

Africa: Diversity and Development

Globalisation: Who stands or is left apart?

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Abstract

Does globalization mean effective global equity? Some authors such as Scott (2001) argue that globalization has made the globe flat based on the fact that the evolution of transport and telecommunications allows extraordinary interconnectedness of all parts of the planet; whereas Blij (2009) argues the opposite by considering cultural and geographical factors that play fundamental role in determining the limitation of that flatness. This paper discusses the validity of those two arguments based on literature review and, the most important, supported by statistical data from the World Bank, United Nations and other equally relevant sources. The aim of all the discussion is to demonstrate the validity of both arguments by considering political, natural, cultural and socio-economic variants both at national and international level. Thus, issues such as immigration policies, market regulations, international aid, gender, vulnerability to natural disasters, tradability of cultural elements, and attractiveness of some places over others, and personal willingness to move around are critically discussed. International Financial Institutions along with Multinational Corporations are found to be the forehead bodies of globalization for which the planet is flat, where all physical barriers have been lifted, and there are opportunities for everyone. However, statistics and geographical data revealed determinant differences not only between nations but also within national regions in terms of their contribution for and benefiting from globalization. Therefore, although the revolution of transport and telecommunication has lifted physical barriers and made the planet flat, not every citizen of the globe is benefiting from that. To those citizens the planet is not as flat as it must be for the relatively few wealthy and globally competent people.

Key-words: globalization, flat planet, political, cultural, socio-economic factors

Does globalisation mean global equity? To what extent can it be considered a global panacea? According to (Guttal, 2007: p.524), on the one hand, “the proponents of globalisation claim that it will create convergences of income, access to knowledge and technology, consumption power, living standards, and political ideals”; on the other hand, the author continues, “its critics argue that globalisation is hegemonic, antagonism to the poor and vulnerable, and is debilitating local and national economies, communities, and the environment”. What is true about globalisation? It is of core importance discussing about globalisation and its various manifestations throughout the world – that form its aura – in order to understand whether it is shaping the world sustainably and equitably or not. The fundament of this importance is the assumption according to which “Love it or hate it, globalisation is here to stay” (Naím, 2009: p.28). Furthermore, the forces and impact of globalisation seem to be undeniable if the 2009 world economy recession is taken as example and mainly if its rapid spreading from national level to global radius is analysed; the effects of the so-called sub-prime mortgages took sole eighteen months to cross the borders of the United States and Britain and reach even the third world (Madeley, 2009: p.52). This is a factual manifestation of globalisation that neither can be denied nor ignored, especially by the third world that is supposed to be equally taking advantages of it. Does the wealth flow run globally as rapidly as the last world economic recession did, from the wealthiest to the poorest? In other words, to what extent the economic growth of China modifies social and economic relations in a Sub-Saharan country such as Mozambique? How long does it take to reach there? Probably it requires better intentional articulation of factors for that to happen. Regarding the survival of the weak locals to the power of transnationals, Amin (2002, p.392) claims that “Whereas the pessimists prophesise the loss of local economic integrity and autonomy under the pressure of transnational geographies, the optimists rush around looking for localised economic spaces in order to argue that cities and regions find their competitive advantage in the virtues of face-to-face contact and trust, local know-how, local clustering”. Thus, these are the key issues that will be addressed in this paper, which seeks to discuss two apparently opposing statements about globalisation, as follows:

In the immediate post World War II decades almost all major...countries were marked by strong central governments and rather tightly bordered national economies...today after much economic restructuring and technological change, significant transformations of this older order of things have occurred virtually across the world, bringing in the their train the outlines of a new social grammar of space, or new world system...the resurgence of region-based forms of economic and political organization, with the most overt expression of this tendency being in the formation of large global city-regions. These city-regions form

a global mosaic that now seems to be overriding in important ways the spatial structure of core-periphery relationships that has hitherto characterized much of the macro-geography of capitalist development (Scott, 2001).

