

COURSE CODE	BIRD 314
COURSE NAME	Globalization Debates and Events and Analysis

Globalization Debates and Events

Globalization (or **globalisation**) describes an ongoing process by which regional economies, societies, and cultures have become integrated through a globe-spanning network of communication and exchange. The term is sometimes used to refer specifically to economic globalization: the integration of national economies into the international economy through [trade](#), [foreign direct investment](#), [capital flows](#), [migration](#), and the spread of [technology](#). However, globalization is usually recognized as being driven by a combination of economic, technological, sociocultural, political, and biological factors.^[2] The term can also refer to the transnational circulation of ideas, languages, or [popular culture](#).

Definitions

An early description of globalization was penned by the American entrepreneur-turned-minister [Charles Taze Russell](#) who coined the term 'corporate giants' in 1897. However, it was not until the 1960s that the term began to be widely used by economists and other social scientists. It had achieved widespread use in the mainstream press by the later half of the 1980s. Since its inception, the concept of globalization has inspired numerous competing definitions and interpretations.

[The United Nations ESCWA](#) has written that globalization "is a widely-used term that can be defined in a number of different ways. When used in an economic context, it refers to the reduction and removal of barriers between national borders in order to facilitate the flow of goods, capital, services and labour... although considerable barriers remain to the flow of labour.... Globalization is not a new phenomenon. It began in the late nineteenth century, but its spread slowed during the period from the start of the First World War until the third quarter of the twentieth century. This slowdown can be attributed to the inward-looking policies pursued by a number of countries in order to protect their respective industries.. however, the pace of globalization picked up rapidly during the fourth quarter of the twentieth century...."

[Saskia Sassen](#) writes that "a good part of globalization consists of an enormous variety of micro-processes that begin to denationalize what had been constructed as national — whether policies, capital, political subjectivities, urban spaces, temporal frames, or any other of a variety of dynamics and domains."

[Tom G. Palmer](#) of the [Cato Institute](#) defines globalization as "the diminution or elimination of state-enforced restrictions on exchanges across borders and the increasingly integrated and complex global system of production and exchange that has emerged as a result."^[7]

[Thomas L. Friedman](#) has examined the impact of the "flattening" of the world, and argues that [globalized trade](#), [outsourcing](#), [supply-chaining](#), and political forces have changed the world permanently, for both better and worse. He also argues that the pace of globalization is quickening and will continue to have a growing impact on business organization and practice.^[8]

[Noam Chomsky](#) argues that the word globalization is also used, in a doctrinal sense, to describe the neoliberal form of [economic globalization](#).^[11]

[Herman E. Daly](#) argues that sometimes the terms internationalization and globalization are used interchangeably but there is a significant formal difference. The term "internationalization" (or internationalisation) refers to the importance of international trade, relations, treaties etc. owing to the (hypothetical) immobility of labor and capital between or among nations.

[Adrián Ravier](#) of the [Hayek Foundation](#) summarize the globalization as such the process that arises spontaneously in the market and acts by developing a progressive international division of labour, eliminating restrictions on individual liberties, reducing transportation and communication costs, and increasingly integrating the individuals that compose the "great society."

Finally, [Takis Fotopoulos](#) argues that globalisation is the result of systemic trends manifesting the market economy's grow-or-die dynamic, following the rapid expansion of transnational corporations. Because these trends have not been offset effectively by counter-tendencies that could have emanated from trade-union action and other forms of political activity, the outcome has been globalisation. This is a multi-faceted and irreversible phenomenon within the system of the market economy and it is expressed as: economic globalisation, namely, the opening and deregulation of commodity, capital and labour markets which led to the present form of neoliberal globalisation; political globalisation, i.e., the emergence of a transnational elite and the phasing out of the all powerful-nation state of the statist period; cultural globalisation, i.e., the worldwide homogenisation of culture; ideological globalisation; technological globalisation; social globalisation.

History

The historical origins of globalization are the subject of on-going debate. Though some scholars situate the origins of globalization in the [modern era](#), others regard it as a phenomenon with a long history.

Perhaps the most extreme proponent of a [deep historical](#) origin for globalization was [Andre Gunder Frank](#), an economist associated with [dependency theory](#). Frank argued that a form of globalization has been in existence since the rise of trade links between [Sumer](#) and the [Indus Valley Civilization](#) in the [third millenium](#) B.C. Critics of this idea point out that it rests upon an overly-broad definition of globalization.

Others have perceived an early form of globalization in the trade links between the [Roman Empire](#), the [Parthian Empire](#), and the [Han Dynasty](#). The increasing articulation of commercial links between these powers inspired the development of the [Silk Road](#), which started in western China, reached the boundaries of the Parthian empire, and continued onwards towards Rome.

The [Islamic Golden Age](#) was also an important early stage of globalization, when [Jewish](#) and [Muslim traders](#) and [explorers](#) established a sustained economy across the [Old World](#) resulting in a [globalization of crops](#), trade, knowledge and technology. Globally significant crops such as [sugar](#) and [cotton](#) became widely cultivated across the [Muslim world](#) in this period, while the necessity of learning [Arabic](#) and completing the [Hajj](#) created a cosmopolitan culture.

The advent of the [Mongol Empire](#), though destabilizing to the commercial centers of the [Middle East](#) and [China](#), greatly facilitated travel along the [Silk Road](#). This permitted travelers and missionaries such as [Marco Polo](#) to journey successfully (and profitably) from one end of [Eurasia](#) to the other. The so-called [Pax Mongolica](#) of the [thirteenth century](#) had several other notable globalizing effects. It witnessed the creation of the first international [postal service](#), as well as the rapid transmission of [epidemic diseases](#) such as [bubonic plague](#) across the newly-unified regions of [Central Asia](#).^[17] These pre-modern phases of global or hemispheric exchange are sometimes known as [archaic globalization](#). Up to the sixteenth century, however, even the largest systems of international exchange were limited to the [Old World](#).

The [Age of Discovery](#) brought a broad change in globalization, being the first period in which Eurasia and [Africa](#) engaged in substantial cultural, material and biologic exchange with the [New World](#).^[18] It begun in the late 15th century, when the two Kingdoms of the [Iberian Peninsula](#) - [Portugal](#) and [Castile](#) - sent the first exploratory voyages^[19] around the [Horn of Africa](#) and to the [Americas](#), "discovered" in 1492 by [Christopher Columbus](#). Shortly before the turn of the 16th century, Portuguese started establishing [trading posts \(factories\)](#) from Africa to Asia and Brazil, to deal with the trade of local products like [gold](#), [spices](#) and [timber](#), introducing an international business center under a royal monopoly, the [House of India](#).^[20] Global integration continued with the [European colonization of the Americas](#) initiating the [Columbian Exchange](#).^[21] the enormous widespread exchange of plants, animals, foods, human populations (including [slaves](#)), [communicable diseases](#),

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and culture between the [Eastern](#) and [Western](#) hemispheres. It was one of the most significant global events concerning [ecology](#), [agriculture](#), and [culture](#) in history.



This phase is sometimes known as [proto-globalization](#). It was characterized by the rise of maritime European empires, in the 16th and 17th centuries, first the [Portuguese](#) and [Spanish](#) Empires, and later the [Dutch](#) and [British](#) Empires. In the 17th century, globalization became also a private business phenomenon when [chartered companies](#) like [British East India Company](#) (founded in 1600), often described as the first [multinational corporation](#), as well as the [Dutch East India Company](#) (founded in 1602) were established. Because of the large investment and financing needs and high risks involved in international trade, the British East India Company became the first company in the world to share risk and enable joint ownership of companies through the issuance of [shares](#) of stock: an important driver for globalization.^{[[citation needed](#)]}

[Great Britain](#) grew rich in the 19th century as the first global economic superpower, because of its superior manufacturing technology and improved global communications such as steamships and railroads.

The 19th century witnessed the advent of globalization approaching its modern form. [Industrialization](#) allowed cheap production of household items using [economies of scale](#), while rapid population growth created sustained demand for commodities. Globalization in this period was decisively shaped by nineteenth-century [imperialism](#). After the [Opium Wars](#) and the completion of British conquest of [India](#), vast populations of these regions became ready consumers of European exports. It was in this period that areas of sub-Saharan Africa and the Pacific islands were incorporated into the world system. Meanwhile, the conquest of new parts of the globe, notably sub-Saharan Africa, by Europeans yielded valuable natural resources such as [rubber](#), [diamonds](#) and [coal](#) and helped fuel trade and investment between the European imperial powers, their colonies, and the United States.^{[[citation needed](#)]} Said John Maynard Keynes,

“ The inhabitant of London could order by telephone, sipping his morning tea, the various products of the whole earth, and reasonably expect their early delivery upon his doorstep. Militarism and imperialism of racial and cultural rivalries were little more than the amusements of his ”

daily newspaper. What an extraordinary episode in the economic progress of man was that age which came to an end in August 1914.

The first phase of "modern globalization" began to break down at the beginning of the 20th century, with the first World War. The novelist [VM Yeates](#) criticised the financial forces of globalisation as a factor in creating [World War I](#).^[23] The final death knell for this phase came during the [gold standard](#) crisis and [Great Depression](#) in the late 1920s and early 1930s.^[citation needed]

In the middle decades of the twentieth century globalization was largely driven by the global expansion of [multinational corporations](#) based in the United States and Europe, and worldwide exchange of new developments in science, technology and products, with most significant [inventions](#) of this time having their origins in the [Western world](#) according to [Encyclopedia Britannica](#).^[24] Worldwide export of [western culture](#) went through the new [mass media](#): [film](#), [radio](#) and [television](#) and recorded [music](#). Development and growth of international [transport](#) and [telecommunication](#) played a decisive role in modern globalization.

In late 2000s, much of the [industrialized](#) world entered into a deep [recession](#).^[25] Some analysts say the world is going through a period of [deglobalization](#) after years of increasing economic integration.^{[26][27]} Up to 45% of global wealth had been destroyed by the global financial crisis in little less than a year and a half.^[28] [China](#) has recently become the world's largest [exporter](#) surpassing [Germany](#).^[29]

Modern globalization

Globalization, since World War II, is largely the result of planning by politicians to break down borders hampering trade to increase prosperity and interdependence thereby decreasing the chance of future war^[citation needed]. Their work led to the [Bretton Woods conference](#), an agreement by the world's leading politicians to lay down the framework for international commerce and finance, and the founding of several international institutions intended to oversee the processes of globalization.

These institutions include the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (the [World Bank](#)), and the [International Monetary Fund](#). Globalization has been facilitated by advances in technology which have reduced the costs of trade, and trade negotiation rounds, originally under the auspices of the [General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade](#) (GATT), which led to a series of agreements to remove restrictions on [free trade](#).

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Since World War II, barriers to international trade have been considerably lowered through international agreements — GATT. Particular initiatives carried out as a result of GATT and the [World Trade Organization](#) (WTO), for which GATT is the foundation, have included:

- Promotion of free trade:
 - elimination of [tariffs](#); creation of [free trade zones](#) with small or no tariffs
 - Reduced transportation costs, especially resulting from development of [containerization](#) for ocean shipping.
 - Reduction or elimination of capital controls
 - Reduction, elimination, or harmonization of [subsidies](#) for local businesses
 - Creation of subsidies for global corporations
 - Harmonization of [intellectual property](#) laws across the majority of states, with more restrictions
 - Supranational recognition of intellectual property restrictions (e.g. [patents](#) granted by China would be recognized in the United States)

Cultural globalization, driven by communication technology and the worldwide marketing of Western cultural industries, was understood at first as a process of homogenization, as the global domination of American culture at the expense of traditional diversity. However, a contrasting trend soon became evident in the emergence of movements protesting against globalization and giving new momentum to the defense of local uniqueness, individuality, and identity, but largely without success.

The [Uruguay Round](#) (1986 to 1994)^[31] led to a treaty to create the WTO to mediate trade disputes and set up a uniform platform of trading. Other bilateral and multilateral trade agreements, including sections of Europe's [Maastricht Treaty](#) and the [North American Free Trade Agreement](#) (NAFTA) have also been signed in pursuit of the goal of reducing tariffs and barriers to trade.

World exports rose from 8.5% in 1970, to 16.1% of total gross world product in 2001.

Measuring globalization

Looking specifically at [economic globalization](#), demonstrates that it can be measured in different ways. These center around the four main economic flows that characterize globalization:

- Goods and [services](#), e.g., [exports](#) plus [imports](#) as a proportion of national income or per capita of population

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- Labor/[people](#), e.g., net [migration](#) rates; inward or outward migration flows, weighted by population
- [Capital](#), e.g., inward or outward direct investment as a proportion of national income or per head of population
- [Technology](#), e.g., international research & development flows; proportion of populations (and rates of change thereof) using particular inventions (especially 'factor-neutral' technological advances such as the telephone, motorcar, broadband)

As globalization is not only an economic phenomenon, a multivariate approach to measuring globalization is the recent [index](#) calculated by the Swiss [think tank](#) KOF. The index measures the three main dimensions of globalization: economic, social, and political. In addition to three indices measuring these dimensions, an overall index of globalization and sub-indices referring to actual economic flows, economic restrictions, data on personal contact, data on information flows, and data on cultural proximity is calculated. Data is available on a yearly basis for 122 countries, as detailed in Dreher, Gaston and Martens (2008).^[33] According to the index, the world's most globalized country is [Belgium](#), followed by [Austria](#), [Sweden](#), the [United Kingdom](#) and the [Netherlands](#). The least globalized countries according to the KOF-index are [Haiti](#), [Myanmar](#), the [Central African Republic](#) and [Burundi](#).^[34]

[A.T. Kearney](#) and [Foreign Policy Magazine](#) jointly publish another [Globalization Index](#). According to the 2006 index, [Singapore](#), [Ireland](#), [Switzerland](#), the [Netherlands](#), [Canada](#) and [Denmark](#) are the most globalized, while [Indonesia](#), India and [Iran](#) are the least globalized among countries listed.

Effects of globalization

Globalization has various aspects which affect the world in several different ways such as:

- *Industrial* - emergence of worldwide production markets and broader access to a range of foreign products for consumers and companies. Particularly movement of material and goods between and within national boundaries. [International trade](#) in manufactured goods increased more than 100 times (from \$95 billion to \$12 trillion) in the 50 years since 1955. China's trade with Africa rose seven-fold during 2000-07 alone.
- *Financial* - emergence of worldwide financial markets and better access to external financing for borrowers. By the early part of the 21st century more than \$1.5 trillion in national currencies were traded daily to support the expanded levels of trade and investment. As these worldwide structures grew more quickly than any transnational regulatory regime, the instability of the global financial infrastructure dramatically increased, as evidenced by the [financial crisis of 2007–2009](#).

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As of 2005-2007, the [Port of Shanghai](#) holds the title as the [World's busiest port](#).

- *Economic* - realization of a global common market, based on the freedom of exchange of goods and capital. The interconnectedness of these markets, however meant that an economic collapse in any one given country could not be contained.
- *Political* - some use "globalization" to mean the creation of a world government which regulates the relationships among governments and guarantees the rights arising from social and economic globalization. Politically, the United States has enjoyed a position of power among the world powers, in part because of its strong and wealthy economy. With the influence of globalization and with the help of The United States' own economy, the People's Republic of China has experienced some tremendous growth within the past decade. If China continues to grow at the rate projected by the trends, then it is very likely that in the next twenty years, there will be a major reallocation of power among the world leaders. China will have enough wealth, industry, and technology to rival the United States for the position of leading world power.^[44]
- *Informational* - increase in information flows between geographically remote locations. Arguably this is a technological change with the advent of fibre optic communications, satellites, and increased availability of telephone and [Internet](#).
- *Language* - the most popular language is [Mandarin](#) (845 million speakers) followed by [Spanish](#) (329 million speakers) and [English](#) (328 million speakers).
 - About 35% of the world's mail, telexes, and cables are in English.
 - Approximately 40% of the world's radio programs are in English.
 - About 50% of all Internet traffic uses English.
- *Competition* - Survival in the new global business market calls for improved productivity and increased competition. Due to the market becoming worldwide, companies in various industries have to upgrade their products and use technology skillfully in order to face increased competition.
- *Ecological* - the advent of global environmental challenges that might be solved with international cooperation, such as [climate change](#), cross-boundary water and air pollution, over-fishing of the ocean, and the spread of invasive species. Since many factories are built in developing countries with less environmental regulation, globalism and free trade may increase pollution. On the other hand, economic development historically required a "dirty" industrial stage, and it is argued that developing countries should not, via regulation, be prohibited from increasing their standard of living.

