
UNIT 1 UNDERSTANDING GLOBALISATION AND ITS RAMIFICATIONS-I (ECONOMY AND TECHNOLOGICAL)

Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
 - Aims and Objectives
- 1.2 Genesis of Economic Globalisation
- 1.3 Decelerating Global Economy and its Ramifications
- 1.4 Globalisation of Science and Technology
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 Terminal Questions
 - Suggested Readings

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Historically, globalisation is a flight of the development process of human civilisation from an isolated socio-economic formation of primitive society to present satellite stage of global interaction of economy and technology across the globe. As Amiya Bagchi puts it, “Globalisation, in its proper sense, is the sense of ordinary human beings experiencing and being enriched by influences emanating from all over the world, is coterminous with human history. Human beings probably originated in Africa and then spread throughout the globe. They invented language, and languages spread in all kinds of ways. Then human being domesticated plants and animals, and agriculture and animal husbandry were invented. These technologies, wherever they might have originated, in ancient China or in ancient Mesopotamia or, in Central America – also travelled throughout the world. Other technologies such as metallurgy also travelled. In this sense, globalisation has been there through all known phases of human history.” Also, “in the sense of peoples of all continents or regions becoming aware of one another, and trading objects and commodities, plants and techniques with one another – in that sense, globalisation has been with us only since the sixteenth century.” This term became popular with the process of global economic reforms, i.e., liberalisation of provisions of public sector, privatisation of public sector and relaxing national restrictions for global interaction.

Therefore it is also known as crossing national boundaries, internationalisation, universalisation, etc. Bagchi has also distinguished current phase of globalisation from the globalisation of sixteenth century. “Free trade and free markets have become *mantra* of the current devotees of globalisation”. Marx and Engels considered Free Trade as Freedom of Capital which will necessarily result into sharpening antagonism of capitalist and wage workers. The process of integration has gradually been faster than ever before with the experiences of world economy, polity, institutions, technologies, societies, cultures, markets, etc. Thus, globalisation has acquired important place and has been a centre of debates in social sciences. Expert opinions have been mixed and divided on the consequences and ramifications of globalisation. Many of them have advocated globalisation as panacea for all sorts of crises that the humanity is facing today but it could not do so because of the absence of proper reform process. However, there are other experts with contrary views which considered present streams of globalisation harmful for poor and marginalised and hardly sustainable. Now the world economy is in the trap of global meltdown which is potentially greater than that of Great Depression of 1930s. This Unit intends to understand the processes, challenges and ramifications of globalisation with respect to economy and technology.

Aims and Objectives

After reading this Unit, you would be able to understand:

- The concept and meaning of Globalisation.
- The genesis of economic globalisation and its ill-effects.
- The globalisation of science and technology.

1.2 GENESIS OF ECONOMIC GLOBALISATION

At the level of organised thought if one attempts to deal with the process of economic globalisation through history of economic thought if not earlier than mercantilism, one could trace that the trade was considered as the most important factor to acquire precious metals as wealth for which the state was the powerful mechanism to exploit colonies, promote exports and restrict imports during the sixteenth and late seventeenth centuries. However, Physiocrats advocated *lessez fair* economy free from all restrictions, i.e. a true

sense of globalisation. Eighteenth century, with industrial revolution, reinforced restricted globalisation and politics of dominance. Even the limited scale of industrial production in developing countries under colonies was destroyed systematically to capture hinterland for their industrial products and raw material for their industrial requirements. Trafficking of indentured labourers from colony to industrialised country was another dimension of globalisation of enslaved people. As Maddison says, “this is not for the first time that the world has experienced globalisation. At the end of 19th century massive migration took place from Europe and Asia to Australia and North and South America. Between 1891 and 1900, more than 3.5 million immigrants landed in the United States, 8.8 millions more followed in the next decade. The 19th century also witnessed an enormous expansion in trade. Globalisation of arms and domination resulted in two World Wars towards relocating control and hegemony. Great Depression was another dimension of globalising crises which emerged in the experiments of industrialism and clash of interest. The Communist Manifesto of Marx and Engels reveal that: “The need of a constantly expanding market for its products chases the bourgeoisie over the whole surface of the globe. It must nestle everywhere, settle everywhere, establish connexions everywhere” (Marx & Engels, 1888, p.46). He further emphasised that “The bourgeoisie has through its exploitation of the world market given a cosmopolitan character of production and consumption in every country” (ibid). Various dimensions of globalisation emerged since industrial revolution. “All old established national industries have been destroyed or are daily being destroyed. They are daily being dislodged by new industries, whose introduction becomes a life and death question for all civilised nations, by industries that no longer work up indigenous raw material, but raw material drawn from the remotest zones; industries whose products are consumed, not only at home, but in every quarter of the globe” (ibid). Capitalism emerged with stronger imperialist approach in due course which created keen competition among them. As Lenin observed, “The more capitalism is developed, the more strongly the shortage of raw material is felt, the more intense the competition and the hunt for sources of raw materials through out the whole world, the more desperate the struggle for the acquisition of colonies”. Gandhi was equally sensitised about the expansion of capitalism. He argued that if India has to grow on the path of industrialism, she had to find races and places for exploitation

