GLOBALIZATION – 20th Century

The (Partial) Retreat from Globalization After 1918

Causes Western influence obviously created opposition and resentment, which helps explain important movements to limit Western-centered globalization during the first half of the 20th century. Nationalism, but also new movements such as Nazism and Russian Communism pressed for greater independence from the process. World War I, a brutal conflict which global connections spread internationally, signaled to many the failure of the current global order; so did ensuing economic difficulties, and particularly the great Depression. A number of countries and regions found ways to pull back from all or part of the global network that had been forged after 1850. The result was a significant though incomplete setback for the whole process that would last until after World War II (and in some cases beyond).

Isolationism The United States famously decided after World War I not to join the new League of Nations and to avoid most other possible alliances. In no sense did the nation seek to withdraw from other aspects of globalization, but its leaders believed that global diplomacy as usual jeopardized American interests. There was also concern that certain kinds of international political arrangements would compromise sovereignty, and this concern persists. Many historians believe that greater U.S. political involvement might have helped stabilize the international scene, though this can be debated. Accompanying isolation was the new movement to limit immigration, particularly from certain parts of the world.

The Soviet Path Communism was in principle an international movement, and many of the new revolutionary leaders in Russia hoped to connect with other protest groups. By the late 1920s, however, Stalin led the nation into a more separatist path, seeking to develop industrialization without major foreign connections, under the motto “socialism in one country.” The Soviet Union decidedly pulled away from many Western cultural trends, building its own styles of socialist realism; and it dramatically reduced trade links as well. There was even some effort to establish a separate brand of science. Many of the police controls set up by the regime aimed among other things at carefully controlling external political influences.

Japan Japan emerged disappointed from World War I, convinced that the Western states were bent on denying its rightful place among the great powers. Further damaged by the depression, the nation came under an authoritarian military regime that sought to carve out a new empire in East Asia and the Pacific, one that could support the Japanese economy while partially separating it from the world economy. The idea of a new “Co-Prosperity” sphere was provision of raw materials, cheap labor and markets independent of the Western-dominated global system.

Nazi Germany Nazism was a reaction to Germany’s defeat in war and the democratic republic that struggled in its aftermath. It was also a reaction to globalization. Nazi leaders vilified “international” artistic styles and scientific conventions. As he prepared for war Hitler also hoped to use growing control in east-central Europe to provide resources and opportunities for the German economy that were distinct from the world economy more generally.

Cumulative Results There were other distractions from global linkages. Many colonies, and particularly India, saw local leaders focusing increasingly on goals of national independence; they were not necessarily anti-global, but their priorities aimed elsewhere. Western nations greeted the Depression with decidedly national reactions, raising tariffs for example and in general trying to protect selfish interests in ways that actually reduced international recovery and constrained their own economies. The postwar years also constituted the period when passport systems were more widely introduced, creating new constraints on international travel. Overall, the interwar years, and particularly the 1930s, saw a retreat from globalization in many ways. Global political arrangements took the worst hit, but there was also new economic division and new attacks on global cultural influences. The trends show how fragile

globalization trends can be, at least a century ago and perhaps again in future. At the same time, attacks on globalization provide an important, if less familiar, vantage point for a number of the key trends of the interwar period

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Questions

1. What were the major arguments for and against isolationism in the United States? How did Americans reconcile isolationism with the nation's role in the world economy?
2. How and why did Japan turn away from globalization?

3. What were the main features of Stalin's stance toward global relationships? How and why did communism change in this regard after the initial excitement of the 1917 revolution?
4. How did Britain experience the new constraints on globalization?
5. What were the main overall causes of the retreat from globalization between the wars?
6. What aspects of globalization persisted or intensified despite the "retreat"?

Chapter 21: Globalization between the Wars

Counterthrusts While reactions against Western-dominated globalization form an important part of interwar history around the world, they were not the whole story. Globalization continued to advance, both along lines already established and in some new ways as well. The patterns were complex.

Enhancing Themes A number of established patterns not only persisted but actually expanded, though sometimes with new twists. International sports resumed after World War I and continued until the next conflict. More and more countries established soccer programs. Interest in the Olympic Games increased, though a sense of national competitiveness increased as well particularly in the Nazi-organized Berlin Games in 1936. On another front, many international companies expanded their operations. Many student exchanges continued. It was in the 1920s, despite isolationism, that some American universities began setting up study abroad programs; though focused almost exclusively on Europe; the program suggested that greater cosmopolitanism was becoming a part of elite education in the United States. Cultural globalization, though challenged, also developed new mechanisms. The rise of an international film industry was a key trend. Based particularly in Hollywood, American film companies set up offices in Latin America, Australia and South Africa as well as Europe, and attendance at American movies became part of the urban experience in many countries, even in the Middle East. By 1920 a majority of films shown in Britain originated in the United States, and a number of international stars flocked to Hollywood at this point as well – making the movie industry an interest mix of the American and the global. Finally, technology continued to enhance global linkages. Aviation accelerated certain kinds of international deliveries; radio provided new connections across continents.

Global Imitations Efforts to use global connections to imitate expanded less rapidly amid the signs of tension and retreat, but there were important cases. In the 1920s a growing number of young Japanese provided eager consumers of Western fashion – some were dubbed "modern" girls and boys in consequences. Turkey under its new leader, Kemal Ataturk, sought to combine intense nationalism with new connections to the West, even adopting the Western alphabet as well as the famous adoption of clothing styles. Innovations in the United States, such as cheap retail outlets (the so-called dime stores) either expanded directly in parts of Europe, or sparked imitations such as the French Monoprix.

Women's Rights Earlier connections among feminist movements, plus more general imitation, helped spark an incomplete, but clearly international approach to some new rights for women. Voting rights, already established in Scandinavian countries and Australia, now spread to more (but not all) countries in Europe as well as the United States. This was an area where Turkey also joined in. The Soviet Union also spearheaded women's suffrage, providing another force toward wider international interest.

Political Globalization The most obvious innovations in globalization took place in the political arena. A growing International Labor Office, though suggested before World War I, promoted international interest in worker gains, advocating also an international ban on child labor. Important international conferences broke new ground in gaining agreements on limiting naval forces, particularly among Britain, the United States and Japan; while the effort broke down in the buildup to World War II, the precedent was vital. And competition in battleship production, a key issue before 1914, actually did end once and for all. A chemical weapons ban was also signed by many countries, though the United States among others held out. The idea of global arrangements was clearly expanding.

