

PAPER 2 : UK GEOGRAPHICAL ISSUES





Unit 4: UK's evolving physical landscape

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You should know	Revised?			
Enquiry question 1: Why does the physical landscape of the UK vary from place to place?				
The role of geology, past tectonic and glacial processes (glacial erosion and deposition) in the development of upland (igneous and metamorphic rocks) and lowland (sedimentary rocks) landscapes.				
Characteristics and distribution of the UK's main rock types: sedimentary (chalk, carboniferous limestone, clay) igneous (granite), metamorphic (schists, slates).				
Why distinctive upland and lowland landscapes result from the interaction of physical processes: weathering and climatological, post-glacial river and slope processes				
Why distinctive landscapes result from human activity (agriculture, forestry, settlement) over time.				
Enquiry question 2: Why is there a variety of distinctive coastal landscapes in the UK and what are the processes that shape them?				
How geological structure (concordant/discordant, joints and faults) and rock type (hard/soft rock) influence erosional landforms headlands and bays, caves, arches, cliffs, stacks, wave cut platforms) in the formation of coastal landscapes of erosion.				
How UK climate (seasonality, storm frequency, prevailing winds), marine (destructive waves) and sub-aerial processes (mass movement, weathering) are important in coastal landscapes of erosion as well as the rate of coastal retreat				
How sediment transportation (longshore drift) and deposition processes (constructive waves) influence coastal landforms (spits, beaches and bars) on coastal landscapes of deposition.				
How human activities (development, agriculture, industry, coastal management) have direct or indirect effects on coastal landscapes.				
How the interaction of physical and human processes is causing change on one named coastal landscape including the significance of its location.				
Enquiry question 3: What are the challenges for coastal landscapes and communities and why is there conflict about how to manage them?				
Why there are increasing risks from coastal flooding (consequences of climate change on marine erosion and deposition, including an increased frequency of storms and rising sea level) and the threats to people and environment.				
Why there are costs and benefits to, and conflicting views about, managing coastal processes by hard engineering (groynes and sea walls) and by soft engineering (beach replenishment, slope stabilisation) as well as more sustainable approaches ('do nothing' and 'strategic realignment' linked to Integrated Coastal Zone Management).				
Enquiry question 4: Why is there a variety of river landscapes in the UK and what are the processes that shape them?				
How river landscapes contrast between the upper courses, mid-courses and lower courses of rivers and why channel shape (width, depth), valley profile, gradient, discharge, velocity and sediment size and shape change along the course of a named UK river.				
The interaction of erosion (hydraulic action, abrasion, attrition and solution), transport (traction, saltation, suspension and solution) and depositional processes in river landform formation (meanders, interlocking spurs, waterfalls, flood plains, levees and oxbow lakes, deltas).				
Influence of climate, geology and slope processes on river landscapes and sediment load and how storm hydrographs and lag-times can be explained by physical factors (geology, soil type, slope, drainage basin shape, antecedent conditions).				
How human activities (urbanisation, land-use change, deforestation) change river landscapes which alter storm hydrographs.				
How the interaction of physical and human processes is causing river flooding on one named river, including the significance of its location.				
Enquiry question 5: What are the challenges for river landscapes, people and property and how can they be managed?				
Increasing risks from river flooding (increased frequency of storms and land-use change) and the threats to people and environment.				
Costs and benefits of managing flood risk by hard engineering (flood walls, embankments, flood barriers) and by soft engineering (flood plain retention, river restoration).				

- Igneous rocks when lava reached the surface, it cools and solidifies. E.g. granite. Resistant to erosion and weathering.
- Sedimentary rocks –made up of small particles of sand and rock. E.g. sandstone. Less resistant to erosion and weathering.
- Metamorphic rocks these are rocks that have been changed in shape and form by intense heat and pressure. E.g. marble. Resistant to erosion and weathering.

- Lowland areas are located in south and east England and is mainly Sedimentary rock.
- Upland areas are located in the north and west of England and Scotland. This area is mainly Metamorphic rock.



- Past tectonic processes previous volcanic eruptions and tectonic uplift formed upland areas in Scotland.
- Glaciation U-shaped valley's formed by ice eroding away upland areas
- Lowland areas are shaped by a combination of biological, chemical and physical weathering.
- U-shaped valleys caused by plucking of the valley sides, abrasion of the valley floor and sides and freeze-thaw physical weathering to provide angular sediment for the glacier)
- Deforested areas to make room for settlements and resources. We have also planted trees in new areas (afforestation) or re-planted trees (reforestation) to replace the trees we have cut down.
- Yorkshire Dales land was cleared for farming and graze sheep. Limestone which was left by the glaciers has been used to build stone walls and stone houses in the Yorkshire Dales.