(Gandhi, 1926, p.348). Gandhi was not against globalisation *per se* but his concept of global village reflects altogether an alternative paradigm of development with self-contented villages, still interdependent on each other with harmonious relations and away from the exploitative globalisation of industrialism, capital and finance. Therefore it will be an erroneous, to link the Gandhian concept of global village, as many policy makers do, and find similarity and derive strength for the present globalisation. The leading role in development of modern industrialism in the world was played by Europe, which basically focused on the development of physical force in order to exercise control over non-renewable resources and market which in turn led to competing conflict. Clash of interest among the capitalist forces led to two World Wars and losses of lives and property of the people.

The consequences of the First World War in 1914 followed by cut throat competition and cheap prices, the Great Depression of 1929 and later the Second World War resulted in a series of mechanisms of the World Governance. Emergence of welfare state was a logical culmination and it was found necessary to counter the evils of growing unemployment. Emergence of United Nations and international financial institutions – International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) popularly known as the World Bank and International Monetary Funds (IMF), United Nations Council for Trade and Development (UNCTAD), General Agreements on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), World Trade Organisation (WTO) and many such international institutions are the examples of new mechanisms of control and governance in the hands of dominant players of the world. These institutions are cartels of developed nations in order to operate in the global market and particularly for sharing developing world market and gain control over non-renewable natural resources. However, the international welfare agencies (for example, WHO, UNESCO, UNICEF, etc.,) are the by-products to project and cover welfare posture of the capital from uninterrupted expansion and growth in the global market. Therefore, globalisation of market and control is the culmination of the politics of control initially through war technology and later through welfare mechanism, policies and development loans.

Analytical framework was even sharper when Gandhi emphasised that development of modern industrialism requires exploitation of races and places. He says: “Industrialism is, I am afraid, going to be curse for mankind. Exploitation of one nation by another nation can not go for all times ... And if the future of industrialism is dark for the west would it not be darker for India?” (Gandhi, 1931). He further added: “In fact, India when it begins to exploit other nations-as it must if it becomes industrialised, will be a curse for other nations and menace to the world”. Despite having altogether different worldview, the Gandhian critique on industrialism comes closer to Bolshevik colonial thesis conceptualising imperialism as a necessary development stage of capitalism. Further elaboration and refinement of this concept can be seen in the analysis of development of the centre at the cost of periphery (Frank, 1967, p.313) and imperialism as permanent phase of capitalism (Ado, 1986). Thus, regional disparity and unequal development is inevitable in the capitalist approach of development in which industrialism necessarily means exploitation of one region and people by another. The advantages of accumulation have historically been in favour of the developed countries.

1.3 DECELERATING GLOBAL ECONOMY AND ITS RAMIFICATIONS

In order to generate employment and income for the workforce, growing economy is one of the essential conditions. Therefore, growth scenario of the world economy may provide basis to understand world employment and their regional distribution. Long-term view of real growth rates of the world economy suggests that global economy has been growing with declining rates except in 1940s and 1960s as shown in table 1. The world economy, which grew by 1.3 per cent in 1930s, was rescued through government initiatives enunciated by Keynes in his General Theory. The world economy grew by 5.8 per cent in 1940s, which was highest and considered as golden age of capitalism. But this could not be maintained later and in 1950s growth rates declined to 4.1 per cent which witnessed marginal recovery to 4.4 per cent in 1960s.

Table 1: Growth in Real GDP during 1930 - 2007

Decade	Average Annual (%)
1930s	1.3
1940s	5.9
1950s	4.1
1960s	4.4
1970s	3.3
1980s	3.1
1990s	3.1
2000-07	2.6

Source: Foster and Magdoff (2008, p.16)

There had been consecutive decline in growth rates of 1970s at 3.3 per cent and 3.1 per cent in 1980s, which, in 2007, came down to 2.6 per cent.