The League of Nations The most ambitious experiment, of course, was the League of Nations. Now known historically mainly for its ultimate failure, the League deserves attention both as an innovation in principle and for a number of positive results. The idea of a league received wide discussion during World

War I itself: surely, many urged, a new global institution could prevent a recurrence of such a disaster. The postwar peace conference at Versailles readily embraced the concept, with the notion that an international body could discuss key issues before they burst into open conflict. Of course the implementation was flawed in many ways. Important nations were excluded, at least for a while, including Germany and the Soviet Union, and American rejection also hurt. Despite massive discussion no real agreement was reached on giving the League the power of military enforcement; major disputes thus drew hollow condemnations with no real results. But the fact that a body of this sort was even attempted shows a further growth in global political thinking. And the League did resolve some problems, settling 35 of the 66 international issues presented. Finally, discussions continued into the early 1930s about improving League mechanisms, and particularly the possibility of a military response to aggression. No agreement was possible, and then the tensions of the 1930s forestalled further initiative. But here too a precedent was set that would later be resumed.

The Interwar Years The 1920s and 1930s fit uneasily between the two world wars, and the theme of globalization retreat was an important part of spirit of the times. Too many aspects of prior globalization seemed either flawed or abortive. But pressures to globalize continued as well. The generated complexity during the decades themselves, and they also form an active backdrop to a renewal of the larger process after the second war.

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Questions

1. What were the main ways in which globalization advanced between the wars, despite the “retreat” of many regions from global interactions?
2. Why and how were women’s rights becoming an increasing part of globalization by the 1920s?
3. What were the crucial weaknesses of the League of Nations as an instrument of political globalization? How does the League illustrate both an advance in globalization, and the new signs of retreat?
4. Why and how did popular culture become a growing area for global exchange during the 1920s?
5. Why were United States popular cultural forms beginning to gain such wide global influence? What advantages did the nation have over European competitors in appealing to global mass taste?

Contemporary Globalization: The 1950s Onward

There is no question that, at the very least, globalization processes have notably accelerated and expanded in recent decades. The retreat from globalization during the interwar decades has been decidedly reversed. But there may be more. Many globalization theorists in the social scientists assume, without formal historical analysis, that current patterns of globalization are quite new in the human experience. A group of historians, devoting themselves to what they call the “new global history”, agree. Some of them contend specifically that globalization over the past half century is vastly different from earlier contact patterns; a few even argue that globalization is one of the most basic innovations in the whole human experience.

A number of categories capture many of the key developments in contemporary globalization, and allow some tests of the most dramatic claims for innovation. Technology, organization and policy head the list, combining to produce new and intricate frameworks for interaction. But globalization can also be measured by its heightened impacts on political exchanges, culture, even the environment. Range of global developments and intensity are both involved.

And geography must be factored in, with two dimensions. First, during recent decades virtually every region in the world has been drawn into the globalization process, again reversing some earlier efforts to isolate; only a handful of countries, headed by North Korea, now stand apart. And while all sorts of pressures promote globalization, some of the regional adhesions – like China’s decision to rejoin in 1978 – have been at least partly voluntary. Second, contemporary globalization continues to reflect disproportionate Western influence but now at greatly diluted level. Thanks to decolonization and regional economic growth, globalization is more balanced than ever before.

Beginning a consideration of globalization around 1950 may seem an odd choice. It captures the impact of World War II, which directly promoted some of the key changes in technology and indirectly prompted important policy revisions. But 1950 was also precisely when the Cold War seemed to introduce new divisions, which did indeed complicate the globalization process. However, both sides in the Cold War sought global connections, so the contradiction is more apparent than real. And key developments, for example in more rapid communication technologies, occurred despite the Cold War – which turned out in any event not to represent a very durable global framework.

Whatever the decision about the novelty of contemporary globalization, it remains complex. It does not erase regional divisions and distinctions. Indeed, balancing the “global and the local” is one of the key challenges to accurate analysis. It brings a mixture of benefits and disadvantages, with winners and

losers both within and among key regional societies. It has a host of detractors, including some who periodically protest the process directly and others who are more diffusely discomfited by it. In some measurable respects globalization advances even though a majority of people profess to dislike some of its principal features. These issues and more must be factored into contemporary historical analysis.

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The Three Waves of Globalization by Robbie Robertson (Zed Books 2003). Pages 171-265 .

Globalization: A Short History by Jurgen Osterhammel and Niels P. Petersson (Princeton 2005). Pages 113-152.

The New Technologies

Assessing Change Dramatic new technologies unquestionably accelerated the movement of people, goods and information on a global basis. The result was both part of globalization and a framework within which other developments could occur. The novel features of multinational corporations, for example, would be inconceivable without jet travel and rapid information flows. At the same time, the new technologies built on an existing trajectory, in which travel and communication had already been transformed. It is not easy to sort out the drama of real innovation from the changes that had taken hold earlier.

Transportation The key change here kicked in quite soon after World War II, building in part on the tremendous advances in aircraft and associated infrastructure during the war itself. Pan American airlines had already established a transatlantic route in 1939, but it was the advent of jet aircraft that really transformed global links, for travelers and the shipment of goods alike. British Overseas Airways set up the first regular jet service between London and Johannesburg in 1952. The first nonstop flight across the Pacific launched in 1965. At the same time the United Nations brokered important international agreements to coordinate international flights. Numbers of passengers heading to global destinations increased steadily, for business and tourism alike. Even discomfort was altered, as the term jet lag, introduced in 1966, was described as debility not un-akin to a hangover." Jet travel also altered the movement of goods. By the 1970s jets were being used to ship goods to six continents, with particular impact on the movement of perishables.

Communication Both World War II and the Cold War spurred further innovations in this sector. It was in 1945 that Arthur C. Clarke, a British electronics expert, speculated about the possibility of sending communication satellites into space, and research in the area began to blossom in the 1950s. The Soviet space launch in 1957 stimulated further activity. American launches of orbiting communications satellites began in 1964. A new organization, Intelsat, soon opened communications possibilities to all nations, while individual countries also set up their own satellites systems. The result was a revolution in the cost and clarity of international phone calls, as well as the unprecedented opportunity to send television signals worldwide. Portions of the 1964 Olympic Games in Tokyo were thus televised to Europe and North America. The advent of cell phones, plus the continued reduction in the costs of international calls, opened access to many individuals even in some of the poorer regions of the world.

