

**A LEVEL
GEOGRAPHY
REVISION GUIDE
Paper 2: Human
Geography
2020**

CONTEMPORARY URBAN ENVIRONMENTS

1.1 Global patterns of urbanisation since 1945.

- A wide range of economic, social, technological, political and demographic processes are associated with urbanisation and urban growth.
- The twentieth and twenty-first centuries witnessed the emergence and growth of megacities and world cities and their role has shaped both global and regional economies.
- Key characteristics of mega/world cities include: hegemonic influence, centres for resources, learning and trade, they have high levels of synergy but their populations can be polarised.

1.2 Changing patterns of urbanisation

- Suburbanisation, counter-urbanisation, urban resurgence have all shaped and influenced urban change over the last 50 years.
- The key traits of recent urban change are deindustrialisation, decentralisation and the rise of service economy.
- Urban policy in Britain since 1979 has focused on rebranding, reimagining and regeneration of urban areas.

1.3 Changing urban landscapes in the twenty-first century

- Urban characteristics are not fixed but diverse and vary between contrasting settings.
- A combination of physical and human factors shape urban forms.
- Spatial patterns of land use are influenced by these factors.
- New urban land uses have emerged: town centre mixed developments, cultural and heritage quarters, fortress landscapes, gentrified inner areas and edge cities.
- Post-modern western cities have emerged that have a greater emphasis on service and knowledge based industries, are more fragmented, eclectic and have greater ethnic diversity.

1.4 Internal shifts in economic and social patterns

- Spatial patterns of economic inequality, social segregation and cultural diversity are shifting in urban areas and the factors that influence them vary from city to city.
- Issues associated with these inequality, segregation and diversity are complex as are the strategies needed to effectively manage them.

1.5 Urban Climate

- The urban form and processes influences local climate and weather such as: the urban heat island effect, shifts in frequency and intensity of precipitation, increased fog and thunderstorms as well as wind speed, direction and frequency.

1.6 Urban Drainage

- Urban precipitation, surfaces and catchment characteristics impact on drainage basin storage areas, altering the urban water cycle.
- The development of sustainable urban drainage systems (SUDS) is relatively new and have arisen due to the issues associated with catchment management in urban areas.
- River restoration and conservation in damaged urban catchments is vital to ensure cities are sustainable and fit for purpose.

1.7 Urban waste and its disposal

- Urban physical waste generation is a major issue for urban authorities and planners: sources of waste from both industrial and commercial activity as well as personal consumption are increasing the volume of waste planners have to manage.
- There is a direct relationship between waste components or streams and the economic characteristics, lifestyles and attitudes of people living in urban areas.
- The environmental impacts of alternative approaches to waste disposal varies: unregulated, recycling, recovery, reduction (incineration), burial, submergence, trade.
- Incineration and landfill are common approaches to waste disposal in major urban areas such as London and Amsterdam.

1.8 Urban Pollution

- Air quality is a global issue in urban areas, including particulate and photo-chemical pollution.
- Urban areas now have pollution reduction policies and management strategies to deal with air pollution, water pollution and dereliction.
- Pollution from urban areas can have a significant impact on both local and global environments.

1.9 Sustainable cities

- Ecological footprint of major urban areas considers different dimensions of sustainability: natural, physical, social and economic.
- The nature and features of sustainable cities is underpinned by the concept of liveability.
- There is a range of contemporary opportunities and challenges in developing more sustainable cities.
- A range of strategies are needed for developing more sustainable cities including investment in infrastructure and services, the use of 'leap-frogging' technologies, investment in renewable energy sources and sustainable waste collection.

Contemporary Urban Environments

Glossary of Definitions

Accessibility- How easy it is to travel to a place or interact with an individual.

Agriculture Based Regeneration - The focus of regeneration is to help local farms produce extra revenue such as creating farm shops, building the reputation of local produce and starting local farm attractions (maze mazes, muddy assault courses, tractor trailer rides etc.)

Amenity Value- The value of a resource to locals and businesses (beaches, timber, coal).

Built Environment- The buildings and infrastructure within an urban area.

Capital- Productive assets, goods or financial stakes.

Central Business District (CBD)- The centre of a city, containing a high density of businesses and TNC headquarters.

Council Estate- Consisting only of social housing, with tenants on subsidised rent.

Counter Urbanisation- An increase in the proportion of a population living within rural areas, due to migration from urban to rural regions.

Cultural Enrichment- The addition of ideas, traditions and beliefs due to the arrival of new people.

Cultural Erosion- The loss of a culture, resulting in a change in ideas or disregard for traditions.

Culture- The way of life of a particular group of people at a particular time, generally customs and beliefs.

Culture-led Regeneration - The focus of regeneration is to enhance historic or cultural attractions of an area such as opening stately homes and building a reputation based on famous residents (Wordsworth country, Beatrix Potter in the Lake District, etc).

Cycle of Deprivation- A negative multiplier effect, where by deindustrialisation leads to economic loss, declining quality of life for locals and the loss of services which all lead to further deindustrialisation.

Degeneration- The decline of a region over time, due to insufficient funds, outward migration and declining quality of life for residents.

Deindustrialisation- A reduction in industrial capacity, leading to social and economic change within a region.

Demographic- The characteristics of a population.

Deprivation- Individuals' lack basic services or objects they would expect to have in the 21st Century.

Dereliction- The loss of industry or productivity of a land, leaving it abandoned.

Diversity- Variation within a population, in their characteristics, background and behaviour.

Elite Migrants- Migration due to an individual's wealth or status, often investing in the host country through investment visas, property or business.

Environmental Impact Assessment- The study of environmental impacts caused by large business projects.

Environmental Regeneration- The focus of regeneration is to restore and maintain natural environments such as woodlands, beaches and national parks.

Ethnicity- The cultural background of a group of people, often based on religion or country of origin.

Gated Communities- Urban neighbourhoods surrounded by gates often to improve privacy and safety. They can add to segregation within a community.

Gentrification- Renovation of older/deteriorating buildings or areas with the aim of attracting high-income individuals or elite businesses to a place.

Green Belt- Strips of greenfield land surrounding major UK cities, protected to try to reduce urban sprawl and preserve natural environments and habitats.

Governance- The management of a place or group of people.

Hard Regeneration- Construction of new buildings and infrastructure and investment within a region.

Idyll- A location with ideal living conditions and good qualities. Often based on a perception.

Inequality- Differences in income, well-being and wealth between individuals, communities and society.

Internal Migration- The movement of people within a country.

International Migration- The movement of people from one country to another.

Kuznet's Curve- A graph describing environmental degradation as a country's GDP per capita increases.

Leisure-led Regeneration - The focus of regeneration is to attract tourists or improve the social quality of life (sports & activities, attractions, etc.).

Life-cycle Stage- The change in opinions and values at different stages of an individual's life.

Life Expectancy- The average number of years an individual is likely to live, determined at birth.

Lived Experience- The contribution of experiences and opportunities to an individual's views and values.

Media- The publishing of information and production of entertainment (e.g. BBC, local newspapers, radio stations).

Multicultural- The existence, acceptance or promotion of multiple cultural traditions within a single geographic area.

Non-Agricultural Based Regeneration- The focus of regeneration is to produce revenue for rural businesses (e.g. Tea Rooms, Paintballing, Historic Attractions).

Overheating- Increased demand for housing and the services of an area results in rising prices rather than increased output.

Perception- A person's view of a place or issue based on feelings, experience and outside forces such as the media.

Political Engagement- The willingness and ability of an individual to vote or join political parties or pressure groups.

Pressure Group- Usually voluntary organisations, with the aim of persuading the public and changing government policy or authorities actions.

Population Density- The number of people per square kilometre.

Rebranding- Creating a new look or reputation for an area.

Regional Disparity- The economic (or cultural) gap between different parts of a country.

Retail-led Regeneration - The focus of regeneration is to attract shops to high streets and markets, and to establish warehouses and logistical hubs for TNCs.

Reimaging- Regeneration and rebranding specifically focussed on removing negative perceptions about a place.

Rural Decline- Reduction in population in rural areas, leading to reduced services and government spending for that region.

Rural-urban Continuum- A range of living spaces running from remotest peripheral rural villages to the CBD of the city.

Segregation- The separation of a group from other groups this can be through force or voluntarily. Segregation can often occur due to housing strategies or regeneration projects.

Sink Estates- Council estates that score badly on the Index of Multiple Deprivation.

Spiral of Decline- Stages of rural decline that contribute to a positive feedback loop, with more and more outward migration and increasingly declining services.

Stakeholder- An individual with interest and influence within their community (residents, local businesses, farmers, NGOs).

Social Clustering- Groups of people with similar background frequently living together.

Social Exclusion- The inability of a group of people to become involved in the cultural activities of a place.

Soft Regeneration- Investing in the skills and education of the population to improve their own quality of life.

Urbanisation- An increase in the proportion of a population living within urban areas.

Urban Resurgence- Also known as re-urbanisation, urban resurgence is the movement of people back to an area which was previously in decline. This influx of people and investment further improves the social, economic and environmental conditions of urban areas.

Contemporary Urban Environments

Urbanisation

Urbanisation is the **growth in the proportion of a country living in urban areas**. People are moving to urban areas all over the world but **most of the population in richer countries** already live in **urban areas**.

More than **50% of the world's population** currently live in urban areas (**3.4 billion people**) and more than **80% of the UK population** live in urban areas.

Urbanisation is happening **faster in poorer countries** as more are moving for **better work and health opportunities** which are available in cities.

Since 1950, the **rate of urbanisation** has grown for both richer and poorer countries but the rate has been **twice as great** in poorer countries than richer countries. **25% of Bangladesh** currently live in urban areas.

The **proportion living in urban areas is less in Low Income Countries than that of richer countries**.

It is usually **young people** who move to cities to find work. These people have **children in the cities** which increases the proportion of the population living in urban areas.

Urban areas have **better healthcare**, service **accessibility** and **life expectancy**. As life expectancy is **higher**, the proportion of people living in urban areas is **increased**.

Suburbanisation is the **outward growth** of **urban**

development where people move to the **suburbs**. The suburbs are the **outlying areas of the city** which are close enough to the central business district so accessible by **commuters**. They are usually predominantly **residential areas**.

Counter-urbanisation is when **large numbers of people** move **from urban areas** into **surrounding countryside or rural areas**. This is largely a **demographic** and **social process**.

Urban growth is facilitated by **economic, social, technological, political and demographic processes**. These processes provide **incentives**, encouraging people to **move to urban areas**. For instance, the greater exposure to **new technologies, cultures and job opportunities** may entice people to move to cities for a **better quality of life**.

Megacities

Urbanisation has resulted in the **growth of megacities** which are **metropolitan areas** with a total population greater than **ten million people**. In 2015, there were **35 megacities in the world**; the largest being **Tokyo, Delhi, Mumbai and Mexico City** to name a few.

Along with world cities, such as **London and New York City** (which have populations under 10 million), megacities have an important role in **global and regional economies** as they have **large markets** and are **central businesses districts** involving the world.

Cities also face **urban change over time**, such as **deindustrialisation, decentralisation** and the risks of **service economies**. Often, this leads to **urban policies** and **regeneration** schemes, which has been happening in Britain since 1979.

For instance, after businesses moved away from the London Docklands, it became a **derelict** site. After **regeneration** and **gentrification**, it has become a **business hotspot**, attracting professionals and businesses.

Urban Forms and Issues

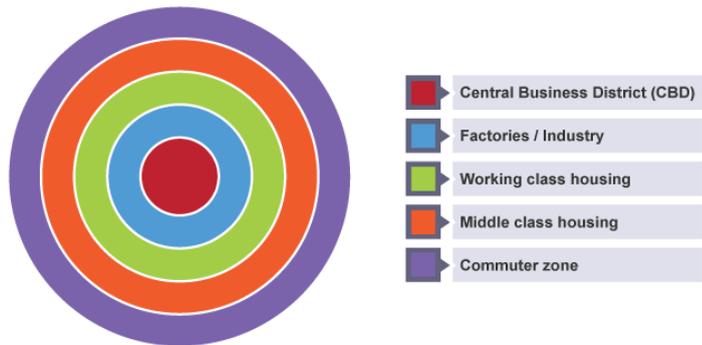
Urban forms are the **physical characteristics** that make up **built areas**, including the **shape, size, density and configuration of settlements**.

When a city grows at a **manageable rate**, considered to be **1% annually**, the **infrastructure can keep pace** with the **growing demands of the population**. However, with **megacities**, necessities such as **public transportation, sewer systems, water facilities, healthcare and education** become strained as the **population density is too great to be managed**.

Without **proper facilities**, low income urban residents are forced to **create their own provisions with the available resources**. This leads to a rise in **squatter settlements, poor health and poor sanitation**. Additionally, urban growth may lead to **urban sprawl** which creates wider urban areas, forcing more places to become **overcrowded** and a reduction of countryside.

The spatial patterns of land use in urban areas are said to follow **The Burgess Model**. This model claims that the centre of the city (CBD: **Central Business District**) is where **commercial businesses and international exchanges** occur.

The next two rings are the inner city which has a mix of **poor housing** and older **industrial buildings**. The inner city is often deprived but can have newly built housing/industry where land has been **regenerated**.



The fourth ring represents the **suburbs** which is **residential housing**, often being **cheaper** than within the central business district. In the UK and USA, **middle-class families** tend to locate in the suburbs as the **environment is cleaner and safer** than the central city.

The **final ring** represents the **rural-urban fringe** which is the **edge of a city** where there are both urban and rural land uses.

Urbanisation and Inequalities

Urbanisation creates **economic inequality, social segregation and cultural diversity** which may lead to a rise in **racism, hate crime and abuse** but this varies globally.

Ethnic segregation is closely related to **economic indicators**, such as **income and employment**, and **social indicators** such as **health, crime and education**. Segregation then leads **stereotypes** to form which creates bias and injustice within society.

Diverse living spaces in urban areas have **social characteristics** that **reflect ethnicity and culture**. **Segregation** and other inequalities can be prevented by **creating awareness** and facilitating the needs of those who have been **marginalised** within urban areas.

For example, **Aik Saath** (meaning 'as one/ side by side' in Hindi, Punjabi and Urdu) in Slough is a **charity** focused on **integrating people** from 'all communities, faiths and backgrounds to encourage conflict resolution and community cohesion'. This is achieved through **training, campaigns and projects**.

The charity was set up to **stop gang violence and hate crime** amongst young people from **Asian** backgrounds. The charity works in **schools, colleges, universities and local events** to reach a wide audience and create a social identity.

Additional social problems in urban areas include a **shortage of good quality housing**, **run down** CBDs and **traffic congestion**. These issues can be fixed through **urban renewal schemes**, the creation of new towns, such as Milton Keynes which was made in the 1970s, relocation incentives and congestion charges.

Urban Climate and Drainage

Urban climate refers to **climatic conditions** within urban areas which differ from neighbouring rural areas.

Urbanisation **changes the form of the landscape** and consequently produces changes in an area's air quality.

Surfaces that were **permeable become impermeable** and dry due to **urbanisation**. Urbanisation leads to a **growth in impermeable surfaces** due to the **development of infrastructure, roads and pavements**. As well as **impacting water drainage**,

the impermeable surfaces cause urban regions to become **warmer than their rural surroundings**, forming an 'island' of higher temperatures. This is called the '**urban heat island effect**'.

