

Chapter Three

Thinking Skills for Globalization Analysis

In this chapter we introduce the idea of “levels of analysis.” Specifically, we recommend the use of six levels of analysis in seeking to understand how globalization can be understood:

- The global
- The regional
- The nation-state
- The sub-state
- The local
- The personal

Science and discourse follow a basic principle of inquiry: the higher the level of analysis one employs, the more one sacrifices detail; conversely, the more one focuses on detail, the more one sacrifices the larger view. This principle appears generalizable across all levels of observation: moving up and down the scale of generality gains one kind of information while losing others.

By advocating the use of these six levels of analysis, we seek to encourage readers to appreciate the complexity of globalization. As you read, we urge you to concentrate first at one level of analysis, and to then compare your findings with those from one or more other analytical levels.

As the most comprehensive level of analysis, the **global** level incorporates, networks, forms of exchange and processes that exist transnationally, extending throughout the world. They are authentically global in character in that they are operating in similar ways simultaneously across the globe. Contemporary telecommunications networks, currency values, standards of weight and measure, airline transport protocols, and containerized shipping offer ready examples of this global reach, as do the various financial networks that tie global cities together as important nodes for such networks. In our chapter on urbanization we refer in detail to the *circuits of exchange* or the *circuits of globalization*. It is the global movement of goods and services, information, wealth, people, etc., through these circuits that requires this level of analysis.

Regional level analysis focuses on the different forms that globalization takes in various regions of the world. Globalization in Africa expresses itself quite differently from globalization in Europe or Asia, even while sharing many things in common. Increasingly, countries are organizing themselves within regional associations of one form or another, for defense, trade, education, health, etc. The emergence of the European Union (EU) over the past several decades from the Common Market represents the most dynamic example of this process. The advantages to member states are many. Collectively, for example, the EU

constitutes an economic and trading unit larger than the United States. The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) is an entity with similar goals, but to date has not achieved the regional integration of the EU. In various later chapters we will refer, for example, to changes in current trade patterns showing both pauses and expansions in the growth of global trade through the World Trade Organization (WTO) and its major global agreements, including since 1995 the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS).

Globalization is sometimes discussed in terms of the tensions that exist between the **nation-state** and the transnational phenomena; hence, the need for analysis at the level of nation-states. Responses to the pressures of globalization differ greatly among nations even in the presence of their commonalities. In our later chapters we will make a distinction about nation-states based on their *viability*. Viability refers to their ability to organize, provide order, establish legal frameworks that generalize across populations and are enforceable, and create the minimal social and physical structures necessary to sustain those populations. This includes elements of infrastructure such as roads, and power and transportation facilities. It includes meeting public health requirements of minimal food security, clean water, adequate sanitation and basic health and medical care. States that are unable to do these things are termed “failed states,” and their existence in the world severely compromises how globalization takes place.

Analysis at the **sub-state** level, however, allows analysis of particular strengths in large nation-states where a country’s internal regions may retain strong economic differences, customs, and traditions, including language differences. In Brazil, for example, the influences of globalization on cities such as Sao Paulo differ markedly from those on the cattle ranchers and farmers in the Amazon rain forest. In the United States, the pressures of globalization on industrial centers such as Michigan and Ohio differ greatly from those affecting grain-growing areas such as Nebraska, Iowa, and Kansas. It is also often at sub-state levels that one finds different historic patterns of wealth creation and distribution, often based on patterns of land-holding, and access to capital. Many nation-states in the world seek to move toward higher levels of national economic integration to respond more effectively to the full range of globalizing influences that travel through them. Sub-state regional differences are often embedded in the domestic political status of nation-states, in which often one region possesses a relative advantage over others. When one or more area of a state develops substantially greater wealth than others, the resulting unequal economic development leads to different pressures from the circuits of globalization. For example, while Michigan in the U.S. loses jobs overseas in the competition for car sales, growing demand for the grain from Nebraska, Iowa and Kansas in the context of a weaker U.S. dollar increases their global sales. In China the failure of farming in drought-ridden areas of the north has led to labor migration to the cities in the southeast. In many countries the combination of local and global

pressures often triggers rapid urbanization, moving populations at the sub-state level.