Computers The emergence of the Internet stands as the most important single communications change. Research on the possibility of connecting computers began in the 1950s and 1960s, both in Europe and the United States. Initial goals focused both on communication and on enhanced storage and retrieval capacity. Electronic mail opportunities emerged from 1979 onward, though particularly for military purposes. By the 1980s greater standardization began to develop. In 1984 University College London began using Internet capacity to communicate with the United States, with computers talking directly with other computers. Australian linkages developed at about the same time, and by the late 1980s Japan, Singapore and Thailand also gained global Internet connectivity. China introduced its first capacity in 1991, and with some external funding, African connections were forged by the mid-1990s. There were challenges, of course. Far fewer people in poor countries, and in rural areas generally, had access to the Internet than wealthier urbanites; only a minority, globally, had any kind of direct contact with the system

even by 2013. Individual countries also imposed filtering processes which limited the flow of information. Still, opportunities for rapid and capacious global contact, among private individuals, scholars, and businesses were truly unprecedented.

A New Framework Changes in transportation and communication were obviously cumulative, with new developments building on past milestones virtually every decade. A host of new patterns quickly built on this new potential. One key index was the emergence of English as the first truly global language. Widespread travel and communication virtually compelled some common linguistic medium, for airline pilots for example, or for scientists taking advantage of global access to research. Because of the British imperial precedent and then the power of the United States, English moved into the void, becoming the language not only of global air travel, but also global sports, business and computerization. By the early 21st century 66% of the world's scientists spoke English. By 2008 80% of the electronically stored information in the world was in English. Small wonder that learning English gained ground steadily in global aspirants like China: as a 12-year-old Chinese noted in 2012, self-taught in the language, "If you can't speak English you're deaf and dumb." Here was one sign of the new demands but also the new possibilities of global communication. Language and technology now combined to produce new types of collaborations among researchers, managers, even ordinary tourists.

Human Impacts The changing technology infrastructure affected all sorts of activities, but among them, and not to be forgotten, was a clear human component. Migration changed even further, as longer-distance travel became even easier. People from poorer regions might try to move farther than ever before, seeking jobs in more affluent settings; and cultural mixing, in the recipient regions, became increasingly complex. Downsides involved an unquestionable increase in human trafficking, with up to 800,000 people per year lured or coerced into virtual slavery, including sexual slavery. Exploitation of, and prejudice against, many immigrants surfaced strongly as well. Large immigrant minorities emerged in Western Europe and the Gulf states, as well as in several parts of the Americas – a tangible illustration of ongoing globalization.

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Questions

1. Transocean steamship or jet airplane: which caused the greater changes in global contacts?
2. Discuss resistances and hesitations in reactions to the new global technologies after 1950.
3. Compare the contemporary role of English to that of earlier "global" languages like Arabic.
4. Overall, have the new global technologies reduced or exacerbated regional divides?
5. Which was more important in shaping global relationships 1950 to 1990, the Cold War or the new transportation and communication technologies?

New Policies and Organizations

Beyond Technology Most students of globalization, including the "new global" historians, emphasize the importance of new policy initiatives in the wake of World War II, and then a number of new organizations, in illustrating and furthering the dramatic changes in international contacts. These innovations meshed with technology, but they are significant in their own right and help define the globalization process and its timing. Initially, some of the key changes sought to respond to the divisions and tensions that had led to World War II, but many of the initiatives would take on a life of their own.

The United Nations At the height of World War II the major allies – Britain, the United States, the Soviet Union and China – issued a call for a new world body to replace and transcend the League of Nations. The United Nations was founded after an international conference in 1945, and began operations the following year. The new organization was structured to respond more swiftly and effectively to conflict situations than had been true of the League, though continuing divisions among the great powers continued to impose constraints. The new organization had a far larger infrastructure than its predecessor, with subordinate groups working on issues ranging from health conditions to women's rights. As decolonization proceeded, creating many newly-independent nations, the United Nations also moved away from Western dominance, becoming a more truly global sounding board. While limitations on the effectiveness of the United Nations became obvious, particularly during the Cold War, the new body did respond effectively to a number of crises, sending multinational forces to many trouble spots.

Global Economic Policy Along with the United Nations, a number of new institutions were established to help regulate the global economy in the wake of World War II. A conference in Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, in 1944 set up mechanisms to coordinate international financial policies among capitalist nations, seeking to prevent the kind of disruptions that had occurred between the wars. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) and what later became the World Bank were two specific results. The IMF helped oversee the stability of exchange rates, also providing loans to members to cover temporary trade deficits. The World Bank provided investment funds, initially to aid on postwar economic recovery and later in promoting wider economic development. Both the new organizations encountered criticism for interfering in national economic policies and for promoting the interests of the established industrial powers, but they did seek to promote global stability. Later a third institution, the World Trade Organization (emerging in 1995 after a number of previous international agreements on reducing tariffs barriers) worked directly to encourage a freer flow of goods and services. Membership in the WTO became increasingly widespread particularly after the end of the Cold War in 1989.

Multinationals In part because of the new international policy umbrella, and certainly on the strength of new technologies, a novel type of global business organization began to emerge, helping to define this new stage in globalization overall. Multinational corporations often amassed huge economic power, helping to shape labor and environmental conditions in many regions. Their most characteristic feature involved locating stages of production processes in many different countries, depending on available resources, labor supply and environmental regulations. A contemporary multinational might thus make one set of components for a product in Indonesia, either directly or through a subcontractor, another in Turkey, a third set in Kentucky for final assembly of the whole product in Mexico. Multinationals developed the capacity to relocate key operations quickly, depending on favorable conditions such as wages, without much regard for the region affected. The multinationals maintained older features of international companies, with some key innovations including increasingly international management teams. By 1970 about 6,000 real international companies operated in the world, double the number of 1914, but by 1988 the level was 18,500 and by 2000 it had reached 63,000. Most multinationals continued to be based in the advanced industrial regions such as Western Europe, Japan, South Korea and the United States, but entrants emerged from China and other places as well. The rate of growth was both a measure and a source of globalization.

INGOs The emergence of International Non-Governmental Organizations was in many ways more striking than the pattern of the multinationals, because the effort was more novel. INGOs sought to counter the power of the multinationals, in areas such as the environment and labor policy, while also seeking to constrain national governments, as in the human rights arena. INGOs sought to develop international memberships, while also trying to mobilize and coordinate “world opinion”. They often linked to local NGOs, which provided information about issues such as political imprisonment or attacks on trade union leaders. Key new INGOs included Amnesty International, formed in 1961 to publicize and protest human rights abuses in every major region. By the 1980s the organization had over 700,000 members in 150 countries, and had successfully participated in a number of key campaigns such as the attack on apartheid in South Africa. The overall numbers of INGOs expanded steadily, from about 2000 in 1960 (ten times the number that had existed in 1900), to 4000 in 1980. The range of concerns expanded as well, embracing not only human rights but also women’s rights, labor conditions, and environmental quality. Many successful campaigns were mounted against multinationals, as in the pressure on the McDonalds restaurant chains to stop using non-biodegradable cups (1980s) or on the use of sweatshop labor conditions by companies like Nike (1990s).