Urban structures are built to withstand **wind speeds and damage from precipitation**, particularly thunderstorms and hail storms.

Urban precipitation, surfaces and catchment characteristics vary from rural counterparts. As the darker surfaces of the city absorb heat energy, the warmer temperatures will mean there are **greater rates of evaporation**.

However, urbanisation can damage rivers and the water cycle through **contamination and pollution**. This can be solved through **water conservation** and **river restoration**, along with the development of **sustainable urban drainage systems (SUDS)**.

It is the actions of key players, such as governments and local authorities, to develop and enforce these projects.

Urban Waste and Disposal

Urban physical waste is generated from **industrial and commercial activity** alongside **personal consumption**.

Urban areas often have a **consumerist culture** which traditionally does not promote **sustainability**, reuse and recycling. Additionally, many people excuse themselves from making sustainable choices as they feel they have **little input in improving the environment**.

Waste disposal is a serious problem due to:

- **Money: Poorer countries** cannot afford to dispose waste sustainably and **safely**, such as toxic waste which requires **special treatment**.
- **Infrastructure:** The lack of suitable infrastructure, i.e. the densely populated residential areas makes it difficult to carry out **large scale recycling schemes**.
- **Scale:** Waste disposal is a huge problem. **Landfills** are not large enough and **incineration** results in further pollution and waste.

Sustainable Urban Development

Sustainable living involves meeting the needs of today without **reducing** the ability of people in the future to meet their needs.

Urban areas have grown **unsustainably** and have a **large ecological footprint** due to the amount of **waste and pollution** emitted. Urban areas can however be managed sustainably through a range of **strategies and schemes**.

Sustainability has **numerous dimensions**. The four pillars are: **natural, physical, social and economic**. For a project to be sustainable it must address these pillars. For instance, a scheme to bridge inequalities will address social and economic sustainability, helping people in the short and long term.

Sustainable cities focus on the concept of **liveability**. This is the sum of factors that add up to a community's **quality of life**, including the natural and built environment, economic prosperity, social stability, educational opportunity and cultural, economic and recreation possibilities.

A city can become **sustainable** through:

- **Schemes** to **reduce waste** and safely **dispose** of it: Limiting waste sent to **landfills** and optimising **recycling** opportunities.
- Conserving **natural environments** and **historic buildings**: These are resources and if they get used up today, they will not be available for future generations. Historic buildings can be **restored** and natural environments can become **protected**.
- Building on **brownfield** sites: By using **derelict** sites, land is not wasted and greenfield sites can be protected. They can provide homes and eliminate **housing pressures**.
- Building **carbon-neutral homes**: For example, **BedZED** is a housing development in London which aims to be a carbon neutral project, saving energy for future generations.
- Creating an **efficient public transport system**: This will mean there are **fewer cars** on the road so **pollution is reduced**.

Mark scheme

1. Assess the extent to which counter-urbanisation leads to social and economic change. (9marks)

AO1 – Knowledge and understanding of the process of counter-urbanisation and social and economic issues associated with urbanisation.

AO2 - Application of knowledge and understanding to analyse and evaluate the link between the process of counter-urbanisation and social and economic change.

Notes for answers

The question links two aspects of the contemporary urban environments section of the specification, namely global patterns of urbanisation since 1945 and social and economic issues associated with urbanisation.

AO1

- Understanding of the process of counter-urbanisation, the migration of people from major urban areas to smaller urban settlements and rural areas.
- Factors that have led to the growth of counter-urbanisation such as the negative reaction to city life/nature of built environment in cities; car ownership and greater affluence allowing people to commute to work from such areas.
- Understanding of issues associated with economic inequality, social segregation and cultural diversity, and the factors that cause them.
- Evidence for counter-urbanisation, which may include modern housing estates, the construction of more executive housing in the area, often on newly designated building land, and conversions of former farm buildings to exclusive residences.

AO2

- Evaluation of the extent of social and demographic changes resulting from counter-urbanisation. Rising demand for second homes and earlier retirement into rural areas may result in the out-migration of young village-born adults seeking education and employment opportunities elsewhere. It may also lead to the in-migration of young to middle-aged married couples or families with children or increased numbers of older residents and second home owners.
- Analysis of possible social outcomes, which may include tension between the newcomers and local people. Conflict may be caused by closure of local services, bus services to many rural communities may be reduced, and schools, churches and post offices may close. This may be because newcomers have the wealth and mobility to continue to use the urban services some distance away.
- Analysis of possible economic and social change in urban areas from which people move. Loss of population, especially higher income groups could lead to deterioration in urban environment. Area may decline as housing stock falls into disrepair, with resulting donut effect. Economic activities may follow, as loss may lead to closure of schools, health care provision. Positive impacts could also be described, such as reduction of housing pressure, reduced congestion. Changes in cultural/ethnic mix as new groups arrive.
- Evaluation of the effects of an influx of more affluent newcomers, which may lead to increased pressure on agricultural land for building and outward expansion of suburbanised villages which could result in increased land values and higher house prices. Locals may be unable to compete for housing, causing further tension and conflict.
- Extent of social change may depend on rate of expansion and development, changes to age structures and income groups and degree of disruption to existing communities. Allow consideration of benefits such as greater diversity in local communities.
- Overall evaluation of the extent of economic change. This will depend on the degree to which local services are supported and whether employment patterns change. Improvements in technology such as the internet allow more freedom of location for employment, so local services may be supported. Newer residents may be professionals or retired people who have higher disposable income. Advantages might include benefits to companies who have the opportunity to locate their companies in edge-of-town shopping areas and business parks. However there is likely to be more commuting, which will increase journey time and congestion, with resulting economic impacts.

2. 'Addressing issues of inequality and deprivation is more important than dealing with environmental challenges in the management of urban areas'. (20 marks)

AO1 – Knowledge and understanding of the social and economic issues and environmental issues affecting urban areas. Knowledge and understanding of management strategies used to manage these issues.

AO2 – Application of knowledge and understanding to analyse and evaluate the relative significance of socio-economic and environmental challenges when deciding urban management strategies.

Notes for answers:

AO1

- An understanding of the key ideas, 'socio-economic' and 'environmental', should be expected. The idea of urban 'management' will be important as the focus of the question.
- Knowledge and understanding of issues associated with economic inequality, social segregation, and cultural diversity.
- Inequalities tend to exist in terms of access to job opportunities, education, housing and basic public services such as water and sanitation. Knock-on impacts of this are poorer health, higher unemployment and a lack of social mobility. The poor get stuck in a cycle of poverty from which it is hard to escape.
- Ethnic communities have become isolated from wider society as they have maintained their own language and beliefs and limited their interaction with others, leading to segregation.
- Awareness of strategies to manage socio-economic issues such as improved provision of schools, enforcing a living wage, giving access to affordable housing, greater provision of public transport.
- Measures to deal with social variations, eg health care such as spatial availability of clinics; health education programmes, eg access to healthy living, eg sports and leisure facilities.
- Segregation may be reduced by legislation on anti-racism, employment rights and opportunities to combat discrimination, prejudice and racism and encouraging greater political involvement of different cultural groups.
- Issues of cultural diversity: local authorities provide English lessons or bilingual literature. Hospitals cater for specific illnesses and schools may alter their curricula and holiday patterns to cater for different ethnic groups.
- Knowledge and understanding of environmental challenges in urban areas, including atmospheric pollution, water pollution, dereliction and urban sprawl, urban waste disposal.
- Pollution controls on industry and traffic; dealing with legacy of an industrial past – land remediation strategies designed to remove contaminants from the ground; waste-related legislation, education and financial incentives; improvements to housing built when standards were lower, eg heating, damp.
- Water pollution strategies, for instance, may entail construction of water-treatment facilities and wastewater plants; and regulations aimed at 'point source' polluters such as industries, which discharge water pollution into receiving waters or sewer systems that flow into treatment plants.
- Knowledge and understanding of specific government and local strategies designed to manage social and environmental challenges.
- Knowledge and understanding of the different approaches used to tackle socio-economic and environmental issues, partially dependent on national economic context.

AO2

- Management of socio-economic issues may be seen to be more pressing and immediate than environmental problems, although much depends on the nature of the environmental issue. Some environmental challenges may require immediate action, particularly where pollution incidents occur. Credit opposing/balanced view if supported by evidence.
- Evaluation of the effectiveness of strategies to reduce urban inequalities, including cultural segregation and economic inequalities.
- Evaluation of the effectiveness of strategies to tackle cultural diversity issues. Cultural diversity can put extra pressure on stretched urban services. Effectiveness linked to financial investment, prioritisation by decision-makers, degree of isolation of different communities and receptivity to strategies adopted.
- Evaluation of effectiveness of strategies to tackle environmental challenges. Most difficult water-quality challenge: dealing with 'non-point source' pollution which is the result of precipitation run-off from chemicals and toxins from urban settlements.

- Analysis of the severity and nature of environmental issues, which will vary between high-income and lower-income countries. Lack of money and inadequate technology in low-income countries has resulted in much lower water quality standards. Effective legislation is often absent and enforcement of pollution controls limited.
- Analysis of urban management in different contexts. In many low-income countries management of urban issues is handicapped by lack of capital. Scale of poverty, homelessness, poor infrastructure is much greater, so governments may focus efforts on dealing with socio-economic challenges.
- In high-income countries, urban management may give greater precedence to environmental challenges, partly due to pressure from local population. There is a strong imperative to give serious attention to environmental challenges because of national and international agreements and targets.
- Overall conclusion may highlight the complexity of urban management strategies. Contemporary sustainable strategies may take account of both socio-economic and environmental challenges, and consider planning holistically

CHANGING PLACE

1.1 Economies can be classified in different ways and vary from place to place.

- Economic activity can be classified by sector (primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary) and also by type of employment (part-time/full-time, temporary/permanent, employed/self-employed).
- There are differences in economic activity (employment data and output data) and this is reflected through variation in social factors (health, life expectancy and levels of education).
- The inequalities in pay levels across economic sectors and in different types of employment are reflected in quality of life indices.

1.2 Places have changed their function and characteristics over time.

- Over time, places have changed their functions (administrative, commercial, retail and industrial) and demographic characteristics (gentrification, age structure and ethnic composition).
- Reason for changes in a place might be explained by physical factors, accessibility and connectedness, historical development and the role of local and national planning.
- Change can be measured using employment trends, demographic changes, land use changes and levels of deprivation (income deprivation, employment deprivation, health deprivation, crime, quality of the living environment, abandoned and derelict land).

1.3 Past and present connections have shaped the economic and social characteristics of your chosen places.

- Regional and national influences have shaped the characteristics of your chosen places. These places can be represented in a variety of different forms, giving contrasting images to that presented more formally and statistically. How the lives of students and those of others are affected by this continuity and change, both real and imagined.
- International and global influences that have shaped your chosen places. These places can be represented in a variety of different forms, giving contrasting images to that presented more formally and statistically. How the lives of students and those of others are affected by this continuity and change, both real and imagined. (P: increasing roles of TNCs and IGOs)
- Consideration of the way in which economic and social changes in your chosen places have influenced people's identity. (A: Attitudes on changes range from cultural erosion to enrichment)

2.1 Economic and social inequalities changes people's perceptions of an area.

- Successful regions (San Francisco Bay area) have high rates of employment, inward migration (internal and international) and low levels of multiple deprivation but also high property prices and skill shortages in both urban and rural areas.
- In some regions (The Rust Belt, USA) economic restructuring has triggered a spiral of decline, which includes increasing levels of social deprivation (education, health, crime, access to services and living environment) in both deindustrialised urban areas and rural settlements once dominated by primary economic activities.
- There are priorities for regeneration due to significant variations in both economic and social inequalities (gated communities, 'sink estates', commuter villages, declining rural settlements).

2.2 There are significant variations in the lived experience of place and engagement with them.

- There are wide variations in levels of engagement in local communities (local and national election turnout, development and support for local community groups). (A: local communities vary in attitudes).
- Lived experience of, and attachment to, places varies according to age, ethnicity, gender, length of residence (new migrants, students) and levels of deprivation; these in turn impact on levels of engagement. (A: Attachment to places influence attitudes).
- Conflicts can occur among contrasting groups in communities that have different views about the priorities and strategies for regeneration, these have complex causes (lack of political engagement and representation, ethnic tensions, inequality and lack of economic opportunity). (P: Players vary attitudes(A) and may have contrasting approaches).

2.3 There is a range of ways to evaluate the need for regeneration.

- The use of statistical evidence to determine the need for regeneration in your chosen local place.
- Different media can provide contrasting evidence, questioning the need for regeneration in your chosen local place.
- How different representations of your chosen local place could influence the perceived need for regeneration.

3.1 UK government policy decisions play a key role in regeneration.

- Infrastructure investment (high speed rail, airport development) in order to maintain growth and improve accessibility to regenerate regions. (P: national government facilitate regeneration often in partnerships with charities and developers).
- Rate and type of development (planning laws, house building targets, housing affordability, permission for 'fracking') affecting economic regeneration of both rural and urban regions. (A: Government actions may prioritise national over local needs and opinions.).
- UK government decisions about international migration and the deregulation of capital markets (enabling foreign investment in prime London real estate) have significant impacts on the potential for growth and both direct and indirect investment. (P: Government may create open or closed doors policies).

3.2 Local government policies aim to represent areas as being attractive for inward investment.

- Local governments compete to create sympathetic business environments with local plans designating areas for development for a range of domestic and foreign investors (Science Parks). (A: the actions of local authorities will affect their success)
- Local interest groups (Chambers of Commerce, local preservation societies, trade unions) play a key role in decision-making about regeneration; there are often tensions between groups that wish to preserve urban environments and those that seek change. (London Olympics 2012) (A: differing attitudes may cause conflicts).
- Urban and rural regeneration strategies include retail-led plans, tourism, leisure and sport (London Olympics 2012), public/private rural diversification (Powys Regeneration Partnership).

3.3 Rebranding attempts to represent areas as being more attractive by changing public perception of them.

- Rebranding involves re-imaging places using a variety of media to improve the image of both urban and rural locations and make them more attractive for potential investors.
- For UK deindustrialised cities, rebranding can stress the attraction of places, creating specific place identity building on their industrial heritage; this can attract national and international tourists and visitors (Glasgow 'Scotland with Style').
- There are a range of rural rebranding strategies in the postproduction countryside based on heritage and literary associations, farm diversification and specialised products, outdoor pursuits and adventure in both accessible and remote areas; these strategies are intended to make these places more attractive to national and international tourists and visitors ('Brontë country, Kielder Forest).

4.1 The success of regeneration uses a range of measures: economic, demographic, social and environmental.

- The success of economic regeneration can be assessed using measures of income, poverty and employment (both relative and absolute changes) both within areas and by comparison to other more successful areas.
- Social progress can be measured by reductions in inequalities both between areas and within them; social progress can also be measured by improvements in social measures of deprivation and in demographic changes (improvements in life expectancy and reductions in health deprivation).
- Regeneration is successful if it leads to an improvement in the living environment (levels of pollution reduced, reduction in abandoned and derelict land).