Local geography, populations, and cultures have distinctive features of their own, and consequently a **local** level of analysis allows readers to examine the influences of globalization in what is most familiar around them in their own lives. For example, the poverty, violence and lack of government control that have become commonplace in Lagos, Nigeria appear at odds with the rise of Nigeria as a source of oil on a global scale. In our discussion, *local* is a subjective distinction that individuals employ depending on their individual and group frames of reference. Local narratives in local idiom that describe or explain one's local existence as a familiar view of the world provide a distinctive contrast to views of the world that demonstrate the impact of globalization on local daily life. More on this will follow below.

Finally, we focus on **the personal** as a level of analysis. Irrespective of everything else, we experience the world and globalization, as persons. In this particular instance we are interested in examining some of the ways that the ideas of person, self, and other are constructed by global processes, including—again, ironically—notions of the local.

Two Case Studies of Levels of Analysis:

In the following pages we provide two case studies, one involving the competition on the part of the world's two largest aircraft companies to develop a new generation of passenger aircraft, the other efforts on the part of various countries to control immigration. Each offers a classic globalization issue. The first case reviews how the world's two surviving aircraft giants seek to gain and hold position in the highly competitive market for passenger aircraft. The second looks at the global flow of persons as they move from one nation state to another, an outcome largely occasioned by the flows of capital that change job mixes in one set of countries and create new jobs in others.

Case One: The Aircraft and Airline Industries—Global Level

Consider the production of large airliners used globally; then examine the international agreements and protocols by which airlines with global routes operate. Both the production and use of air transportation equipment reflect truly global operations.

Two major transnational manufacturers—Boeing and Airbus—dominate sales of major airliners, with a second tier of producers including ATR, Embraer, Bombardier Aerospace, Dassault Falcoln, Saab, Britten Norman and others. During calendar year 2007 Boeing received net orders for 1413 aircraft worth some \$98 billion, Boeing's sales, representing a key part of exports that the U.S. counts on to counterbalance the flow of imports. Without Boeing's global sales, the U.S. trade imbalance world grow ever more precarious. During the same

period Airbus reported orders for 1341 aircraft, worth \$151 billion. China alone will acquire 3400 aircraft over the next 20 years, an amount equal to approximately \$340 billion (Patalon, 2007).

The aerospace industry in the U.S. creates approximately 1.8 million jobs, mostly high-skill, high-wage jobs, paying on average 45 percent more than manufacturing as a whole (Downey, 1997). Airbus production and other aerospace work in places such as Germany and France also employ substantial numbers of highly skilled workers and engineers. But such highly valued jobs are now migrating overseas, as the suppliers of Boeing and Airbus seek cheaper labor and less restrictive regulations. Consequently both Boeing and Airbus have consciously distributed some part of airliner production to suppliers in countries around the world, thus linking sales in those countries to the continuing employment of engineers and others in the labor forces of these countries. Boeing has as much as 30% of its parts for its 777 airliner produced by suppliers in countries such as Italy, Russia, and South Africa, and in 2006 reduced its suppliers from 3800 to 1200 (Avery, 2006). Both Boeing and Airbus also recently have moved some of their production to China.

Both Boeing and Airbus receive subsidies in some form from the governments of their originating countries—the U.S. for Boeing, and France, Britain, Germany, and Spain (WSWS, 2007). Both Boeing and Airbus supply aircraft for military purposes and thus are linked into the defense budgets of a variety of countries. Both have services and training partners who sell pilot and maintenance training into the global air transport market, necessary accompaniments of the airplanes they sell. And on a global basis both use video streaming for training personnel and computerized databases for parts to assure compliance with airplane maintenance, safety requirements, and replacement part availability.