Waves are created by wind blowing over the surface of the sea or ocean. When wind moves over the surface of the water, it creates friction forming a ripple effect.

Weathering

Wave energy/power is determined by fetch (distance wind travels) and prevailing wind (dominant direction of wind)

(5) Water rushes up the beach

- this is called the swash.

- Constructive waves = small wave, low wave energy, strong swash and weak backwash, creates a flat beach
- Destructive waves = tall wave, high wave ٠ energy, weak swash and strong backwash, creates a steep beach

Types of waves





Types of coastlines



- Discordant coastlines form when different rock strata is layered at right angles to the coast. Discordant coastlines typically have a number of headlands and bays.
- Concordant coastlines form when rock strata runs parallel to the coastline. Concordant coastlines typically form cliffs.

water to pass through it). 2. Biological weathering is where animals borrowing and plant roots break apart rock.

(3) When a wave moves into

shallow water near the coast

it is distorted until it 'breaks'

(4) From this moment on.

but also the water

it's not only the energy

that's moving forward

6 And then it drains

back down the beach - this is called the backwas

1) Out at sea, the wind tugs at

the wave shape to move.

the surface of the water, causing

Wind

2) Within a wave, each water

particle moves in a circula

motion and returns to its

starting point

Weathering is the breaking

weathering occurs when

rocks are porous (contain

holes) or permeable (allow

down of rock in situ:

1. Freeze-thaw

3. Chemical weathering occurs when rainwater/seawater is more acidic. If a coastline is made up of rocks such as limestone or chalk, over time they can become dissolved by the acid in the water. Mass movement is the downhill movement of sediment that moves because of gravity:

- **Rockfall** = Bits of rock fall off the cliff face, usually due to freeze-thaw weathering.
- Mudflow = Saturated soil (soil filled with water) flows down a slope.

Coastal

landscapes

Mass movement

Landslide = Large blocks of rock slide downhill.

Formation of waves

Rotational slip = Saturated soil slump down a curved surface

Erosion is the wearing away and breaking down of rock by waves. This is normally caused by destructive waves:

- 1. Hydraulic action water is forced into cracks in the rock. This compresses air and blasts out when the wave retreats, forcing the rock apart.
- 2. Abrasion loose rocks are scraped against the cliff, wearing it away.
- **3.** Attrition loose rocks collide in the waves, making them smaller.

Transportation is the process of waves picking up and carrying material:

- **1. Traction** large boulders roll along the sea bed.
- 2. Saltation pebbles bounce along the sea bed.
- 3. Suspension fine sand floats in the sea.
- 4. Solution dissolved material is carried in the sea.



- Headland a narrow piece of land that projects from a coastline into the sea, usually made of resistant rock.
- Bay a broad inlet of the sea where the land curves inwards, usually made of less resistant rock.
- Wave-cut platform base of a headland is eroded away at high tide, forming a notch.
 Eventually, the hard rock above the notch collapses onto the seabed, forming a platform of hard rock.
- Cave formed by cracks being enlarged by waves
- Arch formed by two caves forming back-to-back

- Deposition is the dropping of material.
- Coastal deposition takes place in areas where the flow of water slows down.
- Waves lose energy in sheltered bays and where water is protected by spits or bars.
- The sediment can no longer be carried or moved and is therefore deposited. This is why beaches are found in bays, where the energy of the waves is reduced

- Beaches are made up from eroded material that has been transported from elsewhere and then deposited by the sea from constructive waves.
- A **spit** is an extended stretch of sand or shingle jutting out into the sea from the land. Spits occur when there is a change in the shape of the landscape or there is a river mouth. Sediment is carried by longshore drift and then deposited by the loss of wave energy.
- A bay is formed by a spit growing across a bay to join two headlands together

Sand dunes form at the back of the beach, created by wind blowing sand onto an obstacle and becoming trapped. The sand cannot continue to build in height because it becomes unstable and collapses under its own weight. This causes the sand dune to migrate over time and grow in size.