Regional disparity in growth is also very sharp. A quick look at the balance sheet of market driven reforms and development in the last one decade suggests that most of the developed nations could not exceed annual growth rates of GDP more than 2.5 per cent (Table 2). According to the data available from International Labour Organisation (ILO), the annual growth rate during 1993-2003 suggests that the world has grown by 3.5 per cent. Highest growth rate was registered by East Asia (8.5 per cent) followed by South Asia (5.5 per cent). South-East Asia registered growth rate above the world average rate of growth i.e., to the tune of 4.4 per cent. Middle East and North Africa is exactly at par with world (3.5 per cent). Growth rates of Sub-Saharan Africa (2.9 per cent) and Latin America and the Caribbean (2.6 per cent) are although much lower than that of the world, they are still above than that of the industrialised economies (2.5 per cent). The transition economies have registered almost stagnating growth rate of 0.2 per cent. This shows unevenness of distribution of growth in the world as Dr. Diwakar says. The declining growth rates have necessary implications as lower resources at the disposal of humanity potentially results in lower investment and lower employment, lower demand, further aggravating crises of industrial development leading to a syndrome of structural violence (Diwakar, 2007).

Table 2: Region Wise Growth, Employment and Productivity in the World (1993-2003)

Region	Annual Growth Rate of GDP	Change in Employment Population Ratio	Annual Growth Rate of Labour Force	Labour Productivity	
				Annual Growth Rate	Percentage Change
World	3.5	-1.06	1.8	1.0	10.9
Latin America and the Caribbean	2.6	0.0	2.3	0.1	1.2
East Asia	8.3	-1.92	1.3	5.8	75.0
South East Asia	4.4	-1.32	2.4	2.0	21.6
South Asia	5.5	0.0	2.3	3.3	37.9
Middle East and North Africa	3.5	2.20	3.3	0.1	0.9
Sub- Saharan Africa	2.9	0.61	2.8	-0.2	-1.5
Transition Economies	0.2	-9.01	-0.1	2.3	25.4
Industrialised Economies	2.5	1.26	0.8	1.4	14.9

Source: World Employment Report, 2004-05, p.27.

Scenario of employment too is not encouraging as the employment population ratio of the world has declined by 1.26 per cent (i.e., from 63.3 per cent in 1993 to 62.5% in 2003). Annual growth rate of labour force has increased by 1.8% and labour productivity by 1%. Exceptions apart, most of the economies have witnessed either declining rate of change in employment population ratio or remained stagnant. Even East Asian countries with robust growth rate of 8.3% have registered declining rate of change in employment population ratio. Although, Middle East and North Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa and industrialised economies have registered positive rate of change in employment population ratio, scenario of labour productivity is very disappointing. Growth rate and rate of change in labour productivity remained negative in case of Sub-Saharan Africa, possibly because of highest growth rate of labour force. Declining rate of change in employment population ratio is sharpest in case of Transition economies. On the whole the world is heading towards a syndrome of jobless growth.

Despite 3.5% growth of GDP of the world, data also suggest that there has been addition in unemployed lot. Rate of unemployment has increased from 5.6% in 1993 to 6.2% in

2003 (Table 3), even after addition in people in work and employment. Unemployment rate is highest in the Middle East and North Africa (12.2%) followed by Sub-Saharan Africa (10.9 per cent) and Latin America and the Caribbean registered 8%. Exceptions apart, unemployment has been rising. Unemployment rate even in the industrialised countries is 6.8%. Although unemployment rate in South Asia remained stagnant, most of the regions of the world witnessed rising unemployment in the 1990s. Out of 2.85 billion people in work at the end of 2005, 1.4 billion people still do not earn above the US\$2 a day poverty line – just as many as ten years ago. Among these, 520 million lived with their families in extreme poverty on less than US\$1 a day. Nearly every fifth worker of this world has to face the most impossible situation of surviving with less than US\$1 a day in 21st century of acclaimed progress of industrialism.