Boeing and Airbus are evolving transnational corporations, each with strong foreign policy support from its nation (s) of origin helping it to compete as it sells into a global market. Both work with international air traffic controllers to set and improve safety requirements. For example, the latest giant airliner from Airbus, the A380, carries so many passengers (525) that airport gates and fire equipment must be changed to accommodate passenger flow and safety. The new Airbus plane offers an example of global commerce in which changes in aircraft design require costly improvements in infrastructure, safety equipment, and training at airports around the globe.

At any given time commercial air transport has approximately 61,000 passengers aloft in the United States alone, and many more thousands aloft on a global scale. Rising demand for air travel has moved nations to add airports and to develop and follow uniform global agreements on air traffic control, systems impact that localities and travelers take for granted. International protocols for air traffic control require pilots and air traffic personnel on the ground to use the English language as a default language, another mark of the homogenizing

influence of globalization. Pilot standards, flight attendant requirements, and mechanics' training are also standardized globally by manufacturers and nations to assure safety. And, on a global basis the dominant Boeing-Airbus oligopoly in aircraft production marks a maturing stage in a global industry. Production of the Airbus A380 will require an estimated \$10 BILLION for development (Reuters, November 24, 2006). Hence, entry into aircraft production now carries prohibitive costs, and second tier producers and anyone seeking entry must seek niche markets, such as those for regional aircraft.

Beginning in the 1980s both Boeing and Airbus began to “outsource” aspects of their manufacturing to other labor markets. This strategy made sense in bringing to bear less expensive labor, but it also had the additional benefit of courting the key business circles and governments of those countries to whom they wish to gain orders and sell planes. Thus, in a sense, all such airliners (as with many other complex manufactured items such as automobiles) are *truly* global in that their component parts are manufactured throughout the world. China has recently taken a large step toward perhaps becoming an eventual player in the global aircraft market. In November 2006, the state-owned China Aviation Industry Corporation I (AVIC-I) announced that it had entered the regional jet market with the sale of 60 of its MA60 turboprop and 30 of its ARJ21 turbofan jets. This announcement came a day after Jin Zhuanglong, the Deputy Commissioner for Science, Technology, and Industry for National Defense, announced that China would design and manufacture large aircraft within five years. At the same time Airbus signed a joint venture contract with AVIC-I and AVIC-II to operate the Airbus engineering center in Beijing. A final assembly line for the Airbus A320 will be completed in Tianjin in 2009. Laurence Barron, the Airbus China president in making the announcement remarked, “There would be no difference between the A 320s assembled in China and those in Europe” (Chen and Lu, 2006).

While many air carriers confine operations within a nation or region, carriers with global routes must coordinate maintenance infrastructure, crew housing, and operations throughout a global network. Global airlines typically establish national centers or hubs out of which they command operations for a nation or region, thus affecting the economic growth and employment in that region. As global air travel demand has risen, for example, United Airlines, Japan Airlines, and British Airways have evolved from national airlines to regional then global airlines. Global air transport has played a major role in weaving the interdependencies of the globalized world, and an understanding of global transport requires that both equipment production and operations be examined from global as well as regional, national, and even local perspectives.

Regional Analysis

In the pocket of every airliner is an in-service flight magazine, at the back of which is almost always a route map for the carrier. With these visuals, a

moment's inspection reveals the geographic reach of the airline, its "hubs" that originate and receive the most traffic, and the most heavily trafficked routes.

It is more difficult to imagine a single route map of all of the world's carriers. Were such a visual available, it would demonstrate two things very quickly: one, the incredible "density" of airline travel throughout the world—especially between its primary cities; two, that regional air traffic represents a substantial part of total air transportation. Statistics are not commonly gathered on within-region travel, but Table 3-1 indicates the extraordinary amount of air passenger travel clustered by region. In addition to the more than 2 billion passengers who flew in the past year, airlines also shipped 51,873.8 thousand metric tones of goods, of which 34.946.3 thousand metric tones were classified as international (Airports Council International, 2006).