The earth physically as well as culturally still is very rough terrain and in crucial ways its compartments continue to trap billions in circumstances that spell disadvantage. The place of place and fate of people are linked by many strands ranging from physical area to natural environment to durable culture and local tradition...earth may be a planet of shrinking functional distances but it remains a world of staggering situational differences. From the uneven distribution of natural resources to the unequal availability of opportunity, place remains a powerful arbiter...of the seven billion current passengers on cruiser ship earth, the overwhelming majority (the myth of mass migration notwithstanding) will die very near the cabin they were born (Blij, 2009).

It is a fact that globalisation has lifted spatial and geopolitical barriers among nations and has enhanced the global connectivity through easy telecommunications and transport networks, which makes much easier the flow of different products, knowledge, people, and so on. Despite that, not everyone and everything gets into that flow for various reasons including political, natural, cultural, socio-economic issues.

International and national policies are supposed to be synchronised in terms of migration policies, market regulations, international aid, gender, and so forth in order to make the globalisation equally advantageous to either developed nations or their developing counterparts. Guttal (2007, p.525), when discussing its origins and actors, claims that globalisation “is the result of specially conceived, planned, and targeted neo-liberal policy and structural measures that sought to bring all aspects of social, economic, and political life under the rubric of market capitalism”, and then he concludes that the process took hold with, among other actions, the International Financial Institutions (IFI) making imposition on developing nations for structural adjustment programmes (SAP). The Foreign Direct Investment, hereafter FDI, is an important driver of technology and innovation transfer across the globe, but how equally it benefits the country’s population depends largely on the national development policies (Archibugi & Pietrobelli, 2003, p.862-863). In fact, “China’s economic reforms and open-door policy have resulted in a phenomenal growth of trade and FDI flows”, and as result the country “has become the largest recipient of FDI among the developing countries and globally the second (next only to US) since 1993” (Zhang & Zhang, 2003). At macro-economic level, it brought very positive outcomes such as gaining capacity to shift towards a market-oriented system and raising national

GDP to the point that the country is now the second biggest economy in the world. However, national policies are supposed to seek equitable development within a country. Unfortunately that is not the case of China, where, according to Zhang & Zhang (2003, p.51), coastal areas have received far more attention and then attracted more FDI than the inlands. This unequal focus caused unbalanced distribution of wealth in the country.

For example, more precisely the figures of trade volume generated by those regions within China differ considerably, with coastal provinces contributing with more than 86% of total, which finds justification in the fact that this region attracted equivalent percentage of FDI; elucidative, in 1998, provinces such as Shanghai, Guangdong and Jiangsu from the coastal area were ranked top three in attracting FDI, whereas the bottom three provinces were from inland, namely Jilin, Guizhou and Inner Mongolia (Zhang & Zhang, 2003). This example raises up more than simply advantages of coastal provinces over the inland ones, but also raises up questions regarding the contribution of international policies for those inequalities. Organisations such as International Monetary Fund, hereafter IMF, practically determine what kind of socio-economic policies FDI recipient countries must apply. For example, Payer (1975, p.64-65) argues in his book section entitled *The IMF and Third World*, that “all such programs which involve income redistribution through government policy are considered distortions of free-market forces, and thus undesirable, by IMF advisors”, and the author goes further by arguing that “the policies that they require penalize the average citizen by reducing his income and raising the prices of essential goods and services”, as well as domestic enterprises collapse due to IMF demands.

Moreover, not only the attraction of FDI matters but also the way it articulates with local development priorities in terms of establishing an interdependent framework towards the attainment of human development goals, such as the Millennium Development Goals. Here, once again, crucial political strength and righteousness from both sides is necessary to establish an equilibrium between local, national, regional and international forces for the benefit of the most vulnerable citizens (Naím, 2009; Madeley, 2009; O'Connor, 2013). Indeed, Malawi has been facing serious threats regarding national food security and environmental sustainability due to the fact that the farmers have shifted from food production to tobacco farming using arable lands; additionally, the process of drying tobacco leaves requires large amount of wood that is slowly burnt; this sector employs 70% of the country's workforce and it is financed by external capital at the cost of rapid deforestation, weak food security and future environmental problems (Madeley, 2009). This is clearly indicative of IFI's imposing over national policies and being successful at

the price of the country becoming structurally weak and on the path for perpetuating basic issues of development such as food security.