4.2 Different urban stakeholders have different criteria for judging the success of urban regeneration

- A study of the strategies used in the regeneration of an urban place (Salford Quays) and the contested nature of these decisions within local communities. (A: Attitudes will include NIMBYism)
- b. The changes that have taken place as a consequence of national and local strategies can be judged using a range of economic, social, demographic and environmental variables in an urban area. (F: future success depends on past decisions).
- Different stakeholders (local and national governments, local businesses and residents) will assess success using contrasting criteria; their views will depend on the meaning and lived experiences of an urban place and the impact of change on both the reality and the image of that place.

Changing Places

Glossary of Definitions

- **Accessibility**- How easy it is to travel to a place or interact with an individual.
- **Attachment**- A sense of binding to a particular location due to positive and intense experiences.
- **Built Environment**- The buildings and infrastructure within an urban area.
- **Capital**- Productive assets, goods or financial stakes.
- **Commuter**- An individual who regularly travels a distance between their residence and their employment.
- **Cultural Enrichment**- The addition of ideas, traditions and beliefs due to the arrival of new people.
- **Culture**- The way of life of a particular group of people at a particular time, generally customs and beliefs.
- **Demographic**- The characteristics of a population.
- **Deprivation**- Individuals lack basic services or objects they would expect to have in the 21st Century.
- **Diversity**- Variation within a population, in their characteristics, background and behaviour.
- **Endogenous Factor** - Factors based on local characteristics or perspective originating from inside the place.
- **Ethnicity**- The cultural background of a group of people, often based on religion or country of origin.
- **Ethnic Clustering** - Residential areas with similar cultures, ethnicity or religions. This may be to avoid isolation or to live locally to special services and facilities (places of worship, local shops, etc.)
- **Exogenous Factor** - Factors based on characteristics or perspective originating from outside the place, commonly referred to as flows.
- **Experienced Places** - Locations a person has visited in their lifetime.
- **Far Places**- Places that feel distant, physically or emotionally.

- **Genius Loci**- The 'spirit' of a place, based on its history, culture and daily atmosphere.
- **Gentrification**- Renovation of older/deteriorating buildings or areas with the aim of attracting high-income individuals or elite businesses to a place.
- **Governance**- The management of a place or group of people.
- **Idyll**- A location with ideal living conditions and good qualities. Often based on a perception.
- **Inequality**- Differences in income, well-being and wealth between individuals, communities and society.
- **Insiders** - People who feel like they are 'part of' a place; they feel included within the place and have a strong connection to it.
- **Internal Migration**- The movement of people within a country.
- **International Migration**- The movement of people from one country to another.
- **Life Expectancy**- The average number of years an individual is likely to live, determined at birth.
- **Lived Experience**- The contribution of experiences and opportunities to an individual's views and values.
- **Locales**- Locations of different daily activities, e.g. school, theatre, shops, etc.
- **Media**- The publishing of information and production of entertainment (e.g. BBC, local newspapers, radio stations).
- **Media Places**- Places an individual hasn't visited but has a reputation based from media representation.
- **Multicultural**- The existence, acceptance or promotion of multiple cultural traditions within a single geographic area.
- **Near Places**- Places that feel close, physically or emotionally.
- **Outsiders**- People who feel like they are not 'part of' a place; they feel isolated and may not have a strong connection to the place.
- **Perception**- A person's view of a place or issue based on feelings, experience and outside forces such as the media.
- **Placelessness**- Places that lack unique character or reputation, due to chain stores replacing local independent shops or a lack of attachment experienced by people visiting the location.
- **Population Density**- The number of people per square kilometre.
- **Rebranding**- Creating a new look or reputation for an area.
- **Segregation**- The separation of a group from other groups this can be through force or voluntarily. Segregation can often occur due to housing strategies or regeneration projects.
- **Social Clustering**- Groups of people with similar background frequently living together.

- **Social Exclusion**- The inability of a group of people to become involved in the cultural activities of a place.
- **'The Other'**- People of different background or identity to an individual.
- **Urbanisation**- An increase in the proportion of a population living within urban areas.

Changing Places

Overview

Changing places is a different type of unit to others you will study. There are concepts and knowledge to learn, but less than in other units. Changing places is **based around people** and is **more conceptual and contextual**. Attempt to apply the concepts you learn to a place that you know. Changing places covers a **sociological** aspect of geography.

You will study at least **one local place** where you live or an area or have conducted fieldwork. You will also need a **distant place** which has ideas of local, regional, national and international connections. These two places should form case studies. An exam question may suggest for you to refer to your **local and/or distant place**.

Place

The word **place** has more than one dimension. A **location** is the **physical point** of where a **place** is. A **place** is a **location** which has **different meanings to various people**. Edward Relph is a key influence on modern day understanding of place due to his 1976 publication, '**Place and Placelessness**', which aimed to '**reimagine the static and dimensional aspects of place**' that were once widely accepted. Edward Relph's website (<http://www.placeness.com/>) is informative.

Locales are **locations** in a place that are **associated with everyday activities** e.g. school, sports ground or theatre. A **locale structures social interactions** and people are likely to show **behavioural traits** specific in a locale. People are likely to be sociable in a theatre, but will speak more quietly in a library to conform with **social stereotypes**. This may occur subconsciously.

We understand place to have an **emotional meaning** and **relationship with people**. **Sense of place** is the **subjective emotional attachment to a place** which gives it meaning. A sense of place to you might be, 'I have a strong attachment to my house, it is where I grew up'. The feeling towards your house, street or neighbourhood, is the **sense of place**.



The MUTI graphic shows Warsaw. The **locales** are the doughnut shop, shopping centre, cafe and offices. The **sense of place** is the different meaning of the place to different people. For some, Warsaw is a tourist destination they have enjoyed visiting. A person may have a particular **attachment** to a cafe if they had lunch with another tourist. However, an office worker in the same area may have a negative **sense of place** if they do not enjoy their job. These two people will have contrasting sense of places.

Placelessness

Placelessness suggests that a place is **not unique**. For example, most UK high streets have a Costa Coffee, Greggs, Ladbrokes and a Tesco (or similar **chain shops**). If these are the **locales** that structure interactions and help develop **sense of place** and they are the same or similar in different locations, then what makes these locations different? They are **clone towns** due to the dominance of **chain shops**. It could also be argued that as place is about people and different people will interact in the different **locales**, then these places are in fact unique. The **individual memories** which people create within their **locales** are what make the area unique to them.

Attachment

The geographer Yi-Fu Tuan suggests that **attachment** (a feeling binding one subject with another) to a place, grows stronger over time. As you have more **experiences** in a place, you are more likely to be attached with that place. Experiences can have **different levels of intensity**: marriage is likely to be a more intense experience than a work trip. The **greater the intensity** and **number of experiences** you have in a place, the **greater the depth of attachment** you may have to a place. If you spend long enough in a place with many **positive and intense experiences**, it will become home. Hence the phrase, 'home is where your heart is' refers to **emotional attachment**.

Topophilia concerns the **love of a place** and having a **strong attachment** to it. Whereas **Topophobia** is the **dislike of a place**. It may be possible to experience **topophobia** and still have a strong attachment with a place, but the attachment will be negative.

Types of Places

Places can be categorised into types, though a single place may fit into many categories:

- **Near Places:** Those which are **close** to us. Near places are **subjective**. A woman living in the Australian outback may consider a place that is 100km away to be near, due to the ability to directly drive between settlements across the outback. In the UK a place that is 100km away may take several hours to travel to and may be considered as a far place
- **Far Places:** Those that are **distant**. Both **near and far places** may have a more **emotional meaning**. Some people may get 'homesick' if they are staying away for the first time in their lives even if they are only ten minutes drive away. They may feel 'far' away emotionally, even if they are physically close

- **Experienced Places:** Places that we have actually visited. Some people would argue that you have to visit a place to create an **emotional attachment** to it. Others would suggest that a desire to visit a place or dislike towards it because of what you have seen through the media, is enough to create an emotional attachment
- **Media Places:** Places we have **not visited**, but may have learned about through **media representations**. For example, the musician 'Vancouver Sleep Clinic' chose his artist name because he had experienced Vancouver as a media place and thought 'it looks like a beautiful place'. Most geographers would argue you have a more **intense experience** by visiting a place, which leads to a **stronger attachment** to it, due to the stimulation of all your senses. Media sources can change our sense of place **subconsciously**. Detroit is often presented as a rundown, neglected city, yet Lonely Planet ranked Detroit as its No. 2 city to visit in 2018! Does this change your sense of place for Detroit?

Genius Loci

Genius loci is the **spirit** of a place. It suggests that every place has a unique spirit or atmosphere, based on everything for the location is made up of, now and in the past

Place Character

Place character relates to the **specific qualities, attributes or features** of a location that make it unique. Place character is affected by **endogenous and exogenous** factors:

Endogenous Factors

Endogenous Factors: Those which **originate from within** the place and are **local**:

- **Land Use** - Is the area **urban or rural**?
- **Topography** – The **relief** and lie of the land
- **Physical Geography** - Are there **natural physical features** such as waterfalls or estuaries?
- **Infrastructure** - Built services that **enhance** or are **essential** to living conditions:
Roads, railways, canals, airports
Broadband and phone networks, water supply, sewers and electrical grids
Parks, public pools, schools, hospitals, libraries
Education system, health care provision, local government, law enforcement, emergency services
- **Demographic Characteristics** - **Age, gender, number, ethnicity** of the population
- **Built Environment** - The architecture of the area. Contemporary, ageing, historical
- **Location** - Elevation, distance to the coast etc.
- **Economic Characteristics** - In debt, growth market, ageing industries, economic sectors

Exogenous Factors

Exogenous Factors: Those which **originate from outside** a place and provide **linkages and relationships** with and to other places. Exogenous factors are commonly referred to as **flows** of:

- **People** – **Impact** of tourists, workers, migrants, refugees, visitors and changing quantities of people on an area **over time**
Germany has around **1.4 million asylum seekers**, who integrate into their society, though also creating political and social disputes. Inevitably this will impact the character of Germany
- **Money and Investment** – **Trade** deals, tax, major **events** (e.g. sports competition), new businesses or movement of business from an area

Investment into the London borough of Stratford before, during and after it hosted the Olympics has had a long-lasting impact on its place character. Smaller sporting events may have a short-term impact.

- **Resources** - Availability of **raw materials**, products, food, water and energy

Due to good transportation networks, the UK is food secure. If the crops fail one year more food can be imported from other countries to make up for the deficit. In less developed countries this is unlikely to be possible.

- **Ideas** - Entrepreneurs may move to an area bringing new businesses with them. Ideas could be information about an area from another country. Designers drive creative processes within an area.

Detroit has been impacted by the ideas of urban planners which have helped develop the city, leading to positive reviews by Lonely Planet. This has driven the tourist industry of Detroit, impacting on its character

Over time, **endogenous factors will be shaped by the changing flows of exogenous factors**

Rio de Janeiro 2016 Olympics

Rio hosted the 2016 Olympics. (<http://www.city-data.com/world-cities/Rio-de-Janeiro.html>) This is a fact file for Rio which covers the city in great detail. Look through to identify some of the **exogenous and endogenous factors** that contribute to the **character** of the city. Which is the most important factor? If place is all about people, then maybe it is the **endogenous factor of demographics, or are the exogenous flows of people** more important? How could you relate a similar fact file to a place which you have studied?

Over time, **endogenous factors will be shaped by the changing flows of exogenous factors**. In the short-term, the **influx of people as an exogenous factor** during the 2016 Olympics will have caused the city to have become busier, leading to a **short-term impact on sense of place**. In the long-term, the investment and movements to bulldoze some areas of the Favela's will have changed the **economic and social characteristics** of the city. The **built environment** is affected by the new stadiums that were built.

Perspective on Places

Insiders and Outsiders

Insiders are those people who feel at home within and may have the following characteristics:

- **Born** in
- They hold **citizenship** for
- **Fluent in local language** and conform with **idioms** (language relating to a specific location or culture). For example 'kill two birds with one stone' might be a complicated phrase for migrants to understand. Some local idioms may be specific to places. This is a dictionary of London Slang: www.timwoods.org/the-london-slang-dictionary-project/
- Conforms with **social norms and behavioral traits** common in

Outsiders are the opposite to **insiders**. Lots of factors can contribute to make someone feel like an insider or outsider in a place. This feeling of belonging **can change over time**.

It can be the case that people who do not belong to the main **ethnic group** of a community feel like **outsiders**. For example, an **immigrant family** could have moved into a neighbourhood where they are an **ethnic minority** which - combined with other factors - may cause the family to feel like **outsiders**. For example:

- Initially, they may not be accustomed to the **culture, social norms** and **dialect** of the majority of the community.

- The shops and restaurants along the high street may not be **familiar** to them.
- They may find it hard to find particular foods which they had in their **country of origin**.
- The **architecture** of the buildings and the **vehicles** on the street may look different from what they are used to. (These feelings could be similar to how you feel when you go on holiday and your surroundings are different to usual).
These feelings of **unfamiliarity** may change in the **long-term**. As the family get used to living in that place and integrate into **society**, they can feel like **insiders**. The children of an **immigrant family** will have a different **experience of place** to their parents, leading to a **unique sense of place** for the area where they live.

All over the world, including the UK, there is a pattern whereby **ethnic groups cluster** in certain areas, potentially because people feel more **at home** surrounded by other people sharing the same **ethnicity**. The **clustering** means that the area will **adapt towards that culture** over time, which may attract more people from that **ethnicity** to move there.

Perspective of place may also change so that people begin to feel like **outsiders**, even if they initially identified as **insiders** to a place. For example, large **influxes of immigrants** into an area can change the characteristics of a place. The **high street** may change as shops and restaurants adapt over time to cater for new **cultures**, which can make the original residents begin to feel like **outsiders** as their **surroundings become unfamiliar**. Alternatively, some people may **embrace multiculturalism** and the changes that occur as a result of **immigration** and like the **diversity** of their high street. Diversity makes some places appealing e.g. **Chinatown** attracts large numbers of tourists each year.



Gentrification is the process of **renovation and improvement** of housing to suit a **middle class** audience, usually leading to higher house prices. Gentrification can cause insiders to feel like outsiders over time; entire districts can change and adapt to suit a different audience, meaning insiders may feel like they do not fit in with the **culture** or the **class**. In Berlin, for example, (pictured above) many areas are becoming renovated to fit the new **trendy** and 'hipster' feel of the city, leaving old residents not only isolated, but unable to keep up with higher rents.

This feeling of being an **outsider** can also occur after **large scale regeneration projects**, which lead to changes in **place character**. The **demolition and reconstruction** of buildings, **investments** into new **facilities**, and a subsequent **better quality of life** can **alter the demographic of an area**. This can potentially cause the original population to feel like **outsiders**.

An example of this is the major **regenerations in Stratford for the 2012 Olympic games**. This [interactive article](https://www.theguardian.com/sport/interactive/2012/jul/27/olympic-regeneration-legacy-stratford) allows you to compare the area side by side before and after regeneration, giving an insight into how the sense of place has changed dramatically in the space of a few years. (<https://www.theguardian.com/sport/interactive/2012/jul/27/olympic-regeneration-legacy-stratford>)

The area, now called **East Village**, was previously a **deindustrialised** area, contaminated with **waste** and full of derelict **industrial buildings**. In some of the areas, such as Clays Lane and Waterden Crescent, the population was majorly comprised of **Irish travellers**. The area is now a mixture of low cost and private housing, and one of the traveller camp sites was regenerated into a broadcasting booth. How do you think previous insiders would feel after these dramatic regeneration projects, inviting wealth and new facilities into the previously poverty stricken neighbourhood?