Table 3-1 Global Air Passenger Traffic 2006

Geographic Region	12 month period ending May 2006	Percent Change 12 months
INTERNATIONAL PASSENGERS		
AFRICA	22,985,000	6.9
ASIA PACIFIC	255,294,000	6.8
EUROPE	610,074,000	5.7
LATIN AMERICA CARIBBEAN	33,367,000	1.7
MIDDLE EAST	20,244,000	13.1
NORTH AMERICA	119,962,000	3.2
ALL REGIONS	1,061,926,000	5.7
DOMESTIC PASSENGERS		
AFRICA	21,388,000	12.6
ASIA PACIFIC	254,871,000	7.5
EUROPE	173,350,000	4.1
LATIN AMERICA CARIBBEAN	47,076,000	9.4
MIDDLE EAST	406,000	1.9
ALL REGIONS	1,077,812,000	4.1
TOTAL PASSENGERS		
AFRICA	44,373,000	9.6
ASIA PACIFIC	510,166,000	7.1
EUROPE	783,424,000	5.4
LATIN AMERICA CARIBBEAN	80,443,000	5.9
MIDDLE EAST	20,650,000	12.8
NORTH AMERICA	785,247,000	1.8
ALL REGIONS	2,224,303,000	4.6

(Definitions: International = traffic passengers PROVIDED between the designated airport and an airport in another country/territory. Domestic = traffic PROVIDED between two airports located in the same country/territory.) Airline passenger traffic rose approximately 7% in 2007. The

spectacular increase in fuel costs in 2008 is expected to sharply reduce passenger traffic.
Source: Airports Council International.

Regional air traffic is one important mechanism (along with other modes of transportation and communication, of course) by which regions come to develop identities, establish affinities, and trade goods and people. The massive effort to expand and construct new airports throughout the world, especially in Asia, owes equally to international air traffic that is highly regionalized. Often, countries will specify some airports as domestic and some as international, but clearly the trend is for an expansion of international destination airports, again, with a primary goal of meeting the steadily increasing demands for regional travel.

With China emerging as a major manufacturer of aircraft, and some of its aircraft intended specifically for the shorter range regional market, we see a phenomenon simultaneously having different effects at the global and regional levels. If China continues to emerge as an economic superpower, its aircraft will be given priority status in the purchasing plans of countries with regional air transport needs, following the pattern that emerged earlier with Boeing (and McDonald Douglass before it merged with Boeing) and Airbus.

Aircraft and air travel readily allow similar kinds of analyses at the national and sub-regional levels. The ability of a country to develop sufficient capital to create and sustain modern, safe, dependable air travel at reasonable cost is a major requirement to becoming a modern state. Such air travel influences national economic and social integration. The benefits that accrue throughout societies with such air travel include: the rapid and efficient movement of business and public administrative persons; the relatively inexpensive rapid shipment of freight; and the ability to create order throughout countries, especially those that are large.

We encourage readers to examine and list the consequences of aircraft production and air travel that arise at the national, at the sub-national, at the local, and at the personal level.

With respect to local and personal levels of analysis, innovations that transform the rapid movement of peoples across large distances quickly are likely to produce significant levels of social change. In the terms we have used throughout this text, these are boundary-altering or boundary-destroying phenomena. Just as modern communication media can eliminate boundaries and transform societies, effective transportation, especially air travel, create powerful transformative energies within societies that are the heart of social change. However much people as individuals and groups are grounded in traditional local behavior and pursuits, such travel allows *outside* influences to become routinely and mundanely present alongside the *local*. Similarly, modern transportation has the capacity to move the individual from the *local* to the *regional and global*. Combined with instant modern communication, these forms of transportation lie at the core of the shrinkage of time and space. David Harvey

nominates this attribute as perhaps the central feature of globalization (Harvey, 1990). Across all the levels of analysis, the combined effects of modern communications and transport also shape the transformation of personal identities, a major change that increased global interdependence has brought to the world.

Again, the reader is encouraged to continue this exercise by exploring how aircraft manufacture and transportation affect their worlds at the level of the national, sub-national, local, and individual. We also suggest that you ask yourself how similar analyses would differ—including personally—in the absence of such convenient air travel.