Another delicate and secular issue that does deserve political attention is gender equity based on women empowerment in order to emancipate this social group that is traditionally marginalised. Indeed, “still, even in the wealthiest societies of the West, women have not achieved economic equality (...) if there are inequalities in Britain, things are much worse elsewhere” (Bradley, 2013); moreover, the globalisation opens opportunities of employment in various forms but it tends to benefit more men than women “because of restrictions caused by gender discrimination; women experience limited access to markets and resources (land and other assets, credits, information, technologies)” and other cultural and political impediments (Rakauskiene & Krinickiene, 2012). Thus, this is a global issue that deserved a special attention of international development agencies through the advocacy of the World Trade Organisation (WTO), and gender equity has become a global challenge. This is an elucidative example of recognition of the potential for unequal distribution of wealth among sexes and the globalisation of addressing such issue worldwide. As evidence, the table 1 below illustrates the inequality prevailing with regards to women’s participation in their country’s economy, both developed and developing countries are represented in the figures that attempts to represent different scenarios within the two contexts. It is clear that there is no direct or even equivalent proportionality between the overall population distribution by sex and the contribution of each sex for the country’s economy.

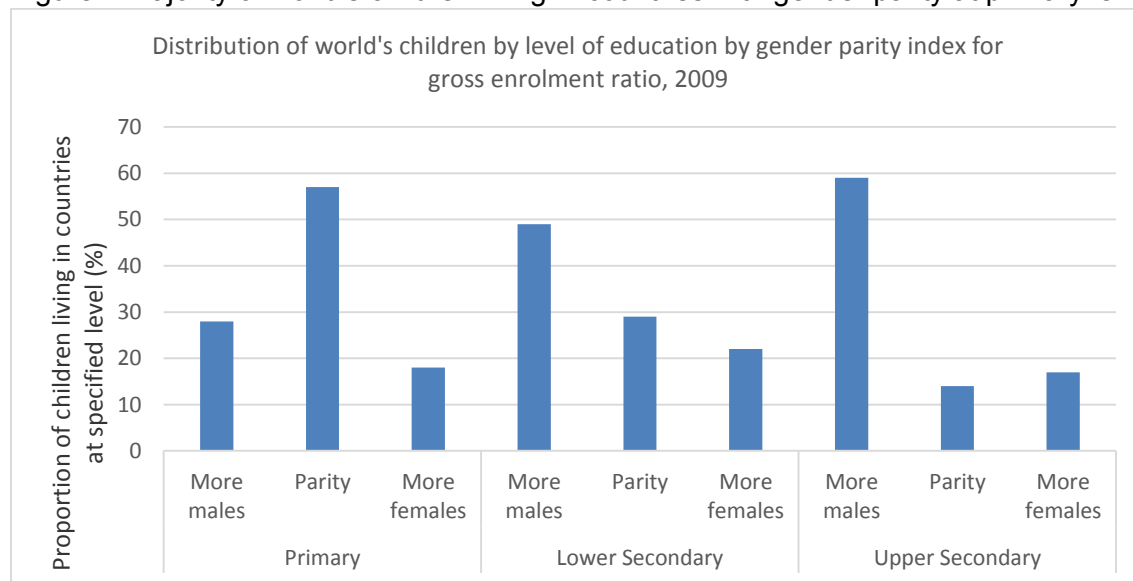
Table 1: Income and Economic Activity

Country	Year	Total population (thousands)		Per capita GDP(US\$)	Total	Adult (15+) economic activity rate	
		Men	Women			Men	Women
Australia	2011	11 490	11 428	67039	65.5	72	59
Afghanistan	2011	16 121	17 276	586	49.2	80	16
Denmark	2011	2 818	2 775	59581	64.4	69	60
Mozambique	2011	12 539	11 936	536	84.6	83	86
United States	2011	159 788	156 003	47882	63.6	70	58
Ecuador	2011	7 424	7 441	4526	68.4	83	54

Source: adapted from United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2011), World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision. available in <http://www.un.org/esa/population/unpop.htm>;

The process of urbanization, that is a global phenomenon, is criticized for discriminating women in its network of support; for example, “there are fewer jobs in the modern sector, and what jobs are available are often closed to women because of sex stereotyping” (Kardan, 1991, p.12), but what should be clear is the reasonable assumption according to which “ignoring women also hinders equitable development because any strategy that disproportionately favours men cannot be considered an equitable approach” (idem). However, to better discuss discrimination against it, is fundamental to analyse comparatively the access of that social group to education, because it is important to make sure that women are as qualified to get employed as men are. For that purpose, the figure 1 illustrates gender parity at basic education level, such as primary, lower and upper secondary.