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The construction of continental hotels is a major consequence of globalization process in affiliation with [tourism](#) and [travel](#) industry, [Dariush Grand Hotel, Kish, Iran](#)

- *Cultural* - growth of cross-cultural contacts; advent of new categories of [consciousness](#) and identities which embodies cultural diffusion, the desire to increase one's standard of living and enjoy foreign products and ideas, adopt new technology and practices, and participate in a "world culture". Some bemoan the resulting [consumerism](#) and loss of languages. Also see [Transformation of culture](#).
 - Spreading of [multiculturalism](#), and better individual access to [cultural diversity](#) (e.g. through the export of Hollywood and, to a lesser extent, [Bollywood](#) movies). Some consider such "imported" culture a danger, since it may supplant the local culture, causing reduction in diversity or even [assimilation](#). Others consider multiculturalism to promote peace and understanding between peoples.
 - Greater international [travel](#) and [tourism](#). WHO estimates that up to 500,000 people are on planes at any one time. In 2008, there were over 922 million international tourist arrivals, with a growth of 1.9% as compared to 2007.
 - Greater [immigration](#), including [illegal immigration](#). The [IOM](#) estimates there are more than 200 million migrants around the world today. Newly available data show that [remittance](#) flows to developing countries reached \$328 billion in 2008.
 - Spread of local consumer products (e.g., food) to other countries (often adapted to their culture).
 - Worldwide fads and pop culture such as [Pokémon](#), [Sudoku](#), [Noma Noma](#), [Origami](#), [Idol series](#), [YouTube](#), [Orkut](#), [Facebook](#), and [MySpace](#). Accessible to those who have Internet or Television, leaving out a substantial segment of the Earth's population.
 - Worldwide sporting events such as [FIFA World Cup](#) and the [Olympic Games](#).
 - Incorporation of multinational corporations in to new media. As the sponsors of the All-Blacks rugby team, Adidas had created a parallel website with a downloadable interactive rugby game for its fans to play and compete.
- *Social* - development of the system of non-governmental organisations as main agents of global public policy, including humanitarian aid and developmental efforts.
- *Technical*
 - Development of a Global Information System, global telecommunications infrastructure and greater transborder data flow, using such technologies as the [Internet](#), communication satellites, [submarine fiber optic cable](#), and [wireless telephones](#)

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- Increase in the number of standards applied globally; e.g., copyright laws, [patents](#) and world trade agreements.
- *Legal/Ethical*
 - The creation of the international criminal court and [international justice movements](#).
 - [Crime importation](#) and raising awareness of global crime-fighting efforts and cooperation.
 - The emergence of [Global administrative law](#).
- *Religious*
 - The spread and increased interrelations of various religious groups, ideas, and practices and their ideas of the meanings and values of particular spaces.

Cultural effects

Culture is defined as patterns of human activity and the symbols that give these activities significance. Culture is what people eat, how they dress, beliefs they hold, and activities they practice. Globalization has joined different cultures and made it into something different. As Erla Zwingle, from the National Geographic article titled “Globalization” states, “When cultures receive outside influences, they ignore some and adopt others, and then almost immediately start to transform them.”

One classic culture aspect is food. Someone in America can be eating [Japanese noodles](#) for lunch while someone in Sydney, Australia is eating classic Italian [meatballs](#). India is known for its [curry](#) and exotic spices. France is known for its cheeses. America is known for its burgers and fries. [McDonalds](#) is an American company which is now a global enterprise with 31,000 locations worldwide. Those locations include Kuwait, Egypt, and Malta. This company is just one example of food causing cultural influence on the global scale.

[Meditation](#) has been a sacred practice for centuries in Indian culture. It calms the body and helps one connect to their inner being while shying away from their conditioned self. There are more Americans [meditating](#) and practicing [yoga](#) now . Some people are even traveling to India to get the full experience themselves.

Another common practice brought about by globalization is Chinese symbol tattoos. These tattoos are popular with today’s younger generation despite the fact that, in China, tattoos are not thought of as cool^[58]. Also, the Westerners who get these tattoos often don't know what they mean,^[59] making this an example of [cultural appropriation](#).

The internet breaks down cultural boundaries across the world by enabling easy, near-instantaneous communication between people anywhere in a variety of digital forms and media. The Internet is associated with the process of

cultural globalization because it allows interaction and communication between people with very different lifestyles and from very different cultures. Photo sharing websites allow interaction even where language would otherwise be a barrier.

Negative effects

Globalization has been one of the most hotly debated topics in [international economics](#) over the past few years. Globalization has also generated significant international opposition over concerns that it has increased inequality and environmental degradation. In the [Midwestern United States](#), globalization has eaten away at its competitive edge in [industry](#) and [agriculture](#), lowering the quality of life in locations that have not adapted to the change.

Globalization, the flow of information, goods, capital and people across political and geographic boundaries, has also helped to spread some of the deadliest [infectious diseases](#) known to humans. Modern modes of [transportation](#) allow more people and products to travel around the world at a faster pace, they also open the airways to the transcontinental movement of infectious disease vectors. One example of this occurring is [AIDS/HIV](#).

Opportunities in richer countries drives talent away, leading to [brain drains](#). Brain drain has cost the [African](#) continent over \$4 billion in the employment of 150,000 expatriate professionals annually. [Indian](#) students going abroad for their higher studies costs India a foreign exchange outflow of \$10 billion annually.

A study by the World Institute for Development Economics Research at United Nations University reports that the richest 1% of adults alone owned 40% of global assets in the year 2000. The [three richest people](#) possess more [financial](#) assets than the poorest 10% of the world's population, combined [6]. In 2001, 46.4% of people in [sub-Saharan Africa](#) were living in extreme [poverty](#).^[67] Nearly half of all [Indian](#) children are undernourished.^[68]

The [Worldwatch Institute](#) said the booming economies of [China](#) and [India](#) are planetary powers that are shaping the global biosphere. In 2007, China has overtaken the United States as the world's biggest producer of [CO2](#).^[69] Thriving economies such as China and India are quickly becoming large [oil consumers](#). China has seen oil consumption grow by 8% yearly since 2002, doubling from 1996-2006. Crude oil prices in the last several years have [steadily risen](#) from about \$25 a barrel in August 2003 to over \$140 a barrel in July 2008. [The State of the World](#) 2006 report said the two countries' high [economic growth](#) hid a reality of severe [pollution](#). The report states:

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The world's ecological capacity is simply insufficient to satisfy the ambitions of China, India, Japan, Europe and the United States as well as the aspirations of the rest of the world in a sustainable way

Without more recycling, [zinc](#) could be used up by 2037, both [indium](#) and [hafnium](#) could run out by 2017, and [terbium](#) could be gone before 2012. It said that if [China](#) and [India](#) were to consume as much resources per capita as [United States](#) or [Japan](#) in 2030 together they would require a full planet Earth to meet their needs. In the longterm these effects can lead to increased conflict over dwindling resources and in the worst case a [Malthusian catastrophe](#).

The head of the [International Food Policy Research Institute](#), stated in 2008 that the gradual change in diet among newly prosperous populations is the most important factor underpinning the [rise in global food prices](#). From 1950 to 1984, as the [Green Revolution](#) transformed [agriculture](#) around the world, grain production increased by over 250%. The [world population](#) has grown by about 4 billion since the beginning of the Green Revolution and most believe that, without the Revolution, there would be greater [famine](#) and [malnutrition](#) than the UN presently documents (approximately 850 million people suffering from chronic malnutrition in 2005).

It is becoming increasingly difficult to maintain [food security](#) in a world beset by a confluence of "peak" phenomena, namely [peak oil](#), [peak water](#), [peak phosphorus](#), [peak grain](#) and peak fish. Growing populations, falling energy sources and food shortages will create the "perfect storm" by 2030, according to the UK government chief scientist. He said food reserves are at a 50-year low but the world requires 50% more energy, food and water by 2030. The world will have to produce 70% more food by 2050 to feed a projected extra 2.3 billion people and as incomes rise, the United Nations' [Food and Agriculture Organisation](#) (FAO) warned.

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime ([UNODC](#)) issued a report that the [global drug trade](#) generates more than \$320 billion a year in revenues. Worldwide, the UN estimates there are more than 50 million regular users of heroin, cocaine and synthetic drugs. The international trade of [endangered species](#) is second only to drug trafficking. [Traditional Chinese medicine](#) often incorporates ingredients from all parts of plants, the leaf, stem, flower, root, and also ingredients from animals and minerals. The use of parts of endangered species (such as [seahorses](#), [rhinoceros](#) horns, [saiga antelope](#) horns, and [tiger](#) bones and claws) has created controversy and resulted in a [black market](#) of poachers who hunt restricted animals.

Sweatshops

It can be said that globalization is the door that opens up an otherwise resource-poor country to the international market. Where a country has little

material or physical product harvested or mined from its own soil, large corporations see an opportunity to take advantage of the “export poverty” of such a nation. Where the majority of the earliest occurrences of economic globalization are recorded as being the expansion of businesses and corporate growth, in many poorer nations globalization is actually the result of the foreign businesses investing in the country to take advantage of the lower [wage rate](#): even though investing, by increasing the [Capital Stock](#) of the country, increases their wage rate.

One example used by anti-globalization protestors is the use of [sweatshops](#) by manufacturers. According to [Global Exchange](#) these “Sweat Shops” are widely used by sports shoe manufacturers and mentions one company in particular – [Nike](#).^[90] There are factories set up in the poor countries where employees agree to work for low wages. Then if labour laws alter in those countries and stricter rules govern the manufacturing process the factories are closed down and relocated to other nations with more conservative, laissez-faire economic policies.^[citation needed]

There are several agencies that have been set up worldwide specifically designed to focus on anti-sweatshop campaigns and education of such. In the USA, the [National Labor Committee](#) has proposed a number of bills as part of the [The Decent Working Conditions and Fair Competition Act](#), which have thus far failed in Congress. The legislation would legally require companies to respect human and worker rights by prohibiting the import, sale, or export of sweatshop goods.^[91]

Specifically, these core standards include no [child labor](#), no [forced labor](#), [freedom of association](#), right to organize and bargain collectively, as well as the right to decent working conditions.

[Tiziana Terranova](#) has stated that globalization has brought a culture of "free labour". In a digital sense, it is where the individuals (contributing capital) exploits and eventually "exhausts the means through which labour can sustain itself". For example, in the area of [digital media](#) (animations, hosting [chat rooms](#), designing games), where it is often less glamorous than it may sound. In the gaming industry, a Chinese Gold Market has been established.

Pro-globalization (globalism)

Supporters of [free trade](#) claim that it increases economic prosperity as well as opportunity, especially among developing nations, enhances civil liberties and leads to a more efficient allocation of resources. Economic theories of [comparative advantage](#) suggest that free trade leads to a more efficient allocation of resources, with all countries involved in the trade benefiting. In general, this leads to lower prices, more employment, higher output and a higher standard of living for those in developing countries.

Dr. [Francesco Stipo](#), Director of the USA [Club of Rome](#) suggests that “the world government should reflect the political and economic balances of world nations. A world confederation would not supersede the authority of the State governments but rather complement it, as both the States and the world authority would have power within their sphere of competence”.

Proponents of [laissez-faire capitalism](#), and some [libertarians](#), say that higher degrees of political and [economic freedom](#) in the form of [democracy](#) and [capitalism](#) in the developed world are ends in themselves and also produce higher levels of material wealth. They see globalization as the beneficial spread of liberty and capitalism.

Supporters of [democratic globalization](#) are sometimes called pro-globalists. They believe that the first phase of globalization, which was market-oriented, should be followed by a phase of building global political institutions representing the will of [world citizens](#). The difference from other globalists is that they do not define in advance any ideology to orient this will, but would leave it to the free choice of those citizens via a democratic process^[citation needed].

Some, such as former [Canadian Senator Douglas Roche, O.C.](#), simply view globalization as inevitable and advocate creating institutions such as a [directly-elected United Nations Parliamentary Assembly](#) to exercise oversight over unelected international bodies.

Anti-globalization

The "anti-globalization movement" is a term used to describe the political group who oppose the [neoliberal](#) version of globalization, while [criticisms of globalization](#) are some of the reasons used to justify this group's stance.

"Anti-globalization" may also involve the process or actions taken by a state in order to demonstrate its sovereignty and practice democratic decision-making. Anti-globalization may occur in order to maintain barriers to the international transfer of people, goods and beliefs, particularly [free market](#) deregulation, encouraged by organizations such as the [International Monetary Fund](#) or the [World Trade Organization](#). Moreover, as [Naomi Klein](#) argues in her book [No Logo](#) anti-globalism can denote either a single [social movement](#) or an [umbrella term](#) that encompasses a number of separate social movements^[97] such as [nationalists](#) and socialists. In either case, participants stand in opposition to the unregulated political power of large, multi-national corporations, as the corporations exercise power through leveraging trade agreements which in some instances damage the [democratic](#) rights of citizens^[citation needed], the [environment](#) particularly [air quality index](#) and [rain forests](#)^[citation needed], as well as national government's sovereignty to determine [labor rights](#),^[citation needed] including the right to form a union, and health and safety legislation, or laws

as they may otherwise infringe on cultural practices and traditions of [developing countries](#).^[citation needed]

Some people who are labeled "anti-globalist" or "sceptics" (Hirst and Thompson) consider the term to be too vague and inaccurate. Podobnik states that "the vast majority of groups that participate in these protests draw on international networks of support, and they generally call for forms of globalization that enhance democratic representation, human rights, and egalitarianism."

Joseph Stiglitz and Andrew Charlton write:

“ The anti-globalization movement developed in opposition to the perceived negative aspects of globalization. The term 'anti-globalization' is in many ways a misnomer, since the group represents a wide range of interests and issues and many of the people involved in the anti-globalization movement do support closer ties between the various peoples and cultures of the world through, for example, aid, assistance for refugees, and global environmental issues. ”

Some members aligned with this viewpoint prefer instead to describe themselves as the "[Global Justice Movement](#)", the "Anti-Corporate-Globalization Movement", the "Movement of Movements" (a popular term in Italy), the "[Alter-globalization](#)" movement (popular in France), the "Counter-Globalization" movement, and a number of other terms.

Critiques of the current wave of economic globalization typically look at both the damage to the planet, in terms of the perceived unsustainable harm done to the biosphere, as well as the perceived human costs, such as poverty, inequality, miscegenation, injustice and the erosion of traditional culture which, the critics contend, all occur as a result of the economic transformations related to globalization. They challenge directly the metrics, such as GDP, used to measure progress promulgated by institutions such as the World Bank, and look to other measures, such as the [Happy Planet Index](#),^[102] created by the [New Economics Foundation](#)^[103]. They point to a "multitude of interconnected fatal consequences--social disintegration, a breakdown of democracy, more rapid and extensive deterioration of the environment, the spread of new diseases, increasing poverty and alienation"^[104] which they claim are the unintended but very real consequences of globalization.