Cumulative Impact On the whole the new international policies and institutions increasingly provided greater global coordination, particularly in the economy but also around issues such as global standards for women, both before but especially after the end of the Cold War. Resistances continued, with a number of countries particularly seeking to limit or regulate the impact of INGOs when they seemed to challenge domestic political authority.

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The New Global History by Bruce Mazlish (New York: Routledge, 2006).

Questions

1. What are the main new features of the multinationals, compared to earlier international businesses: revolution or evolution?
2. What are the main causes of the explosion of INGOS since 1960?
3. Discuss the limitations and drawbacks of the new international organizations and policies since 1945?
4. To what extent has the United Nations overcome key weaknesses of the League?
5. How important were the new financial organizations created after World War II in furthering economic globalization?
6. To what extent have the new international organizations and policies created since 1945 overcome or modified earlier Western dominance of globalization?

Regional Commitments

National Decisions Along with new technologies and organizational frameworks, decisions by a number of key governments, over time, helped cement the globalization process in contemporary world history. Regional hesitations persisted, of course, but the reversal of the various efforts to withdraw from global contacts, or create alternatives networks, developed fairly steadily.

Post-World War II Defeat in war ended the experiments in Japan and Germany to create spheres of control separate from the global mainstream. Both countries surprisingly quickly returned not only to robust economic growth, but to active participation in the global community. Japan was more hesitant than Germany about apologizing for wartime excesses, which complicated its relations with its near neighbors. But Japan's growing export sector supported its emergence as one of the world's leading economies, and by the end of the 20th century the nation was also taking a leading role in global popular culture. Both Germany and Japan participated actively in various United Nations activities, including peace-keeping missions.

The United States Experience in war also weaned the United States from isolationism, despite a brief temptation to revert after the war ended. For better or worse the United States replaced Britain as the West's leading protagonist, heading up one "side" in the Cold War and continuing active global military and diplomatic engagement as the "world's only remaining superpower" after 1989. Aspects of globalization continued to cause some distress. American policymakers were particularly averse to global engagements that might be seen as restricting international sovereignty. Thus the nation refused to acknowledge jurisdiction from the new International Criminal Court, established in the early 21st century, and it also refused to sign agreements, such as one prohibiting the use of landmines, despite advocacy by many American citizens. Still, the United States' global role was far more multifaceted and robust than had been the case during the interwar decades, another major change in terms of regional commitments.

China We now know that China's global history is more complicated than once imagined; the society has frequently been suspicious of too much outside contact but never really isolationist. But the exploitative quality of foreign intervention in the 19th and early 20th centuries unquestionably prompted a retreat under Mao Zedong, in which international contacts were carefully limited and supervised. In 1978 the nation substantially changed course, however. While eager to preserve a separate and authoritarian political system, new Chinese leaders decided to embrace the world market and express an unparalleled interest in hosting international visitors and sending students and group delegations to various corners of the world. The goal was to learn as much as possible from the wider world, and to engage this world as a source of supplies and markets; the nation acceded to the World Trade Organization in 2002. Never before had so many Chinese traveled so widely, even as China's role in the world economy and in other global sectors, such as athletics, expanded rapidly.

Russia The decision by the Soviet Union to begin to open wider contacts, from 1985 onward, was almost as dramatic as the Chinese shift. As in China, substantial isolation from the world began to seem too costly, in terms of lagging economic and technological development. Again, new levels of international exchange resulted, in a variety of sectors, even though the Russian political system retained some distinctive features. The wider collapse of communism, after 1989, produced new global exchanges also for other east-central European countries, including even Albania which had long been a particularly isolated pocket.

The End of Isolation? Many regions continued to have real concerns about key aspects of globalization, and regional differences remained sharp in many respects as well. But policy shifts, many of them reasonably voluntary, showed the power of new global arrangements, while augmenting these arrangements in turn. By 2012 one of the last holdout nations, Myanmar (Burma) also began to open to new contacts, interestingly using new openness to global human rights standards as an entering wedge.

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Questions

1. Compare the decisions of China and Russia to expand their global contacts in the 1970s and 1980s. Were similar causes involved? Were there similar impacts and results?
2. To what extent has contemporary globalization operated within an Anglo-American framework?
3. Using Myanmar as example, discuss the nature and limitations of regional isolation in the contemporary world? How can a region rejoin global society?
4. Assess the main stages of Japan's encounter with globalization, from 1853 to the present.
5. Has contemporary globalization become inevitable, or does it depend heavily on national policy decisions?

Political Globalization

The Category Global political arrangements became increasingly complex and wide-ranging from the 1950s onward, building of course on the new policy framework and responding as well to pressures from INGOs. It was a truism that politics lagged behind other aspects of the globalization process – as in the environmental area. A number of effective arrangements did emerge, however, that generated real change both internationally and in many specific regions. With time, leading global political discussions expanded to include more and more representatives from outside the West, though full balance remained elusive if only because of disparities in resources.

United Nations Conferences Conferences proliferated on a whole variety of international policy issues. Spurred by the United Nations and the International Labor Office, a number of conferences worked toward agreement on various issues concerning children. New conventions sought to ban the capital punishment for children convicted of crimes, with most nations signing on; even the United States Supreme Court agreed with this “principle of international law,” in 2006. Efforts to agree on banning child labor encountered various resistances, but an agreement did spell out types of exploitative labor to which children should not be subjected, and also sought to ban child soldiers. Other international conferences worked with some success to limit above-ground nuclear testing, to prevent the spread of nuclear weapons and to reduce existing arsenals. A 1985 agreement, signed by almost all nations within 15 years, actually banned chemical weapons, and many countries began to destroy existing devices in compliance.

Women’s Rights International feminist organizations and the United Nations helped spread new standards for the treatment of women, on an increasingly global basis. The United Nations made specific reference to women in the Universal Charter of Human Rights, in 1948. Then in 1965 the organization began proclaiming the “Year of the Woman” every decade, with an international conference attached. Large numbers of governments, in response, issued assurances of women’s rights in their national constitutions, as with many of the new nations of Africa. Here as in many cases, gaps emerged between important international agreements, with strong world opinion to match, and actual practice. Violence against women increased in some places, in part responding to global pressures for greater equality, and some national courts and governments ignored international standards altogether.