Figure 1 Majority of world’s children living in countries with gender parity at primary level



Source: adapted from UNESCO (2012)

The figure above is self-explanatory in terms of decrease of gender parity as the formal education process reaches higher levels. This is critical when it comes to equality in opportunities to participate in the national economy. Hence, the dominance of men over women in economic activities presented in the Table 1 is somewhat explained and supported by the Figure 1. Therefore, women cannot have equitable opportunities if they continue receiving lesser education and training than men. In addition, the Box 1 brings an overall situation of women with regards to education, which accounts for this social group to benefit less from the advantages of globalisation than men actually do.

KEY FINDINGS

- Two thirds of the 774 million adult illiterates worldwide are women – the same proportion for the past 20 years and across most regions.
- The global youth literacy rate has increased to 89 per cent, while the gender gap has declined to 5 percentage points.
- Gaps between girls' and boys' primary enrolment have closed in the majority of countries, but gender parity is still a distant goal for some.
- 72 million children of primary school age are not attending school, out of which over 39 million (or 54 per cent) are girls.
- While secondary school enrolments show improvement, fewer countries are near gender parity than for primary education.
- In tertiary enrolment, men's dominance has been reversed globally and gender disparities favour women, except in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern and Western Asia.
- Women in tertiary education are significantly underrepresented in the fields of science and engineering; however, they remain predominant in education, health and welfare, social sciences, and humanities and arts.
- Worldwide, women account for slightly more than a quarter of all scientific researchers – an increase compared to previous decades but still very far from parity.
- Use of and access to the Internet grew exponentially in the past decade, narrowing the gender digital divide – however, women still do not have the same level of access as men in most countries, whether more or less developed.

Source: United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2010

The fight for an inclusive and equitable education was agreed and launched back in 1990, in Jomtien (Thailand), at the World Conference on *Education for All*; in that conference, it was clarified that by *Education for All* the advocates meant equal treatment of both boys and girls that was seen as “matter of justice and equality; thus this was the launching of a gender policy that would become global as it was “reaffirmed ten years later at the World Education Forum in Dakar and in the Millennium Development Goals of 2000” (United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2010, p.21). In fact, just a single example of Indonesia shows some engagement of the government in reducing income inequality by opening access to education for all, with a special focus on the most vulnerable social groups such as rural and female students (Manning & Sumarto, 2011). Despite the globalisation of the challenge, not all governments around the globe are as committed to it as Indonesia's authorities and others on the same path. Thus, there will still be differences in speed and quality of response to *Education for All* that will then contribute to income inequality and to “gender gap”.

Another crucial political issue that matters to an effective globalisation is migration either at domestic or international level, because migrants are effective vectors of not only economy by

culture, experiences and skills by moving back and forth and contacting different people and contexts. In fact, Wood (2008, P29) first realized that globalisation was a fact “while working for an Italian company in the United Kingdom with my Australian colleague, reporting to an Asian boss”. Some studies have reported the role played by migrants as live factors of globalisation, as can be seen in the Box 2 below.

Box 2: Migrants contribution to globalisation

REALIZING THE POTENTIAL OF MIGRANTS AND MIGRATION

Evidence suggests that, despite the considerable challenges that exist, many migrants and their families already reap substantial gains from migrating: the 2009 Human Development Report found that those who moved from countries with a low human development index (HDI) to countries with a higher HDI experienced, on average, a 15-fold increase in income, a doubling in education enrolment rates, and a 16-fold reduction in child mortality. These benefits can be enhanced if a rights-based approach to migration is adopted enabling them to participate in and contribute to the social, cultural, political and economic life of countries of destination and origin alike.