The Other

'The other' refers to people who are **unfamiliar or different to the self**. **Conflict** and **social tensions** can exist when people who **do not have the same identity** (the qualities, beliefs and attachments) as other people they meet. When people are considered 'other' it makes it easier to be **prejudiced** against them as they seem 'alien' to us and can be dehumanised. For example, metaphorical language used by some in the media to describe immigrants can exacerbate negative feelings towards immigration. **Conflict** could also be due to **racism or xenophobia** (**fear** or distrust to something that is uncommon or **out of place**). **Xenophobia** is most commonly seen in modern day society as **suspicion towards migrants** and **foreigners**. This links into **prejudice** and is a complicated issue to solve. Identity and mindsets such as **racism and xenophobia** can lead to **segregation** and also shape places.

This **sense of 'other'** isn't limited to how residents see immigrants. Immigrants can also see **native residents as 'other'**; both these interactions can mean a lack of social integration, exacerbating issues of conflict within an area. Conflict and tensions can arise when **different groups of people have different ideas towards how an area should develop**.

Case Studies

Your **distant and/or near place** should cover at least one of these topic areas:

- Demographic and Cultural Characteristics
- Economic Change and Social Inequalities

For that place, consider how each **endogenous and exogenous** factor may affect the above categories and consider the linkages between the **endogenous and exogenous** factors. You should consider how **government policies, TNC's or global institutions** seek to **reduce inequalities** and **segregation**. It may be the case that they have caused these issues in the first place, or their actions are continuing to exacerbate issues.

If you were studying Barcelona, you might research how **past connections** with Catalonia are leading to **present day social inequalities**. This might have influenced the **demographic characteristics** with a higher muslim population and a different **culture** compared to other areas of Spain. Are present processes of **rebellion** and actions such as Brexit from other countries governments (UK) and other international institutions (EU) motivating rebellion which lead to the illegal referendum in 2017? Has this affected tourism in Barcelona due to the demonstrations or are people more aware of Barcelona and more likely to visit?

As you must **research your place studies individually**, it can be difficult to find **reliable sources of information** about your places. To avoid a **misinformed place study**, it is important to include information **from a range of reliable sources**.

Census Data

Census data can be useful for providing insight into both the **past and present** character of a place, especially **demographic and economic** characteristics. **Nomis** is a website provided by the Office for National Statistics, providing **reliable data** on different areas.

Advantages:
Data is reliable and factual.

Disadvantages:
Quantitative data may **ignore** important opinions, e.g. data may show an area as poor and derelict, but this does not reflect residents' **opinions** of their place.

Field Trips

Visiting your near and far places will develop your own **personal sense of place**. You could interview residents to gain information about the current **living situation**, as well as the **past character of place** and how a place has changed. You could also collect your own quantitative data.

Advantages:
You can make your own opinion rather than relying on media's presentation of a place.

Disadvantages:
You may hold personal bias for/ against a place, which could influence qualitative descriptions. Opinions are hard to measure.

Art & Media

Artistic representations are good sources of people's opinions on places. Songs, artwork, films, TV, and literature present a place's **culture**, as well as people's **lived experiences** in places. For example, the **Romantic poets** presented the Lake District positively in their work.

Advantages:
Art and media is a major contributor to an area's character, so it is important to recognise the influence it has on sense of place.

Disadvantages:
Not quantitative, meaning it is hard to compare/ measure.

Advertising

Tourism and business sectors of a place often advertise an area in order to **attract** people to it/ **invest** in it. This form of media is useful for gathering information about a place, such as the different attractions and history.

Advantages:
Advertising often presents **multiple dimensions of a place**, meaning a lot of information is compiled into one source. A place's attractions add to their character, so they are important to consider.

Disadvantages:
Advertising may show a **one-sided, biased** view, ignoring the **negatives** of an area. Some areas may not be tourist or business based, meaning there is little **advertising** needed.

Maps & Photos

Maps and photos present a factual and objective view of a place. They are also useful to compare **past and present places**, as there are many archived maps and photos of places.

Advantages:
The ability to compare a place's **past** is important, as you should consider how a place has developed and changed over time. Maps and photos may not be influenced by people's opinions on a place and they are objective.

Disadvantages:
Photos may still have a subjective view (i.e. only showing good/ bad areas). Although they are good for finding information and developing your sense of place, these sources of information are difficult to cite in an exam.

Source Reliability

In the exam you may be provided with **sources** to analyse and then apply to the question. Practice this by reading news articles and highlighting the key information as quickly as possible - don't highlight too much! You may need to analyse the **reliability** of sources. Is the source **objective** and does it reflect the true nature of the subject? Is the source **biased** and the subject of the source **manipulated**? It is difficult to be certain of source **reliability** so a mix of different sources is preferable. To observe source **reliability**:

- Does the source give a **positive or negative** portrayal of a place? Is the source balanced?
- What is the purpose of the source? Who was the source produced by? **Provenance** can be used to describe the **origin** of the source
- Do other sources describing a place offer a different **perspective**, or support the source?
- Does the source link to **contemporary issues or geographical concepts**?
- What does the source not show? These are two different place representations of Vancouver. Sources: (Tourism Vancouver, Vancouver Observer) They show the different realities of Vancouver for the tourism industry and the homeless people living there:



Place Meanings

Place meaning refers to the **sense of place and character** that different people give to a place. It is how a place is **represented by tourist organisations, governments, corporate bodies and community groups**. These groups drive changes to places and are known as **forces of change**:

- Community Groups
- Governments
- Councils
- Individuals
- TNC's
- National Organisations
- International Organisations
- Global Organisations

Place meaning is shaped by the **past and present connections** of a place on a **variety of scales** from global to local. For example, the **place meaning** of Berlin is impacted by the World Wars and the Cold War and the connections with places such as the UK and Russia that it had. This shapes **tourism** in Berlin. Its **present connections** with the EU make it a popular destination for migrants and this shapes the **flows of people** into the city. The **government policies** of Angela Merkel to allow migrants has further shaped this connection. Racist **community groups** in Germany formed by past connections are making migrants feel unwanted. This has impacted the place-meaning of Germany. It has caused **groups** such as Migrants Rights International to promote the cause for migrants in Germany. **Individual activists** such as Sophia Lösche fought for migrants and for a more welcoming Germany, but she was unfortunately killed for her views. Despite this, **Visit Berlin** are using the slogan of 'the city of freedom'. This is **rebranding** to overcome past place-meanings and fight against the **current changes** that may be occurring.

Rebranding is the process by which forces of change aim to adapt the place meaning of a location. This could be to encourage tourism by promoting the **endogenous or exogenous characteristics** of a place, to overcome **negative connotations**. **Communities** can change place representation and this commonly takes place in the form of **social media campaigns**. **Rebranding** involves:

- Advertising Campaigns
- Infrastructure and Built Environment Improvements
- Positive Media Coverage
- Tourist Board Management

To achieve this:

- **Community groups** may levy media groups to positively or negatively portray a place
- **Councils** may invest in tourism boards to portray a positive image of a location
- **Governments** may set out strategies such as improving infrastructure
- **Individuals** may start social media campaigns which suggest a different image of a place

Place representation may take place in different forms:

- Websites
- Songs
- Photographs
- Posters
- Videos
- News Articles

Additionally places may be represented by **census data, graphs or measures such as Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD)**. The IMD uses seven measures to map the most deprived areas of the UK and when displayed in a map form, can be easily read.

When analysing **geospatial data** (data that has a location) such as the choropleth map above it is important to consider **reliability**. A large block of colour showing high poverty percentages, may suggest greater numbers of people living in poverty than in smaller geographical areas of the same colour which may be false. The abrupt boundaries do not reflect the actual spread of poverty which will be more distributed. Geospatial data can be **misleading** so is more reliable when compared with another source.

A Guide to Your Place Studies

What are Place Studies?

The **Changing Places** topic is focused around **two contrasting place studies**, making it somewhat different to the other topics in your exam (the term 'place study' just means a case study of a place!). These place studies **embed the content** of Changing Places by allowing you to **provide real life examples** of places that demonstrate the **concepts you have studied**. You must create **two place studies**: one for a **local place**, and one for a **distant place**.

- This place must be **local to your home/ where you study**
- Ensure the place is **small enough** so that you do not **generalise information**, such as a small town, a community, a borough etc.
- The area can be **urban or rural**
- Ideally, this place should have **changed over time**, so that you can **analyse** this change

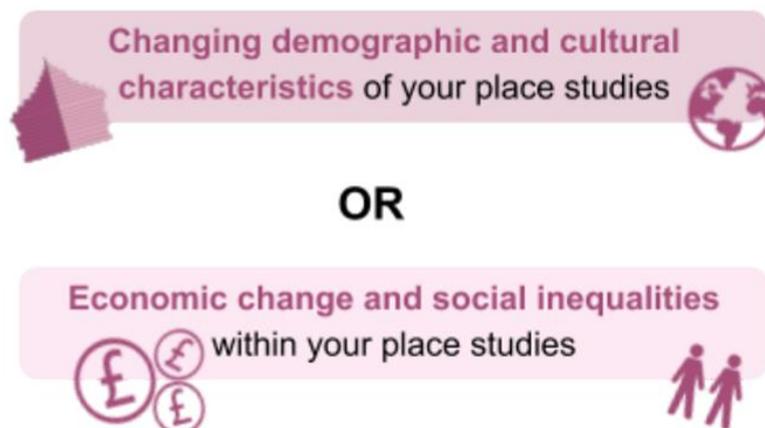
- Ensure you are able to collect **valid quantitative and qualitative data** on the place; it would be helpful if you can **visit the place yourself** to gather your own information, but also consider the amount of information available from other sources. Do not pick an area that is difficult or unsafe to access.
- Your '**distant**' place should **significantly** contrast your local place. It should contrast your local place in **at least** one of the following areas, but ideally it should contrast in multiple ways:
 - Economic development
 - Population density
 - Cultural background
 - Systems of political or economic organisation
- The place may be in the **same** country, or could be in **another country**, as long as it contrasts your local place study
- The same advice applies to your distant place as your local place, i.e. pick an **appropriately sized area**, spot **changes over time**, ensure you can collect **relevant** information.

What Content Should I Include in My Place Studies?

Your place studies should focus on the **relationships and connections** concerning your place, as well as **meaning and representation** of your place. You should also consider how these aspects have caused **change (or continuity)** in your places, and the effect of these aspects on **people**.

In both case studies, you should consider how **relationships and connections** affect both **your place**, and **the people living in it**.

Choose whether you want to focus on **either**:



Only choose what is **relevant to your place studies**, for example if there has been a **significant economic change** rather than demographic, focus on this!

There are **3 main ideas** you should address in your place studies when considering the relationships and connections it has. When considering these 3 main ideas, remember to always link them back to **either changing demographic and cultural characteristics OR economic change and social inequalities**. You must do this for **both** of your place studies.



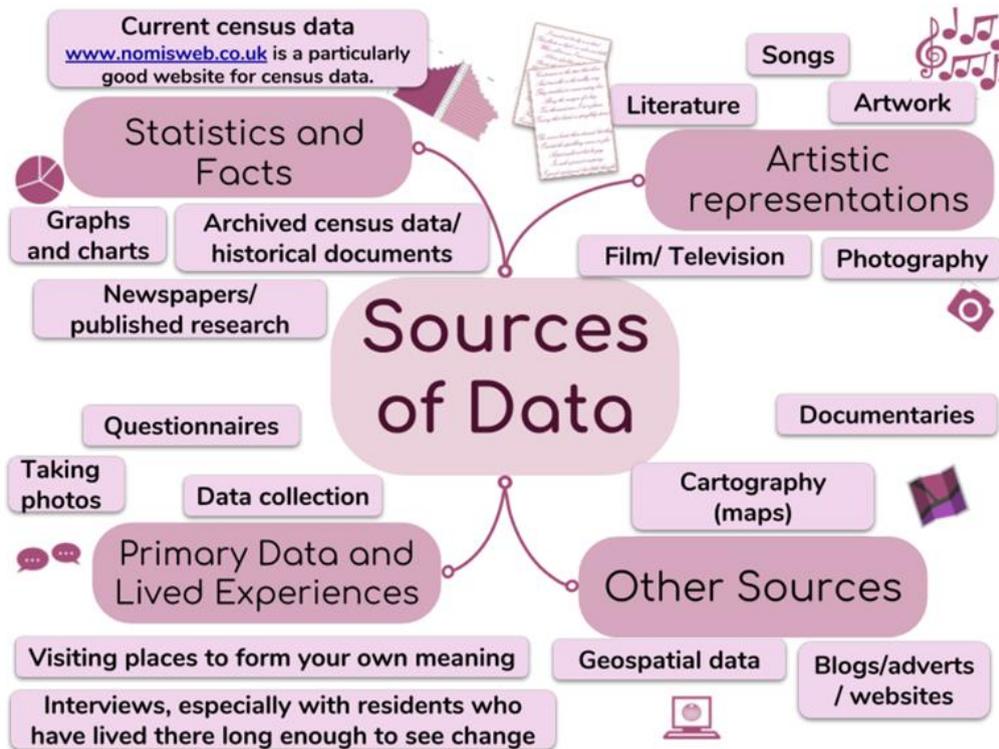
You should also consider what your places **mean to people**, and how they are **represented in different forms**. You should focus on people's **lived experiences**, and the meanings/representations of your places in both **past** and **present**, considering how they may have **changed** and why.

In particular, focus on:

- How **external agencies** may have attempted to shape **a place's representation**, therefore **influencing the decisions** of others. For example, a local government could **market** their place as a location **good for business**, to encourage **companies to invest**.
- How your place is **presented** in different forms, such as through **media** or through **statistics/cartography**. Consider how these representations often contrast each other, e.g. a painting may present an area as **attractive and quaint** when in reality it may be **overpopulated and crowded**.
- How **processes of development** have affected a place's **economic** and **social** characteristics, both in the past and presently. Consider how these developments may create **more meaning** in a place, e.g. the de-industrialisation and regeneration of the Liverpool Docks has caused the area to **mean** different things to different people.

Where Can I Find Information?

You should aim to gather information from a **wide range of sources**.



Example of a Place Study

This guide will offer an example of a **local place study**, so that you are aware of **how you should apply the specification points to your place studies**. The place study will be **broken down** and explained so that you may follow a similar structure in your place studies.

This case study will focus on both **economic change and social inequalities**, rather than the **changing demographic and cultural characteristics** (remember you only need to choose one of these focus points).

You are strongly advised to **create your own place studies** rather than **using this case study**, as everyone's place studies will be specific to their local area, and another area that contrasts their local study. This example is also brief and only provides basic information and a template, whereas you should thoroughly research your place studies and have an **abundance of information**.

The place study will be annotated with speech bubbles, which will provide guidance and the rationale behind the information in the study.

Keswick: Local Place Study



(Source: <https://www.visitcumbria.com/kes/keswick/>)

Background Information

- Historic Market town in the **Lake District National Park**, Cumbria (NW England)
- Part of a **UNESCO World Heritage Site**
- Area famous for inspiring **the arts**, such as the **Romantic poets** (Wordsworth, Coleridge)
- **Tourist destination** with many leisure activities, especially watersports on the nearby lake, Derwentwater.
- History in **mining**, which affects its sense of place (e.g. the Derwent Pencil Museum)
- Keswick is in a **glaciated valley**, surrounded by mountains such as Skiddaw, Blencathra, and Grasmoor.
- Strong links to **agriculture**. The area is known for **Herdwick** sheep, which are unique to the Lake District.