Case Two: Globalization at Multiple Levels—the Southern Border of the U.S.

Global, regional, national, and local levels of analysis also apply simultaneously to the historic flow of immigrants, which is a primary characteristic of contemporary globalization. In recent years immigration on the southern border of the U.S. mirrors some of the cross-border migrations throughout the world. Mexican and Central American immigration into the U.S. has raised primary questions about *open borders* in a globalized world. Here again, Thomas Friedman's notion of contemporary globalization, asserting that the "world is flat" that is, increasingly without borders and boundaries of conventional form, deserves scrutiny and challenge (Friedman, 2005).

Most of the immigration in question comes from Mexico and Central America across the southern border of the United States. Labor migration—an ongoing global issue in many parts of the world—reflects globalization *nationally* in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the U.S.—*locally* in employment and the productivity of many regions in the U.S., and *personally* in the remittances of money back into Mexico, Guatemala, and other Central American countries from which workers make their way into the U.S. In addition to the legal and illegal (or documented and undocumented in much current usage) migrations into the U.S., globalization since the 1960s has changed the nature of this border. TNC's early on located their *Las Maquiladoras* assembly plants on the Mexico side of the border to gain access to cheaper labor and less stringent environmental laws. Drawn initially to these border factories to find work, millions of workers from Mexico and Central America over the subsequent decades continued on their journeys north to join the U.S. labor force (Sable, 1989).

At the global level, immigration is part and parcel of the global migration of labor, discussed further on in our chapter on labor. Labor migration is linked to transformations in the global nature of work, the distribution of capital investment, governmental agreements on migration, the decisions of transnational firms on where to locate production and develop trade, and a variety of other

considerations, such as the ease of illegal border crossing, and the willingness of employers to employ both legal and illegal aliens.

At the regional level, migration across the U.S. southern border is mirrored in Asia by the multiple flows between countries. In most cases the causes of this migration trace back to transformations in the way of life in rural settings, rural inhabitants needing greater amounts of currency to navigate within a cash economy, and the concentration of the jobs and opportunities in urban centers. As we discuss in our chapter on urbanization, some migration is provoked by the demographic unevenness of the world wherein members of younger populations (e.g., the Philippines, China) move toward older populations (e.g., U.S., Japan) as service providers. In Asia, Europe, and North America, as we discuss below, most migration is “demand pull,” that is, demand for cheaper labor in one country or region motivates the movement of labor from poorer countries and regions into wealthier countries. These patterns of migration dominate movements from the middle-east and eastern Europe to western Europe, as well as from Central America to North America.

Continuing within the frame of this example, at the *national* level, in the United States 30 percent of all legal immigrants come from Mexico. Like all nations, the United States struggles to determine legal criteria for admission to the country and how to deal with illegal immigrants, for the promise of wealth and abundant life attract many people to the US from all over the world. Over the past four decades, the U.S. has struggled through several immigration reform laws, as is the current pattern in numerous European countries. These struggles tend to pit domestic interests against one another in complex ways. For example, the U.S. is an immigrant country beginning with western European immigrants, followed by the importation of African slaves, then sizable populations from Mexico as the U.S. acquired territories formerly held by Spain and Mexico. A major influx of immigrants followed from Europe in the mid-19th century. Historically, it has sought to limit immigration from other countries in favor of immigrants from northern European protestant countries. For example, subsequent restrictive legislation severely limited entry by those from Asian countries as well as those from Africa. Domestic political confrontations within the U.S. have pitted those who favor the influx of cheaper labor against those who oppose it for social, cultural, religious, or personal reasons, or for the perceived demands immigrants make on U.S. education and other social services. In recent years U.S. immigration quotas have very much favored those with specifically desirable professional qualifications. (For a review of current U.S. immigration policy see HHS, 2006).