- Beach nourishment = adding sand to the beach. A larger beach reduces erosion but the sand is transported away by longshore drift.
- Cliff regrading = changing the angle of the cliff prevents mass movement. However, it does cause the cliff to retreat further back.
- Dune regeneration = creating or restoring sand dunes by growing marram grass. It is cheap to do but takes a long time.

- Groyne = timber structure built on the beach to stop longshore drift. It helps build up the beach but causes erosion downdrift.
- Sea wall = concrete wall built at the base of a cliff. It reduces cliff erosion but is expensive.
- Rock armour = large boulders placed at the base of a cliff. It reduces wave energy but needs replacing over time.
- Gabions = metal cages filled with pebbles at the base of a cliff. Reduces wave energy but breaks over time.

River channel describes the shape of the river. We call this the cross profile of a river:

- Upper course = v-shaped river, narrow, shallow
- Middle course = U-shaped river, wider, deeper
- Lower course = wide channel, deep, lots of alluvium along the river bed

River valley describes the land around the river. We call this the long profile of a river.

- Upper course = steep, v-shaped valley
- Middle course = gentle slope
- Lower course = Flat land



- Attrition = When pebbles bump into one another, little pieces chip off, making them smaller and smaller.
- Abrasion = Material rubs against the river bed wearing it away (like sandpaper).
- Solution = River water causes some types of rock to dissolve.

Traction = Large boulders roll along the river bed.

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- Saltation = Small pebbles bounce along the river bed.
- Suspension = Fine sands and silts float along in the water.
- Solution = Dissolved material is carried along by the river you can not see this.

- An interlocking spur is a hill that a river meanders (moves) around in a V-shaped valley. When we look at them from further downstream, these spurs look like they lock together.
- As the river meets areas of hard rock it cannot erode through it so the river bends around it, creating interlocking spurs of land which link together.



- Waterfalls form where a river flows over an area of hard rock followed by an area of softer rock. The softer rock is eroded via abrasion more than the hard rock, creating a 'step' in the river.
- As the water goes over the step it erodes more and more of the softer rock. A steep drop is eventually created, which is a called a



- Energy is lost when the river travels over a riffle because there's more friction.
- The river's flow goes to one side and the flow becomes more turbulent, increasing erosion on the inside bend.

- A levee is a naturally built up embankment at the side of a river.
- They are found in the lower course of a river.
- Levees are formed by deposition.
- When the river
 floods, larger
 material is deposited
 next to the river bank
 and smaller material
 is deposited onto the
 adjacent flat land.

Erosion on the outside of the bend and deposition on the inside, narrows the neck of the land within the meander.
 The river cuts through during a flood event, creating a straight channel.

3. Eventually, deposition will block off the old meander to leave an oxbow lake.

- A floodplain is an area of low-lying ground adjacent (next) to a river, formed mainly of river sediments and subject to flooding.
- They form in the lower course of a river where the valley is much flatter and the river is carrying more sediment.
- When rivers flood, lighter sediment is deposited evenly on the flat land.

- Estuaries form when rivers meet the sea (mouth)
- A delta is formed when the river deposits its material faster than the sea can remove it, creating large alluvium (fine silt) deposits
- As the energy of the waves meets the energy of the channel, the two forces of water collide causing it to slow down, resulting in deposition