Health Globalization inevitably increased the potential for the spread of communicable diseases, and the speed of contagion. But in many ways political responses, headed by the World Health Organization (WHO), responded effectively. Thus in 2002-3 an epidemic of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) began in China, whose government initially sought to conceal the outbreak lest it embarrass the regime. But the disease was picked up by a Canadian health warning system, which prompted WHO response. Transmission to other Asian countries, and to Canada, also sparked new efforts at quarantine, while airline passengers began to be screened for the disease. By summer 2003 the disease had been contained, with many regions spared entirely. International responses also applied (with varying degrees of success) to other diseases such as AIDS and dangerous strains of flu. Global institutions were increasingly positioned not just to record new health dangers, but to coordinate countermeasures. Other global health problems, not based on contagion, such as the growing global incidence of childhood obesity, were less easy to deal with organizationally.

Crime A somewhat sketchy international police organization was formed in the 1920s. It was revived in 1945, under the nickname Interpol, and has become the second largest global institution after the United Nations itself, with 98 national members. Interpol works to coordinate activities among national police forces and to work against international criminal activities, including drug trafficking, wildlife trafficking and terrorism. While information exchange is a crucial activity, direct enforcement efforts occur as well.

Military Crises International responses to many military crises remained frequently deficient. The United Nations, thanks to great-power vetoes, could not effectively intervene in Cold War conflicts such as Vietnam. Devastating civil strife and genocides, as in Rwanda in the 1990s, were not brought under international control. Many regions, however, set up arbitration agreements after World War II that proved largely effective in settling disputes. This was true in Latin America, in Southeast Asia (particularly after the Vietnamese War), in Europe with the movement toward greater unity, and in parts of Africa. The

United Nations itself proved more decisive after the Cold War ended. Between 1988 and 1993 13 new peace keeping operations were launched, with troops from many countries working to assure agreed-upon borders or resolve civil conflicts. A bit later, in 1998, in a successful mission to resolve a bitter civil war in Sierra Leone, 17,000 troops were involved. By 2013 15 missions were active, with 109,000 troops. United Nations projects had mixed results, but by the early 21st century some experts argued that, thanks to these efforts and other regional agreements, the amount of armed conflict in the world was actually going down.

Trends International institutions and coordinating efforts had many weaknesses, and remained fairly powerless against determined individual states. A number of problems – such as growing inequality among different levels of society, a pervasive global trend from the 1990s onward – were simply not tackled. Other issues drew inconsistent response. In some areas, however, international institutions gained greater experience in the decades after 1950. And ambitions increased as well. In 2002, for example, a large number of countries agreed to the formation of an International Criminal Court, designed to try war criminals and others guilty of crimes such as genocide. By 2017 leaders who committed acts of aggression were meant to be brought under the court’s purview. The notion that war crimes could be clearly defined, and that an international body could respond to them, was ambitious, and it remained to be seen how effective the Court would be. But the goal showed a continued hope that international political action could tackle fundamental problems.

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Questions

1. What is the role of science in contemporary globalization, and what key changes from past scientific patterns are involved?
2. Why have fast foods become such an important component in global consumerism?
3. What is Japan's role in contemporary global consumerism?
4. How, and how well, do regional and global cultures combine in contemporary world history?
5. What groups are most, and what groups least, drawn to global cultural forms?
6. Is global culture a significant phenomenon, or is most of what passes for global culture rather superficial in terms of its meaning to the people involved?

Cultural Globalization

Trends The intensity and range of contacts, and particularly the new capacities in global communication, inevitably had deep impact on values, beliefs and styles, without eliminating regional identities for many people. Many people, particularly youth, felt new need to stay connected to a larger cultural world. The young man in a McDonald's restaurant in Shanghai, who admitted he preferred traditional food but want to be linked to global tastes, was a case in point. Correspondingly, global cultural inroads created new resistances as well.

Sources The West, and particularly the United States, helped create larger segments of global culture, particularly around media and consumerism. But Japanese popular music and animation made large inroads, and by the early 21st century South Korea was becoming a trend-setter as well. Exchanges occurred in many directions. Thus American television shows and movies dominated many markets, but Americans themselves picked up music crazes from Europe, toy and game fads from Japan, some movie styles from India, some medical approaches from China – the list was long and complex.

Science Something like a global approach to science and medicine clearly emerged, though research was obviously more extensive in affluent countries than in poorer regions. Scientific meetings gained global clientele. Many students flocked to universities that could provide the latest training in science and technology, and by the 21st century leading institutions in places like Singapore were competing with Western centers for this kind of international clientele. Major projects in physics as well as medicine linked scholars from many regions. Beyond research, hospitals in most major urban centers, except in the poorest countries, began providing fairly standards approaches to the leading diseases, though sometimes individuals combined interest in modern medicine with more traditional rituals and remedies.

Art and Architecture Shared architectural styles increasingly dominated the new sections of cities around the world, for the very good reason that many architectural firms developed international commissions. Artistic and musical trends were more varied, and not every society actively patronized the leading "modern art" styles of the West. But orchestras with essentially common repertoires developed widely in East Asia as well as Europe, Russia, Israel and the Americas, and performers and conductors were similarly diverse. Even regional cultural groups developed global audiences, thanks to the possibility of international tours.

Consumer Culture Here was the epicenter of what most people identified as global culture, thanks in large part to shared media but also to international corporations in areas like food services. American-style fast food spread widely, particularly from the 1970s onward, with only modest concessions to local cuisine (such as more vegetarian fare in India). By 1998 McDonalds, for example, was operating in 109 countries. Many sporting events became global, even aside from the increasingly popular Olympic

Games. Globally-shared consumer items, like Hello Kitty merchandise from Japan, reflected many common tastes. Beauty contests globalized (amid periodic dispute), from a base in the West and particularly the United States. Thus a Miss World competition was launched in 1951. Regional and national contests emerged in India, Africa and elsewhere. Interest even grew in parts of the Middle East, with a Lebanese winner of Miss International in 2002 and a Pakistani winner of Miss Bikini Universe in 2006 (though amid great local controversy). Clothing styles globalized, around such items as the ubiquitous blue jeans. Commercial aspects of Christmas spread, even to places like Turkey or the Emirates; the song Happy Birthday, associated with new types of celebrations for children, was translated into most major languages.

Hesitations Many people were not moved by the new tastes, preferring older styles. Even some participants might be only superficially involved. And different regions did adapt global styles, avoiding absolute uniformity. Thus Japanese visitors at the nation's Disney Park were more likely to buy goods for others than were Americans, who saw Disney as a chance mainly to purchase items for themselves. Other adaptations were interesting, as in the huge Bollywood film industry in India that mixed traditional styles and stories with Hollywood conventions. And there was much outright criticism and resistance. At one point the Japanese government tried to support the use of chopsticks in schools, worried that a national tradition was being eroded. Islamic criticism of excessive consumer sexuality, and the clear preference of many Muslim women, even where clear choices were available, to maintain traditional dress reflected an obvious source of friction. The varieties and meaning of global culture remained complex.