Table 3: Region Wise Distribution of Unemployment Rate and Poverty in the World during

Region	Unemployment Rate		Working Poverty Share					
			US\$ 1 per day			US\$ 2 per day		
	1993	2003	1980	1990	2003	1980	1990	2003
World	5.6	6.2	40.3	27.5	19.7	59.8	57.2	49.7
Latin America and the Caribbean	6.9	8.0	15.6	16.1	13.5	41.2	39.3	33.1
East Asia	2.4	3.3	71.1	35.9	17.0	92.0	79.1	49.2
South East Asia	3.9	6.3	37.6	19.9	11.3	73.4	69.1	58.8
South Asia	4.8	4.8	64.7	53.0	38.1	95.5	93.1	87.5
Middle East and North Africa	12.1	12.2	5.0	3.9	2.9	40.3	33.9	30.4
Sub-Saharan Africa	11.0	10.9	53.4	55.8	55.8	85.5	89.1	89.0
Transition Economies	6.3	9.2	1.6	1.7	5.2	1.7	5.0	23.6
Industrialised Economies	8.0	6.8	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: World Employment Report 2004-05, p.24 and 27.

Working condition of the workers even in the industrialised countries remained inhuman added with long hours and one third of minimum wages (Yates, 2006). Cross country analysis suggests that unemployment has direct relation with poverty (Hansda and Ray, 2006). Table 2 suggests that the world constitutes 19.7 per cent of working people in extreme poverty at US\$ 1 day. Sub-Saharan Africa has the highest concentration of poverty (55.8%) among working people, followed by South Asia (38.1%) in terms of extreme poverty line of US\$ 1 a day. Taking US\$ 2 a day for international poverty about 49.7% among the working people are poor. About 89% of Sub-Saharan Africa and 87.5%

working people are poor. The proportion of working poor in Sub-Saharan Africa remained almost unchanged during the last thirteen years (1990-2003). Spread of poverty among working poor in South East Asia and East Asia was to the tune of 58.8 and 49.2% respectively. Although the chances are bleak, if the volume of poor are reduced to the halves by 2015 as per United Nations Declaration, there will still be 900 millions people living in extreme poverty, 826 million people undernourished and nearly one billion people will still lack access to improved water resources (Human Development Report 2001, p.22). FAO reveals that about 850 millions are malnourished, 9 million human being die because of hunger, out of which 5 millions are children, loss of 220 million human years of productive lives, out of 850 million undernourished, 815 are from developing countries, 28 millions in transition states and 9 millions in industrialised states (FAO, 2005).

Around 2.5 billion people of the world are living on less than \$2 a day and process of reduction in poverty has slowed down in recent years particularly in 1990s. In such a situation, possibility of coming out of poverty syndrome with the present development paradigm and growth structure, need to be examined. ILO considered IMF estimated average GDP growth rates for last one decade (1995-2005) and projection thereof for required growth rates to meet MDG targets. Projection suggests that the world, except the industrialised economies, has a possibility to achieve halving US \$1 a day working poverty but there is remote chance to achieve halving US \$ 2 a day working poverty (Table 4). Region-wise analysis suggests that East Asia has fair chance to achieve targets and South Asia has although potential to achieve halving US \$1 a day working poverty target, there is no possibility to cross US \$2 a day target.

Table 4: GDP Growth Rates Required to Halve Working Poverty (MDG) by 2015

Region	IMF Average GDP Growth Rate (%)	Growth Rate Required to Halve working poverty/day	
		1995- 2005	US \$1
1. World except: (a) Industrialized economies	5.0	4.7	10+
(b) East Asia and industrialized economies	3.8	5.3	10+
2. Transition Economies	3.3	4-5	8-10
3. East Asia	7.9	3-4	6-8
4. South East Asia	4.1	4-5	10+
5. South Asia	5.8	5-6	10+
6. Latin America and the Caribbean	2.4	3-4	4-6
7. Middle East and North Africa	4.0	4-5	8-10
8. Sub- Saharan Africa	3.7	8+	10+

Source: World Employment Report 2004-05, p.27

Thus, MDG is not going to be achieved with this jobless growth syndrome (ILO, 2005). However, these projections have subjective elements of present intensity of poverty reduction with 1 per cent growth rate, which implies that policy changes may have significant impacts on results. If the trend is any indicative, the result may lead towards worst kind of structural violence.