The terms globalization and anti-globalization are used in various ways. [Noam Chomsky](#) believes that^{[105][106]}

“ The term "globalization" has been appropriated by the powerful to refer to a specific form of international economic integration, one based on investor rights, with the interests of people incidental. That is why the business press, in its more honest moments, refers to the "free trade agreements" as "free investment agreements" (Wall St. Journal). Accordingly, advocates of other forms of globalization are described as "anti-globalization"; and some, unfortunately, even accept this term, though it is a term of [propaganda](#) that should be dismissed with ridicule. No sane person is opposed to globalization, that is, international integration. Surely not the left and the workers movements, which were founded on the principle of international solidarity — that is, globalization in a form that attends to the rights of people, not private power systems. ”

“ The dominant propaganda systems have appropriated the term "globalization" to refer to the specific version of international economic integration that they favor, which privileges the rights of investors and lenders, those of people being incidental. In accord with this usage, those who favor a different form of international integration, which privileges the rights of human beings, become "anti-globalist." This is simply vulgar propaganda, like the term "anti-Soviet" used by the most disgusting commissars to refer to dissidents. It is not only vulgar, but idiotic. Take the [World Social Forum](#), called "anti-globalization" in the propaganda system -- which happens to include the media, the educated classes, etc., with rare exceptions. The WSF is a paradigm example of globalization. It is a gathering of huge numbers of people from all over the world, from just about every corner of life one can think of, apart from the extremely narrow highly privileged elites who meet at the competing World Economic Forum, and are called "pro-globalization" by the propaganda system. An observer watching this farce from Mars would collapse in hysterical laughter at the antics of the educated classes. ”

Critics argue that:

- **Poorer countries suffering disadvantages:** While it is true that globalization encourages free trade among countries, there are also negative consequences because some countries try to save their national markets. The main export of poorer countries is usually agricultural goods. Larger countries often subsidise their farmers (like the EU [Common Agricultural Policy](#)), which lowers the market price for the poor farmer's crops compared to what it would be under [free trade](#).^[107]
- **Exploitation of foreign impoverished workers:** The deterioration of protections for weaker nations by stronger industrialized powers has

resulted in the exploitation of the people in those nations to become cheap labor. Due to the lack of protections, companies from powerful industrialized nations are able to offer workers enough salary to entice them to endure extremely long hours and unsafe working conditions, though economists question if consenting workers in a competitive employers' market can be decried as "exploited". It is true that the workers are free to leave their jobs, but in many poorer countries, this would mean starvation for the worker, and possible even his/her family if their previous jobs were unavailable.^[108]

- **The shift to outsourcing:** The low cost of offshore workers have enticed corporations to buy goods and services from foreign countries. The laid off manufacturing sector workers are forced into the service sector where wages and benefits are low, but turnover is high .[\[citation needed\]](#) This has contributed to the deterioration of the middle class[\[citation needed\]](#) which is a major factor in the increasing economic inequality in the United States .[\[citation needed\]](#) Families that were once part of the middle class are forced into lower positions by massive layoffs and outsourcing to another country. This also means that people in the lower class have a much harder time climbing out of poverty because of the absence of the middle class as a stepping stone.^[109]
- **Weak labor unions:** The surplus in cheap labor coupled with an ever growing number of companies in transition has caused a weakening of labor unions in the United States. Unions lose their effectiveness when their membership begins to decline. As a result unions hold less power over corporations that are able to easily replace workers, often for lower wages, and have the option to not offer unionized jobs anymore.^[107]
- **Increase exploitation of child labor:** for example, a country that experiencing increases in labor demand because of globalization and an increase the demand for goods produced by children, will experience greater a demand for child labor. This can be "hazardous" or "exploitive", e.g., quarrying, salvage, cash cropping but also includes the trafficking of children, children in bondage or forced labor, prostitution, pornography and other illicit activities.^[110]

In December 2007, [World Bank](#) economist [Branko Milanovic](#) has called much previous empirical research on global poverty and inequality into question because, according to him, improved estimates of purchasing power parity indicate that developing countries are worse off than previously believed. Milanovic remarks that "literally hundreds of scholarly papers on convergence or divergence of countries' incomes have been published in the last decade based on what we know now were faulty numbers." With the new data, possibly economists will revise calculations, and he also believed that there are considerable implications estimates of global inequality and poverty levels. Global inequality was estimated at around 65 [Gini points](#), whereas the new numbers indicate global inequality to be at 70 on the Gini scale.^[111] It is

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unsurprising that the level of international inequality is so high, as larger sample spaces almost always give a higher level of inequality.

The critics of globalization typically emphasize that globalization is a process that is mediated according to corporate interests, and typically raise the possibility of alternative global institutions and policies, which they believe address the moral claims of poor and working classes throughout the globe, as well as environmental concerns in a more equitable way.^[112]

The movement is very broad^[citation needed], including church groups, national liberation factions, [peasant](#) unionists, intellectuals, artists, [protectionists](#), [anarchists](#), those in support of relocalization and others. Some are [reformist](#), (arguing for a more moderate form of capitalism) while others are more [revolutionary](#) (arguing for what they believe is a more humane system than capitalism) and others are [reactionary](#), believing globalization destroys national industry and jobs.

One of the key points made by critics of recent economic globalization is that income inequality, both between and within nations, is increasing as a result of these processes. One article from 2001 found that significantly, in 7 out of 8 metrics, income inequality has increased in the twenty years ending 2001. Also, "incomes in the lower deciles of world income distribution have probably fallen absolutely since the 1980s". Furthermore, the World Bank's figures on absolute poverty were challenged. The article was skeptical of the World Bank's claim that the number of people living on less than \$1 a day has held steady at 1.2 billion from 1987 to 1998, because of biased methodology.^[113]

A chart that gave the inequality a very visible and comprehensible form, the so-called 'champagne glass' effect,^[114] was contained in the 1992 United Nations Development Program Report, which showed the distribution of global income to be very uneven, with the richest 20% of the world's population controlling 82.7% of the world's income.

Economic arguments by [fair trade](#) theorists claim that unrestricted [free trade](#) benefits those with more [financial leverage](#) (i.e. the rich) at the expense of the poor.

Americanization related to a period of high political American clout and of significant growth of America's shops, markets and object being brought into other countries. So globalization, a much more diversified phenomenon, relates to a multilateral political world and to the increase of objects, markets and so on into each others countries.

Critics of globalization talk of [Westernization](#). A 2005 UNESCO report showed that cultural exchange is becoming more frequent from Eastern Asia but . In 2002, China was the third largest exporter of cultural goods, after the UK and

US. Between 1994 and 2002, both [North America](#)'s and the European Union's shares of cultural exports declined, while [Asia](#)'s cultural exports grew to surpass North America. Related factors are the fact that Asia's population and area are several times that of North America.

Some opponents of globalization see the phenomenon as the promotion of [corporatist](#) interests. They also claim that the increasing autonomy and strength of [corporate entities](#) shapes the political policy of countries.

International Social Forums

The first WSF in 2001 was an initiative of the administration of [Porto Alegre](#) in [Brazil](#). The slogan of the World Social Forum was "Another World Is Possible". It was here that the WSF's Charter of Principles was adopted to provide a framework for the forums.

The WSF became a periodic meeting: in 2002 and 2003 it was held again in Porto Alegre and became a rallying point for worldwide protest against the American invasion of Iraq. In 2004 it was moved to [Mumbai](#) (formerly known as Bombay, in India), to make it more accessible to the populations of Asia and Africa. This last appointment saw the participation of 75,000 delegates.

In the meantime, regional forums took place following the example of the WSF, adopting its Charter of Principles. The first [European Social Forum](#) (ESF) was held in November 2002 in [Florence](#). The slogan was "Against the war, against racism and against neo-liberalism". It saw the participation of 60,000 delegates and ended with a huge demonstration against the war (1,000,000 people according to the organizers). The other two ESFs took place in Paris and London, in 2003 and 2004 respectively.

Recently there has been some discussion behind the movement about the role of the social forums. Some see them as a "popular university", an occasion to make many people aware of the problems of globalization. Others would prefer that delegates concentrate their efforts on the coordination and organization of the movement and on the planning of new campaigns. However it has often been argued that in the dominated countries (most of the world) the WSF is little more than an 'NGO fair' driven by Northern NGOs and donors most of which are hostile to popular movements of the poor.^[122]

Telecommunication

telecommunication is [transmission](#) over a distance for the purpose of [communication](#). In earlier times, this may have involved the use of [smoke signals](#), [drums](#), [semaphore](#), [flags](#) or [heliograph](#). In modern times, telecommunication typically involves the use of electronic devices such as the [telephone](#), [television](#), [radio](#) or [computer](#). Early inventors in the field of

telecommunication include [Alexander Graham Bell](#), [Guglielmo Marconi](#) and [John Logie Baird](#). Telecommunication is an important part of the world economy and the telecommunication industry's revenue was estimated to be \$1.2 trillion in 2006.

[edit] History

For more details on this topic, see [History of telecommunication](#).

Early telecommunications

In the Middle Ages, chains of [beacons](#) were commonly used on hilltops as a means of relaying a signal. Beacon chains suffered the drawback that they could only pass a single bit of information, so the meaning of the message such as "the enemy has been sighted" had to be agreed upon in advance. One notable instance of their use was during the [Spanish Armada](#), when a beacon chain relayed a signal from [Plymouth](#) to London signalling the arrival of Spanish ships.^[1]

In 1792, [Claude Chappe](#), a French engineer, built the first fixed visual telegraphy system (or [semaphore line](#)) between [Lille](#) and Paris.^[2] However semaphore suffered from the need for skilled operators and expensive towers at intervals of ten to thirty kilometres (six to nineteen miles). As a result of competition from the electrical telegraph, the last commercial line was abandoned in 1880.^[3]

Telegraph and telephone

The first commercial [electrical telegraph](#) was constructed by Sir [Charles Wheatstone](#) and Sir [William Fothergill Cooke](#) and opened on [9 April 1839](#). Both Wheatstone and Cooke viewed their device as "an improvement to the [existing] electromagnetic telegraph" not as a new device.^[4]

[Samuel Morse](#) independently developed a version of the electrical telegraph that he unsuccessfully demonstrated on 2 September 1837. [His code](#) was an important advance over Wheatstone's signaling method. The first [transatlantic telegraph cable](#) was successfully completed on 27 July 1866, allowing transatlantic telecommunication for the first time.^[5]

The conventional telephone was invented independently by [Alexander Bell](#) and [Elisha Gray](#) in 1876.^[6] [Antonio Meucci](#) invented the first device that allowed the electrical transmission of voice over a line in 1849. However Meucci's device was of little practical value because it relied upon the electrophonic effect and thus required users to place the receiver in their mouth to "hear" what was being said.^[7] The first commercial telephone services were set up in 1878 and 1879 on both sides of the Atlantic in the cities of New Haven and [London](#).^{[8][9]}

Radio and television

In 1832, [James Lindsay](#) gave a classroom demonstration of [wireless telegraphy](#) to his students. By 1854, he was able to demonstrate a transmission across the [Firth of Tay](#) from Dundee, Scotland to [Woodhaven](#), a distance of two miles (3 km), using water as the transmission medium.^[10] In December 1901, [Guglielmo Marconi](#) established wireless communication between [St. John's, Newfoundland](#) (Canada) and [Poldhu, Cornwall](#) (England), earning him the 1909 Nobel Prize in physics (which he shared with [Karl Braun](#)).^[11] However small-scale radio communication had already been demonstrated in 1893 by [Nikola Tesla](#) in a presentation to the National Electric Light Association.^[12]

On 25 March 1925, [John Logie Baird](#) was able to demonstrate the transmission of moving pictures at the London department store [Selfridges](#). Baird's device relied upon the [Nipkow disk](#) and thus became known as the [mechanical television](#). It formed the basis of experimental broadcasts done by the British Broadcasting Corporation beginning 30 September 1929.^[13] However, for most of the twentieth century televisions depended upon the [cathode ray tube](#) invented by [Karl Braun](#). The first version of such a television to show promise was produced by [Philo Farnsworth](#) and demonstrated to his family on 7 September 1927.^[14]

Computer networks and the Internet

On 11 September 1940, [George Stibitz](#) was able to transmit problems using teletype to his Complex Number Calculator in New York and receive the computed results back at [Dartmouth College](#) in [New Hampshire](#).^[15] This configuration of a centralized computer or [mainframe](#) with remote dumb terminals remained popular throughout the 1950s. However, it was not until the 1960s that researchers started to investigate [packet switching](#) — a technology that would allow chunks of data to be sent to different computers without first passing through a centralized mainframe. A four-node network emerged on 5 December 1969; this network would become [ARPANET](#), which by 1981 would consist of 213 nodes.^[16]

ARPANET's development centred around the Request for Comment process and on 7 April 1969, [RFC 1](#) was published. This process is important because ARPANET would eventually merge with other networks to form the [Internet](#) and many of the protocols the Internet relies upon today were specified through the Request for Comment process. In September 1981, [RFC 791](#) introduced the [Internet Protocol](#) v4 (IPv4) and [RFC 793](#) introduced the [Transmission Control Protocol](#) (TCP) — thus creating the TCP/IP protocol that much of the [Internet](#) relies upon today.

However, not all important developments were made through the Request for Comment process. Two popular link protocols for [local area networks](#) (LANs)

also appeared in the 1970s. A patent for the [token ring](#) protocol was filed by Olof Soderblom on 29 October 1974 and a paper on the [Ethernet](#) protocol was published by [Robert Metcalfe](#) and [David Boggs](#) in the July 1976 issue of [Communications of the ACM](#).^{[17][18]}

Basic elements

A basic telecommunication system consists of three elements:

- a [transmitter](#) that takes [information](#) and converts it to a signal;
- a [transmission medium](#) that carries the signal; and,
- a [receiver](#) that receives the signal and converts it back into usable information.

For example, in a radio broadcast the [broadcast tower](#) is the transmitter, [free space](#) is the transmission medium and the [radio](#) is the receiver. Often telecommunication systems are two-way with a single device acting as both a transmitter and receiver or *transceiver*. For example, a [mobile phone](#) is a transceiver.

Telecommunication over a telephone line is called point-to-point communication because it is between one transmitter and one receiver. Telecommunication through radio broadcasts is called [broadcast communication](#) because it is between one powerful transmitter and numerous receivers.

Analogue or digital

Signals can be either [analogue](#) or [digital](#). In an analogue signal, the signal is varied continuously with respect to the information. In a digital signal, the information is encoded as a set of discrete values (for example ones and zeros). During transmission the information contained in analogue signals will be degraded by noise. Conversely, unless the noise exceeds a certain threshold, the information contained in digital signals will remain intact. Noise resistance represents a key advantage of digital signals over analogue signals.

Networks

A [network](#) is a collection of transmitters, receivers and transceivers that communicate with each other. Digital networks consist of one or more routers that work together to transmit information to the correct user. An analogue network consists of one or more switches that establish a connection between two or more users. For both types of network, [repeaters](#) may be necessary to amplify or recreate the signal when it is being transmitted over long distances. This is to combat [attenuation](#) that can render the signal indistinguishable from [noise](#).^[23]

Channels

A [channel](#) is a division in a transmission medium so that it can be used to send multiple streams of information. For example, a radio station may broadcast at 96.1 MHz while another radio station may broadcast at 94.5 MHz. In this case, the medium has been divided by [frequency](#) and each channel has received a separate frequency to broadcast on. Alternatively, one could allocate each channel a recurring segment of time over which to broadcast—this is known as [time-division multiplexing](#) and is sometimes used in digital communication.

Modulation

The shaping of a signal to convey information is known as [modulation](#). Modulation can be used to represent a digital message as an analogue waveform. This is known as [keying](#) and several keying techniques exist (these include [phase-shift keying](#), [frequency-shift keying](#) and [amplitude-shift keying](#)). [Bluetooth](#), for example, uses [phase-shift keying](#) to exchange information between devices.