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Questions

1. Discuss the interaction between human rights principles and contemporary globalization.
2. Compare international political action on disease control and on the control of violence. What are the similarities and differences?
3. How does the effort to prosecute crimes against humanity relate to the broader process of political globalization?
4. Is political and economic globalization beginning to displace nationalism and national political control?
5. What are the key objections to global human rights standards and efforts at implementation?

Environmental Globalization

Emergence of a Global Issue Humans have affected, or damaged, the environment at many points. And some of the damage has certainly been related to earlier patterns of interregional contact. European animals, for example, substantially altered many American grass lands, as part of the Columbian exchange. Western industrialization, in the 19th century, prompted many countries to introduce new crops that increased soil erosion, altered water sources or had other harmful effects, in the interests of supplying the expanding export markets. Thus the proliferation of rubber plantations in Brazil had significant consequences, as did encouragement for planting cotton in less-suited parts of Africa. Never before the later 20th century, however, had environmental changes in one region had literally global impact. And never before, by the same token, had global institutions sought to grapple with environmental concerns.

New Patterns Several changes in the 20th century began to redefine environmental impacts, and intensify scientific and political attention to the issue. During the 1970s scientists began to call attention to increasing damage to the ozone layer, particularly over Antarctica, presumably because of the use of halocarbons, such as Freon, in refrigeration and air conditioning systems. Damage increased into the later 1980s, causing growing concern about the results of more direct exposure to ultraviolet light from the sun. On another front, attempts to curb local factory pollution by creating tall smokestacks, to disperse this form of waste over wider territory, turned out to generate more acidic rainfall in distant regions, with considerable harm to northern forests. Thus tall stacks in the United States Midwest had direct effects on Canadian forests, while acid rain in Scandinavia was generated from the German Ruhr. Finally, and most important, the increase of overall carbon emissions as a result of factories but also automobiles, plus the diminution of Amazon forests due to growing demand for beef and other products, combined to produce increasingly measurable global warming. Polar icecaps began to melt, temperature averages increased, with resulting increases in more dramatic storms plus growing concern about the results of rising sea levels. Environmental change had gone global.

Responses: Halocarbons Global environmental change provided an obvious challenge for global political institutions. At first, many nations tried to tackle some of the problems through their own legislation. Thus the United States and the European nations took action on ozone-damaging

halocarbons through separate laws. Strategies changed in the early 1980s, however, toward insistence on a more international approach; purely national action had only limited results. In consequence, a series of meetings led to a 1987 convention in Montreal, in which many nations agreed to ban halocarbons and replace them with less damaging chemicals. The result was some reduction in problems with the ozone layer.

Responses: Global Warming Action on global warming was considerably more challenging, but discussions of the need for international action intensified by the later 1990s. A major conference in Kyoto, Japan, set limits on carbon emissions in order to address the problem. A number of industrial nations pledged reductions. Ensuing conferences occurred in the 21st century, with additional pledges but also considerable dispute. The United Nations, in the meantime, sponsored a series of scientific studies (with international panels of experts) to demonstrate the changes that could be recorded in the climate and discuss probable causes through human activities. As of 2014, responses had proved inadequate to reverse the trends.

A Global Dilemma More complicated environmental issues, notably global warming, proved difficult to address through international agreement. Industrial countries differed among themselves as to the seriousness of the threat. The United States, particularly, embraced considerable dispute over whether global warming was real, and whether it had human causes; strong political contingents resisted action, and prevented ratification of American pledges at conferences like Kyoto. Economically developing nations hesitated, believing that they would be disadvantaged competitively if they agreed to expensive remedies, worrying that industrial nations were using environmental concerns as a means to limit their own growth. At least for the moment, global environmental change outstripped global political capacity, despite deep concern in many quarters.

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Questions

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2. What were the main principles of the Kyoto agreement and what kinds of concern did the agreement cause.
3. What factors in recent decades have converted human environmental impacts from a regional to a global phenomenon?
4. Assess the main variations in regional responses to global environmental change.

Downsides to Globalization

Loss of Control Environmental changes, disputes, and ineffective responses make it obvious that globalization is hardly an unalloyed blessing. Some globalization theorists have tended to paint a resolutely rosy picture, but one can also believe that globalization is occurring but lament the results. Major concerns about the process fall into several major categories. But an overarching feature of globalization may involve, for many people, a less specific sense of loss of control. Familiar features change, when economic competition comes from more distant places or one's city is populated by an increasing diverse immigrant group. Even aside from specific problems, in other words, globalization can generate a sense of unease

Economic Issues For quite a while, economic problems associated with globalization received greatest attention, and they certainly continue to cause concern. During the 1980s and 1990s there was a widespread belief that globalization was producing greater inequality among key regions. Industrialized areas, now including Japan and the Pacific Rim, seemed to be able to take advantage of less developed regions to garner resources and foods at falling prices (oil was an exception here), while encouraging the importation of higher-cost goods and services. Institutions like the International Monetary Fund were accused of constraining the poorer countries, for example in insisting on austerity policies. Parts of sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and Southeast Asia seemed mired in growing poverty. By the 1990s, however, the economic success of China, India, Brazil and other key countries suggested the regional inequality was actually in decline, with globalization – opportunities to export, particularly – now seen as beneficial. Several African countries, by the 21st century, also seemed able to take advantage of global prosperity. Greater attention shifted now to growing inequality within regions – from the United States to China, and to sectors where new levels of low-wage foreign competition seemed to generate greater unemployment. Most nations held back from direct confrontation with economic globalization, through mechanisms such as higher tariffs, which suggested considerable belief that on balance economic opportunities outweighed threats; but groups within many societies were less sanguine.

The Issue of Identity Many intellectuals as well as many ordinary people have developed grave concerns over globalization's threat to regional cultures. Africans lament the perversion of folk art in the interests of pleasing tourist tastes. A leading Mexican novelist writes about the threat to distinctive identity posed by global urban culture and of course the omnipresence of United States influence. Chinese intellectuals divide over whether globalization is blessing or curse, some claiming that global prosperity will give the nation a greater voice, others worrying that interactions with globalization press the nation into a foreign mold. Religious leaders in many regions worry about the distractions of consumer culture. Parents, in many cases, see threats to their control over their children, as youth-centered global styles gain greater attention. The challenge of cultural globalization is less obvious in nations like the United States, whose popular fashions help lead the parade, but it is very real in many societies. For many, cultural globalization is just a fancy name for American or Western dominance.