Aim to have some background information on both of your places to give you a firm understanding, and to ensure your chosen place studies contrast significantly. Familiarise yourself with the **geographical location, topography, environment, and the surrounding area.**



The Importance of Mining

- Mining was important to Keswick's economy from the **16th century** onwards, especially the **extraction of graphite**.
- It was originally used for lubricating machinery, and lining cannonball moulds, but was predominantly used for making **pencils by the second half of the 18th century**.
- This **industry** grew significantly over time with demand - this eventually **made Keswick famous for its pencil industry**. The first factory opened in **1832**, the second was completed in the **1950s**.
- **Mid-19th century**: Pencil industry was **Keswick's most important industry**. Many people's **lived experiences** were influenced by either directly working in the industry or its economic benefits on Keswick.
- The industry **connected** Keswick to other places by selling pencils and by making the area well known for the industry.

The Shift from Mining to Tourism

- **20th century**: **Tourism** became Keswick's biggest industry (there are many reasons for this: its changing representations in media, better transport links, and societally an increased ability to go on holiday with a disposable income). Consequently, **pencil making became less important to Keswick's economy**.
- **2006**: Derwent pencil factory moved to a nearby town, Workington, due to the old factory not being able to support **modern manufacturing**.
- Although this industry is **no longer present in Keswick** like it once was, the **Derwent Pencil Museum** in Keswick **commemorates** the importance of pencil making in the area.

Keswick's relationship with The Derwent Cumberland Pencil Company made Keswick well known at a national scale for pencil making. The relationships and connections of places can help to embed these places at different scales (regional/national/global).

Processes of development influencing the social and economic characteristics of Keswick:

- o Past developments in machinery allowed pencil industry to grow
- o Developments allowed tourist industry to grow (e.g. transport), changing the character of Keswick
- o Industrial development in other locations led to the relocation of the pencil industry. Keswick could not keep up with demand, causing the economy to be heavily reliant on tourism.

- **Some past lived experiences** would associate Keswick with this industry, as many locals were **employed** by the company and it was a major industry in Keswick.
- The industry is less prominent in most **people's lived experiences currently**. However, it is still a **big part of Keswick's heritage** and creates **meaning** in Keswick.



World's largest coloured pencil in the Derwent Pencil Museum, Keswick. Source: Trip Advisor

Shifting flows of investment (investments used to be made into Keswick, but shifted to Workington factory) changed Keswick's **socio-economic characteristics**. Have shifting flows in your place influenced its characteristics?

The **museum** is a prime example of how **past meanings of places** are influential and important to meanings/representations in the **present**.

Housing Issues in Keswick

- **Second homes** have become a problem in Keswick. Its popularity as a **holiday destination** has led to an increased number of housing being taken off the market for use as **holiday homes**.
- **In 2001, 15% of homes in Keswick were second homes** - this is estimated to be higher now.
- Keswick's **National Park status and popularity** is the reason for there being high housing demand. Similar housing is sold for much more in Keswick than in surrounding areas.

Keswick's **connections** to the rest of the world (through **tourism**) have caused **economic change** in the area. This has caused **social inequalities** also. You should consider how your place's **connections and relationships** have caused different changes in your place.

A local estate agent says:

"I SELL THREE-BEDROOM SEMI-DETACHED HOUSES IN KESWICK FROM £350,000 TO £450,000 BUT IN COCKERMOUTH I WILL SELL THEM FROM £250,000 TO £350,000, EVEN THOUGH THE TWO TOWNS ARE ONLY 12 MILES APART."

www.express.co.uk/life-style/property/849518/property-prices-lake-district-Unesco-World-Heritage-Site

Social Inequalities for Locals

- In the central Lake District area, **house price to income ratios are 12.1 to 1**. A large number of people are employed in **low paid seasonal hospitality and retail jobs** (like in hotels, cafes, gift shops etc.) meaning they cannot afford the high house prices.
- **Rents are also too high** for many young people as they are catered towards **short-term rents for those on holiday**
- Locals believe demographic is '**skewed to rich retired people**' as other demographics cannot afford to live there (the average age is 47 in Keswick, whereas in England the average age is estimated at around 40). This has negatively affected people's **lived experiences**, as Keswick has become less of an age diverse area, limiting opportunities for the area
- **Keswick's National Park status** means building is heavily restricted by the **National Park authority**, and houses must meet strict guidelines. Therefore, the housing demand is unlikely to be met as new housing is not built often.

This part of the case study relates to **relationships and connections** affecting **social inequalities** in places. Shifting flows of **investment into Keswick's tourism sector** rather than **other sectors** has caused **job prospects in Keswick to be limited for young people**, causing inequalities as they cannot afford to get on the property ladder.

Another example of shifting flows affecting a place, but this focuses on a **changing demographic**. Although you are only required to focus on **either** changing demographic & culture **or** economic change & social inequalities, it is important to have an awareness of the changing characteristics in your place, as they may be relevant for another question.

The decisions of **external forces** (in this case, the National Park authority) exacerbate **social inequalities**.

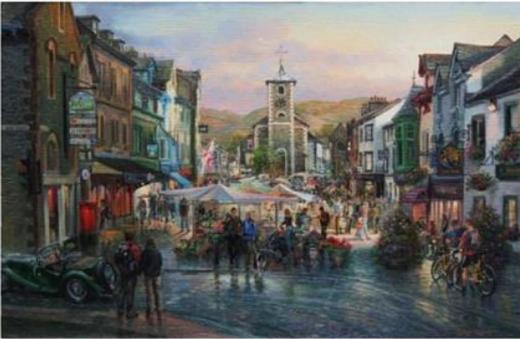


Keswick and The Arts

- The majority of Keswick's (and the Lake District's) current **popularity** derives from its **artistic representations**.
- Keswick and the Lake District have been represented **artistically** for hundreds of years, creating strong meanings and driving the tourist industry.

Art

- Keswick's artistic representations often focus on the **mountainous landscape** surrounding the area, as well as its old fashioned **built environment and its markets**.



It is important to consider how the **representations** of your places create meanings. Keswick is heavily **represented through the arts**, which has not only reinforced the ideas of **natural beauty** in Keswick's sense of place, but also created **cultural heritage** in Keswick.

- Notice how the fells are still noticeable in the background of the paintings to highlight their size, showing the **importance of the area's topography on Keswick's representation**.
- Many paintings of Keswick are focused around the surrounding mountains. The Lake District's topography adds great meaning to Keswick.
- Artistic representations usually **romanticise the rural nature of Keswick**, but often ignore several socio-economic issues in Keswick, such as:
 - Lack of housing
 - High proportion of 'tourist' based shops and buildings
 - Overcrowding issues, e.g. litter and footpath erosion
 - Flood damage from several major floods that have hit Keswick.



You should consider how your places' media representations contrast statistical or cartographical data. The contrasts mentioned here are brief. In your case studies, aim to have **detailed examples** of where media representations are different to other, more **factual** representations.



Artistic representations usually contrast to other media representations of Keswick. For example, there is great contrast between this picture of the 2015 floods and the artwork above.

Poetry & Literature

- Early representations of Keswick in literature started in the 1700s, through John Dalton and John Brown praising the area.
- The Lake District was well known amongst many **Romantic Poets**, who became known as the 'Lake Poets'.
- The Romantic Poets often wrote about the area **positively**, putting heavy emphasis on the **natural landscape** and the concept of the area being '**sublime**'. Many writers created **tour guides** of the area, which attracted tourists.

The Romantic movement is deeply **embedded** within Keswick's sense of place. This has affected people's **lived experiences** in the past and in the present, as the Romantic movement has driven **tourism** in the area, bringing both the benefits and the disadvantages (outlined throughout the place study)

- Some of the Lake Poets **moved to Keswick** (Samuel Taylor Coleridge and Robert Southey moved to Greta Hall in Keswick, and Shelley also lived in Keswick for a short period of time). Their guides and descriptions of Keswick drove the tourist industry.
- These **positive representations** concerning the natural landscape did not translate into the **real lived experiences** for some, e.g. Shelley moved to Keswick after the Lake Poets' representations of the area, but found it was ruined by 'the manufacturers' (possibly referring to the pencil industry).

Processes of development affecting sense of place, and artistic representations **contrasting** with the factual lived experiences of the area.



UNESCO World Heritage Site

- Keswick is part of the Lake District, which is not only a **National Park**, but a **World Heritage Site**. The Lake District gained **UNESCO World Heritage** status in 2017. This decision was made by the **UNESCO committee** (The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation).
- After decades of bidding for National Park status (with no success), the **Lake District National Park Partnership (LDNPP)** put in a new bid to argue the National Park's suitability for World Heritage status due to the Lake District's following aspects:
 - Its glacial landscape and agro-pastoral landscape
 - The fact it has inspired artistic and literary movements
 - Its conservation efforts being a 'catalyst' for national international landscape protection.
- After the LDNPP submitted their justification, the **International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS)** created a report to analyse their bid. The ICOMOS report was used by the **World Heritage Committee** to make their decision.
- The National Park Authority wanted to achieve UNESCO World Heritage site status in order to gain **international recognition** to put it on the global tourist map, but also because the status acts as an **economic driver**, inviting more **investments** into the area.
- In March 2018, The Prince of Wales unveiled the **UNESCO World Heritage plaque** at the National Trust's Crow Park in Keswick.

External agencies (those in the LDNPP) have made attempts to **present Keswick** (and the Lake District) as a culturally significant site in order to **influence UNESCO** to award World Heritage Site status.

Keswick's connection with the **global institution UNESCO** will greatly affect the place. The connection has also influenced how Keswick is represented **globally**. Consider how your place's **connections with external agencies** have affected the place.

- Since achieving UNESCO World Heritage site status, there have been several changes in Keswick and the surrounding area:
 - **Funding** for the World Heritage Lake District Arts project (£3.29mil)
 - Grant scheme for **historic farm building restoration**, available for farmers and landowners
 - Access to the UK Government's **£40mil Discover England Fund**, through the **Northern World Heritage Collection**, a scheme to attract **international** tourists to World Heritage Sites in Northern England.
 - **1/4 of tourism businesses** say World Heritage status has had an effect on business already, and **2/3 of businesses** think it will have a positive effect in the future.
 - **50% of businesses plan to use the World Heritage Site status** to attract visitors.

The impacts of external agencies on **different scales**. UNESCO World Heritage Status affects the local businesses and individuals of Keswick as well as the whole of the Lake District and beyond. Consider how agencies in your place impact **different scales**.

The **National Park Authority** aims to use the World Heritage Site status in their **marketing** for the area. Local businesses are also permitted to use the status in their marketing, in fact they are encouraged to do so. This is an example of how **external agencies attempt to shape a place's representation**.



Rail and Roads

- Keswick became an **accessible area** from the 18th-19th century, when major roads in Cumberland were greatly improved. This meant **wealthier people could visit the area** by horse and carriage. Public carriages were eventually also available.
- A **railway** was built in the mid-19th century in order to transport materials for the steel industry. However, it **carried passengers by 1864**, developing the connections between local towns Cockermouth and Penrith.
- The **A66 was built in 1965**, allowing more traffic to flow through Keswick. The **A66 and A591** are two major roads that connect Keswick to the rest of the country (increasing tourism).
- The railway fully closed in 1972, limiting the connections between local towns. This means Keswick is now **only accessible by roads**.
- These connections to other places have **exemplified** social inequalities caused by tourism, as well as the economic change in Keswick caused by tourism.

Lived experiences have changed in Keswick as connections have grown. In the past, locals would not have **connected** with outsiders. Now, Keswick thrives off its national **connections**, through the tourists that visit and contribute to the economy.

Connections to other places via roads have changed the **socio-economics** of Keswick.

These connections have **changed over time**, becoming more connected to the rest of the UK, but possibly less connected to **neighbouring towns** due to the railway closing.



The Influence of Tourism on Locals

- Keswick has had to **cater for its tourists** by creating attractions and shops to boost income.
- The official Visit Keswick 2019 brochure outlines the different types of break a tourist can have at Keswick, including:
 - An **adventure** holiday
 - **Culture** and heritage
 - Romantic getaway
 - A **'foodie'** break
 - **Relaxing** break
 - Experiencing **nature**

External agencies (The Keswick Tourism Association) attempting to influence individuals who want a family or adventure holiday to visit Keswick.



An advertisement in the Visit Keswick 2019 guide. Notice how it is advertised as a family friendly 'amusement park', contrasting from how it is stereotypically perceived (an idyllic, historic market town). (Source:

carrierdirectmarketing.co.uk/digital-brochures/keswick/2019/)

- Keswick markets itself as an **adventure holiday destination** among other things. The nearby mountains attract walkers, bikers, climbers and ghyll scramblers. Derwentwater, situated immediately south of Keswick town allows for watersports and boating.
- Keswick's adventure tourism has led to Keswick **catering for these tourists**, through shops and attractions. An estimated 10% of all shops in Keswick are outdoor clothes shops, which is a very high proportion.
- Around 10% of shops are cafes and restaurants, and 8% are gift shops.
- Locals **lived experiences** are affected by the tourist shops and attractions, as these shops and attractions are not useful or necessary for the majority of locals.

Lived experiences of Keswick in the present contrast from the past, as the **community** feel pushed out by the **tourist industry**, and less included in decisions.

Consider how **lived experiences in your places** have been influenced by a variety of factors.

- Retraining / education (1 mark) to provide skills for unemployed people formerly working in primary /
- secondary sector (1 mark) making the local workforce more attractive to tertiary sector start-ups (1 mark) and may provide further development or a parallel example (1 mark)
- Credit other valid strategies for deindustrialised places.

3. 'Conflict can arise when people who live in a place feel that change is being forced on them by organisations, groups and individuals from outside that place'. Discuss the extent that this statement applies to one or more places that you have studied? (20 marks)

AO1 – Knowledge and understanding of the external factors that cause/impose change in a change. These should be clearly described and categorised with reference to the place or places studied.

AO2 – Application of knowledge and understanding to evaluate how people and communities respond to change. The evaluation should consider a range of possible reactions.

Notes for answers:

AO1

- Knowledge and understanding of the characteristics of the place or places chosen. The impact of relationships and connections on people and place. How past and present connections shape places, and how external agencies shape actions and behaviour.
- Identification of different groups of people who have an interest in how places are managed and who wish to change the place(s). These include local residents, environmental authorities, developers, corporate groups of companies, architects, planners, local councils, national governments, European Union, and tourist boards.