Unit 5: UK's evolving human landscape

/ou should know	Revised?
Enquiry question 1: Why are places and people changing in the UK?	
Differences between urban core and rural (population density and age structure, economic activities and settlement) and how UK and EU government policies have attempted to reduce them (via enterprise zones, investment in transport infrastructure, regional development).	
Why national and international migration over the past 50 years has altered the population geography of the UK (numbers, distribution, age structure) and how UK and EU immigration policy has contributed to increasing ethnic and	
cultural diversity.	
Why the decline in primary and secondary sectors and the rise of the tertiary and quaternary sectors in urban and rural areas has altered economic and employment structure in contrasting regions of the tertiary and quaternary sectors in urban and rural areas has altered economic and employment structure in contrasting regions of the tertiary and quaternary sectors in urban and rural areas has altered economic and employment structure in contrasting regions of	
Why globalisation, free-trade polices (UK and EU) and privatisation has increased foreign direct investment (FDI) and the role of TNCs in the UK economy.	
Enquiry question 2: How is ONE major* UK city changing?	
Significance of site, situation and connectivity of the city in a national (cultural and environmental), regional and global context.	
The city's structure (Central Business District (CBD), inner city, suburbs, urban-rural fringe), in terms of its functions and variations in building age and density, land-use and environmental quality.	
Causes of national and international migration that influence growth and character the different parts of the city (age structure, ethnicity, housing, services, culture).	
Reasons for different levels of inequality, in employment and services, education, health in the different parts of the city.	
How parts of the city have experienced decline (deindustrialisation, de-population): de-centralisation (out-of-town shopping centres, retail and business parks), e-commerce, developments in transport.	
How parts of the city have experienced economic and population growth (sprawl on the rural-urban fringe, financial and business services, investment by trans-national corporations, gentrification/studentification, culture and leisure).	
How regeneration and rebranding of the city has positive and negative impacts on people (increased population, environmental quality and economic opportunities).	
Strategies aimed at making urban living more sustainable and improving quality of life in the city (recycling, employment, green spaces, transport, affordable and energy-efficient housing).	
The city and accessible rural areas are interdependent (flows of goods, services and labour), which leads to economic, social and environmental costs and benefits for both.	
Why a rural area has experienced economic and social changes (counter-urbanisation, pressure on housing, increased leisure and recreation and population change) due to its links with the city.	
The challenges of availability and affordability of housing, decline in primary employment, provision of healthcare and education and how they affect quality of life (IMD) for some rural groups (elderly and young people).	
New income and economic opportunities are created by rural diversification (farm shops, accommodation, leisure activities) and tourism projects, but these may have environmental impacts.	

Population density is the average number of people in a given area. It is measured as people per km2:

- Densely populated in urban areas (towns/cities), typically on land that is flat and near to the coast or river
- Sparsely populated in rural areas, typically on steep land

- A core region is an economically important area. The UK's most densely populated areas are our major cities such as London, Manchester, Glasgow etc.
- People move (migrate) to our urban areas in search of better jobs, ٠ better paid jobs or a better lifestyle.



Out-migration of younger people

Older population

Lower income

urban core.

- Enterprise zones = Businesses are offered incentives to set up or expand businesses. This increases job opportunities but reduces taxes paid.
- Regional development grants = These are grants given by the UK government to boost opportunities beyond England (Scotland, Northern Ireland and Wales). This increases job opportunities in rural areas but these funds are small.

Opportunities and

challenges in rural areas

- EU grants = funds given by the EU to poorest regions of the UK. This improves job prospects but very few places in UK are eligible.
- Improvements in transport = building new transport links will improve access to rural areas and attract businesses.

Challenges:

- Lack of housing and services
- **Rising house prices** due to demand
- Jobs are seasonal . and low paid

Opportunities:

- Eden project = provides year round jobs, attracts millions of tourists and contributes £1 billion a year. Issues - pollution and visitor numbers are declining.
- Lobb's farm shop = people buy food locally ٠ and they hire 20 people. However, only provides enough food for local people.

Reducing the gap between

core and periphery regions

UK urban and rural landscapes

Impact of globalisation on the UK

- Globalisation is the increased connections (interlinking) between countries. Countries have become connected through travel, trade and TNCs.
- Virgin is one example of a TNC which operates both within the UK and worldwide.
- Increase in globalisation has increased privatisation of companies which makes them more expensive

The UK's population has increased over time.

UK population

change

- Birth rate has decreased but the working and older population has increased (dependent population)
- Life expectancy has increased, creating an ageing population.
- Population has increased due to immigration and natural increase.



- Secondary manufacturing (producing) goods
- Tertiary job providing goods e.g. teacher
- Quaternary working in scientific research and IT

Changes to UK economy

- The UK de-industrialised, resulting in large scale unemployment in historically industrial region such as north-eastern England.
- Most people now work in tertiary and guaternary industry
- The knowledge economy is an economy based on specialised knowledge and skill (you need a degree or specialised training).
- A new economy is a movement to jobs in tertiary and quaternary.



- Life expectancy tends to be lower in poorer areas as traffic congestion is higher.
- People in deprived areas tend to have an unhealthy lifestyle e.g. smoking.
- De-industrialisation leads to inner city decline, leading to poorer education in inner areas.