Modulation can also be used to transmit the information of analogue signals at higher frequencies. This is helpful because low-frequency analogue signals cannot be effectively transmitted over free space. Hence the information from a low-frequency analogue signal must be superimposed on a higher-frequency signal (known as the [carrier wave](#)) before transmission. There are several different modulation schemes available to achieve this (two of the most basic being [amplitude modulation](#) and [frequency modulation](#)). An example of this process is a [DJ's](#) voice being superimposed on a 96 MHz carrier wave using frequency modulation (the voice would then be received on a radio as the channel “96 FM”).^[26]

Society and telecommunication

Telecommunication has a significant social, cultural and economic impact on modern society. In 2006, estimates placed the telecommunication industry's revenue at \$1.2 trillion ([USD](#)) or just under 3% of the [gross world product](#) (official exchange rate).^[27]

Economic impact

Microeconomics

On the microeconomic scale, companies have used telecommunication to help build global empires. This is self-evident in the case of online retailer [Amazon.com](#) but, according to academic Edward Lenert, even the conventional retailer [Wal-Mart](#) has benefited from better telecommunication infrastructure

compared to its competitors. In cities throughout the world, home owners use their telephones to organize many home services ranging from [pizza deliveries](#) to [electricians](#). Even relatively poor communities have been noted to use telecommunication to their advantage. In [Bangladesh](#)'s Narshingdi district, isolated villagers use cell phones to speak directly to wholesalers and arrange a better price for their goods. In Cote d'Ivoire, coffee growers share mobile phones to follow hourly variations in coffee prices and sell at the best price.

Macroeconomics

On the macroeconomic scale, Lars-Hendrik Röller and Leonard Waverman suggested a causal link between good telecommunication infrastructure and economic growth. Few dispute the existence of a correlation although some argue it is wrong to view the relationship as causal.^[31]

Because of the economic benefits of good telecommunication infrastructure, there is increasing worry about the inequitable access to telecommunication services amongst various countries of the world—this is known as the [digital divide](#). A 2003 survey by the [International Telecommunication Union](#) (ITU) revealed that roughly one-third of countries have less than 1 mobile subscription for every 20 people and one-third of countries have less than 1 fixed line subscription for every 20 people. In terms of Internet access, roughly half of all countries have less than 1 in 20 people with Internet access. From this information, as well as educational data, the ITU was able to compile an index that measures the overall ability of citizens to access and use information and communication technologies. Using this measure, Sweden, Denmark and [Iceland](#) received the highest ranking while the African countries [Niger](#), [Burkina Faso](#) and [Mali](#) received the lowest.

Social impact

Telecommunication is playing an increasingly important role in social relationships. In recent years, the popularity of social networking sites has increased dramatically. These sites allow users to communicate with each other as well as post photographs, events and profiles for others to see. The profiles can list a person's age, interests, sexuality and relationship status. In this way, these sites can play important role in everything from organising social engagements to courtship.^[34]

Prior to social networking sites, technologies like SMS and the telephone also had a significant impact on social interactions. In 2000, market research group [Ipsos MORI](#) reported that 81% of 15 to 24 year-old SMS users in the United Kingdom had used the service to coordinate social arrangements and 42% to flirt.

Other impacts

In cultural terms, telecommunication has increased the public's ability to access to music and film. With television, people can watch films they have not seen before in their own home without having to travel to the video store or cinema. With radio and the Internet, people can listen to music they have not heard before without having to travel to the music store.

Telecommunication has also transformed the way people receive their news. A survey by the non-profit [Pew Internet and American Life Project](#) found that when just over 3,000 people living in the United States were asked where they got their news "yesterday", more people said television or radio than newspapers. The results are summarised in the following table (the percentages add up to more than 100% because people were able to specify more than one source).^[36]

Telecommunication has had an equally significant impact on advertising. TNS Media Intelligence reported that in 2007, 58% of advertising expenditure in the United States was spent on mediums that **depend upon teleco Global Justice Movement**

Democratic mundialization

[Mundialization](#) is the name of one of the movements aiming at **democratic globalization**.

Democratic globalization is the concept of an institutional system of global [democracy](#) that would give world citizens a say in world organizations. This would, in the view of its proponents, bypass nation-states, corporate entities, [NGOs](#), etc.

Purpose

Proponents state that democratic globalization's purpose is to:

- expand [mundialization](#) in a different way to economic [globalization](#) and "make people closer, more united and protected" though what this means in practice is only vaguely defined.
- have it reach all fields of activity and knowledge, not only the economic one, even if that one is crucial to develop the [well-being](#) of [world citizens](#). This implies some intervention not only in the economic and political life of the individual but also in their access to culture and education.
- give [world citizens](#) a [democratic](#) access (e.g., [presidential voting](#) for [United Nations Secretary-General](#) by citizens and [direct election](#) of members of a [United Nations Parliamentary Assembly](#)) and a say to those global activities.

Global democracy

Mundialization also includes asking about Global Democracy, this is, global votings to elect the world leaders (specially, [presidential elections](#) for UN General Secretary) and more democracy in [international organizations](#) (i.e. [United Nations Parliament](#)). Thus, it supports the International Campaign for the Establishment of a United Nations Parliamentary Assembly, that would allow for participation of member nations' legislators and, eventually, [direct election](#) of [United Nations](#) (UN) [parliament](#) members by citizens worldwide.

Difference to anti-globalization

Supporters of the democratic globalization movement draw a distinction between their movement and the one most popularly known as the 'anti-globalization' movement, claiming that their movement avoids ideological agenda about economics and social matters although, in practice, it is often difficult to distinguish between the two camps. Democratic globalization supporters state that the choice of political orientations should be left to the world citizens, via their participation in world democratic institutions and direct vote for world presidents (see presidentialism).

Some supporters of the "anti-globalization movement" do not necessarily disagree with this position. For example, [George Monbiot](#), normally associated with the anti-globalization movement (who prefers the term [Global Justice Movement](#)) in his work *Age of Consent* has proposed similar democratic reforms of most major global institutions, suggesting direct democratic elections of such bodies by citizens, and suggests a form of "federal world government."

Procedure

Democratic globalization, proponents claim, would be reached by creating democratic global institutions and changing [international organizations](#) (which are currently [intergovernmental](#) institutions controlled by the nation-states), into global ones controlled by voting by the citizens. The movement suggests to do it gradually by building a limited number of democratic global institutions in charge of a few crucial fields of common interest. Its long term goal is that these institutions federate later into a full-fledged democratic world government.

And they propose the creation of world services for citizens, like world civil protection and [prevention](#) (from [natural hazards](#)) services.

Proponents

One of its most prolific proponents is the [British](#) political thinker [David Held](#). In the last decade he published a dozen books regarding the spread of

democracy from territorially defined nation states to a system of [global governance](#) that encapsulates the entire [universe](#).

Jim Stark has initiated a process for a Democratic World Government through a Global Referendum. As of July 10, 2008, 9,305 individuals have voted in favor the initiative (93.28% of the total votes) through an online ballot at voteworldgovernment.org.

Alter-globalization

Alter-globalization (also known as alternative globalization, Alter-[mundialization](#) -from the French "altermondialisme"- or the global justice movement) is the name of a social movement that supports global cooperation and interaction, but which opposes the negative effects of [economic globalization](#), feeling that it often works to the detriment of, or does not adequately promote, human values such as [environmental](#) and [climate protection](#), [economic justice](#), [labor protection](#), [protection of indigenous cultures](#) and [human rights](#). The name may have been derived from a popular slogan of the movement: 'Another world is possible', which came out of the [World Social Forum](#).^[1] "The alter-globalization movement is a cooperative movement designed to protest the direction and perceived negative economic, political, social, cultural and ecological consequences of neoliberal globalization" (Krishna-Hensel 202) ^[2]. Many alter-globalists, unlike anti-globalists, seek to avoid the "disestablishment of local economies and disastrous humanitarian consequences" ([\[1\]](#)). Most members of this movement shun the label "[anti-globalization](#)" as pejorative and incorrect since they actively support human activity on a global scale and do not oppose economic globalization *per se*. Instead they see their movement as an alternative to what they term [neo-liberal globalization](#) in which international institutions ([WTO](#), [World Bank](#), [IMF](#) etc.) and major corporations devote themselves to enriching the developed world while giving little or no attention to the detrimental effects of their actions on the people and environments of less developed countries, countries whose governments are often too weak or too corrupt to resist or regulate them. This is not to be confused with [proletarian internationalism](#) as put forth by [communists](#) in that alter-globalists do not necessarily oppose the [free market](#), but the disregard for human values that sometimes comes with it.

Etymology

The term was coined against accusations of [nationalism](#) by [neoliberal](#) proponents of globalization, meaning a support of both [humanism](#) and

[universal values](#) but a rejection of the [Washington consensus](#) and similar neoliberal policies. The "alter-globalization" French movement was thus opposed to the "[Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe](#)" on the grounds that it only advanced neoliberalism and an Anglo-Saxon economic model.

Originally developed in [French](#) as *altermondialisme*, it has been borrowed into English in the form of **altermondialism** or **altermondialization**. It defines the stance of movements opposed to a [neoliberal globalization](#), but favorable to a globalization respectful of [human rights](#), the [environment](#), [national sovereignty](#), and [cultural](#) diversity.

Following the French usage of the word *altermondialist*, the English counterpart *alter-globalist* may have been coined.

The term *alter-globalization* is derived from the term *anti-globalization*, which journalists and others have used to describe the movement. Many French journalists, in particular, have since ceased using the term *anti-globalization* in favor of *alter-globalization*. It is supposed to distinguish proponents of alter-globalization from different "anti-globalization" activists (those who are against *any* kind of globalization: [nationalists](#), [protectionists](#), [communitarians](#), etc.).

History

Economic integration via trade, financial flows, and investments had been occurring for many years, but the "Battle of Seattle" in 1999 (otherwise known as [World Trade Organization Ministerial Conference of 1999 protest activity](#)), brought significant attention to the outcry for such integration through vast media outlets, support groups and activists. Though this opposition first became highly popularized in 1999, it can be traced back prior to the 1980s when the [Washington Consensus](#) became a dominant development in thinking and policy-making (Broad and Heckscher, 713) ^[3].

Factors historically provoking economic integration and resistance

- The period of European [colonialism](#)
- The early post [World War II](#) period
- The [1970s](#), when Southern governments banded together to pose alternative rules and institutions and when popular resistance to different aspects of economic integration spread in many nations ³

The period of European colonialism

During the late 15th century most regions of the world were self-sufficient; although this led to much starvation and famine. As nations grew in power, sought to expand, and increased their wealth they forged on a mission to gain new lands. The central driving force of these nations was colonialism. Once in

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power in these new territories, colonists began to change the face of the economy in the area which provided them with motivation to sustain their efforts. Since they no longer had to solely rely on their own lands to produce goods, nations such as Europe began global commerce after establishing colonies in countries like Africa, Asia, the Pacific and the Middle East, Latin America and the Caribbean.

Once lands were conquered the native inhabitants or others brought along as slaves grew rebellious towards their captors. This is evident in a number of slave rebellions, such as Harper's Ferry, Stono, and the [New York Burning](#), and Native American attacks on European colonists on the North American continent. Over time these skirmishes gave way to social movements aimed at eliminating international trade in goods and labor, an example of which is the attempt to abolish the slave trade and the establishment of the [First International Workingmen's Association \(IWA\)](#).³

The post War World II era

The global economic state of post World War II called for the creation of the [International Monetary Fund \(IMF\)](#), the [World Bank](#) (the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) and the [General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade \(GATT\)](#). The International Monetary Fund's purpose was to supervise the exchange rate system whereas the World Bank's goals were aimed at creating long term/low interest loans that aided in the 'reconstruction' of Europe and the 'development' of independent Third World countries. GATT originated from a perceived need to "oversee the reduction of tariff barriers to trade in manufactured goods".³

These financial institutions allowed for the development of global private corporations as administration over trade fell. Free market systems began to grow in popularity as developing countries were required to globalize their economies instead of concentrating on creating jobs and stimulating economic growth. This allowed for private corporations to expand globally, without regard to central issues facing the home country like the environment, social structure or culture.³

The 1970s and Southern resistance

The 1970s saw resistance to global expansion by both government and non-government parties. Senator [Frank Church](#) was concerned with the role multinational corporations were beginning to play and created a subcommittee that reviewed corporate practices to see if they were advancing American interests or not (i.e. exporting jobs that could be kept within the United States). It was through these public revelations that Southern nations around the world wanted rules to govern the global economy. More specifically, these Southern nations (ranging from Tanzania to the Philippines) wanted to raise/ stabilize

raw material prices, and to increase Southern exports.³ These nations began their movement not only with central goals but with codes of conduct as well (though non-enforceable). Thus two manifestations, one individual, and the other collective, amongst Southern nation-states, existed in their attempts to generate reform.

Preconditions for Alter-Globalization

It is suggested by some scholars, such as Iagin Russia, that the effects and growth of alter-globalization can be felt worldwide due to progress made as a result of the Internet. The Internet provides easy, free-flowing and mobile information/network organization that is in its very nature democratic; knowledge is for everyone and is perceived to be needed for further development of our modern world. Furthermore, Internet access creates the fast and easy spread of, and communication of, an organization's principles, progress, growth, opposition and development. Therefore in order to allot for the distribution of alter-globalization, the Internet has provided a means of communication that stretches beyond the limits of distance, time and space so new ideas may not only be generated but implemented as well.^[4]

Alter-Globalization as a Social Movement

Alter-globalization can be characterized as a social movement based on [Charles Tilly's](#) WUNC displays. WUNC is an acronym for W-Worthiness, U-Unity, N-Numbers and C-Commitment. Alter-globalization is seen as a worthy cause because its goals aim to sustain those being afflicted by the selfish acts of global corporations and their negative effect on human value, the environment, and social justices. It also serves to unite various people around the world for a good cause: to fight for better treatment of Third World countries and their economies, workers rights, fair/equal human rights. Many are committed to the goals set forth by alter-globalization groups because of the perceived negative effects globalization is creating around the world. Examples include: the exploitation of labor, outsourcing of jobs to foreign nations (though some argue this is a nationalistic rather than alter-globalist motive), pollution of local environments, and harm to foreign cultures to which jobs are outsourced.

Furthermore, alter-globalization can be viewed as being purposeful and creating solidarity; two of the three incentives posited by the rational choice theory proposed by Dennis Chong. [Rational choice theory](#) focuses on the incentives of activism, advocating that activism follows when the benefits to protesting outweigh the costs. Alter-globalization allows one the opportunity to see the difference they are working towards by eliminating the negative side effects already affecting our world (i.e. environmental [pollution](#)). It also calls for solidarity amongst peer/community relations that can only be experienced by being a part of the system that causes change.

Another type of social movement that applies to alter-globalization and our understanding of how it relates is found in collective action frames. Collective action frames provide a schemata of interpretation that allows for organization of experience into guided action. Action frames are perceived as powerful because they draw from people's emotions, re-enforce the collective identity of the group, and create a statement from the groups' collective beliefs. Frame analysis is helpful to alter-globalization because it calls for activists to learn through their socialization and interactions with others. One of the key tasks of action frames is generating agency, or a plausible story that indicates the ability of the activists to create change. With alter-globalization every aspect of the movement suggests this ability because the goals affect the economies, environments and human relations of various countries around the world.

Examples of Alter-Globalization as a Movement

1. Attempts at an alter-globalization movement to reform policies and processes of the WTO include: "alternative principles of public accountability, the rights of people and the protection of the environment" through the theoretical framework of Robert Cox. ^[5]
2. 'Fair trade' initiatives, corporate codes of conduct, and social clauses as well as a return to local markets instead of relying too heavily on global markets. ^[6]
3. "Alter-globalization activists have promoted alternative water governance models through North-South red-green alliances between organized labor, environmental groups, women's groups, and indigenous groups..." (spoken in response to the increase in privatization of the global water supply) ^{7}
4. "The first current of the alter-globalization movement) considers that instead of getting involved in a global movement and international forums, the path to social change lies through giving life to horizontal, participatory, convivial and sustainable values in daily practices, personal life and local spaces. Many urban activists cite the way that, for example, the Zapatistas in Mexico and other Latin American indigenous movements now focus on developing communities' local autonomy via participatory self-government, autonomous education systems and improving the quality of life. They appreciate too, the convivial aspect of local initiatives and their promise of small but real alternatives to corporate globalization and mass consumption."