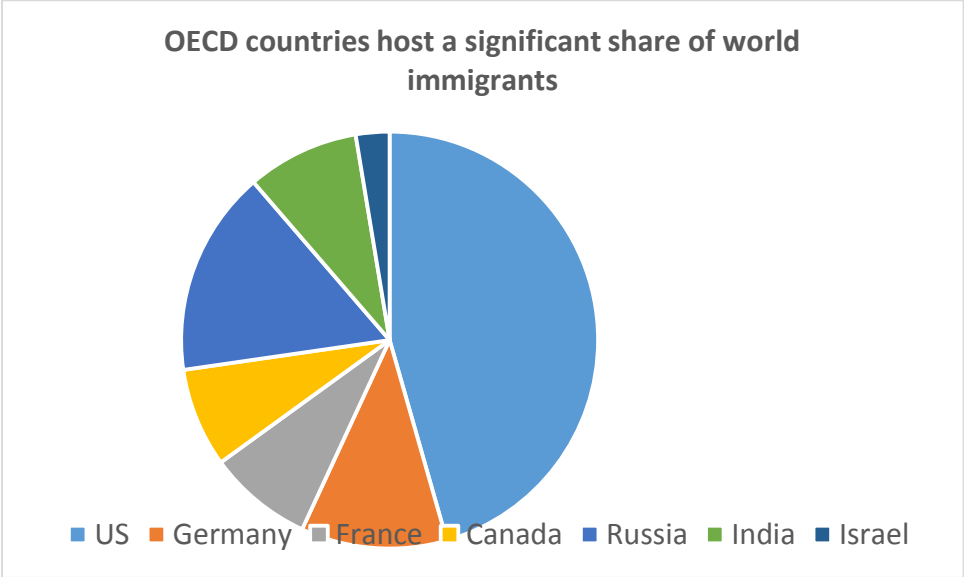
Migrants’ families in countries of origin stand to benefit from remittances, which increase household incomes and enable recipients to invest in housing, health, education, and entrepreneurship development, as well as to increasing household resilience in cases of natural disasters or other shocks. Although remittances are first and foremost private transfers made for household consumption, they can also have benefits at the macro-economic level. For a number of developing countries, remittances represent a significant share of GDP and an important source of foreign currency earnings, supporting national income and allowing countries to pay for critical imports, gain access to capital markets, and pay lower interest rates on sovereign debt.

Source: adapted from World Bank (2006)

According to Global Migration Group (2013), there is neither proper consideration of migration as a socio-economic growth driver nor its incorporation in development plans at all levels, even the Millennium Development Goals failed to explicitly consider migration issues. If considered the terms stated in the second paragraph of the Box 2, it is worth taking migration into consideration in terms of its potential for improving and augmenting global socio-economic equity. However, not everyone in the planet wants to and/or can migrate (Blij, 2009); and not everywhere immigrants of any background are welcome. Education is one of the key pre-conditions for migrating successfully, as data research indicates that “in virtually all destination countries the share of migrants having tertiary education is higher than that of the native-born” either in the OECD or non-OECD countries (Dumont, et al., 2010, p.20); the same research report deduces that “the higher skill levels of migrants in most of receiving countries reflect the selective nature of

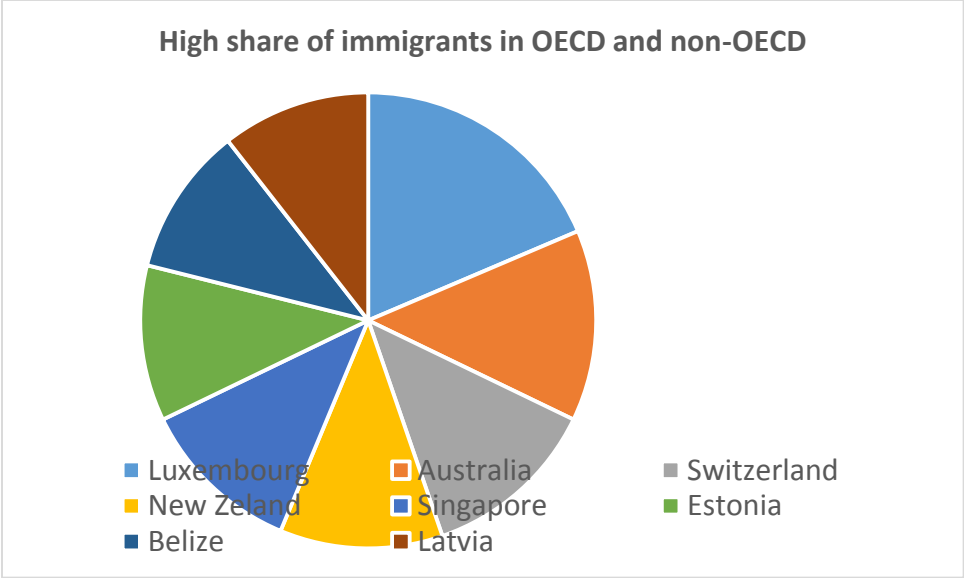
migration, either due to self-selection or to selective immigration policies”(Idem). Hence, there are some personal and political limitations to migration; that is why some countries host more migrants than others, some host more high-skilled migrants that others. Indeed, from a political point of view, the fact that “some countries have very selective migration policies while others do not” (idem, p.26) is determinant of the quantity and diversity of immigration, as well as that will differentiate ones from others in terms of effective globalizing.