- Internal migrants are people who move to an area within a country e.g. from Nottingham to London.
 - An international migrant is a person who moves from one country to another e.g. from Spain to London, UK.
 - We need a range of skilled and unskilled workers to migrate to the UK to fulfil our jobs and help boost our economy.
 - Impacts = religious diversification but can lead to ethnic segregation and conflict

London's structure represents the **Hoyt model**. This is based on the circles in the Burgess model, but adds sectors of similar land uses concentrated in parts of the city. Notice how some zones, e.g. the industry zone, radiates out from the CBD. This is usually following the line of a main road or a railway.

- Docks closed as a result of de-industrialisation (industry moved to NEEs). This resulted in large scale unemployment.
- Suburbanisation is the movement of people from the inner city to the outer suburbs. People moved to the suburbs as the inner city became rundown after the industry closed. This made inner city areas decline further.

There is a lack of affordable housing in London because:

- Ageing population people are living longer so less houses available
- Divorce rates are increasing many families are now split between two • houses
- Increase in population natural increase as healthcare has improved
- Immigration people moving to the UK in search of better paid jobs



- Transport improvements have been made e.g. Stratford Station
- Provided 35,000 new jobs

Negative impacts:

- Housing is more expensive in the area as there is high demand and the housing quality is high standard
- People who lived there before couldn't afford to move back
- Gentrification the character of a poor urban area is changed by wealthier people moving in.
- Studentification large areas where students live. These are found near to universities.

- Urban regeneration is the revival of old parts of
- This leads to the rebranding of an area; change in image.
- Urban regeneration is encouraging people to move back to the city, this is known as reurbanisation.

- Transport = introduced a congestion charge to discourage people from driving in the city, invested in improving public transport and created charging points for electric cars.
- Energy = new housing developments made to be energy efficient and increased use of renewable energy.

- Green spaces = parks and green roofs places all around the city to increase habitats, reduce flooding and improve air quality.
- Waste = reduced household waste by 10%, increased recycling in the city and provide a composting service.



- Rising population
- Increase in demand for housing

- Access to services and shops
- Access to transport links



Description of fieldwork process	Revised?		
Understanding of the kinds of question capable of being investigated through fieldwork and an			
understanding of the geographical enquiry processes appropriate to investigate them.			
Understanding of the range of techniques and methods used in fieldwork, including observation and			
different kinds of measurement.			
Processing and presenting fieldwork data in various ways, including maps, GIS, graphs and diagrams			
(hand-drawn and computer-generated).			
Analysing and explaining data collected in the field, using knowledge of relevant geographical case studies			
and theories.			
Drawing evidenced conclusions and summaries from fieldwork transcripts and data			
Reflecting critically on fieldwork data, methods used, conclusions drawn and			
knowledge gained.			

Bridlington:

- Range of hard engineering coastal management methods
- Within a 2-hour drive collect more data
- Accessible easy to collect data

News article from the BBC about coastal erosion and management along the Holderness Coastline – suggest why the area needs coastal management



Method 1: Groyne measurements

- Measure the northward drop and southward drop in sediment every 10m down 5 groynes to drop if there is a larger drop on one side
- Presented as a located bar chart as it is a good visual demonstration of the drop and direction of sediment

Method 2: Beach profiles

- Two people hold a ranging pole at a distance from each other, the angle is measured between the poles using a clinometer.
- Presented as a line graph as it is a good visual demonstration of how the shape of the beach profile changes

- Students will in a bi-polar survey to rank the effectiveness of different features for each sea defence
- Presented as a radar graph as it is a good visual demonstration of how effective each defence is (larger shape = better)
- Method 3: Bi-polar analysis

- Sediment moving north, largest drop 10cm
- Site 1 (no coastal defences) had a very shallow beach profile of 7°. Sites 4-5 had a steep beach profile ranging from 10-30°
- Bi-polar analysis of groynes = in-effective at -1
- Bi-polar analysis of sea wall = effective at +1 Results



Conclusions

- Coastal management has influenced beach morphology (steeper profile). However, some groynes no longer effectively trapping sand due to disrepair
- The sea wall has a positive social and economic impact on Bridlington. The groynes are having a negative social and economic impact.

Evaluation

- Limitations of methods Groyne measurements taken with ruler (not reliable readings), all measurements taken on one day which doesn't show changes over time etc.
- Improving reliability data collected in groups to reduce human error, data collected at multiple sites, photographs taken as qualitative data

Nottingham:

- Range of land uses which is good for comparing areas within a city
- Within a 30 minute drive collect more data
- Accessible easy to collect data

News article from the Nottingham Post suggested that Nottingham has varying levels of deprivation, and that those with higher deprivation levels will have a lower quality of life. Lace Market ranked 167th, Sneinton ranked 42nd



Method 1: Building survey

- Fill in a table which ranks each building according to style and function. Do this for x10 buildings in each location.
- Presented as a pie chart as it is a good visual demonstration of the quality of each site and make easy comparisons.