- Awareness of the nature of cultural and/or economic changes that may be forced on the place or places chosen.
- Cultural characteristics can include aspects of geography such as the balance between rural and urban lifestyles, changing levels of educational attainment amongst the population as a whole, changes in the use of various media, increased mobility of the population for work and leisure pursuits, changing patterns of sport and exercise and changing patterns of involvement in arts, cultural pursuits, and community activities.
- Economic characteristics can include aspects of geography such as levels of employment and unemployment, changes in economic class, the balance between primary, secondary, tertiary employment, changes in disposable income, income differentials within the community, availability of consumer goods, access to services for the different economic groups within the community (including health, education, transport), and economic provision for the old and infirm.
- The nature of conflict at a local level and the types of issues that may result in conflict. Specific details of the causes, events and timescale involved.
- Examples of issues leading to conflict include the closure of local hospital, building of new incinerator or landfill site, new road development in environmentally sensitive area, building of housing estate on greenfield site, construction of solar farm or wind turbines, closure of community facilities, libraries, school.
- For instance, the building of a housing estate on greenfield land.
- Planning application prepared by property company for homes, road access and other infrastructure. Proposed development outside of the housing development boundary.
- Public exhibition to which local residents invited to attend. Many concerns expressed by residents, local authority representatives, environmental groups. Several public meetings, followed by:

AO2

- The extent to which the assertion can be supported ie the degree to which people who live in a place try to resist changes that appear to have been forced upon them.
- Analysis of the scale, scope and nature of the change being imposed. Motivation may be to improve the environmental quality of the area for local residents, to improve housing and service quality, to reduce crime rates, to increase social cohesion or may have purely economic motives.
- Evaluation of how different organisations, groups and individuals within the chosen place(s) react to change imposed externally on them. Each interest group may have a different view

about what should be done to protect and manage areas. Resistance to change can take many forms, for instance social media protests, billboards, lobbying, political campaigns.

- Evaluation of how different groups of residents in the chosen place may have varying levels of political engagement and access to power, which will affect both their influence and their views in responding to external pressures.
- Different groups of people will have different needs depending on their social and economic characteristics, impinging on their response to change. Local communities are likely to have different perceptions of the value of places and conflicting goals over change, especially in areas of cultural diversity.
- There may be conflict between the needs of the most deprived and planners/commercial organisations, especially in terms of housing and service provision, eg schemes involving public/private partnerships with the development industry.
- Some issues causing conflict will sometimes involve high levels of public consultation but not all local groups are likely to feel engaged in the process.
- Resistance to change in relation to a specific issue, eg building of a housing estate on greenfield land. Analysis of events may show level of effectiveness of combined community response to proposals by external commercial agency. Conflict between different interest groups. Reaction by individuals, resident groups, environmental lobby, local political representatives, able to mount multi-faceted response.
- Overall evaluation of ways in which differences of opinion can cause conflict between interest groups and the various ways these might be resolved. There may be references to localism or affection for a particular place as well as nimbysm or opposition to unwanted development.

GLOBAL GOVERNANCE AND GLOBAL SYSTEMS

1.1 Globalisation is a long-standing process, which has accelerated because of rapid developments in transport, communications and businesses.

- Globalisation involves widening and deepening global connections, interdependence and flows (commodities, capital, information, migrants and tourists).
- Developments in transport and trade in the 19th century (railways, telegraph, steamships) accelerated in the 20th century (jet aircraft, containerisation), contributing to a 'shrinking world'.
- The 21st century has been dominated by rapid development in ICT and mobile communication (mobile phones, internet, social networking, electronic banking, fibre optics), lowering communication costs and contributing to time-space compression.

1.2 Political and economic decision making are important factors in the acceleration of globalisation.

- International political and economic organisations (P: role of World Trade Organization (WTO), International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank) have contributed to globalisation through the promotion of free trade policies and foreign direct investment (FDI).
- National governments are key players in terms of promoting free trade blocs (P: role of European Union (EU), The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)) and through policies (free-market liberalisation, privatisation, encouraging business start-ups). (P: role of governments in economic liberalisation)
- Special economic zones, government subsidies and attitudes to FDI (China's 1978 Open Door Policy) have contributed to the spread of globalisation into new global regions (P: role of governments in attracting foreign direct investment (FDI))

1.3 Globalisation has affected some places and organisations more than others.

- Degree of globalisation varies by country and can be measured using indicators and indices (AT Kearney index, KOF index).

- TNCs are important in globalisation (P: role of TNCs) both contributing to its spread (global production networks, glocalisation and the development of new markets) and taking advantage of economic liberalisation (outsourcing and offshoring).
- There are physical, political, economic and environmental reasons why some locations remain largely 'switched off' from globalisation (North Korea, Sahel countries).

1.4 The global shift has created winners and losers for people and the physical environment.

- The movement of the global economic centre of gravity to Asia via the global shift of manufacturing (China) and outsourcing of services (India) can lead to changes in the built environment that can bring benefits (infrastructure investment, waged work, poverty reduction, education and training) but also costs (loss of productive land, unplanned settlements, environmental and resource pressure).
- Some communities in developing countries have experienced major environmental problems (including air and water pollution, land degradation, over-exploitation of resources, and loss of biodiversity), which impact on people's health and wellbeing.
- Some deindustrialised regions in developed countries face social and environmental problems as a result of economic restructuring (dereliction, contamination, depopulation, crime and high unemployment).

1.5 The scale and pace of economic migration has increased as the world has become more interconnected, creating consequences for people and the physical environment.

- Rural-urban migration (push and pull factors), and/or natural increase, is responsible for the growth of megacities (Mumbai, Karachi); rapid urban growth creates social and environmental challenges.
- International migration has increased in global hub cities and regions, deepening interdependence between regions (elite migration Russian oligarchs to London and mass low-wage economic migration (India to UAE, the Philippines to Saudi Arabia)).
- Migration has economic, social, political and environmental costs and benefits for both host and source locations.

1.6 The emergence of a global culture, based on western ideas, consumption, and attitudes towards the physical environment, is one outcome of globalisation.

- Cultural diffusion occurs as a result of globalisation; TNCs, global media corporations (P: role of TNCs), tourism and migration create and spread an increasingly 'westernised' global culture which impacts on both the environment and people (Changing diets in Asia). The spread of a global culture has also led to new awareness of opportunities for disadvantaged groups (Paralympic movement) particularly in emerging and developing countries. (P: opportunities for these groups)
- In some locations, cultural erosion (loss of language, traditional food, music, clothes, social relations (loss of tribal lifestyles in Papua New Guinea) has resulted in changes to the built and natural environment (de-valuing local and larger-scale ecosystems).
- Concern about cultural impacts, economic and environmental exploitation has led to opposition to globalisation from some groups. (A: attitudes of pro- and anti-globalisation groups, environmental movement)

1.7 Globalisation has led to dramatic increases in development for some countries, but also widening development gap extremities and disparities in environmental quality.

- Economic measures (both single and composite indices) of development (income per capita, economic sector balance) contrast with those focused on social development (Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Inequality Index (GII)) and environmental quality (air pollution indices).
- Trends in widening income inequality, globally and nationally (measured using the Gini Coefficient), suggest globalisation has created winners and losers for people and physical environments between and within developed, emerging and developing economies.
- Contrasting trends in economic development and environmental management between global regions since 1970 indicate differential progress that can be related to the outcomes from globalisation.

1.8 Social, political and environmental tensions have resulted from the rapidity of global change caused by globalisation.

- Open borders, deregulation and encouragement of foreign direct investment has created culturally mixed societies and thriving migrant diasporas in some locations, but tensions have resulted elsewhere (Rise of extremism in Europe, Trans-boundary water conflicts).
- Attempts have been made in some locations to control the spread of globalisation by censorship (China, North Korea), limiting immigration (UK, Japan) and trade protectionism. (P: role of government) (A: attitudes of pro- and antiimmigration groups)
- Some groups seek to retain their cultural identity within countries and seek to retain control of culture and physical resources (First Nations in Canada), whereas others embrace its economic advantages.

2.0 Globalisation has led to an increase in migration both within countries and among them.

- Globalisation has caused extremely significant changes in the global economic system, changing the pattern of demand for labour; this has encouraged both rural-urban migration within countries (China) and international migration between countries (EU-Schengen).
- Between 3–4% of the global population live outside their country of birth but this proportion varies greatly between countries because of different policies relating to international migration and levels of engagement with the global economy (Singapore, Japan, Australia).
- The pattern of international migration is changing and will continue to change because environmental, economic and political events affect both the source areas of many migrants and their destinations; this results in flows of both voluntary economic migrants, refugees and asylum seekers.

2.1 The causes of migration are varied, complex and subject to change.

- Most migrants move for work or to re-join family members; there are other significant causes, including displacement of refugees due to conflict and poverty in their regions of origin (migrants crossing the Mediterranean).
- Economic theory suggests that economic efficiency is maximised when goods (free trade), capital (deregulated financial markets) and labour (open-borders) can move freely across international borders but this poses serious challenges for national identity and sovereignty.
- The movement of labour is unrestricted within many nation states to ensure efficient allocation of resources (regional movements in the UK) and the same logic applies for some global regions (EU) but does not yet apply at a global level.

2.3 The consequences of international migration are varied and disputed.

- Migration changes the cultural and ethnic composition of nation states but the rate of assimilation of migrants varies from nation to nation especially when there are distinctive ethnic differences.
- Migration causes political tensions because of differences in perceptions of the social, economic, cultural and demographic impacts of migration (Labour flows across the Mexico-US border and between EU states).
- There are variations in the ability of people to migrate across national borders according to levels of skill and income; and opportunities, including the presence or absence of controls and international borders.

2.4 Nation states are highly varied and have very different histories.

- National sovereign states vary greatly in their ethnic, cultural and linguistic unity (Iceland compared to Singapore); this results from their history of population growth, their isolation and the role of migration.
- Many national borders are a consequence of physical geography and historical development; other borders are a result of colonial history and might not take account of different ethnic or religious groups (Iraq, Rwanda), which can lead to problems of sovereignty and legitimacy.
- There are many contested borders (Ukraine, Russia) and not all nation states are universally recognised as such (Taiwan) which can lead to both conflict and population movements.

2.5 Nationalism has played a role in the development of the modern world.

- 19th-century nationalism was important in the development of empires and a source of conflict in Europe and beyond as other nations became part of larger empires (British Raj in India).
- Since 1945, many new nation states have emerged as empires disintegrated (1960s 'wind of change' in Africa); this has caused conflicts that were costly both environmentally, economically and in human terms (Vietnam, Sudan).
- Patterns of migration between former colonies and the imperial core country are still evident and important in changing the ethnic composition and cultural heterogeneity of those countries.

2.6 Globalisation has led to the deregulation of capital markets and the emergence of new state forms.

- Globalisation has encouraged the growth of states that have low-tax regimes which provide havens for the profits for TNCs and homes for wealthy expatriates.
- Most governments and IGOs have accepted the emergence of tax-havens although many NGOs have raised objections.
- Growing global inequalities have been recognised as a major threat to the sustainability of the global economic system and some governments have promoted alternative models (Bolivia, Ecuador).

2.7 Global organisations are not new but have been important in the post-1945 world.

- The United Nations was the first post-war IGO to be established and has grown in importance; its role in global governance is affected by the different geopolitical visions of members of the Security Council and its multiple functions in managing global environmental, socio-economic and political problems.
- Interventions by the UN through the use of economic sanctions and direct military intervention have been made in defence of human rights but have a mixed record of success. (Trade Embargo Iran, UN forces in Congo).
- Some member states (US, UK, Russia) have operated independently of the UN in intervening in 'failed states' or to conduct a 'war on terror' with profound impacts on geopolitical relations and global stability.

2.8 IGOs established after the Second World War have controlled the rules of world trade and financial flows.

- The IMF, WB and WTO were established by the WWII allied nations and have been important in maintaining the dominance of 'western' capitalism, global economic management and trade policy (free trade).
- Global borrowing rules and trade policies have been especially effective in delivering growth to the developed world, but the impact of Structural Adjustment and HIPC policies on the developing world's economies and economic sovereignty is disputed (Jamaica's structural adjustment programme).
- Membership of global trade and financial IGOs is almost universal, as a result of the dominance of these organisations, but regional groupings have emerged in the form of trading blocs (NAFTA/SEATO) and in some cases (EU) there has been a movement to closer political unity.

2.9 IGOs have been formed to manage the environmental problems facing the world, with varying success.

- These include global environmental issues concerning the quality of the atmosphere and biosphere (Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer) and biosphere (Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora CITES).
- IGOs have been involved in developing laws for managing oceans (UN Convention on the Law of the Sea) and international rivers (Water Convention, Helsinki) as well as monitoring the state of the environment (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment).
- IGO management also includes responsibility for Antarctica as a continent of peace and science (Antarctic Treaty System).

3.0 All have the right to the benefits from the global commons.

- A balance needs to be maintained between the rights of all people to sustainable development and the need to protect the global commons.
- Antarctica has a key role as a global common but is vulnerable to global economic pressures and environmental change.
- Key threats to Antarctica arise from: climate change, fishing and whaling, the search for mineral resources, tourism and scientific research.
- The developing governance of Antarctica includes the involvement of international government organisations to include United Nations (UN) agencies such as United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the International Whaling Commission. The Antarctic Treaty (1959), the Protocol on Environmental Protection to the Antarctic Treaty (1991); IWC Whaling Moratorium (1982).

Global Systems and Global Governance

Globalisation

What is Globalisation?

Globalisation is the process of becoming more **globally connected** on a variety of scales. It is the **movement** of people, knowledge, ideas, goods and money **across national borders**, leading to - theoretically - a '**borderless world**'.

Economically, politically, socially and culturally, all countries are **connected** in the sense that we are all influenced by one another. We **buy** products made in other countries, we talk to people across the globe on **social media**, we embrace other countries' **cultures** such as their music or food. All of this is evidence of globalisation influencing our lives right now. Here are some more examples of globalisation on different scales:



Even our environments are **globalised** as pollutants from other countries can affect our **climate**. Also, **laws** and **regulations** are put in place by **intergovernmental organisations (IGOs)** that affect what we can do to our environment, such as the Montreal Protocol (1987) which - among other things - called for drastic reductions in the production of CFCs **internationally**.

In the 21st Century, our societies are **globalised societies**; (almost) everyone in the world is influenced by other countries and people. Without globalisation, there would be **no interaction** or influences from other countries. That means every product we buy would be made in the UK, there would be no international holidays, and probably no chocolate! We need globalisation in order to **thrive** as societies, as the things we share with other countries allow our societies to develop.

Dimensions of Globalisation

When countries **share** things with one another, it's known as **flow**. This is because things are **flowing (moving)** from one country to another. Flows can be physical like people or products, but they can also be ideas and concepts such as money (capital), services, or information.

The different flows in globalisation are: **capital, labour, products, services and information**.

These flows are the **dimensions** of globalisation - they are the reason globalisation exists.



Capital

Capital flows are the movement of money for the purpose of **investment, trade** or **business production**.

Labour

Flows of labour are the movement of people who move to **work** in another country.



Products

Flows of physical goods from one country to another.

Services

Services are 'footloose' industries, meaning they can locate anywhere without constraints from resources or other obstacles. Services flow as they can be produced in a different country to where they are **received** (e.g. international call centres).