Over the past several decades, however, the paramount immigration issue involves illegal or undocumented migrants from Mexico and Central America, who presently account for as many as 9.2 million members of the U.S. labor force, filling jobs in agriculture, construction, fire fighting, domestic work, food service, clothing production, day labor, and a variety of other roles.¹ From these

workers many families in Mexico in 2007 received \$24 billion a year in remittances, significantly more than Mexico receives for the foreign sale of oil (COHA, 2008).

According to the narrative from those who favor the present flow of undocumented workers across the U.S.-Mexican border, these Mexican workers in the U.S.:

- Relieve poverty via remittances returned to Mexico,
- Supply essential labor for jobs that U.S. workers decline,
- Keep food prices lower in the U.S. because of the dominance of low paid Mexican workers in U.S. agricultural harvesting,
- Supply 38 percent of workers who fight fires annually in the U.S. western states,
- Keep construction costs from rising more rapidly,
- Are only claiming their cultural rights in regions that historically belonged to Mexico.

This positive narrative reminds us that Mexican workers pay tens of billions into the U.S. Social Security system that as non-citizens they can never draw upon (Kassabian, 2005). Many also pay into federal and state income tax systems. In this narrative, the absence of Mexican workers at low wages would amplify inflation in the U.S. and raise food and construction prices in particular. Workers crossing the border illegally have done so for generations, and have become a recognized and necessary part of the U.S. work force. Some later apply for citizenship and become normal, useful American citizens; their children born in the U.S. automatically are U.S. citizens with the rights and protections that U.S. citizens deserve. These children have rights to draw on food stamps and other forms of federal and state poverty assistance. This narrative adds that the workers crossing the border need U.S. protection from those who smuggle them in, as some have been forced into prostitution or sweatshop labor.

The fate of Chinese workers smuggled into the U.S. is often as grim. Most illegal Chinese immigration is targeted at New York or San Francisco, where such migrants can blend more easily into the relatively numerous Chinese populations of these cities. While the exact size of illegal Chinese migration is unknown, estimates are that many thousands each year pursue this path. The benefit and risk arguments made on behalf of such immigrants parallel those for Latino migrants (Wang, 2001).

A contrary or negative narrative holds that these illegal aliens make expensive demands on U.S. federal, state, and local services. Those offering this narrative say that Mexicans and other Central Americans in the U.S. illegally:

- Use false Social Security numbers to draw on U.S. Social Security services and funds and other forged documentation to gain entry to jobs and benefits.

- Make demands on state unemployment funds, on local school systems where their children attend classes, and on emergency rooms, hospitals, and health care systems such as Medicaid.
- Add substantial costs to border patrols and security.
- Pose threats of terrorism as immigrants without background checks .
- Drive U.S. citizens out of the jobs that they take by accepting lower pay.
- Diminish funds that would increase the circular flow of the economy in the U.S. and create still more U.S. jobs by sending money to Mexico.
- Illegally dodge paying taxes by accepting cash for their work.
- Enlarge the balance of payments deficit of the U.S. by sending remittances out of the U.S. to Mexico.
- Finally, because most of them enter the country illegally, break our laws, and induce employers to break our laws as well, they introduce an element of lawlessness that negatively impacts American society (Rabe, 2006).

At the state level, some citizens along the U.S. border with Mexico have taken it upon themselves to post themselves along routes used by undocumented immigrants and report these people to border patrol agents. U.S. Border Patrol agents routinely have to rescue undocumented immigrants from dying in the desert of America's southwest, and at cost to the U.S., must daily ship hundreds of them back to Mexico, which offers them no support. The individual narratives of those undertaking this dangerous journey are clearly the *personal*, linking their life and death struggles with *global* labor dynamics.

With the U.S. Congress locked in disputes as it tries to establish new national immigration policies to deal with this flow of illegal immigrants, the U.S. president has been forced to try to bridge differences between those holding these opposing immigration narratives. However, even as the national government seeks to address the issue, *local* issues and impacts quickly overtake the political conversation. Mexican-Americans throughout the U.S. have repeatedly demonstrated in most major cities, and have formed a loosely-knit political bloc to protest U.S. mistreatment of immigrants from all over the globe. Given their numbers, this bloc of voters must now be addressed effectively by those running for elective office nationally, within states, and at local levels. The immigration issue will continue to influence the outcome of elections in the United States and in turn U.S. relations with Mexico. How the U.S. Congress and President formulate new immigration policy will also affect the many U.S. businesses and industries that have come to rely on this immigrant labor as a part of the U.S., regional, and local economies.