Groups

Advocates of alter-globalization have set up an online global news network, the [Independent Media Center](#), to report on developments pertinent to the movement. Groups in favor of alter-globalization include [ATTAC](#), an international trade reform network headquartered in France.

World Social Forum

The largest forum for alter-globalization activity is the annual [World Social Forum](#). The [World Social Forum](#) is intended as a democratic space organized in terms of the movement's values.

Globalization and Health is an [open-access](#), [peer-reviewed](#), online journal that provides an international forum for high quality original research, knowledge sharing and debate on the topic of [globalization](#) and its effects on [health](#), both positive and negative. Globalization, namely the intensification of flows of people, goods, and services across borders, has a complex influence on health. The journal publishes material relevant to any aspect of globalization and health from a wide range of social and medical science disciplines (e.g. economics, sociology, epidemiology, demography, psychology, politics and international relations). The output of the journal is useful to a wide audience, including academics, policy-makers, health care practitioners, and public health professionals. The [journal](#) is affiliated with the [London School of Economics](#).

Globalization and Health's articles are archived in [PubMed](#) Central, the [US National Library of Medicine](#)'s full-text repository of life science literature, and also in repositories at the [University of Potsdam](#) in Germany, at [INIST](#) in France and in e-Depot, the National Library of the Netherlands' digital archive of all electronic publications. The journal is also participating in the British Library's e-journals pilot project, and plans to deposit copies of all articles with the [British Library](#).

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Globalization and Health considers the following types of articles:

Research - dissemination of high quality original research.

Reviews - comprehensive, authoritative critical reviews of any subject within the scope of the journal.

Commentaries - short, focussed and opinionated articles on any subject within the journal's scope. These articles are usually related to a contemporary issue, such as recent research findings, and are often written by opinion leaders invited by the Editorial Board.

Debate articles - present an argument that is not essentially based on practical research. Debate articles can report on all aspects of the subject including sociological and ethical aspects.

Short reports - brief reports of data from original research.

Book reviews - short summaries of the strengths and weaknesses of a book. They should evaluate its overall usefulness to the intended audience.

Sovereignty

is the quality of having supreme, independent authority over a territory. It can be found in a power to rule and make law that rests on a political fact for which no purely legal explanation can be provided. The concept has been discussed, debated and questioned throughout history, from the time of the Romans through to the present day, although it has changed in its definition, concept, and application throughout, especially during the [Age of Enlightenment](#). The current notion of state sovereignty were laid down in the [Treaty of Westphalia \(1648\)](#), which, in relation to [states](#), codified the basic principles of [territorial integrity](#), border inviolability, and supremacy of the state (rather than the Church). A **sovereign** is a supreme lawmaking authority.

History

Classical

Ideas about sovereignty have changed over time. The [Roman](#) jurist [Ulpian](#) observed that:

- The [!!](#) of the people is transferred to the [Emperor](#),
- The Emperor is not bound by the law,
- The Emperor's word is law.

Ulpian was expressing — although he did not use the term — the idea that the Emperor exercised a rather absolute form of sovereignty. Ulpian's statements were known in [medieval Europe](#) but sovereignty was not an important concept in medieval times. Medieval monarchs were *not* sovereign, at least not strongly so, because they were constrained by, and shared power with, their [feudal](#) aristocracy. Furthermore, both were strongly constrained by custom.

Medieval

Sovereignty existed during the Medieval Period as the de jure rights of nobility and royalty, and in the de facto right and capability of an individual to make their own choices in life.

Around c. 1380-1400, the issue of feminine sovereignty was addressed in Geoffrey Chaucer's [Middle English](#) collection of [Canterbury Tales](#), specifically in [The Wife of Bath's Tale](#).^[1]

A later English Arthurian romance, *The Wedding of Sir Gawain and Dame Ragnell* (c. 1450)^[2], uses much of the same elements of the Wife of Bath's tale, yet changes the setting to the court of King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. The story revolves around the knight Sir Gawain granting to Dame Ragnell, his new bride, what is purported to be wanted most by women: sovereignty.

We desire most from men,
From men both rich and poor,
To have sovereignty without lies.
For where we have sovereignty, all is ours,
Though a knight be ever so fierce,
And ever win mastery.
It is our desire to have master
Over such a sir.
Such is our purpose.

—The Wedding of Sir Gawain and Dame Ragnell (c. 1450), ^[2]

Reformation

Sovereignty reemerged as a concept in the late 1500s, a time when civil wars had created a craving for stronger central authority, when monarchs had begun to gather power into their own hands at the expense of the nobility, and the modern [nation state](#) was emerging. [Jean Bodin](#), partly in reaction to the chaos of the [French wars of religion](#); and [Thomas Hobbes](#), partly in reaction to the [English Civil War](#), both presented theories of sovereignty calling for strong central authority in the form of [absolute monarchy](#). In his 1576 treatise [Six livres de la république](#) ("Six Books of the Republic") Bodin argued that it is inherent in the nature of the [state](#) that sovereignty must be:

- Absolute: On this point he said that the sovereign must not be hedged in with obligations and conditions, must be able to legislate without his (or its) subjects' consent, must not be bound by the laws of his predecessors, and could not, because it is illogical, be bound by his own laws.
- Perpetual: Not temporarily delegated as to a strong leader in an emergency or to a state employee such as a [magistrate](#). He held that sovereignty must be perpetual because anyone with the power to enforce a time limit on the governing power must be above the governing power: impossible if the governing power is absolute.

Bodin rejected the notion of transference of sovereignty from people to sovereign; natural law and divine law confer upon the sovereign the right to rule. And the sovereign is not above divine law or natural law. He is above (*ie.* not bound by) only [positive law](#), that is, laws made by humans. The fact that

the sovereign must obey divine and natural law imposes ethical constraints on him. Bodin also held that the *lois royales*, the fundamental laws of the French monarchy which regulated matters such as succession, are natural laws and are binding on the French sovereign. How divine and natural law could in practice be enforced on the sovereign is a problematic feature of Bodin's philosophy: any person capable of enforcing them on him would be above him.

Despite his commitment to absolutism, Bodin held some moderate opinions on how government should in practice be carried out. He held that although the sovereign is not obliged to, it is advisable for him, as a practical expedient, to convene a [senate](#) from whom he can obtain advice, to delegate some power to magistrates for the practical administration of the law, and to use the [Estates](#) as a means of communicating with the people.

With his doctrine that sovereignty is conferred by divine law, Bodin predefined the scope of the [divine right of kings](#).

Age of Enlightenment

Hobbes, in [Leviathan](#) (1651) introduced an early version of the social contract (or contractarian) theory, arguing that to overcome the "nasty, brutish and short" quality of life without the cooperation of other human beings, people must join in a "commonwealth" and submit to a "Sovereign [[sic](#)] Power" that is able to compel them to act in the common good. This expediency argument attracted many of the early proponents of sovereignty. Hobbes deduced from the definition of sovereignty that it must be:

- Absolute: because conditions could only be imposed on a sovereign if there were some outside arbitrator to determine when he had violated them, in which case the sovereign would not be the final authority.
- Indivisible: The sovereign is the only final authority in his territory; he does not share final authority with any other entity. Hobbes held this to be true because otherwise there would be no way of resolving a disagreement between the multiple authorities.

Hobbes' hypothesis that the ruler's sovereignty is contracted to him by the people in return for his maintaining their safety, led him to conclude that if the ruler fails to do this, the people are released from their obligation to obey him.

Bodin's and Hobbes's theories would decisively shape the concept of sovereignty, which we can find again in the [social contract](#) theories, for example, in [Rousseau](#)'s (1712-1778) definition of [popular sovereignty](#) (with early antecedents in [Francisco Suárez](#)'s theory of the origin of power), which only differs in that he considers the people to be the legitimate sovereign. Likewise, it is inalienable – Rousseau condemned the distinction between the

origin and the exercise of sovereignty, a distinction upon which [constitutional monarchy](#) or [representative democracy](#) are founded. [Niccolò Machiavelli](#), [Thomas Hobbes](#), [John Locke](#), and [Montesquieu](#) are also key figures in the unfolding of the concept of sovereignty.

The second book of Jean-Jacques Rousseau's [Du Contrat Social, ou Principes du droit politique](#) (1762) deals with sovereignty and its rights. Sovereignty, or the general will, is inalienable, for the will cannot be transmitted; it is indivisible, since it is essentially general; it is infallible and always right, determined and limited in its power by the common interest; it acts through laws. Law is the decision of the general will in regard to some object of common interest, but though the general will is always right and desires only good, its judgment is not always enlightened, and consequently does not always see wherein the common good lies; hence the necessity of the legislator. But the legislator has, of himself, no authority; he is only a guide who drafts and proposes laws, but the people alone (that is, the sovereign or general will) has authority to make and impose them.

Rousseau, in his 1763 treatise *Of the Social Contract*^[3] argued, "the growth of the State giving the trustees of public authority more and means to abuse their power, the more the Government has to have force to contain the people, the more force the Sovereign should have in turn in order to contain the Government," with the understanding that the Sovereign is "a collective being of wonder" (Book II, Chapter I) resulting from "the general will" of the people, and that "what any man, whoever he may be, orders on his own, is not a law" (Book II, Chapter VI) – and furthermore predicated on the assumption that the people have an unbiased means by which to ascertain the general will. Thus the legal maxim, "there is no law without a sovereign."

The 1789 [French Revolution](#) shifted the possession of sovereignty from the sovereign ruler to the nation and its people.

[Carl Schmitt](#) (1888-1985) defined sovereignty as "the power to decide the [state of exception](#)", in an attempt, argues [Giorgio Agamben](#), to counter [Walter Benjamin](#)'s theory of [violence](#) as radically disjoint from law. [Georges Bataille](#)'s heterodox conception of sovereignty, which may be said to be an "anti-sovereignty", also inspired many thinkers, such as [Jacques Derrida](#), Agamben or [Jean-Luc Nancy](#).

— Lassa Oppenheim^[4], an authority on [international law](#)

Absoluteness

An important factor of sovereignty is its degree of [absoluteness](#). A sovereign power has absolute sovereignty if it has the unlimited right to control

everything and every kind of activity in its territory. This means that it is not restricted by a [constitution](#), by the [laws](#) of its predecessors, or by [custom](#), and no areas of law or behavior are reserved as being outside its control. For example, parents are not guaranteed the right to decide some matters in the upbringing of their children independently of the sovereign power, municipalities are not guaranteed freedom from its interference in some local matters, etc. Theorists have diverged over the necessity or desirability of absoluteness. Historically, it is doubtful whether a sovereign power has ever claimed complete absoluteness, let alone had the power to actually enforce it. [\[citation needed\]](#)

Exclusivity

The key element of sovereignty in the legalistic sense is that of **exclusivity** of [jurisdiction](#). Specifically, when a decision is made by a sovereign entity, it cannot generally be overruled by a higher authority, usually another state.

De jure and de facto

[De jure](#), or **legal**, sovereignty is the theoretical right to exercise exclusive control over one's subjects.

[De facto](#), or **actual**, sovereignty is concerned with whether control in fact exists. It can be approached in two ways:

1. Does the governing power have sufficient strength (police, etc.) to compel its subjects to obey it? (If so, a type of *de facto* sovereignty called *coercive* sovereignty exists.)
2. Are the subjects of the governing power in the habit of obeying it?

It is generally held that sovereignty requires not only the legal right to exercise power, but the actual exercise of such power. That is, "No *de jure* sovereignty without *de facto* sovereignty." In other words, neither claiming/being proclaimed Sovereign, *nor* merely exercising the power of a Sovereign is sufficient; sovereignty requires *both* elements.

Internal

Internal sovereignty is the relationship between a sovereign power and its own subjects. A central concern is [legitimacy](#): by what right does a political body (or individual) exercise authority over its subjects? Possible answers include: by the [divine right of kings](#) or by [social contract](#) ([popular sovereignty](#)).

External sovereignty concerns the relationship between a sovereign power and other states. The [United Kingdom](#) uses the following criteria when deciding under what conditions other states recognise a political entity as having

sovereignty over some territory, as an example of typical criteria used by state when deciding this:

External sovereignty is connected with questions of [international law](#), such as: when, if ever, is [intervention](#) by one country onto another's territory permissible?

Following the [Thirty Years' War](#), a European religious conflict that embroiled much of the continent, the [Peace of Westphalia](#) in 1648 established the notion of territorial sovereignty as a doctrine of [noninterference in the affairs of other nations](#), so-called [Westphalian sovereignty](#). This resulted as a natural extension of the principle of [cuius regio, eius religio](#) (Whose realm, his religion), leaving the [Roman Catholic Church](#) with little ability to interfere with the internal affairs of many European states.

In international law, sovereignty means that a government possesses full control over its own affairs within a territorial or geographical area or limit. Determining whether a specific entity is sovereign is not an exact science, but often a matter of diplomatic dispute. There is usually an expectation that *de jure* and *de facto* sovereignty exist at the place and time of concern, and rest in the same organization. Foreign governments *recognize* the sovereignty of a state over a territory, or refuse to do so.

For instance, in theory, both the [People's Republic of China](#) and the [Republic of China](#) considered themselves sovereign governments over the whole territory of [mainland China](#) and [Taiwan](#). Though some foreign governments recognize the Republic of China as the valid state, most now recognize the People's Republic of China. However, *de facto*, the People's Republic of China has jurisdiction only over mainland China but not Taiwan, while the Republic of China has jurisdiction only over Taiwan and some outlying islands but not mainland China. Since [ambassadors](#) are only exchanged between sovereign high parties, the countries recognizing the People's Republic often entertain *de facto* but not *de jure* diplomatic relationships with the Republic by maintaining "offices of representation", such as the [American Institute in Taiwan](#), rather than embassies there.

Sovereignty may be recognized even when the sovereign body possesses no territory or its territory is under partial or total occupation by another power. The [Holy See](#) was in this position between the annexation in 1870 of the [Papal States](#) by Italy and the signing of the [Lateran Treaties](#) in 1929, when it was recognised as sovereign by many (mostly [Roman Catholic](#)) states despite possessing no territory – a situation resolved when the Lateran Treaties granted the Holy See sovereignty over the [Vatican City](#). Another case, *sui generis*, though often contested, is the [Sovereign Military Order of Malta](#), the third sovereign mini-state based in an enclave in the Italian capital (since in 1869 the Palazzo di Malta and the Villa Malta receive [extraterritorial](#) rights, in

this way becoming the only "sovereign" territorial possessions of the modern Order), which is the last existing heir to one of several once militarily significant, [crusader states](#) of sovereign [military orders](#). In 1607 its Grand masters were also made [Reichsfürst](#) (princes of the Holy Roman Empire) by the Holy Roman Emperor, granting them seats in the [Reichstag](#), at the time the closest permanent equivalent to a UN-type general assembly; confirmed 1620). These sovereign rights never deposed, only the territories were lost. 100 modern states still maintain full diplomatic relations with the order^[5] (now *de facto* "the most prestigious service club"), and the UN awarded it observer status. Another case is also the [International Committee of the Red Cross](#).

Similarly, the governments-in-exile of many European states (for instance, [Norway](#), [Netherlands](#) or [Czechoslovakia](#)) during the [Second World War](#) were regarded as sovereign despite their territories being under foreign occupation; their governance resumed as soon as the occupation had ended. The government of [Kuwait](#) was in a similar situation *vis-à-vis* the [Iraqi](#) occupation of its country during 1990-1991.

Shared

Just like the office of [Head of state](#) (whether sovereignty is vested in it or not) can be vested jointly in several persons within a state, the sovereign jurisdiction over a single political territory can be shared jointly by two or more consenting powers, notably in the forms of a [condominium](#) or of (as still in [Andorra](#)) a [co-principality](#).