Figure 2



Source: adapted from Dumont, et al. (2010)

Figure 3



Source: adapted from Dumont, et al. (2010)

The figures 2 and 3 illustrate how differently migration happens in different parts of the globe, and this illustration strongly suggests the interpretation that globalisation through migration is occurring at different rates and intensity across the world for various reasons such as political, educational and/or simply personal; for example, countries such as Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Cuba, Colombia, Laos, Peru, Mongolia, Bulgaria and Thailand, which have below one percent of share of immigrants (Dumont, et al., 2010), will be less diverse and less globalised than the ones illustrated in the figures 2 and 3.

Therefore, although globalisation has contributed for global awareness of issues such as gender equity, environment degradation and the like as well as has pushed for the incorporation of such issues in international and national plans, there is still significant differences in the way localities address such issues, what makes the world uneven in terms of achievements.

Not only political issues matter when discussing factors of effective globalisation, but also natural and cultural issues often determine how fast and better localities will receive and capitalise the benefits of globalisation. Some geographies are more attractive than others; some are more vulnerable to natural disasters than others; some cultures hold more tradable elements than others do. Indeed, Pelling (2003, p.xiii) concludes from a database research that “Human disasters triggered by natural hazards appear to be growing in severity and frequency of impact”, and then the author continues predicting a significant impact of natural disasters on not only regional but also global economy. Despite the global awareness of natural disasters and equally global political concern about human security - adverts the author – there is a serious battle for budget between “disaster relief and engineering-based mitigation measures” and “national and international development agencies”. While the battle for budget continues unsolved, the nature will not wait to “attack” with other disastrous events, just as O’Brien and Leichenko (2000, cited by Pelling, 2003, p.5) “suggest that many regions will experience ‘double exposure’, being both most at risk from future disaster and also unlikely to benefit from economic globalization”. Unfortunately, the unlikeliness of benefitting from the globalisation hits harder developing countries than its counterparts. Most of the highly vulnerable countries in the globe are non-OECD, which usually do not have enough economic and technical strength to build up local resilience. The tables 2 and 3 illustrates the situation of risk and vulnerability with regards to climate change, for example.

Table 2: The Climate Change Risk Index 2011: the most affected countries

Ranking 2011 (2010)	Country	CRI score	Death toll	Deaths per 100,000 inhabitants	Absolute losses (in million US\$ PPP)	Losses per unit DP in %	Human Development Index
1(13)	Thailand	2.50	892	1.39	75,474	12.53	103
2(39)	Cambodia	7.00	247	1.64	1,049	3.10	139
3(1)	Pakistan	10.50	585	0.33	5,809	1.19	145
4(36)	El Salvador	11.83	35	0.59	1,645	3.69	105
5(14)	Philippines	11.83	1,659	1.73	1,064	0.27	112
6(23)	Brazil	14.33	1,013	0.52	4,717	0.21	84
7(30)	United States	15.17	844	0.27	74,791	0.50	4
8(135)	Lao DPR	15.33	43	0.68	218	1.25	138
9(2)	Guatemala	16.17	72	0.49	553	0.74	131
10(49)	Sri Lanka	16.50	106	0.52	602	0.52	97