The two opposing narratives provide very differing views on whether illegal immigrant labor drives down wages for low-end jobs, or to the contrary, supplies desperately needed labor for difficult, low paying jobs that Americans refuse to take, and consequently lowers the cost of food in the U.S. for and many, many services. At the *local* level, it is worth inquiring what would happen to wages in

cities such as Phoenix, San Diego, and Los Angeles if immigrant labor from Mexico disappeared? The answer to this question depends upon resolution of the ongoing dispute between the two opposing narratives of this immigration across the southern border of the U.S. On the global scale, similar disputes must be dealt with in the European Union, where immigrants from around the world come seeking a better life.

Again, at the *sub-state* level of analysis, strong ideas of the *local* develop particular strength, especially in large nation-states where a nation's internal regions such as the U.S. southwest may retain strong customs and traditions, including language differences linked to Mexico. In our analysis we treat the *local* as another level of analysis in and of itself, recognizing that elements of the *local* can certainly be associated with a country or a sub-region within a country. In our discussion, *local* is a subjective distinction that individuals employ depending on their individual predispositions and frames of reference. For example, global climate change manifests in local droughts in northern China. Throughout Southeast and South Asia it has become necessary to investigate and pursue entirely new crops that can adapt to chronic changes in the amount of moisture available for agricultural success.

Finally, we focus on the *personal* as a level of analysis. Irrespective of everything else, we experience the world and globalization as persons. For example, a person in the European Union, including immigrants, can now look to the EU-wide regional system known as REACH which prohibits the sale of chemicals harmful to humans. As indicated throughout our discussion of migration, ultimately the decision to leave one's home, locale, culture, and society to seek employment elsewhere is an intensely *personal* decision, one which makes the phenomenon of globalization immediate and tangible.

Any useful understanding of globalization requires a willingness to explore various points of view and levels of analysis. Those undertaking a study of globalization should recognize that opposing narratives often characterize events, situations and policies quite differently. Like a newspaper reporter with high standards, you will need to attribute information to its sources, and weigh reports and evidence objectively, examine the validity of varying claims, and exercise patience and persistence in delving into the authoritative nature of sources that make claims and supply information. Using these critically important skills and investigative techniques combined with the various levels of globalization analysis rehearsed in this chapter will prove useful in thinking about and discussing globalization.

For Additional Study:

Charlie Rose devotes an hour show to exploring the immigration issue in the United States from a variety of perspectives. Available at:

<http://video.google.com/videosearch?q=immigration&hl=en&emb=0#q=immigration&hl=en&emb=0&start=20>

To get a feel for what the new generation of jetliners from Boeing and Airbus look like, review the brief videos available at:

Flying Heavy Metal (Parts 1-4), available at:

<http://video.google.com/videoplay?docid=757255113958155960&ei=czm7SKnsHYWmrgOg74DKDA&q=dreamliner+and+A380&vt=if&hl=en>

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¹ Alternately some 3,000 U.S. citizens work legally in Mexico. From 2004 on an agreement to coordinate Social Security systems between Mexico and the U.S. allows these U.S. citizens to stop paying into both Mexican and US Social Security systems, and gives them a choice of one system into which to pay (for ten years in the U.S., for 24 years in Mexico to achieve vested payments), and later to draw on these funds in retirement. Some 37,000 Mexicans who work legally in the U.S. will now have rights to draw on US Social Security for nearly \$1 billion under this agreement.

The U.S. minimum wage continues at \$5.15 per hour (approximately \$10,700 a year, or 62% of the U.S. poverty level income), and remains unchanged to reflect inflation in the last nine years. It does not apply to many jobs taken by illegal immigrants, many of whom work for cash.