Tribal

[Tribal sovereignty](#)

Nation-states

[Nations](#), claiming the right of [self-determination](#), often establish sovereign states for themselves, thus creating [nation-states](#). An aspiring nation-state must have sovereignty recognised by other nation-states in order to become one.

Federations

In [federal systems of government](#), *sovereignty* also refers to powers which a state government possesses independently of the national government. Whether state sovereignty is superior to the sovereignty of the national government or vice versa determines whether the country is considered a [federation](#) (such as the [United States](#)) or a [confederation](#) (such as the [Iroquois Confederacy](#)). The fact that both state and national governments can simultaneously be sovereign is often explained by reasoning that sovereignty

ultimately [flows from the people](#) in both cases. Controversy over [states' rights](#) ultimately contributed to the start of the [American Civil War](#).

Acquisition

A number of methods of acquisition of sovereignty are presently or have historically been recognised by international law as lawful methods by which a state may **acquire sovereignty over territory**.

Justifications

There exist vastly differing views on the moral basis of sovereignty. A fundamental polarity is between theories that assert that sovereignty is vested directly in the sovereign by divine right or natural right, and theories that assert it is vested in the people. In the latter case there is a further division into those that assert that the people transfer their sovereignty to the sovereign (Hobbes), and those that assert that the people retain their sovereignty (Rousseau).

- [Democracy](#) is based on the concept of [popular sovereignty](#). [Representative democracies](#) permit (against Rousseau's thought) a transfer of the exercise of sovereignty from the people to the parliament or the government. [Parliamentary sovereignty](#) refers to a representative democracy where the Parliament is, ultimately, the source of sovereignty, and not the executive power.
- The [republican](#) form of government acknowledges that the sovereign power is founded in the people, individually, not in the collective or whole body of free citizens, as in a democratic form. Thus no majority can deprive a minority of their sovereign rights and powers.
- [Absolute monarchies](#) are typically based on belief in the [divine right of kings](#).

Views on

- [Realists](#) view sovereignty as being untouchable and as guaranteed to legitimate nation-states.
- [Rationalists](#) see sovereignty similarly to Realists. However, Rationalism states that the sovereignty of a nation-state may be violated in extreme circumstances, such as human rights abuses.
- [Internationalists](#) believe that sovereignty is outdated and an unnecessary obstacle to achieving peace, in line with their belief of a 'global community'. Supporting this is their belief that the concept of nation-states, based on the [Treaty of Westphalia](#), is also outdated and should be abolished.
- [Anarchists](#) and some [libertarians](#) deny the sovereignty of states and governments. Anarchists often argue for a specific individual kind of

sovereignty, such as the [Anarch as a sovereign individual](#). [Salvador Dalí](#), for instance, talked of "anarcho-monarchist" (as usual for him, tongue in cheek); [Antonin Artaud](#) of *Heliogabalus: Or, The Crowned Anarchist*; [Max Stirner](#) of *The Ego and Its Own*; [Georges Bataille](#) and [Jacques Derrida](#) of a kind of "antisovereignty". Therefore, anarchists join a classical conception of the individual as sovereign of himself, which forms the basis of [political consciousness](#). The unified consciousness is sovereignty over one's own body, as [Nietzsche](#) demonstrated (see also [Pierre Klossowski](#)'s book on *Nietzsche and the Vicious Circle*). See also [self-ownership](#) and [Sovereignty of the individual](#).

- [Imperialists](#) hold a view of sovereignty where power rightfully exists with those states that hold the greatest ability to impose the will of said state, by force or threat of force, over the populace or other states with weaker military or political will. They effectively deny the sovereignty of the individual in deference to either the 'good' of the whole, or to [divine right](#).

Relation to rule of law

Another topic is whether [the law is held to be sovereign](#), that is, whether it is above political or other interference. Sovereign law constitutes a true state of law, meaning the [letter of the law](#) (if constitutionally correct) is applicable and enforceable, even when against the political will of the nation, as long as not formally changed following the constitutional procedure. Strictly speaking, any deviation from this principle constitutes a revolution or a coup d'état, regardless of the intentions.] Sovereign as a title

In some cases, the title sovereign is not just a generic term, but an actual (part of the) formal style of a [Head of state](#).

Thus from [22 June 1934](#), to [29 May 1953](#), (the title "Emperor of India" was dropped as of [15 August 1947](#), by retroactive proclamation dated [22 June 1948](#)), the [King of South Africa](#) was styled in the [Dominion of South Africa](#): "By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India and *Sovereign* in and over the Union of South Africa." Upon the accession of Elizabeth II to the Throne of South Africa in 1952, the title was changed to Queen of South Africa and Her other Realms and Territories, [Head of the Commonwealth](#), parallel to the style used in almost all the other [Commonwealth realms](#). The pope holds ex officio the title "Sovereign of the Vatican City State" in respect to Vatican City.

The adjective form can also be used in a Monarch's full style, as in pre-imperial Russia, [16 January 1547](#) – [22 November 1721](#): *Bozhiyeyu Milostiyu Velikiy/Velikaya Gosudar/Gosudarynya Tsar'/Tsaritsa i Velikiy/Velikaya Knyaz'/Knyaginya N.N. vseya Rossiy Samodyerzhets* "By the Grace of God Great **Sovereign Tsar**/Tsarina and Grand Prince/Princess, N.N., of All Russia, Autocrat"

Civil defense

Civil defense, civil defence (see [spelling differences](#)) or **civil protection** is an effort to prepare non combatant's for [military](#) attack. It uses the principles of emergency operations: [prevention](#), [mitigation](#), preparation, [response](#), or [emergency evacuation](#), and recovery. Programmes of this sort were initially discussed at least as early as the 1920s but only became widespread after the threat of [nuclear weapons](#) was realized.

Since the end of the [Cold War](#), the focus of civil defense has largely shifted from military attack to emergencies and disasters in general. The new concept is described by a number of terms, each of which has its own specific shade of meaning, such as **crisis management, emergency management, emergency preparedness, contingency planning, emergency services**, and **civil protection**. In some countries, the all-encompassing nature of civil defense is denoted by the term "total defense" such as the [Swedish word](#) *totalförsvar*. The name suggests committing all resources, hence the term total, of the nation to the defense.

Civil Defense literature such as [Fallout Protection](#) were common during the cold war era.

In most of the NATO states, such as the [United States](#), the [United Kingdom](#) or [Germany](#) as well as the [then] Soviet Bloc, and especially in the neutral countries, such as [Switzerland](#) and in [Sweden](#) during the 1950s and 60s, many civil defense practices took place to prepare for the aftermath of a [nuclear war](#), which seemed quite likely at that time. Such efforts were opposed by the [Catholic Worker Movement](#) and by peace activists such as [Ralph DiGia](#) , on the grounds that these programs gave the public false confidence that they could survive a nuclear war.^[1] There was never strong civil defense policy because it fundamentally violated the doctrine of "[mutual assured destruction](#)" (M.A.D.) by making provisions for survivors. Also, a fully fledged total defense would have been too expensive. Above all, compared to the power of destruction a defense would have been ineffective. In the M.A.D. doctrine, there are not supposed to be any survivors for a civil defense system to assist (thus the acronym). Governments in the West sought to implement [civil defense measures against nuclear war](#) in the face of popular apathy and scepticism.

Public Service Announcements including children's songs were created by government institutes and then distributed and released by radio stations to educate the public in case of nuclear attack.^[2]

During the [Cold War](#), civil defense was seen largely as defending against and recovering from an attack involving nuclear weapons. After the end of the [Cold War](#), the focus moved from defense against nuclear war to defense against a terrorist attack possibly involving chemical or biological weapons; in the

context of the [United States](#) this eventually led to the replacement of the [United States civil defense](#) with the [Federal Emergency Management Agency](#). After the September 11, 2001 attacks, in the United States the concept of civil defense has been revisited under the umbrella term of [homeland security](#) and all-hazards emergency management.

In [Europe](#), the triangle CD logo continues to be widely used. The old US civil defense logo was used in the FEMA logo until recently and is hinted at in the United States [Civil Air Patrol](#) logo. Created in 1939 by Charles Coiner of the N. W. Ayer Advertising Agency, it was used throughout World War II and the Cold War era. In 2006, the National Emergency Management Association — a U.S. organization made up of state emergency managers — officially retired the Civil Defense triangle logo, replacing it with a stylized EM (standing for [Emergency management](#)).^[1]

The term "civil protection" is currently widely used within the [European Union](#) to refer to government-approved systems and resources tasked with protecting the non combat population, primarily in the event of natural and technological disasters. In recent years there has been emphasis on preparedness for technological disasters resulting from terrorist attack. Within EU countries the term **crisis management** emphasises the political and security dimension rather than measures to satisfy the immediate needs of the population.

In Australia, civil defense is the responsibility of the volunteer-based State Emergency Service.

Importance

Relatively small investments in preparation can speed up recovery by months or years and thereby prevent millions of deaths by hunger, cold and disease.^[citation needed] According to [human capital](#) theory in [economics](#), a country's population is more valuable than all of the land, factories and other assets that it possesses. People rebuild a country after its destruction, and it is therefore important for the economic security of a country that it protect its people. Also, reducing fear and uncertainty via civil defense helps people's quality of life and has positive economic benefits.^[citation needed] According to [psychology](#), it is important for people to feel like they are in control of their own destiny, and preparing for uncertainty via civil defense may help to achieve this. If the people are not in control, and the preparations ineffective, the government loses its credibility and the respect of its citizens.

Threat assessment

Threats to civilians and civilian life include nuclear threats, biological threats, chemical threats, and others. Threat assessment involves studying each threat so that preventative measures can be built into civilian life.

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Conventional

This would be conventional explosives. Shelter intended to protect against nuclear blast effects would include thick concrete and other sturdy elements which are resistant to conventional explosives.^[citation needed] A shelter designed to protect only from radiation and fallout, however, would be much more vulnerable to conventional explosives.

Nuclear

The biggest threats from a nuclear attack are effects from the blast, fires and radiation. One of the most prepared countries for a nuclear attack is [Switzerland](#). Almost every building in Switzerland has an *abri* (shelter) against the initial nuclear bomb and explosion followed by the fallout. Because of this, many people use it as a safe to protect valuables, photos, financial information and so on. Switzerland also has air-raid and nuclear raid sirens in every village.

Dirty Bomb

A "radiologically enhanced weapon", or "[dirty bomb](#)" uses an explosive to spread radioactive material. This is a theoretical risk, and such weapons have not been used by terrorists. Depending on the quantity of the radioactive material, the dangers may be mainly psychological. Toxic effects can be managed by standard [hazmat](#) techniques.

Biological

The threat here is primarily from disease-causing microorganisms such as bacteria and viruses.

Chemical

Various chemical agents are a threat such as nerve gas (VX, Sarin, etc.).

Other

There are many other possible threats besides these, for example the invasion of enemy troops and armed warfare.

] Stages

Mitigation

Mitigation is the process of actively preventing the war or the release of [nuclear weapons](#). It includes policy analysis, diplomacy, political measures, [nuclear](#)

[disarmament](#) and more military responses such as a National Missile Defense and air defense artillery. In the case of counter-terrorism, mitigation would include diplomacy, [intelligence](#) gathering and direct action against terrorist groups. Mitigation may also be reflected in long-term planning such as the design of the interstate highway system and the placement of [military](#) bases further away from populated areas.

Preparation

Preparation consists of building [blast shelters](#), and pre-positioning information, supplies and emergency infrastructure. For example, most larger cities in the U.S. now have underground emergency operations centers that can perform civil defense coordination. FEMA also has many underground facilities located near major railheads such as the one in [Denton, Texas](#) and Mount Weather, Virginia for the same purpose. Other measures would include continuous government inventories of grain silos, the [Strategic National Stockpile](#), the uncapping of the [Strategic Petroleum Reserve](#), the dispersal of truck-transportable bridges, water purification, mobile refineries, mobile decontamination facilities, mobile general and special purpose disaster mortuary facilities such as [DMORT](#) and [DMORT-WMD](#), and other aids such as temporary housing to speed civil recovery.

On an individual scale, one means of preparation for exposure to [nuclear fallout](#) is to obtain [potassium iodide](#) (KI) tablets as a safety measure to protect the human [thyroid](#) gland from the uptake of dangerous radioactive [iodine](#). Another measure is to cover the nose, mouth and eyes with a piece of cloth and sunglasses to protect against [alpha particles](#), which are only an internal hazard.

To support and supplement efforts at national, regional and local level with regard to disaster [prevention](#), the [preparedness](#) of those responsible for civil protection and the intervention in the event of disaster

- To establish a framework for effective and rapid cooperation between different civil protection services when mutual assistance is needed ([police](#), fire service, healthcare service, [public utility](#) provider, [voluntary](#) agencies).
- To set up and implement training programs for [intervention](#) and [coordination](#) teams as well as assessment experts including joint courses and exchange systems.
- To enhance the coherence of actions undertaken at international level in the field of civil protection especially in the context of cooperation.

Preparing also includes sharing information:

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- To contribute to the information of the public in view of increasing the level of self-protection of citizens
- To collect and disseminate validated emergency information
- To pool information on national civil protection capabilities, military and medical resources.
- To ensure efficient information sharing between the different authorities.

Response

Response consists first of warning civilians so they can enter Fallout Shelters and protect assets.

Staffing a response is always full of problems in a civil defense emergency. After an attack, conventional full-time emergency services are dramatically overloaded, with conventional fire fighting response times often exceeding several days. Some capability is maintained by local and state agencies, and an emergency reserve is provided by specialized [military](#) units, especially [civil affairs](#), Military Police, Judge Advocates and combat engineers.

However, the traditional response to massed attack on civilian population centers is to maintain a mass-trained force of volunteer emergency workers. Studies in [World War II](#) showed that lightly trained (40 hours or less) civilians in organized teams can perform up to 95% of emergency activities when trained, liaised and supported by local government. In this plan, the populace rescues itself from most situations, and provides information to a central office to prioritize professional emergency services.

In the 1990s, this concept was revived by the [Los Angeles Fire Department](#) to cope with civil emergencies such as [earthquakes](#). The program was widely adopted, providing standard terms for organization. In the U.S., this is now official federal policy, and it is implemented by community emergency response teams, under the Department of Homeland Security, which certifies training programs by local governments, and registers "certified disaster service workers" who complete such training. Recovery

Recovery consists of rebuilding damaged infrastructure, buildings and production. The recovery phase is the longest and ultimately most expensive phase. Once the immediate "crisis" has passed, cooperation fades away and recovery efforts are often politicized or seen as economic opportunities.

Preparation for recovery can be very helpful. If mitigating resources are dispersed before the attack, cascades of social failures can be prevented. One hedge against bridge damage in riverine cities is to subsidize a "tourist ferry" that performs scenic cruises on the river. When a bridge is down, the ferry takes up the load.

Implementation

Some advocates^{[[who?](#)]} believe that government should change building codes to require [autonomous buildings](#) in order to reduce civil societies' dependence on complex, fragile networks of social services.

An example of a crucial need after a general nuclear attack would be the fuel required to transport every other item for recovery. However, [oil refineries](#) are large, immobile, and probable targets. One proposal is to preposition truck-mounted fuel refineries near oil fields and bulk storage depots. Other critical infrastructure needs would include road and bridge repair, [communications](#), electric power, food production, and potable water.

Civil Defense organizations

The old [United States civil defense](#) logo. The triangle emphasized the 3-step Civil Defense philosophy used before the foundation of FEMA and Comprehensive Emergency Management.

Civil Defense is also the name of a number of organizations around the world dedicated to protecting civilians from military attacks, as well as to providing rescue services after natural and human-made disasters alike.