Source: Harmeling & Eckstein (2012, p.7)

Table 3: The Long-Term Climate Risk Index (CRI): results (annual averages) in specific indicators in the 10 countries most affected in 1992 to 2011

CRI 1992-2011(1991-2010)	Country	CRI score	Death toll	Deaths per 100,000 inhabitants	Absolute losses (in million US\$ PPP)	Losses per unit DP in %	Number of Events (total 1992-2011)
1(3)	Honduras	10.83	329.25	4.96	679	2.84	60
2(2)	Myanmar	11.00	7,137.25	13.79	640	1.41	37
3(4)	Nicaragua	18.50	160.0	2.82	223	1.89	44
4(1)	Bangladesh	20.83	824.4	0.58	1,721	1.18	247
5(5)	Haiti	21.17	301.1	3.43	148	1.08	54
6(6)	Viet Nam	23.67	433.15	0.55	1,741	1.06	214
7(9)	Korea, DPR	26.00	76.65	0.33	3,188	7.64	37
8(8)	Pakistan	30.50	545.9	0.38	2,183	0.73	141
9(55)	Thailand	31.17	160.4	0.26	5,413	1.38	182
10(7)	Dominican Republic	31.33	211.6	2.47	185	0.35	49

Source: Harmeling & Eckstein (2012, p.6)

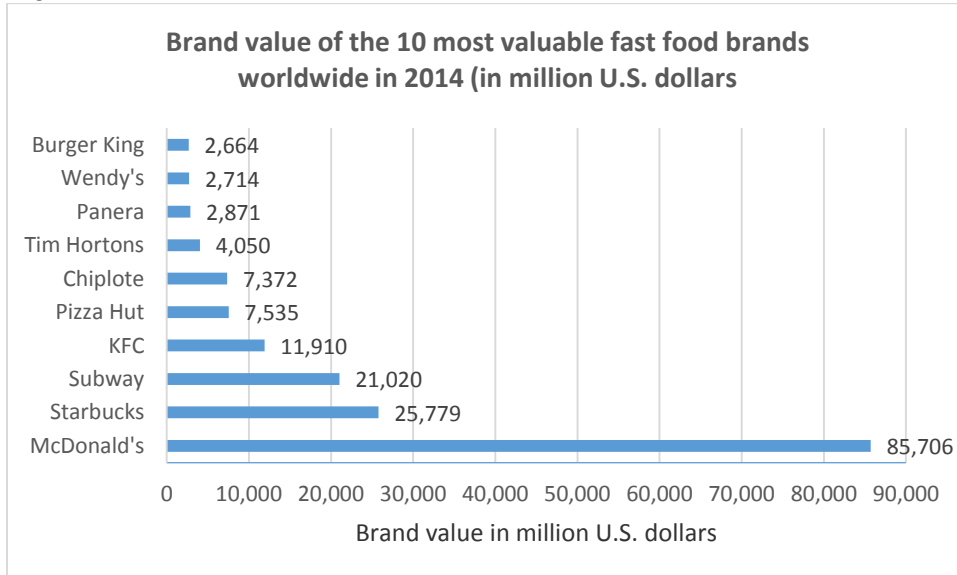
Although the occurrence of natural disasters is reported to be increasing in frequency and intensity in the last decade – be it as result of intensive human activity be it as normal natural cycle, or as combination of both – and it has been taken as a global phenomenon by international and national policy makers, there are differences in the intensity and frequency of disasters among different regions of the globe; even within the top ten countries at higher risk of natural disasters there are substantial differences in the impact and responses to this global phenomenon. Indeed, “some groups are more prone to damage, loss and suffering in the context of differing hazards, key variables explaining variations of impact include class (which includes differences in wealth), occupation, caste, ethnicity, gender, disability and health status, age and immigration status (whether legal or illegal), and the nature and extent of social networks” (Wisner, 2004, p.11). It seems that these differences do determine quite expressively the variation in speed and quality of development from region to region, and from country to country. In terms of investment, perhaps the more vulnerable and naturally less attractive (for tourism purpose, natural resources, and other businesses) the place the less investment it will attract in to it; in fact, when the Chinese government privileged coastal areas to inland ones as recipient of FDI was strongly influenced by the natural attractiveness of coastal areas, and as result coastal areas developed more rapidly than inland provinces (Zhang & Zhang, 2003). Whereas in terms of assistance, studies show that countries affected by natural disasters tend to benefit from international emergency more than they did in the past two decades.