Method 2: Environmental quality survey

- Fill in a table which ranks the quality of the built environment at each site from -2 to +2
- Presented as a radar chart as it is a good visual demonstration of the quality of each site (bigger shape = better) and make easy comparisons.

• X10 people chosen at random to answer questions, comparing the quality of life between Sneinton and Lace Market

Method 3: Questionnaire

- Presented as a bar chart as it is a good way to show the clear distribution of data points
- Building quality better in Lace Market (70% modern/refurbished)
- Average environmental quality was higher at The Lace Market at +1
- most people agreed that the Lace Market would have the better quality of life as they are closer to services.
 Results



Conclusions

- Building quality better in Lace Market as more job opportunities = more funding
- Environmental quality better in Lace Market → more green spaces and less graffiti
- Better services in Lace Market = closer to CBD
- QoL better in Lace Market = more investment

Evaluation

- Limitations of methods all measurements taken on one day which doesn't show changes over time, limited buildings surveyed, only asked 10 people the questionnaire, bias results etc.
- Improving reliability data collected in groups to reduce human error and bias, photographs taken as qualitative data



Example 8 markers





8 mark questions in section A and B

The final question is always an 8 mark 'assess' question, with a figure to interpret

Here is an example:

Assess the causes of variations in the distributions shown in Figure 7 Analyse the information in Figure 7 which shows the percentage of the population of England and Wales born outside the UK, based on the 2011 Census data.

15.1 and above

10.1 to 15.0

7.6 to 10.0

5.1 to 7.5

2.6 to 5.0

2.5 and below

(65)

(57)

(54)

(74)

(91)

(7)





How significant something is.

What makes something happen.

Not the same everywhere

Assess the causes of variations in the distributions shown in Figure 7.

(8 marks)

The spread of something on a map – make sure you use your map skills.

Introduction and x2 PEEL paragraphs – make sure you always link back to 'significance'



8 mark questions in section A and B

Marks are based on AO3 and AO4:

- AO3 = Apply knowledge and understanding to interpret, analyse and evaluate geographical information and issues and to make judgements.
- AO4 = Select, adapt and use a variety of skills and techniques to investigate questions and issues and communicate findings.

Level	Mark	Descriptor No rewardable material.		
	0			
Level 1	1-3	 Attempts to apply understanding to deconstruct information but understanding and connections are flawed. An unbalanced or incomplete argument that provides limited synthesis of understanding. Judgements that are supported by limited evidence. (AO3) Uses some geographical skills to obtain information with limited relevance and accuracy, which supports few aspects of the argument. (AO4) 		
Level 2	4-6	 Applies understanding to deconstruct information and provide some logical connections between concepts. An imbalanced argument that synthesises mostly relevant understanding, but not entirely coherently, leading to judgements that are supported by evidence occasionally. (AO3) Uses geographical skills to obtain accurate information that supports some aspects of the argument. (AO4) 		
Level 3	7-8	 Applies understanding to deconstruct information and provide logical connections between concepts throughout. A balanced, well-developed argument that synthesises relevant. 		
		understanding coherently leading to judgements that are		
		 supported by evidence throughout. (AO3) Uses geographical skills to obtain accurate information that supports all aspects of the argument. (AO4) 		



Analysing the figure – what is the pattern shown:

The basic pattern is very uneven

THE DUKERIES

ACADEMY

- London covers most of the >15.1% areas
- Only 7 areas have less than 2.5%
- 122 areas have more than 10%
- Half of England and Wales areas have less than 2.5% EU migrants
- Western areas have relatively few foreign born including Southwest, Wales and Cumbria

Why do you think these patterns exist?

7 Analyse the information in Figure 7 which shows the percentage of the population of England and Wales born outside the UK, based on the 2011 Census data.

15.1 and above

10.1 to 15.0

7.6 to 10.0

5.1 to 7.5

2.6 to 5.0

2.5 and below

(65)

(57)

(54)

(74)(91)

(7)





Why do you think these patterns exist?