In a few countries such as [Jordan](#) and [Singapore](#) (see [Singapore Civil Defence Force](#)), civil defense is essentially the same organization as the fire brigade. In most countries however, civil defense is a government-managed, volunteer-staffed organization, separate from the fire brigade and the [ambulance](#) service. As the threat of Cold War eased, a number of such civil defense organizations have been disbanded or mothballed (as in the [United Kingdom](#) and the [United States civil defense](#)), while others have changed their focuses into providing rescue services after natural disasters (as for the [State Emergency Service](#) in [Australia](#)). However the ideals of Civil Defense have been brought back in the [United States](#) under FEMA's [Citizens Corps](#) and [CERT](#). In [Ireland](#), the Civil Defence is still very much an active organisation and is occasionally called upon for its [Auxiliary Fire Service](#) and ambulance/rescue services when emergencies such as flash flooding occur and require additional manpower. The organisation has units of trained firemen and medical responders based in key areas around the country.

Global justice movement is the broad [globalized social movement](#) opposing what is often known as “corporate globalization” and promoting equal distribution of economic resources.

A number of organisations and groups using this term have emerged at the beginning of this century - see links and references.

A movement of movements

The global justice movement describes the loose collection of individuals and groups—often referred to as a “[movement of movements](#)”—who advocate “[fair trade](#)” rules and are critical of current institutions of global economics such as the [World Trade Organization](#).^[1] The movement is often labelled the [anti-globalization](#) movement by the mainstream media. Those involved, however, frequently deny that they are “anti-globalization,” insisting that they support the globalization of communication and people and oppose only the global expansion of corporate power.^[2] The term further indicates an [anti-capitalist](#) and [universalist](#) perspective on globalization, distinguishing the movement from those opponents of globalization whose politics are based on a [conservative](#) defence of [national sovereignty](#).

Important organizational pillars of the movement are [Via Campesina](#), the family farmers' international; [Peoples' Global Action](#), a loose collection of often youthful groups; [Jubilee 2000](#), the Christian-based movement for relieving international debt; [Friends of the Earth](#), the environmentalist international; and some thinktanks like [Focus on the Global South](#) and [Third World Network](#)^[3]. Participants include student groups, [NGOs](#), trade unions, faith-based and peace groups throughout the world. A loose coordination of the movement is taking place on the [Social Forums](#). However, although formal power is often situated in the global South, the resources of North-based NGOs give these disproportionate power to often informally marginalise popular organisations from the South^[4].

Massive protests

The movement is characterized by the massive citizen protests and alternative summits which have, for the last decade, accompanied most meetings of the [G8](#), [World Trade Organization](#), [International Monetary Fund](#), and [World Bank](#). The movement came to the attention of many in the US when activists successfully used protests to shut down the 1999 [WTO Ministerial](#) in Seattle. This represented, however, just one of a series of massive global justice protests that have included protests at the 1988 World Bank/IMF meetings in Germany,^[5] “IMF riots” beginning in Lima in 1975, over cuts in the social safety-net presided over by IMF and other international organizations, and spreading through the world,^{[6][7]} and “water wars” in Bolivia and South Africa.^[8]

International solidarity

The global justice movement claims to place a significant emphasis on transnational solidarity uniting activists in the [global South and global North](#). Some have argued that the [World Social Forum](#) is one excellent example of this emphasis, bringing activists together from around the world to focus on shared

philosophy and campaigning. However others see the World Social Forum as dominated by Northern NGOs, donors and activists and argue that Southern representation is largely organized via Northern donors and their NGOs and that popular organizations in the global South are systematically marginalized or included in a deeply subordinated manner.^[9]For this reason many grassroots movements in the South boycott the forum and the NGOs that gatekeep representation at the forum or, in some instance, actively oppose it as just one more space of domination.

Telecommunication and government

Many countries have enacted legislation which conform to the *International Telecommunication Regulations* established by the [International Telecommunication Union](#) (ITU), which is the "leading [United Nations](#) agency for information and communication technology issues."^[38] In 1947, at the Atlantic City Conference, the ITU decided to "afford international protection to all frequencies registered in a new international frequency list and used in conformity with the Radio Regulation." According to the ITU's *Radio Regulations* adopted in Atlantic City, all frequencies referenced in the *International Frequency Registration Board*, examined by the board and registered on the *International Frequency List* "shall have the right to international protection from harmful interference."^[39]

From a global perspective, there have been political debates and legislation regarding the management of telecommunication and [broadcasting](#). The [history of broadcasting](#) discusses some of debates in relation to balancing conventional communication such as printing and telecommunication such as radio broadcasting.^[40] The onset of World War II brought on the first explosion of international broadcasting [propaganda](#).^[40] Countries, their governments, insurgents, terrorists, and militiamen have all used telecommunication and broadcasting techniques to promote propaganda.^{[40][41]} Patriotic propaganda for political movements and colonization started the mid 1930s. In 1936 the BBC would broadcast propaganda to the Arab World to partly counteract similar broadcasts from Italy, which also had colonial interests in the region.^[40]

Modern insurgents, such as those in the latest Iraq war, often use intimidating telephone calls, SMSs and the distribution of sophisticated videos of an attack on coalition troops within hours of the operation. "The Sunni insurgents even have their own television station, [Al-Zawraa](#), which while banned by the Iraqi government, still broadcasts from [Erbil](#), Iraqi Kurdistan, even as coalition pressure has forced it to switch satellite hosts several times.^[41]

Modern operation

Telephone

In an analogue telephone network, the [caller](#) is connected to the person he wants to talk to by switches at various telephone exchanges. The switches form an electrical connection between the two users and the setting of these switches is determined electronically when the caller dials the number. Once the connection is made, the caller's voice is transformed to an electrical signal using a small [microphone](#) in the caller's handset. This electrical signal is then sent through the network to the user at the other end where it is transformed back into sound by a small [speaker](#) in that person's handset. There is a separate electrical connection that works in reverse, allowing the users to converse.^{[42][43]}

The fixed-line telephones in most residential homes are analogue — that is, the speaker's voice directly determines the signal's voltage. Although short-distance calls may be handled from end-to-end as analogue signals, increasingly telephone service providers are transparently converting the signals to digital for transmission before converting them back to analogue for reception. The advantage of this is that digitized voice data can travel side-by-side with data from the Internet and can be perfectly reproduced in long distance communication (as opposed to analogue signals that are inevitably impacted by noise).

Mobile phones have had a significant impact on telephone networks. Mobile phone subscriptions now outnumber fixed-line subscriptions in many markets. Sales of mobile phones in 2005 totalled 816.6 million with that figure being almost equally shared amongst the markets of Asia/Pacific (204 m), Western Europe (164 m), CEMEA (Central Europe, the Middle East and Africa) (153.5 m), North America (148 m) and Latin America (102 m).^[44] In terms of new subscriptions over the five years from 1999, Africa has outpaced other markets with 58.2% growth.^[45] Increasingly these phones are being serviced by systems where the voice content is transmitted digitally such as [GSM](#) or [W-CDMA](#) with many markets choosing to depreciate analogue systems such as [AMPS](#).^[46]

There have also been dramatic changes in telephone communication behind the scenes. Starting with the operation of [TAT-8](#) in 1988, the 1990s saw the widespread adoption of systems based on [optic fibres](#). The benefit of communicating with optic fibres is that they offer a drastic increase in data capacity. TAT-8 itself was able to carry 10 times as many telephone calls as the last copper cable laid at that time and today's optic fibre cables are able to carry 25 times as many telephone calls as TAT-8.^[47] This increase in data capacity is due to several factors: First, optic fibres are physically much

smaller than competing technologies. Second, they do not suffer from [crosstalk](#) which means several hundred of them can be easily bundled together in a single cable.^[48] Lastly, improvements in [multiplexing](#) have led to an exponential growth in the data capacity of a single fibre.^{[49][50]}

Assisting communication across many modern optic fibre networks is a protocol known as Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM). The ATM protocol allows for the side-by-side data transmission mentioned in the second paragraph. It is suitable for public telephone networks because it establishes a pathway for data through the network and associates a [traffic contract](#) with that pathway. The traffic contract is essentially an agreement between the client and the network about how the network is to handle the data; if the network cannot meet the conditions of the traffic contract it does not accept the connection. This is important because telephone calls can negotiate a contract so as to guarantee themselves a constant bit rate, something that will ensure a caller's voice is not delayed in parts or cut-off completely.^[51] There are competitors to ATM, such as [Multiprotocol Label Switching](#) (MPLS), that perform a similar task and are expected to supplant ATM in the future.^[52]

Radio and television

In a broadcast system, the central high-powered [broadcast tower](#) transmits a high-frequency electromagnetic wave to numerous low-powered receivers. The high-frequency wave sent by the tower is [modulated](#) with a signal containing visual or audio information. The [receiver](#) is then [tuned](#) so as to pick up the high-frequency wave and a demodulator is used to retrieve the signal containing the visual or audio information. The broadcast signal can be either analogue (signal is varied continuously with respect to the information) or digital (information is encoded as a set of discrete values).^{[21][53]}

The broadcast media industry is at a critical turning point in its development, with many countries moving from analogue to digital broadcasts. This move is made possible by the production of cheaper, faster and more capable [integrated circuits](#). The chief advantage of digital broadcasts is that they prevent a number of complaints with traditional analogue broadcasts. For television, this includes the elimination of problems such as [snowy pictures](#), ghosting and other distortion. These occur because of the nature of analogue transmission, which means that perturbations due to [noise](#) will be evident in the final output. Digital transmission overcomes this problem because digital signals are reduced to discrete values upon reception and hence small perturbations do not affect the final output. In a simplified example, if a binary message 1011 was transmitted with signal amplitudes [1.0 0.0 1.0 1.0] and received with signal amplitudes [0.9 0.2 1.1 0.9] it would still decode to the binary message 1011 — a perfect reproduction of what was sent. From this example, a problem with digital transmissions can also be seen in that if the noise is great enough it can significantly alter the decoded message. Using

[forward error correction](#) a receiver can correct a handful of bit errors in the resulting message but too much noise will lead to incomprehensible output and hence a breakdown of the transmission.^{[54][55]}

In digital television broadcasting, there are three competing standards that are likely to be adopted worldwide. These are the ATSC, [DVB](#) and [ISDB](#) standards; the adoption of these standards thus far is presented in the captioned map. All three standards use [MPEG-2](#) for video compression. ATSC uses [Dolby Digital AC-3](#) for audio compression, ISDB uses [Advanced Audio Coding](#) (MPEG-2 Part 7) and DVB has no standard for audio compression but typically uses [MPEG-1 Part 3 Layer 2](#).^{[56][57]} The choice of modulation also varies between the schemes. In digital audio broadcasting, standards are much more unified with practically all countries choosing to adopt the [Digital Audio Broadcasting](#) standard (also known as the Eureka 147 standard). The exception being the United States which has chosen to adopt [HD Radio](#). HD Radio, unlike Eureka 147, is based upon a transmission method known as [in-band on-channel](#) transmission that allows digital information to "piggyback" on normal AM or FM analogue transmissions.^[58]

However, despite the pending switch to digital, analogue television remains transmitted in most countries. An exception is the United States that ended analogue television transmission on the 12th of June 2009^[59] after twice delaying the switch over deadline. For analogue television, there are three standards in use (see a map on adoption [here](#)). These are known as [PAL](#), [NTSC](#) and [SECAM](#). For analogue radio, the switch to digital is made more difficult by the fact that analogue receivers are a fraction of the cost of digital receivers.^{[60][61]} The choice of modulation for analogue radio is typically between [amplitude modulation](#) (AM) or [frequency modulation](#) (FM). To achieve [stereo playback](#), an amplitude modulated subcarrier is used for stereo FM.

The Internet

The Internet is a worldwide network of computers and computer networks that can communicate with each other using the [Internet Protocol](#).^[62] Any computer on the Internet has a unique [IP address](#) that can be used by other computers to route information to it. Hence, any computer on the Internet can send a message to any other computer using its IP address. These messages carry with them the originating computer's IP address allowing for two-way communication. The Internet is thus an exchange of messages between computers.^[63]

As of 2008, an estimated 21.9% of the world population has access to the Internet with the highest access rates (measured as a percentage of the population) in North America (73.6%), Oceania/Australia (59.5%) and Europe (48.1%).^[64] In terms of [broadband access](#), [Iceland](#) (26.7%), South Korea (25.4%) and the Netherlands (25.3%) led the world.^[65]

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The Internet works in part because of [protocols](#) that govern how the computers and routers communicate with each other. The nature of computer network communication lends itself to a layered approach where individual protocols in the protocol stack run more-or-less independently of other protocols. This allows lower-level protocols to be customized for the network situation while not changing the way higher-level protocols operate. A practical example of why this is important is because it allows an Internet browser to run the same code regardless of whether the computer it is running on is connected to the Internet through an [Ethernet](#) or [Wi-Fi](#) connection. Protocols are often talked about in terms of their place in the OSI reference model (pictured on the right), which emerged in 1983 as the first step in an unsuccessful attempt to build a universally adopted networking protocol suite.^[66]

For the Internet, the physical medium and data link protocol can vary several times as packets traverse the globe. This is because the Internet places no constraints on what physical medium or data link protocol is used. This leads to the adoption of media and protocols that best suit the local network situation. In practice, most intercontinental communication will use the Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM) protocol (or a modern equivalent) on top of optic fibre. This is because for most intercontinental communication the Internet shares the same infrastructure as the [public switched telephone network](#).

At the network layer, things become standardized with the [Internet Protocol](#) (IP) being adopted for [logical addressing](#). For the World Wide Web, these “IP addresses” are derived from the human readable form using the [Domain Name System](#) (e.g. [72.14.207.99](#) is derived from [www.google.com](#)). At the moment, the most widely used version of the Internet Protocol is version four but a move to version six is imminent.^[67]

At the transport layer, most communication adopts either the [Transmission Control Protocol](#) (TCP) or the [User Datagram Protocol](#) (UDP). TCP is used when it is essential every message sent is received by the other computer where as UDP is used when it is merely desirable. With TCP, packets are retransmitted if they are lost and placed in order before they are presented to higher layers. With UDP, packets are not ordered or retransmitted if lost. Both TCP and UDP packets carry [port numbers](#) with them to specify what application or [process](#) the packet should be handled by.^[68] Because certain application-level protocols use [certain ports](#), network administrators can manipulate traffic to suit particular requirements. Examples are to restrict Internet access by blocking the traffic destined for a particular port or to affect the performance of certain applications by assigning [priority](#).

Above the transport layer, there are certain protocols that are sometimes used and loosely fit in the session and presentation layers, most notably the [Secure Sockets Layer](#) (SSL) and Transport Layer Security (TLS) protocols. These

protocols ensure that the data transferred between two parties remains completely confidential and one or the other is in use when a padlock appears in the address bar of your web browser.^[69] Finally, at the application layer, are many of the protocols Internet users would be familiar with such as HTTP (web browsing), POP3 (e-mail), [FTP](#) (file transfer), IRC (Internet chat), [BitTorrent](#) (file sharing) and [OSCAR](#) (instant messaging).

Local area networks

Despite the growth of the Internet, the characteristics of [local area networks](#) (computer networks that run at most a few kilometres) remain distinct. This is because networks on this scale do not require all the features associated with larger networks and are often more cost-effective and efficient without them.