Foster and Magdoff (2008), analysing the US economy, suggested that there was falling tendencies in ratio of wage and salaries to national income and rise of profit and inequality. Wage of non-agriculture worker per 8 hours was \$71.92 in 1972 which came down to \$65.92 in 2006. Household consumption expenditure increased from 60% of GDP in 1960s to 70% of GDP in 2007. There was decline in saving and investment and increase in credit economy delinked with real economy. Household debt increased from 40% of GDP in 1960 to 100% of GDP in 2007. Household private debt GDP ratio has gone up in USA - in 1959 it was 151% and in 2007 it became 373%. Household debt servicing has increased. Net investment in the economy declined from 3% to 2%. Retrenchment and downsizing remunerations have become the order of the day for any

and every country. In order to save industries, industrially advanced nations started bailing-out packages to rescue their economy from financial crises, which is inconsistent with the logic of market reform. When market needed open space free from state regulation the argument forwarded that state should not intervene and let the market forces decide.

Table 5: Bail Out Package in a Few Select Countries

Country	Bail Out Package	Country	Bail Out Package
USA bn dollar	\$700	Germany	50 bn Euro
Japan	\$716	EU	\$260 bn
China	\$586	Canada	\$30 bn
Australia	\$28 bn	France	\$18 bn

Source: Financial Express dated 11.02.2009.

The tax payers' money is being given as bail-out package to rescue the corporate world from financial crises as shown in table 5. Developing nations have also not been spared from the heat of global meltdown. For the developing nations, bailing-out has been difficult and impacts negatively on the living conditions.

1.4 GLOBALISATION OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

In the stage of primitive social formation, the human being was completely subordinated to nature in absence of development of productive forces, i.e., technology and skills. With little scope for wider interaction and therefore technological and geographical limited knowledge, the isolated society remained almost insurmountable stumbling block until human being could learn to make pointed tools of stone, to use fire and melt metal particularly iron. The accumulation of material resources for livelihood paved the way for inventing tools and arms for hunting and wars in order to control over means of production. Invention of compass was perhaps the most significant scientific breakthrough of the time to expand geographical knowledge and access to and control over resources.

History suggests that a society could achieve a higher level of consciousness and comfort through practice and accumulation of knowledge. Subject to natural and uninterrupted flow and transmission from one region to another, this accumulated knowledge has

always contributed to reduce hardships of society. The unfolding laws of nature by various scholars provided scientific flow to progress. For example, discovery of counting of one to nine by the Arab and Zero by the Aryabhata in India made the counting easier not only for the world of Mathematics but also for the daily life of the human society. Discovery of the Law of Gravitation by Newton, Theory of Density by Archimedes, Theory of Relativity by Einstein, discovery of dialectical materialism and class struggle as the laws of nature by Marx and numerous such discoveries and inventions revolutionised the society and the world of Science and Technologies and contributed enormously to ease the hardships of society. Development of handicrafts with science and technology resulted in Industrial Revolution. Invention of steam engine by James Watt, steam locomotives by George Stephenson and aeroplane by Wright brothers revolutionised transport. Development of machinery and technology empowered human beings to subordinate nature to greater extent. Medical Science and Technology has increased life expectancy and quality of life. Space Research Satellites have made revolution in the world of Information Technology and stretched human limbs from one part of the globe to another. Since the days of the introduction of iron, agriculture was revolutionised for minimising the risk of the vagaries of monsoon, quality of seeds, fertiliser and pesticides, mechanisation, storage, marketing, etc., and world production in agriculture has scaled an appreciable heights. The question of food insecurity has been addressed in a better way. However, there is a long way to go. Thus, globalisation of knowledge and technology has made the life easier and comfortable subject to equity and access towards serving humanity.

Gardner (2002) observed that Transfer of technology on an international basis is critical for sustainable development in the twenty first century, and requires a techno-cultural shift from the current models for technology transfer that are driven almost entirely by the domestic economy. The twenty-first century model for technology transfer must incorporate the latest in information technology and utilise the global marketplace. He argued that under an open exchange of technology knowledge: i) efficient technologies will benefit both industrialising and industrialised economies, ii) an open approach to technology commercialisation will benefit emerging and existing technology-based