However, when globalisation is purely seen as wild capitalism spread around the globe, some author accuse it of being the major contributor to the degradation of nature and its consequence in terms of natural disasters. For example, “It is concluded that this is critical time for SIDS [Small Island Developing States] which must contend with ongoing developmental pressures in addition to growing pressures from risks associated with global environmental change and economic liberalisation that threaten their physical and economic security” (Pelling & Uitto, 2001, p.49). This is a serious concern that should be taken into consideration when analysing proposals of Foreign Direct Investment into the state or nations, as the cost of economic growth and infrastructural development might be higher than its benefits for humans, and perhaps the nation will have to stop at some point and try to repair damages caused to their environment by irresponsible development practices, at the cost of diminishing their active participation in the globalisation.

Furthermore, globalisation is said to be planetary share of culture, or just some kind of cultural convergence that suggests equal space of cultural interaction for all social groups in the world.

Indeed, the world is open to all cultures to come into it and give their particular contribution to the global cultural mosaic. However, some critics argued that globalisation was a unidirectional phenomenon that sought to spread American culture across the globe as this powerful country has functioned as spearhead of globalisation, but in fact that is not the case, although “the United States has greatly benefited from globalization” (Naím, 2009). If analysed closely today, with preferential focus on consumption, one can easily tell that the powerful nations of the world have defined consumers appetite according to their culture in their own favour (Edwards, 2000); and this is a strong determinant of success in the market, just as the Figure 4 below illustrates. Harvey (2002) wrote extensively about globalization and culture in his article entitled “The Art of Rent: Globalization, Monopoly and the Commodification of Culture” where his very first sentence is “that culture has become commodity of some sort is undeniable” (p.93). As if purposely paraphrasing what the Figure 4 illustrates, the author argues that “as spatial barriers diminished through the capitalist penchant for ‘the annihilation of space through time’, many local industries and services lost their local protection and monopoly privileges” (p.97). The same way that fast food culture has been spread worldwide, there are examples of clothes, food and even electronics that carry in it particular cultural patterns over other less expressive cultures.

Figure 4: Most valuable fast food brands worldwide in 2014



Source: Statista 2014

Therefore, political openness and engagement in global is not enough for each locality to take advantage of globalisation for the reason that there must be some natural conveniences to the

drivers of globalisation such as attractive natural landscapes and resources, tradable cultural elements and so on.

In conclusion, many of geopolitical barriers have been successfully lifted and then planet has become more open to interaction between cultures mainly thanks to great developments in telecommunications and transportation system; the world is now all connected and whatever happens in a certain point of the globe becomes globally known. This connectedness has been crucial for optimal capital flows between nations whose key drivers are the multinational corporations and International Financial Institutions. Despite this global opportunity for moving around, contacting people and cultures, making business and perhaps becoming culturally diverse there are political issues such as market regulations, gender and migration to be considered along with natural and cultural factors that act as impediments for that optimal state of globalisation to be attained mainly by the developing countries. The way international development agencies and national governments articulate, especially with regards to FDI, is crucial in terms of creating an equitable and sustainable national development; gender policy policies are implemented differently across the world, and women continues thus less entitled to actively participate in the local economy than men as the latter have more and better access to education. Migration is here seen as one of the major drivers of cultural mobility and convergence across the world as well as it enables capital flow between origin and destination countries, but not everyone meets all the requirements for a successful migration; education and immigration policies are some of the key requirement. Additionally, natural and cultural factors also matter not only to determine the flow of capital into and out the nations but also to determine how global a nation can become. Issues such as vulnerability to natural disasters and existence of tradable natural resources determine how much investment the nation is likely to attract as well as it will influence the flow of migration into the country, and even the will determine the speed of local and national development. Hence, globalization is real in terms of world's connectedness but does not mean that everyone has become or will soon become global, especially the developing countries.

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