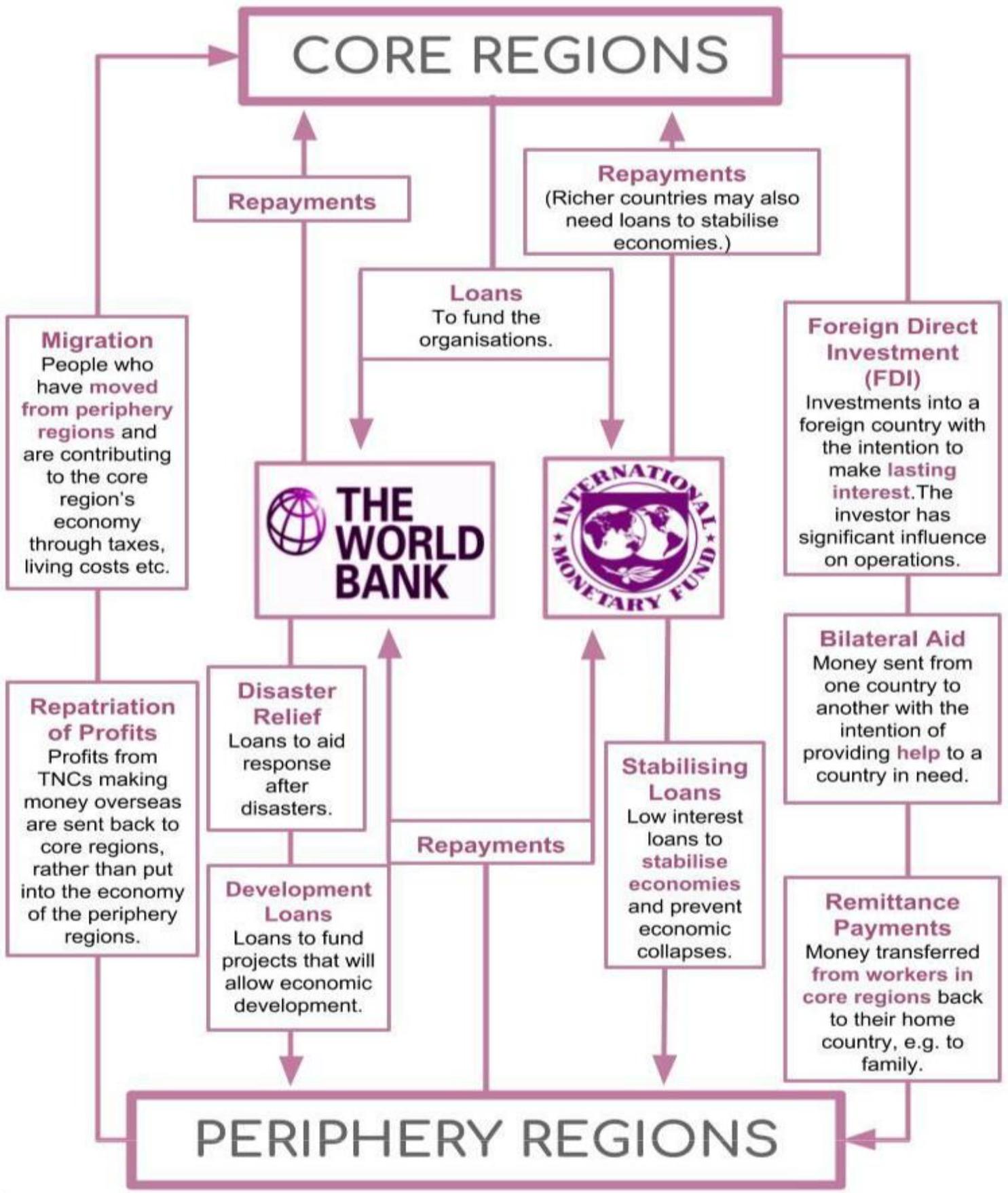
Information

Any type of information can flow from one place to another via the internet, SMS, phone calls etc. For example, international news.

Flows of capital

There are **millions** of capital flows happening all over the world. Some of the world's major flows occur between 4 main groups:

- **Core regions** - wealthier, developed countries that have power
- **Periphery regions** - less wealthy, developing/ less developed countries that have less power)
- The **International Monetary Fund (IMF)** - an international corporation that aims to (in their words) 'foster global monetary cooperation, secure **financial stability**, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable **economic growth**, and reduce poverty around the world.'
- **The World Bank** - a group of global institution that give out **loans** for development or relief.



Capital flows also occur **within** core regions. Huge capital flows pass through the major **stock markets** in megacities. Also, in the EU, cross border trade in finance has increased due to **absence of barriers**.

Flows of Labour

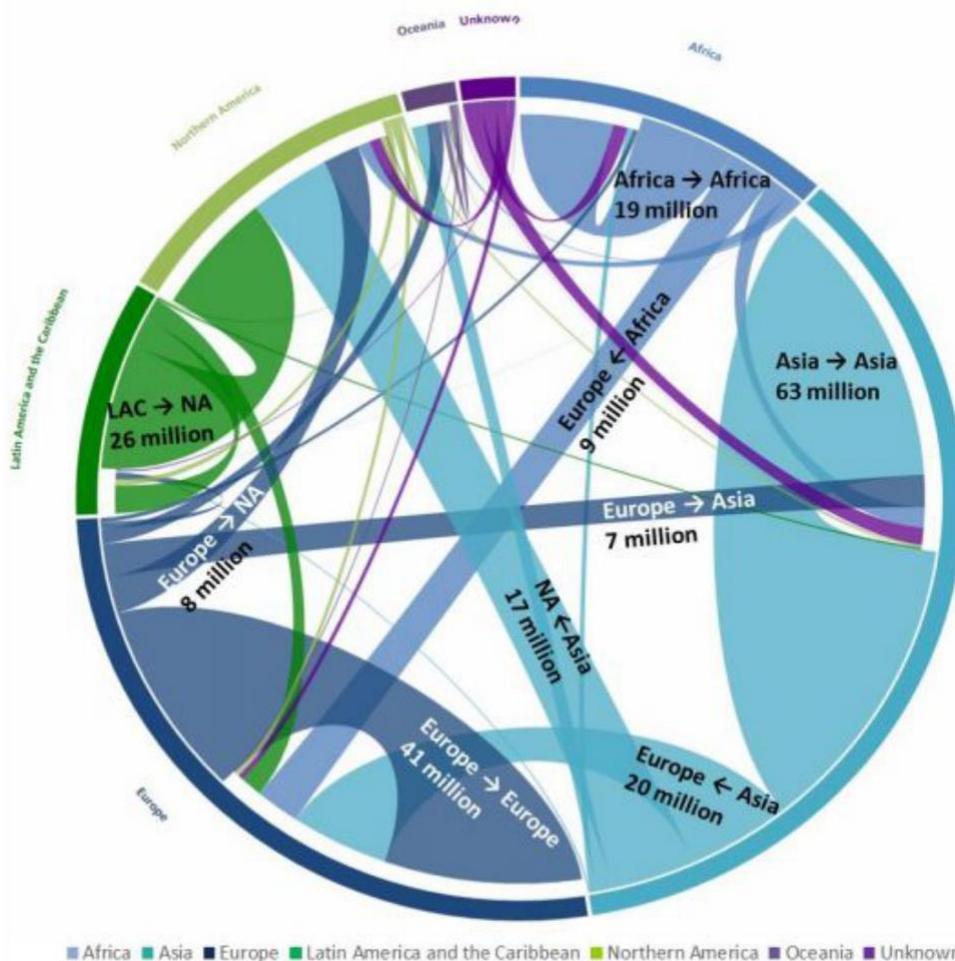
Labour flows are essentially **migration**. There are different types of migration, and it is important to recognise what type of migration has moved **for the purpose of contributing to the country's workforce**.

Economic migrants - People who have moved **voluntarily** for reasons of work and improved quality of life.

Refugees - People who have been forced to leave their homes and travel to another country due to fleeing **conflict, political or religious persecution**. They have been granted permanent or temporary residency by the host country or the UN refugee agency (UNHCR).

Asylum seekers - People who have left their country and are seeking asylum in another. They are waiting to be granted residency and to become a refugee.

Number of international migrants classified by region of origin and destination, 2017



Major Labour Flows

International labour flows are flows from **one country** to **another country**.

Today, **3-4% of the world's population** are **international migrants**.

The majority of international migration is migration **to** a high income country. **14.1% of high income country populations** are made up of international migrants, whereas only **1.6% of low income country populations** are made up of international migrants.

Within continents, the three major labour flows are between:

Asia - **63 million people** moved to a different area of Asia while living in Asia in 2017, making it the largest labour flow in the world. The largest flows are between South Asia to West Asia; 5 million migrated from **India, Pakistan** and **Bangladesh** to **Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the UAE** and **Bahrain**. This movement is usually for **better job prospects** as Western Asia is generally wealthier.

Europe - **41 million** moved to other areas within Europe in 2017. **Germany** holds the largest amount of European migrants. The majority of German immigrants have moved from **Eastern European** countries such as **Poland (1.9 million** living in Germany), **Romania (590,000 migrants)**, and the **Czech Republic (540,000 migrants)**. The UK has the second highest amount of European migrants within the EU, with **700,000 from Poland and 500,000 from Ireland**.

Africa - **19 million people** move within African countries. Movement in Africa, especially Sub-Saharan Africa is between **neighbouring countries**, as moving is costly and the majority of these countries are low income countries. The countries with the largest migrant populations are South Africa (around 4000), Côte d'Ivoire (around 2200), and Nigeria (1200). South Africa and Nigeria are also the **wealthiest African countries** (GDP), which may be why they have the highest labour flows.

Between continents, the largest labour flows are:

Latin America and Caribbean (LAC) to North America - **26 million people** emigrated from Latin America and the Caribbean to North America in 2017, making it the **3rd largest global labour flow**, and the largest flow from one continent to another. Nearly **22 million** migrants are from **Latin America**, whereas around **4 million** are from the **Caribbean**.

Latin America migrant populations are highest in **California (5.4 million)**, **Texas (3 million)** and **Florida (nearly 3 million)**. The majority of Latin America emigration is from **Mexico (11.5 million people)**.

Caribbean migrant populations are the highest in **Florida (1.6 million)** and **New York (1 million)**. The majority of Caribbean migrants of North America are from **Cuba (nearly 1.2 million)**

Asia to Europe - **20 million migrants** move to areas of Europe from Asia. Around 12% of all migrating Asians (including those migrating to different areas of Asia) live in Europe. **Germany, England, France and Spain** are the European countries with the highest number of Asian migrants. Germany is the highest, with over **1 million people from Kazakhstan** living in Germany, and over 250,000 from both Iran and Iraq. **England's largest Asian population is from India (840,000 people)**, and also has high populations of Pakistanis and Bangladeshis. France and Spain have large amounts of Eastern and South Eastern Asians, such as those from Vietnam, China, and the Philippines.

Asia to North America - 17 million Asian migrants moved to North America in 2017. The majority of Asian migrants are from **Eastern Asia (4 million)**, **South Eastern Asia (4 million)** and **South Central Asia (3.5 million)**. These migrants live mainly in **California (nearly 4 million)** and **New York (1.2 million)**. Migrants from **China** make up the majority of Asian migrants in the USA specifically (**2.5 million**), followed by India (**2.2 million**) and the Philippines (**1.9 million**).

There are different **types of labour** that contribute to a country's workforce. Workers can be **highly skilled** or **unskilled**. Both of these workers usually migrate to **higher income countries** searching for better job prospects.

Highly skilled workers are usually highly trained in jobs that require a **great deal of skill**, such as in medicine, science, or ICT. Highly skilled workers may move to high income countries as **wages are higher for the same job** than in lower income countries. Many countries **rely** on the flow of highly skilled workers as they utilise their skills. The NHS is a prime example of a highly skilled service that is reliant on labour flows - only 63.4% of all doctors in the UK are trained here; many medical professionals come from abroad such as from India, Pakistan and the Philippines.

Unskilled workers take positions that do not necessarily require **qualifications** or **intensive training**, therefore usually the work has **lower economic value** than that of highly skilled labour. Unskilled workers also move to developed countries for better wages and usually because of **high unemployment rates** in their countries. This can lead to **overpopulation** and **exploitation**, because many workers are still left in underpaid and often illegal work. This means many migrants continue to be low paid and low skilled.

Flows of Products

Product flows are the movement of produced goods from area of **production** to area of **consumption**. Increased globalisation has caused product flows to become **international**, meaning products are **produced** by a country and then **transported** to another country. In 2015, value of world trade of food and manufactured commodities was \$25 trillion, demonstrating the extent of these flows.

In the past, produced goods were manufactured in **high income countries** due to them having access to resources such as factories and the ability to buy materials. As well as this, products were usually sold within the country they were produced in.

In recent decades, there has been a **shift** in product flows from internal (within the country) to international. **International trade** has now created major product flows, especially flows between low income and high income countries. Due to **technological advancements** such as better **transportation and communication**, products can now be produced in **low income countries**. This is beneficial to manufacturers as there are **lower labour costs**, meaning a large amount of companies have **relocated** internationally to produce their goods (known as **offshoring**).

The products are produced for **lower costs**, then transported to high income countries to be sold at a much higher price, increasing profits. This, however, has caused a decrease in the manufacturing industry in high income countries. Employment in the manufacturing business in the UK has decreased by over 3.4 million jobs since 1985.

The reason as to why global product flows have shifted to **low income countries (transportation, communication, new systems, new relationships etc.)** will be explored further in **Factors Affecting Globalisation**.

Product flows are also recently changing, due to **emerging economies**. As these economies grow, so does the amount of **wealthier, middle class civilians**. Therefore, there is an increasing demand for **materials and manufactured products** in these growing **consumerist** societies. For example, the first Apple shop opened in China in 2008, and now there are 40 stores open, showing the demand for consumerist products.

Flows of Services

Service industries can flow due to the ability to transfer information in the globalised world. Services can be transferred on phone calls or via the internet, meaning there is no longer a need for the industry to be **tied down to a location**.

There are two types of services, **high level** and **low level**:

- **High level services** are activities that generally require a higher **skill level**, they are usually **important** and **complicated**, meaning the person delivering the service should be **qualified and trained** so that they can deliver the best service possible. A prime example of a high level service are **financial services**; those who give financial services are usually trained and fully qualified as they should be well-informed to make decisions about money.
- **Low level services** are services that require less training, and are not as important to consumers. These services are mainly **customer service based**, especially **call centres** as workers only need basic training to offer advice or to sell products.

Interestingly, Indian call centre workers on average are **more qualified than call centre workers in England** (many having graduate or postgraduate degrees). However, there is a lack of high level service **job opportunity** in India for those who possess relevant qualifications

High level services are usually concentrated in higher income countries, are increasingly locating to **global hubs** within cities. This map of financial centres shows how these high level services are mainly concentrated within certain cities, and the majority of these are in **high income countries**, as well as increasingly emerging economies.

In contrast, **low level services are offshoring** (moving overseas) in order to take advantage of lower labour costs. Those in higher income countries can utilise these services at home by simply calling up a customer service centre based in India, which has **developed global connections** and accelerated globalisation.

Flows of Information

Global information flows have grown rapidly since the 90s. The development of **internet use, social media platforms and entertainment services** have allowed information to be transferred globally with ease.

These information flows occur for different **purposes**, and occur across many **platforms**.

- **Fast broadband and connections** allows news and financial information to be transferred almost instantly, allowing people to be more informed about global current events.
- **Social media** has allowed people to communicate across countries, and allows people to experience other cultures, making people across the world more **interconnected**.
- **Real time data** and data transfers contribute to the '**knowledge economy**' (quaternary industry). This is essentially the industry that requires information to develop, rather than products such as agricultural produce or manufactured products. The ability to transfer information has created developments in **stock markets, high-tech products, the education sector and many other areas of society**.
- Large **databases** and **archives** can be used for research and education.
- The ability to research allows people to seek better **employment opportunities**, creating more global connections and allowing online, work-from-home jobs.