In the mid-1980s, several protocol suites emerged to fill the gap between the data link and applications layer of the OSI reference model. These were Appletalk, IPX and [NetBIOS](#) with the dominant protocol suite during the early 1990s being IPX due to its popularity with [MS-DOS](#) users. TCP/IP existed at this point but was typically only used by large government and research facilities.^[70] As the Internet grew in popularity and a larger percentage of traffic became Internet-related, local area networks gradually moved towards TCP/IP and today networks mostly dedicated to TCP/IP traffic are common. The move to TCP/IP was helped by technologies such as DHCP that allowed TCP/IP clients to discover their own network address — a functionality that came standard with the AppleTalk/IPX/NetBIOS protocol suites.^[71]

It is at the data link layer though that most modern local area networks diverge from the Internet. Whereas Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM) or [Multiprotocol Label Switching](#) (MPLS) are typical data link protocols for larger networks, [Ethernet](#) and Token Ring are typical data link protocols for local area networks. These protocols differ from the former protocols in that they are simpler (e.g. they omit features such as [Quality of Service](#) guarantees) and offer [collision prevention](#). Both of these differences allow for more economic set-ups.^[72]

Despite the modest popularity of Token Ring in the 80's and 90's, virtually all local area networks now use wired or wireless [Ethernet](#). At the physical layer, most wired Ethernet implementations use [copper twisted-pair cables](#) (including the common 10BASE-T networks). However, some early implementations used [coaxial cables](#) and some recent implementations (especially high-speed ones) use optic fibres.^[73] Where optic fibre is used, the distinction must be made between multi-mode fibre and single-mode fibre. [Multi-mode fibre](#) can be thought of as thicker optical fibre that is cheaper to manufacture devices for but that suffers from less usable bandwidth and greater attenuation (i.e. poor long-distance performance).

Global information system

Definition

There is a variety of definitions and understandings of a Global Information System (GIS, GLIS), such as

- **A global information system (GLIS)** is an information system which is developed and / or used in a global context. ^[1]
- A **global information system** (GLIS) is any [information system](#) which attempts to deliver the totality of measurable data worldwide within a defined context. (USF)

The term Global Information System has the same acronym is the same, the meaning is different from the term [Geographic Information Systems](#).

Common to this class of [information systems](#) is that the context is a global setting, either for its use or development process. This means that it highly relates to [distributed systems](#) / [distributed computing](#) where the distribution is global. The term also incorporates aspects of global software development and there [outsourcing](#) (when the outsourcing locations are globally distributed) and [offshoring](#) aspects. A specific aspect of global information systems is the case (domain) of global software development ^[2]. A main research aspect in this field concerns the coordination of and collaboration between virtual teams ^[3] ^[4]. Further important aspects are the [internationalization](#) and [language localization](#) of system components.

Tasks in Global Information Systems Design

Critical tasks in the design of Global Information Systems are

- **Process and System Design:** How are the processes between distributed actors organized, how are the systems distributed / integrated.
- **Technical architecture:** What is the technical infrastructure enabling actors to collaborate?
- **Support mechanisms:** How are actors in the process of communication, collaboration, cooperation supported?

A variety of examples can be found - basically, every multi-lingual website can be seen as a global information system. However, mostly a GLIS is referred as a specific system developed or used in the global context.

Examples

Specific examples are

- Systems developed for multinational users, e.g., [SAP as a global ERP system](#)
- Global Information Systems for Education: [The Global Learning Objects Brokered Exchange](#)
- Support systems for global cooperation: [Systems, e.g. Palantir](#)
- For the specific case of data integration : <http://data.un.org>,

Non-governmental organization

Non-governmental organization (NGO) is a term that has become widely accepted as referring to a legally constituted, non-[governmental](#) organization created by natural or legal persons with no participation or representation of any government. In the cases in which NGOs are funded totally or partially by governments, the NGO maintains its non-governmental status and excludes government representatives from membership in the organization. Unlike the term [intergovernmental organization](#), "non-governmental organization" is a term in general use but is not a legal definition. In many jurisdictions these types of organization are defined as "civil society organizations" or referred to by other names.

The number of [internationally operating NGOs](#) is estimated at 40,000.^[1] National numbers are even higher: [Russia](#) has 277,000 NGOs.^[2] [India](#) is estimated to have between 1 million and 2 million NGOs.^[3]

History

International non-governmental organizations have a history dating back to at least 1839.^[4] Rotary, later [Rotary International](#), was founded in 1904. It has been estimated that by 1914 there were 1083 NGOs.^[5] International NGOs were important in the anti-slavery movement and the movement for women's suffrage, and reached a peak at the time of the [World Disarmament Conference](#).^[6] However, the phrase "non-governmental organization" only came into popular use with the establishment of the [United Nations Organization](#) in 1945 with provisions in Article 71 of [Chapter 10 of the United Nations Charter](#)^[7] for a consultative role for organizations which are neither governments nor member states—see [Consultative Status](#). The definition of "international NGO" (INGO) is first given in resolution 288 (X) of ECOSOC on [February 27, 1950](#): it is defined as "any international organization that is not founded by an international treaty". The vital role of NGOs and other "major groups" in [sustainable development](#) was recognized in Chapter 27^[8] of [Agenda 21](#), leading to intense arrangements for a consultative relationship between the [United Nations](#) and non-governmental organizations.^[9]

Rapid development of the non-governmental sector occurred in western countries as a result of the processes of restructurization of the [welfare state](#). Further globalisation of that process occurred after the fall of the communist system and was an important part of the [Washington consensus](#) ^[10].

[Globalization](#) during the 20th century gave rise to the importance of NGOs. Many problems could not be solved within a nation. [International treaties](#) and international organizations such as the [World Trade Organization](#) were perceived as being too centred on the interests of capitalist enterprises. Some argued that in an attempt to counterbalance this trend, NGOs have developed to emphasize [humanitarian issues](#), [developmental aid](#) and [sustainable development](#). A prominent example of this is the [World Social Forum](#) which is a rival convention to the [World Economic Forum](#) held annually in January in [Davos, Switzerland](#). The fifth World Social Forum in [Porto Alegre, Brazil](#), in January 2005 was attended by representatives from more than 1,000 NGOs. ^[citation needed] Some have argued that in forums like these, NGOs take the place of what should belong to popular movements of the poor. Others argue that NGOs are often imperialist in nature, that they sometimes operate in a racialized manner in dominant countries, and that they fulfill a similar function to that of the clergy during the high colonial era. The philosopher [Peter Hallward](#) argues that they are an aristocratic form of politics. However, this philosophy would suggest that organizations of indigenous peoples are not represented, which is untrue. ^[11] Whatever the case, NGO transnational networking is now extensive.^[12]

Types of NGOs

Apart from "NGO", often alternative terms are used as for example: independent sector, volunteer sector, civil society, grassroots organizations, transnational social movement organizations, private voluntary organizations, self-help organizations and non-state actors (NSA's).

Non-governmental organizations are a heterogeneous group. A long list of acronyms has developed around the term "NGO".

These include:

- [BINGO](#) is short for business-oriented international NGO, or big international NGO;
- [CSO](#), short for civil society organization;
- DONGO: Donor Organized NGO;
- [ENGO](#): short for environmental NGO, such as [Global 2000](#);
- [GONGOs](#) are government-operated NGOs, which may have been set up by governments to look like NGOs in order to qualify for outside aid or promote the interests of the government in question;

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- [INGO](#) stands for international NGO; [Education charter international](#) is an international NGO
- [QUANGOs](#) are quasi-autonomous non-governmental organizations, such as the [International Organization for Standardization](#) (ISO). (The ISO is actually not purely an NGO, since its membership is by nation, and each nation is represented by what the ISO Council determines to be the 'most broadly representative' standardization body of a nation. That body might itself be a nongovernmental organization; for example, the United States is represented in ISO by the [American National Standards Institute](#), which is independent of the federal government. However, other countries can be represented by national governmental agencies; this is the trend in Europe.)
- TANGO: short for technical assistance NGO;
- GSO: [Grassroots Support Organization](#)
- MANGO: short for market advocacy NGO

There are also numerous classifications of NGOs. The typology the [World Bank](#) uses divides them into Operational and Advocacy:^[13]

The primary purpose of an operational NGO is the design and implementation of development-related [projects](#). One frequently used categorization is the division into *relief-oriented* versus *development-oriented* organizations; they can also be classified according to whether they stress [service](#) delivery or participation; or whether they are religious or secular; and whether they are more public or private-oriented. Operational NGOs can be [community](#)-based, national or international.

The primary purpose of an Advocacy NGO is to defend or promote a specific cause. As opposed to operational project management, these organizations typically try to raise awareness, acceptance and knowledge by lobbying, press work and activist events.

[USAID](#) refers to NGOs as *private voluntary organisations*. However many scholars have argued that this definition is highly problematic as many NGOs are in fact state and corporate funded and managed projects with professional staff.^[citation needed] Furthermore it has often been argued that USAID is in fact a key arm of American imperialism and that it sets up and supports NGOs in order to further imperial agendas. ^[14]

NGOs exist for a variety of reasons, usually to further the political or social goals of their members or funders. Examples include improving the state of the [natural environment](#), encouraging the observance of [human rights](#), improving the welfare of the disadvantaged, or representing a corporate agenda. However, there are a huge number of such organizations and their goals cover a broad range of political and philosophical positions. This can also easily be applied to private schools and athletic organizations.

Methods

NGOs vary in their methods. Some act primarily as lobbyists, while others primarily conduct programs and activities. For instance, an NGO such as [Oxfam](#), concerned with poverty alleviation, might provide needy people with the equipment and skills to find food and clean [drinking water](#), whereas an NGO like the [FFDA](#) helps through investigation and documentation of human rights violations and provides legal assistance to victims of human rights abuses. Others, such as [Afghanistan Information Management Services](#), provide specialized technical products and services to support development activities implemented on the ground by other organizations.

Public relations

Non-governmental organizations need healthy relationships with the public to meet their goals. Foundations and charities use sophisticated public relations campaigns to raise funds and employ standard lobbying techniques with governments. Interest groups may be of political importance because of their ability to influence social and political outcomes.

Consulting

Many international NGOs have a consultative status with United Nations agencies relevant to their area of work. As an example, the [Third World Network](#) has a consultative status with the [UN Conference on Trade and Development](#) (UNCTAD) and the [UN Economic and Social Council](#) (ECOSOC). While in 1946, only 41 NGOs had consultative status with the [ECOSOC](#), by 2003 this number had risen to 3,550.

Project management

There is an increasing awareness that management techniques are crucial to project success in non-governmental organizations.^[15] Generally, non-governmental organizations that are private have either a community or environmental focus. They address varieties of issues such as religion, emergency aid, or humanitarian affairs. They mobilize public support and voluntary contributions for aid; they often have strong links with community groups in developing countries, and they often work in areas where government-to-government aid is not possible. NGOs are accepted as a part of the international relations landscape, and while they influence national and multilateral policy-making, increasingly they are more directly involved in local action.

Staffing

Not all people working for non-governmental organizations are [volunteers](#). The reasons people volunteer are not necessarily purely [altruistic](#), and can provide immediate benefits for themselves as well as those they serve, including skills, experience, and contacts.

There is some dispute as to whether [expatriates](#) should be sent to developing countries. Frequently this type of personnel is employed to satisfy a [donor](#) who wants to see the supported project managed by someone from an [industrialized country](#). However, the expertise these employees or volunteers may have can be counterbalanced by a number of factors: the cost of [foreigners](#) is typically higher, they have no [grassroot connections](#) in the country they are sent to, and local expertise is often undervalued.^[13]

The NGO sector is an important employer in terms of numbers.^[citation needed] For example, by the end of 1995, [CONCERN worldwide](#), an international Northern NGO working against poverty, employed 174 expatriates and just over 5,000 national staff working in ten developing countries in [Africa](#) and [Asia](#), and in [Haiti](#).

Funding

Large NGOs may have annual budgets in the hundreds of millions or billions of dollars. For instance, the budget of the [American Association of Retired Persons](#) (AARP) was over US\$540 million in 1999.^[16] Funding such large budgets demands significant fundraising efforts on the part of most NGOs. Major sources of NGO funding include membership dues, the sale of [goods](#) and services, grants from international institutions or national governments, and private [donations](#). Several EU-grants provide funds accessible to NGOs.

Even though the term "non-governmental organization" implies [independence](#) from governments, most NGOs depend heavily on governments for their funding^[10]. A quarter of the US\$162 million income in 1998 of the [famine-relief](#) organization [Oxfam](#) was donated by the British government and the EU. The Christian relief and development organization [World Vision](#) collected US\$55 million worth of goods in 1998 from the American government. [Nobel Prize](#) winner [Médecins Sans Frontières](#) (MSF) (known in the USA as Doctors Without Borders) gets 46% of its income from government sources

Monitoring and control

In a March 2000 report on United Nations Reform priorities, former U.N. Secretary General Kofi Annan wrote in favor of international humanitarian intervention, arguing that the international community has a ["right to protect"](#) citizens of the world against ethnic cleansing, genocide, and crimes against humanity. On the heels of the report, the Canadian government launched the Responsibility to Protect R2PPDF (434 [KiB](#)) project, outlining the issue of

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humanitarian intervention. While the R2P doctrine has wide applications, among the more controversial has been the Canadian government's use of R2P to justify its intervention and support of the [coup](#) in Haiti.

Years after R2P, the [World Federalist Movement](#), an organization which supports "the creation of democratic global structures accountable to the citizens of the world and call for the division of international authority among separate agencies", has launched Responsibility to Protect - Engaging Civil Society (R2PCS). A collaboration between the WFM and the Canadian government, this project aims to bring NGOs into lockstep with the principles outlined under the original R2P project.

The governments of the countries an NGO works or is registered in may require reporting or other monitoring and oversight. Funders generally require reporting and assessment, such information is not necessarily publicly available. There may also be associations and watchdog organizations that research and publish details on the actions of NGOs working in particular geographic or program areas.^[citation needed]

In recent years, many large corporations have increased their [corporate social responsibility](#) departments in an attempt to preempt NGO campaigns against certain corporate practices. As the logic goes, if corporations work *with* NGOs, NGOs will not work *against* corporations.

In December 2007, The United States Department of Defense Assistant Secretary of Defense (Health Affairs) [\[1\]](#) established an [International Health Division](#) under Force Health Protection & Readiness [\[2\]](#). Part of International Health's mission is to communicate with NGOs in areas of mutual interest. Department of Defense Directive 3000.05 [\[3\]](#), in 2005, requires DoD to regard stability-enhancing activities as a mission of importance equal to warfighting. In compliance with [international law](#), DoD has necessarily built a capacity to improve essential services in areas of conflict such as [Iraq](#), where the customary lead agencies ([State Department](#) and [USAID](#)) find it difficult to operate. Unlike the "co-option" strategy described for corporations, the OASD(HA) recognizes the neutrality of health as an essential service. International Health cultivates collaborative relationships with NGOs, albeit at arms-length, recognizing their traditional independence, expertise and honest broker status. While the goals of DoD and NGOs may seem incongruent, the DoD's emphasis on stability and security to reduce and prevent conflict suggests, on careful analysis, important mutual interests.

Legal status

The legal form of NGOs is diverse and depends upon homegrown variations in each country's laws and practices. However, four main family groups of NGOs can be found worldwide:^[18]

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- Unincorporated and [voluntary association](#)
- [Trusts](#), [charities](#) and [foundations](#)
- Companies [not just for profit](#)
- Entities formed or registered under special NGO or [nonprofit](#) laws

NGOs are not subjects of [international law](#), as states are. An exception is the [International Committee of the Red Cross](#), which is subject to certain specific matters, mainly relating to the [Geneva Convention](#).

The [Council of Europe](#) in [Strasbourg](#) drafted the European Convention on the Recognition of the Legal Personality of International Non-Governmental Organizations in 1986, which sets a common legal basis for the existence and work of NGOs in Europe. Article 11 of the [European Convention on Human Rights](#) protects the right to freedom of association, which is also a fundamental norm for NGOs.] Citizen organization

There is a growing movement within the “non”-profit and “non”-government sector to define itself in a more constructive, accurate way. Instead of being defined by “non” words, organizations are suggesting new terminology to describe the sector. The term “civil society organization” (CSO) has been used by a growing number of organizations, such as the Center for the Study of Global Governance. The term “citizen sector organization” (CSO) has also been advocated to describe the sector — as one of citizens, for citizens. This labels and positions the sector as its own entity, without relying on language used for the government or business sectors. However some have argued that this is not particularly helpful given that most NGOs are in fact funded by governments and business and that some NGOs are clearly hostile to independently organized people's organizations.

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