economies. Mayer (2000), investigating Central Europe and East Asian countries, found that an important determinant of the benefits which low-income countries can reap from globalisation is that they can ignite a simultaneous increase of technology imports and the skill level of the domestic labour force. He further emphasised that the coordination of such efforts is crucial because investment in human capital alone will lead to diminishing returns of skill accumulation, while increased technology transfer alone is unlikely to be enduring and might have negative developmental effects from rising income inequality. Lessons from the East Asian development experience suggested that rapid industrialisation and skill accumulation were achieved by the expansion of the education system in conjunction with a step-by-step upgrading of the skill intensity of economic activities. Doing so not only reduced the technology gap with advanced countries and raised the demand for educated labour, but also provided the training and experience needed to realise the economic potential of educated workers. The difference is that in low-income countries this upward spiral does not necessarily need to occur in skill-intensive manufacturing activities but depending on the specific sectors in which a country has a competitive edge might need to be based in primary sectors, unskilled labour-intensive manufacturing, or services where this diversity reflects the heterogeneity within the group of low-income countries, to the extent that these efforts imply increased budgetary spending. The low-income countries are at a disadvantage because the problem of mobilising additional government revenue is likely to be most acute in the poorest countries and especially difficult without external sources of finance.

Moreover, these developments of productive forces could hardly remain class neutral and away from the diplomacy of hegemony and control and hence restricted to the benefit of dominant stakeholders. However, many civilisations could grow and flourish across the globe with remarkable achievements, a parallel world of deprived paid their cost and could hardly taste the fruits of development and modernity, as beneficiary of scientific and technological control emerged powerful to enslave, colonise and exploit them. Thus, the world has been divided between the developed and otherwise. Colonisation and subordination of territory, society and economy are another process of globalisation of power and control of the dominant players. Moreover, hazards of technology have also

been globalised. Nuclear power has posed a global threat which devastated Nagasaki and Hiroshima of Japan. Fast communication of dreaded diseases like AIDS reached developing nations and drug addiction has been swallowing youths.

Gandhi had an alternative framework of science and technology which was essentially people-centric and problem resolving. He rejected an uncritical application of big machines where small machines could serve the purpose and also improve the efficiency of labour. He was in favour of technology for need-based production for masses instead of mass production for competition, marketing and profits through industrialism. Gandhi warned against the fall out of industrialism. He was, however, not sure about the appropriate technology but he had in his mind a framework of technology like sewing machine which could make an individual efficient without aggravating unemployment. Symbolic evidence was his advocacy for *Charkha*, for which wood, carpenter, cotton, weavers, end users, etc., all are available from the surroundings of villages. He was not against the use of technology as such but vehemently opposed to such technology which could deprive workforce from employment. Uncritical development of technology and gaps in its access and application has posed serious challenges and consequences also. Globalisation of war industry and completion of acquiring war technology to the extent of atomic weapon has brought the world to the verge of destruction. There is massive malnourished population who are unattended but billions of dollars are spent on the defence and war technology. The Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI) estimated that global military expenditure was to the tune of \$950 billion in 2003, which was an increase of 11%, out of which high-income countries account 75% with merely 16% of population. The combined military spending of these countries was slightly higher than the aggregate foreign debt of all low-income countries and 10 times higher than their combined levels of official development assistance in 2001. On the one hand, there is a large gap between the allocation for military means to provide security and maintain their global and regional power status and on the other, to alleviate poverty and promote economic development. The US tops the list of countries with significant military spending.

Carbon emissions have precariously disturbed the ozone equilibrium and resulted in the growing global warming. Globalisation and technology are two prime drivers of the global economy. High rates of innovations, globalisation of research and development, and the emerging markets are becoming source of low-cost research and development initiatives. These markets need technology for maximising profit, which is necessarily labour saving. Thus, technology developed for industrialism and market can hardly meet the challenges of unemployment and poverty. This demands an alternative techno-cultural development paradigm to address this challenge where Gandhi needs to be recalled and suitable technology is to be reinvented to make the lives of society comfortable with sustainability.

1.5 SUMMARY

Globalisation is coterminous with human history but now it is referred to in terms of trade and commerce. However, the current phase of globalisation is different free trade and free markets have become prominent factors. Globalising industrialism has brought the world economy to the syndrome of recession and has become further vulnerable after global meltdown. The world is fast heading towards jobless growth, as distribution of growth rates and employment has not been able to address the question of rising unemployment and poverty. Development of technology did reduce the hardships by increasing production but has been slow in generating employment to masses which have definite implications on demand and ensuring access of technology to common masses. Gandhi warned humanity long ago about the underlining fall out of industrialism. The need of the hour is to work out an alternative development paradigm and consistent labour intensive eco-friendly technology for sustainable development of global society for peace.

1.6 TERMINAL QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by globalisation? Trace the origins of economic Globalisation.
2. What are the ill-effects of economic Globalisation?
3. 'Globalisation of science and technology has brought about progress and development'. Discuss with relevant arguments.

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