HE DUKERIES

ACADEMY

- Likely to be driven by employment opportunities so growing areas more likely to attract immigrants e.g. London and south-east, but especially London
- Urban areas generally have wider range of jobs so more attractive thus urban centres have most of the migrants
- EU migrants attracted by London jobs especially in finance and business services
- Jobs in rural areas likely to be seasonal jobs in agriculture

7 Analyse the information in Figure 7 which shows the percentage of the population of England and Wales born outside the UK, based on the 2011 Census data.

(65)

(57)

(54)

(74)(91)

(7)





Examples:

Assess the possible impacts of these variations in gross disposable income (GDI)per head. [8] 7 (a) Analyse the information in Figure 7 which shows variations in gross disposable income (GDI) per head in 2017, between UK regions and within those regions.



- Gross disposable income (GDI) per head is the amount of money people have to spend or save per year after they have paid their taxes and/or received any benefits.
- The UK mean GDI per head is just over £17,000 (the vertical dotted line).
- The data shows the range of GDI per head values between UK regions.
- The data also shows the range of GDI per head in each of the regions (e.g. Sunderland has the lowest mean GDI per head and Northumberland has the highest mean GDI per head in the North East).



8 mark questions in section A and B

Investigating a UK Geographical Issue



4 Analyse Figure 4a and Figure 4b, which show data about the distribution of igneous

Figure 4a

Figure 4a shows the distribution of igneous and metamorphic rocks in the British Isles.



Figure 4b

Figure 4b shows the relief of the British Isles.

Examples:

Assess the influence of geology on the landscape of the UK. [8]



Examples:

Assess the possible causes and consequences of this movement of graduates. [8] 7 Analyse the information in Figure 7 which shows information about what happens to graduates at selected UK universities when they complete their studies.

The top 5 universities and bottom 5 universities measured by the percentage of graduates who leave their university town/city after graduation

Location of university	% of graduates who leave after graduation	Population of town/city	Total number of students at university				
Top 5							
Exeter	89%	117,000	23,200				
Warrington	87%	202,000	13,600				
Coventry	84%	325,000	31,700				
Reading	83%	163,000	15,800				
Cambridge	82%	158,000	19,900				
Bottom 5							
Glasgow	46%	621,000	28,600				
Birmingham	44%	1,100,000	34,800				
Belfast	42%	333,000	23,800				
Manchester	40%	545,000	40,500				
London	25%	8,700,000	160,500				



8 mark questions in section A and B

Examples:

Assess the relationship between altitude and population density in the UK. [8]

4 Analyse Figures 4a and 4b, which are two maps of the UK showing its population density (Figure 4a) and its altitude (height above sea level, shown in Figure 4b).





Key Altitude above sea level: Above 600m 100m – 600m Below 100m



 Analyse Figure 7, which shows information about the source of the UK's carbon emissions (in MtCO₂ – metric tonnes of carbon dioxide) by region and sector, in 2015.

Examples:

Assess the reasons why carbon emissions vary from place to place and from time to time. [8]



- The UK's carbon emissions have fallen to the lowest levels since the 1890s
- This is largely explained by switching from coal to natural gas for generating electricity
- · Coal now accounts for only 5% of our energy consumption
- The transport sector consumes 77% of all oil used
- The target is to reduce carbon emissions by 80% of 1990 levels by 2050; currently we are 38% below 1990 levels.



Examples:

Assess the reasons why woodland is unevenly distributed at both a national and a local scale.[8] 4 Analyse Figure 2 which is a map extract (1:250 000) and information about the distribution of forested areas at a national and a local scale.



- 13% of the United Kingdom is woodland: this is the lowest figure for any European country.
- The amount of woodland varies across the home nations, with England the lowest at 10% and Scotland the highest at 18%.
- Much of this is plantations of evergreens.
- The UK is, after China, the largest importer of timber and timber products.
- Forestry gives a relatively low profit compared to agriculture and other land uses.



Examples:

Assess the possible causes and consequences of variations in the health of high streets.[8] 7 Analyse the information in Figure 6 which shows the location of England's five 'unhealthiest high streets' and life expectancy ranked from best to worst.



- The Royal Society for Public Health ranked the high streets that were most unhealthy as those with more payday lenders, bookmakers, tanning salons and fast food outlets.
- High street outlets that were considered healthy included leisure centres, health services, libraries, pubs, museums and art galleries.