The Immigrant Challenge Immigration is not, again, new with contemporary globalization, nor is the ethnic tension that can accompany it. Nevertheless the distant origins and the mixing of immigrant groups do provide new challenges. The whole immigrant phenomenon can seem to incorporate some of the wider meanings of globalization. In Europe, tensions with Muslim immigrants could be particularly severe; France for example legislated prohibitions on traditional dress for Muslim women, but there were also

culture clashes in the Netherlands and Scandinavia. Many Americans focused strongly on the real or imagined threat of illegal immigrants, citing unfair economic competition and welfare costs or the danger of criminality. Japan, despite a falling birth rate, held back from admitting many immigrants in the first place.

Disagreement Polls taken in the early 21st century suggest that a majority of people in the world actually opposed globalization, because of one or more of the threats it poses. Cultural globalization draws the greatest concern, with up to 72% opposition; economic globalization draws disapproval from over 50% of respondents. Only political globalization wins majority favor, with some hope that political agreements might help keep other aspects of globalization, such as the excessive power of the multinationals or environmental degradation, under some control. But Americans were particularly worried about political interference, with considerable concern even about the United Nations. Group responses did vary. Young people in Western Europe, Japan and the coasts of North America actually favored cultural globalization, by a 4-1 margin, in obvious contrast to the rest of the world. Worldwide, women favor globalization a bit more than men do, which makes sense in terms of globalization's impact on traditional gender relations. Here too, however, there is complexity.

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2. What are the leading disadvantages of economic globalization?
3. What are the leading disadvantages of cultural globalization?
4. Why is cultural globalization contested more widely than economic globalization, and both more than political globalization?
5. What are the major challenges in interpreting regional poll results on contemporary globalization?
6. Compare reactions to globalization in Africa and in the United States: what causes major similarities and differences?
7. Obviously, we lack polling data on globalization before the last few decades: speculatively, do you think hostility to global contacts has increased or decreased over the past 150 years? Discuss the main reasons for your response.

Protest

Innovation One of the most interesting features of contemporary globalization was its generation of a specifically anti-globalization protest movement. This was quite new. It reflected the greater power of globalization as a process, that it could not focus at least a certain amount of explicit discontent. It also reflected the decline of other targets: with formal imperialism largely gone, for example, some of the hostility directed at earlier global relationships now had to move in new directions. Anti-global protest was not, as yet, a terribly important movement, though it did force global leaders to isolate their planning conferences. The development is worth at least passing notice. But it is also important to consider some less direct methods of resistance, which linked to the whole process but possibly in more significant ways.

The First Outbreak Extensive street protests broke out in Seattle, in 1999, on the occasion of meetings of the World Trade Organization, aimed at reducing barriers to international trade. While disproportionate shares of protesters were North American, there were groups from a whole variety of regions. As one participant put it, "Protesters included: French farmers, Korean greens (environmentalists), Canadian wheat growers, Mexican environmentalists, Chinese dissidents, Ecuadorian anti-dam organizations, U'wa tribes people from the Colombian rainforest, and British campaigners against genetically modified foods." Passions ran high, and there was considerable property damage as well as clashes with the police. Impact on the conference itself was slight.

The Leading Grievances As the Seattle cast of characters suggested, anti-global protest gathered a variety of groups concerned about continued economic development. Some trade unionists worried about the impact of global trade on jobs in established industrial countries. There was a great deal of concern about global consumerism and its impact both on traditional producers and on cultural values. Thus an articulate French tractor driver used the occasion to voice his disdain for McDonalds (a message he would later carry to other protest activities). A great deal of hostility was directed at the power and irresponsibility of multinationals. Environmental concerns obviously loomed large: the assumption was that globalization encouraged the kind of unchecked production that endangered nature but also traditional groups like the Columbian tribespeople. Finally, an indeterminate of outright anarchists were involved, not so much concerned about globalization (though certainly not friendly to it) as eager to seize the occasion for disruption.

Impact In the short run, protests against globalization had no discernible impact except to provoke massive security arrangements at subsequent global gatherings. Meetings of the World Bank, of global leaders in the leading commercial and industrial powers (the so-called Group of 20 after 2009), as well as other global policy groups in the economic sphere all called forth loud street demonstrations. Many

meetings, in consequence, were held in relatively remote locations. Again, no real policy shifts resulted, and it remained unclear whether the protest movement had particularly deep roots.

Other Manifestations Probably more important and consequential signs of concern about globalization were more oblique than outright protest, but drew from deeper popular concerns. The Green Party movement in key parts of Europe, focused on environmental protection and sustainable development, was not explicitly anti-global, but it certainly viewed globalization through a distinctive lens. The rise of anti-immigrant political groups, in both the United States and Europe, sometimes seemed to express a level of anxiety that went beyond immigrant issues themselves, and may have focused a wider concern about loss of control and familiarity amid globalization. More important still, from the 1970s onward, was the role of fundamentalist religious movements in many societies. A number of movements arose to urge a return to religious fundamentals, in the process emphasizing the primacy of a particular faith over other beliefs, whether religious or secular. Strong fundamentalist currents developed in Hinduism, Christianity, Judaism as well as Islam. While many fundamentalist leaders took advantage of new global communication links, the pattern ran counter to globalization in many ways. Fundamentalism often appealed to urban groups left behind in the global economy, including underemployed youth; it was characteristically intolerant, often more intolerant than earlier traditions had been. More than nationalism, by the early 21st century, some religious manifestations suggested the incomplete hold of globalization, and the continued validity of cultural options.

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Primary Source:

Anti-Globalization Protests, Seattle 2009 - <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=33npOsQXAn8>

Large Feature on Seattle 2009, Watch First Half- <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pFamvR9CpYw>

Suggested Reading:

Fundamentalism: Prophecy and Protest in an Age of Globalization by Torkel Brekke (Cambridge, 2011).

Questions

1. What were the main reasons for the rise of active protest against contemporary globalization?
2. What were the main components of the Seattle protest? How did it get organized?
3. What is the relationship between active protests against globalization and opinion polls on the same subject? What targets are shared? What, if any, are not?
4. Is anti-globalization protest significant? Is it likely to become more so?
5. Why does globalization cause concern among many religious groups? Has globalization created major religious issues in the past half-century?
6. By the early 21st century, which was generating the most important impediments to globalization, religion or nationalism?

Globalization, History and the Future

Perspective It's hardly surprising that a historical account urges the importance of perspective when it comes to globalization. So many studies of globalization have implied that it sprang up almost unbidden after the end of the Cold War that it is important to note the richer history of human contacts from which globalization has emerged. The historical approach also helps clarify, as against many popular impressions, that globalization both now and in the past has involved more than technology, though the technological role is undeniable. A historical approach does not definitively answer the question of when "real" globalization began, that is at what point more traditional or "protoglobal" forms of contact yielded to the more intense network we see around us today. As we have seen, there are several options, including the "new global historians'" notion that globalization, while not just yesterday, is indeed a dramatic new feature of the past half century. Arguably, some debate and disagreement form part of a useful perspective, so that observers are not trapped in a singular approach to the phenomenon.

Component Parts Whatever the conclusions about the timing of globalization, as opposed to looser patterns, history does suggest a discussion of stages of interaction, rather than an overemphasis on the stark novelty of recent changes. It also encourages breaking globalization down into component parts, which is another way to gain perspective. Some aspects of regional interaction are, after all, virtually as old as the species itself: migration and disease transmission are cases in point. They change shapes with more recent globalization, but they have important earlier precedents as well. Reasonably regular transregional trade takes off a bit later, but it also has a long history. Political and cultural globalization, in contrast, are much more recent (missionary religious outreach excepted), though they begin to build into the equation in the later 19th century. Full globalization obviously involves interconnections among different sectors, but it helps to trace each component as well.

Inevitability Whether through a contemporary or a more historical lens, globalization, whenever it takes hold, can seem to be an inexorable process: nothing can stop the global train once it starts running. Indeed, the advantages of transregional contact, and the motivations involved (often, commercial, profit-seeking motivations above all), have fairly steadily advanced the process of interaction for a long time – possibly, as we earlier discussed, from the networks established in the classical period onward. Disruption of one system of interaction almost always saw another framework rise to replace it, in fairly short order. But history also shows the complexities of globalization, which can qualify the impression of some steady forward march. Many societies, at many points including relatively recently, have decided that wider contacts are not desirable for them – and this possibility may exist even in the future, despite the relentless pace of technological and organizational advance. The retreat from globalization early in the 20th century is a dramatic indication that the process can run aground, at least for a few decades, even in a relatively contemporary setting. Certainly, individual societies and groups have exercised various options in deciding how to react to global contacts, even aside from isolationist impulses. The "local and global" mantra still counts. We have always needed to interpret contact patterns in light of

different regional reactions, and this remains true today and, insofar as one can estimate, on into the future. Globalization has never produced monolithic results.

Frameworks for Debate The historical perspective contributes directly to understanding why there are so many ongoing arguments about the pros and cons of the globalization process. Some controversies – particularly over issues of cultural identity amid external influence – have literally gone on, if sporadically, for centuries. The challenge of regional economic inequality, among global contacts, is at least five centuries old, and there are some explicit links between its current version and past patterns. Confusion between globalization and Western imperialism, though receding slightly, is another historical basis for controversy that has inescapable historical roots. Globalization has often marched forward despite bitter debate, but the resulting tensions are very real, and dissipate slowly at best.

Upsides While history illuminates some of the problems attaching to globalization, from past to present, it also highlights why globalization, and its predecessors, have continued to advance. Profit and power can accrue from successful encounters with globalization, but there is more besides. Contacts have also widened horizons, contributed new ideas and exciting new styles and products. Even global consumerism, prosaic as it may seem, has had a role to play here. The interplay among anxiety and fears about loss of control, measurable drawbacks, but also new stimuli and opportunities is another aspect of globalization that has moved from the past to the present, and toward the future.

Violence Globalization discussions, both past and present, range readily from biological exchange to culture to the status of trade and technology. A focus on global violence is less common. Clearly, however, violence has been part of globalization at least since the Europeans literally forced their way into world trade from 1500 onward. Globalization's spur to competitiveness, cultural tensions, or a growing scramble for world resources may open further chapters of conflict as the process moves forward. But the glimmer of hope in new ideas of global citizenship and new institutions that work to preempt or resolve hostility deserves attention as well. Certainly, the criterion of conflict management can be legitimately added to the assessment of the process going forward.

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Primary Source:

Choose two of the following speeches:

Nils Gilman Discusses the Effect of a Globalizing Black Market Economy - <http://www.trendhunter.com/keynote/nils-gilman>

The Income Inequality Speech by Chrystia Freeland is on the Global Rich - <http://www.trendhunter.com/keynote/income-inequality-speech>

Jeff Rubin Describes How an Increase in Oil Prices Will Shrink the World - <http://www.trendhunter.com/keynote/jeff-rubin>

Ethan Zuckerman Discusses How the Internet Has Made the World Smaller - <http://www.trendhunter.com/keynote/ethan-zuckerman>

Sheikha Al Mayassa Discusses the Role of Art in Globalization - <http://www.trendhunter.com/keynote/sheikha-al-mayassa>

Suggested Reading:

Making Globalization Work by Joseph E. Stiglitz (W.W. Norton & Company 2007).

The Globalization Paradox: Democracy and the Future of the World Economy by Dani Rodrik (W.W. Norton & Company 2012).

Questions

1. Is globalization proceeding despite widespread criticism and protest, or has it been slowed up? Do you expect current patterns to continue? Explain the reasons for your answers.
2. What is the impact of globalization on crime?
3. Will globalization significantly reduce global cultural and political diversity?
4. Why do women, on the whole, favor globalization slightly more than men do?
5. To what extent has globalization limited national sovereignty? Are limitations likely to increase in future?
6. One of the “thinking skills” in world history, promoted by globalization, is the ability to illustrate how local and global factors combine. Give two examples of how this kind of local/global analysis can work effectively.
7. What are some of the newer approaches to research in globalization?
8. Discuss three major impediments to globalization during the past 60 years.
9. Has political globalization lagged behind other facets of globalization since 1945?
10. Has the relationship between violence and global contacts changed in recent decades, compared to the early modern and 19th century periods? Does globalization now inhibit violence?
11. Is globalization here to stay, or will there be another retreat, as occurred earlier in the 20th century? Explain the reasons for your prediction.
12. What would the most useful next steps be in historical research and analysis, to understand contemporary globalization better?

13. Why have some societies been more open to global contacts than others at key points in world history? Use specific examples in developing your answer.
14. What are the best criteria to use in deciding when globalization effectively began? Illustrate your answer with specific examples.
15. Discuss the role of consumerism in the major stages of the evolution of transregional contacts in world history. Does globalization cause or reflect changes in consumerism over time?
16. Pick one of the following societies, and trace its relationship to the evolution of transregional or global contact patterns from 1000 to the present. Discuss the causes of major changes in the relationships.
 - SubSaharan Africa
 - Russia
 - Japan
 - Middle East
17. Discuss the relationship between major religions and globalization, from 1000 to the present. Use specific examples in developing your essay.