Global Marketing

Globalisation has allowed businesses to **market** (advertise, promote and sell) their products on an **international scale**. This has grown many businesses due to increased **recognition** and **profit**. Global marketing involves different marketing strategies that overall allows the marketing to succeed:

Awareness of the brand: when a brand creates a **trademark** (a legally registered representation, such as a logo) it can be easily recognised by consumers. A familiar brand is more likely to sell as they are chosen over less well-known competing brands. By keeping this trademark worldwide, consumers in other countries are likely to recognise the brand and trust it.

American brands such as Apple, Coca Cola, and Nike have developed a **global awareness** of their brand, and are internationally well known. Buyers may assume their **success** and **popularity** equates to a good product, so the familiar brands are seen as **trustworthy** and continue to grow.

Keeping the same strategy: it is more beneficial for a product to be marketed globally using the **same strategies**, rather than changing the strategy for each country. To make any changes to a marketing campaign will be **costly**, e.g. the costs for employment. Global marketing campaigns usually only need to change the **language** in order to promote their product, hence why some adverts are **dubbed over with a different language**.

Sometimes, though, a marketing campaign may need changed in order to respect cultural differences, such as religion or preferences.

KitKat is an excellent example of global marketing in place. As a British company, KitKat appeared in Japan in 1973. Since then the brand has become extremely popular overseas, and Japan is now the only place in the world to sell the hundreds of **unusual flavoured varieties** such as Baked Potato, Cherry Blossom, and French Salt. The logo still stays the same. KitKat has edited its marketing strategies to appeal to the Japanese **collectibles** culture as well as the **unusual products** popular in Japan. The concept of altering business practices for local interest and tastes is known as **glocalisation**.

Patterns of Production, Distribution and Consumption

PRODUCTION

Developed markets **dominate** the global exports in manufactured goods, especially the EU and the US.

The **EU** and the **US** are the top exporters of agricultural products, Although the EU is the top exporter of fuels and mining products, a large majority of **emerging economies** in the Middle-East are also large producers due to the oil industry. Russia, Saudi Arabia, UAE, and Qatar are all in the top 10 exporters of fuel and mining products.

The EU dominates the iron and steel exports, but many **LICs** are also large exporters. China, Russia, India, Brazil and Ukraine are all in the top 10 exporters.

The EU and the US are, again, on the leaderboard, however the majority of textile exports are dominated by **emerging economies**. China is, by far, the largest exporter of textiles. India, Turkey, Pakistan, and Vietnam (which is not even considered an emerging economy as it is too small of a market) are all major exporters.

Chemical exports are dominated by the EU, followed by the US. There are many developed economies exporting chemicals, including Switzerland, Japan and Canada. Chemical exports within emerging economies are also high.

Although the EU is the second largest exporter of clothing, the majority of clothing exports are highly concentrated in LICs, some even too poor to be considered an **emerging economy**. China is the highest exporter of clothing, as well as India, Turkey and Indonesia - all emerging economies. However, Vietnam, Cambodia and Bangladesh are all large exporters of clothing, showing the industry to be heavily based within **low income countries**.

Although the US and the EU are on the top 10 exporters, the majority of office and telecom equipment exports are concentrated in **emerging economies**. China (making up a third of the entire market), Singapore, The Republic of Korea, Taiwan, Mexico and Malaysia make up the top 10. The amount of office equipment produced in these regions is likely due to the cheap labour prices, and ability to make and ship products in **bulk**.

HICs and developed markets make the majority of automotive products (The EU, Japan, US, Canada). Mexico, China, Thailand, India, and other **emerging markets** are also becoming large exporters of automotive products, but the industry is very much in the developed markets as of today.

CONSUMPTION

In general, HICs **consume** manufactured products more than LICs. This is because there is a lot less **demand** for goods in LICs. In **developing economies**, there is a demand for fuel and minerals due to the rapid **industrialisation** in these economies, especially Brazil, China, and India.

In the least developed countries, imports are low. Chad and the Democratic Republic of Congo, and two former Soviet states – Georgia and Uzbekistan - import **medical supplies** more than any other country.

Factors Affecting Globalisation

Globalisation has **accelerated** and **deepened** due to different advancements globally. The development of technology, international relationships, and the implementation of systems have helped in creating a more globalised world. These advancements include:

§ New financial technologies and systems

Financial systems

The financial system is the relationship between those who **borrow** money, those who **invest** money, and the institutions that **hold, give out and take in** this money.

The most basic example of a financial system is a bank. Those who have money and want to make a **profit** from this **invest** into the bank, as they will get **interest** by keeping it saved there. Those who need money take **loans** from banks and will pay this back with interest. The bank (theoretically) uses the money from those who have deposited it by giving it to those who need loans.

Globalisation has caused this system to become a **global process**, incorporating thousands of institutions and banks. Now the borrowing/investing relationships occur **internationally** as well as nationally.

The **global financial system** accelerates globalisation as it makes the world more **connected**:

- Banks are now large global institutions that work with **millions of people's money**.
- Multinational corporations **invest** their profits for more **interest**, meaning **billions of dollars** are put in the system
- People buy and sell **shares and stocks** from global corporations. These purchases are done all over the world, and people from any nation can buy them.
- Entire countries invest and take loans from huge financial institutions such as The World Bank, which is a huge global flow of capital.
- Countries also borrow, lend, and invest in other countries, which develops the **relationships** between the countries.

Financial technologies

Financial technology has made financial information and money **easily accessible** for people across the world, deepening the connections between countries:

- Informed decisions about investments, buying and selling, and other financial information is all available due to global **communication technology**, e.g. stock market trends are easily accessible
- The ability to connect with international banks have allowed people to have **offshore bank accounts**, creating more personal wealth
- Global banks can operate due to their ability to **communicate** with their national and regional branches
- Companies can operate even when they are relocated to other (usually low income) countries as money can be transferred to a country (for building factories, buying materials etc.) and profits can be sent back to the company headquarters.
- Specifically, the ability to **transfer money** thanks to the **internet** has revolutionised global finance, allowing the world to be connected:

People can **buy and sell things globally** without having to meet the buyer to pay **Remittances** (money sent back to home country) can be sent home with speed and ease

Cryptocurrency (encrypted digital currency) has been developed, which has created a whole new market for online currency and trading

→ Transport technologies, systems and relationships

Transporting goods

Innovations in transport have made it easier to **transport goods faster** and in **larger quantities**. High speed rail, and faster and bigger planes and boats have allowed the world to become more connected and **globalised** through these connections.

Larger and faster aircraft with increased capacity have reduced travelling times, meaning products can be sold over a larger distance in a shorter space of time. Planes are built for the purpose of transporting goods, known as **cargo aircraft**. These large planes have accelerated globalisation.

Containerisation has also changed how **freight** (products transported in bulk) can be transported internationally. Containerisation is the process of using large **shipping containers** to transport goods. Since the production of the large metal containers in the 50s, huge amounts of products have been loaded onto trains, planes and boats and transported. Containerisation makes global transportation **cheaper** as less trips are needed to transport the same amount of product.

Transporting people

New innovations in transport have also allowed for more **flows of labour**. People are able to move to **different countries** quicker and cheaper than ever before.

High speed rail is an example of new transport technology that has increased global flows of labour. High speed rail provides important transport between neighbouring countries. It links rural and urban areas in China, and has accelerated rural-urban migration here. High speed rail has also developed in Europe since the 80's, and now many neighbouring countries are accessible through cross-border trains. This has allowed for flows of people internationally, as it is cheaper and faster to move to a desired country.

Air travel has also revolutionised the transportation of people due to **faster and cheaper** flights. Since the **deregulation of travel markets**, international airlines have been able to fly without countries favouring their own **nationalised** airlines (e.g. British Airways in the past). Flights are now more **affordable** and **attainable** due to the amount of **choice** and **competitive rates**, as well the ability to book **online**.

Air travel **technology** has also improved; flight times are **quicker** and there are more **destinations** available to travel to. For example, in March 2018, the **first non-stop flight between Australia and UK took place**, taking just over 17 hours. Air travel technology and management has **lowered prices** and **expanded** the **places** people can travel to, which has allowed millions of people to be transported overseas.



Security technologies and systems

Due to our world being globalised, countries face **threats** from other countries. Therefore, certain **security systems** using **communication technology** and other technology have had to be developed in order to keep countries safe.

There are now **stricter regulations** upon entering a country and transporting goods. **International customs** control the flow of people and goods in and out of countries to ensure security within the country.

For example. The use of automatic X-ray technology at airports allows suspicious objects to be traced. This system is put in place to ensure drugs, weapons, human threats etc. do not enter a country and cause harm.

Cybersecurity is a **global concern**, and attacks can originate from **anywhere in the world**. Technologies are being developed to ensure cyber attacks can be traced, no matter the country they originate from. This security technology has been developed as a result of our globalised world.

There are global systems put in place to limit **disagreement and wars**, protecting civilians and ensuring **security** within countries. The United Nations Security Council, for example, is an international organisation that aims to diffuse disagreements with the intention of maintaining international peace.

The use of **technology** has allowed for **security threats** to be monitored and stopped. The use of CCTV, search histories, financial purchases etc. can be used to track those who are attempting to commit crimes such as terrorist attacks.

Communication technologies

The ability to communicate globally has allowed flows of **information, services** and **capital** to accelerate. For example:

- **Satellites and fibre-optic communication** enabled the growth of **internet** and **mobile phone systems**, in turn allowing **information and money** to be transferred internationally.
- Corporations can **communicate with overseas factories** quickly and easily, meaning the negatives of moving production overseas to low income countries are reduced.
- **Services** can be accessed through the internet or on the phone (e.g. call centres), allowing for thousands, if not millions of jobs to be created that can be accessed through communication technology alone.
- The global availability of smartphones and the vast number of apps, such as global positioning service (GPS) apps, and social groups, have added a new dimension to **migration**, allowing people to move with less restraints
- **Relationships** can be maintained even from great distances. This has **deepened global connections** and may also increase **flows of labour** as people are more likely to move if they can still communicate with their families abroad.



Management and Information Systems

The process of globalisation has been accelerated by the way companies **manage flows**, be that flows of labour, products, services, information or capital. The way companies are managed have **changed** due to the global relationships and systems in place. There are now common systems in the majority of global companies to make these companies more **efficient**.

- **Economies of scale:** An economy of scale is the concept of **increasing profits** by producing **a larger amount of products**, as overall the average price to manufacture each product is **lowered**. Companies can save money by **upscaling** their production:

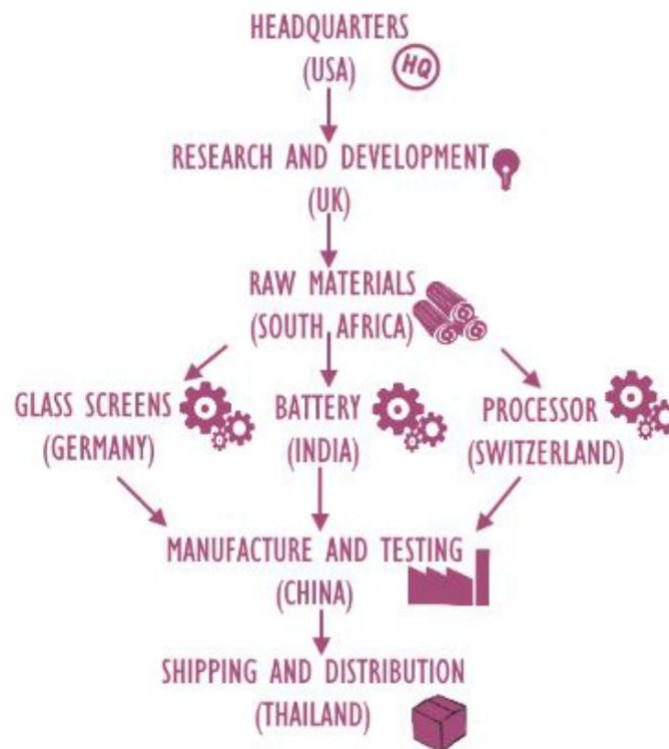
Raw products can be bought in **bulk**, meaning they are cheaper.

A large amount of products can be made **quickly** on **production lines**, meaning less money is spent on labour.

Large amounts of products can be shipped, meaning overall it costs less to send a large shipment rather than many small ones.

Overall, if a company is willing (and has enough money) to spend more on initially buying larger factories, shipping equipment, and raw materials, they will save in the long run. Economies of scale require management by companies to ensure profits are heightened.

- Global supply chains:** A supply chain is the organised management of **product flows**, from when they are manufactured to when they are delivered to consumers. Due to the ability to **communicate information and transport products**, companies can now have different **stages** of production in different **countries**. This overall **minimises costs** because each stage of production is **specialised** rather than having one factory that has to control **every aspect of production**, saving time and money.



- Outsourcing:** Outsourcing is the **hiring of other companies** to complete company tasks that are essential, but are not necessary to complete by the company itself (e.g. call centres, final manufactures, advertising etc.). Companies can outsource due to the ability to **communicate information** to the companies they hire. Overall this saves money, especially when outsourcing is done in **low income countries** due to lower labour costs.
- Offshoring:** Offshoring is relocating a company process abroad. Due to **communication systems, easier transport and the ability to transfer money**, a lot of companies use offshoring to minimise costs. This management strategy saves money when relocating to low income countries, as labour costs are lower. Companies may also relocate due to lower taxes and availability of materials.

Trade Agreements

Globalisation has accelerated due to **trade agreements** across the world. Countries **trade** products to different countries; millions of products are imported and exported into and out of countries every year. Trade agreements have made globalisation **deepen and accelerate** as they make **international trading less expensive and easier**.

Trading products is expensive due to the **controls and restrictions** put on imports and exports.

These restrictions include:

- **Tariffs** (a tax for importing and exporting goods)
- **Non-tariff barriers** (NTBs), such as **quotas** (a limit/fixed number of goods) or requirements - Outright **bans** on products or country import/exports

To lower the costs of trade, countries can enter **trade agreements**, which work to benefit all parties that are involved. In trade agreements, certain **restrictions can be removed** or lessened in return for another country doing the same. All trade agreements are overlooked by the **World Trade Organisation (WTO)** to ensure they are **fair**.

An example of a trade agreement is the **North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)**. This agreement has lowered and removed tariffs on imports and exports between Canada, the USA, and Mexico. NAFTA has been criticised for its **effectiveness**.

Interdependence is the theory that nations depend on each other economically, politically, socially and environmentally. Many contemporary societies are now classed as **interdependent** as they rely heavily on the decisions of other countries, meaning they would struggle and be detrimentally affected without them.

Issues associated with Interdependence

Interdependence can cause issues for dependent countries due to **unequal flows**. The global flows of **people** (labour), **money** (capital), **ideas**, and **technology** are not **equal around the world**, sometimes countries give more, sometimes countries receive more. **Unequal flows** can be **beneficial to a country** as they can bring benefits socially and economically. However, unequal flows can also cause **inequalities**, and in some cases can lead to **injustice or conflict**.

 **Unequal flows of people**  In general, **migration** occurs **from low income countries to high income countries**. This is due to there being more **opportunity** in high income countries (better employment, more freedom etc.). Therefore, the **flow of people** globally is unequal. More people **leave low income countries** than **enter** low income countries. On the contrary, more people **enter higher income countries** than they leave.

Benefits of unequal flows of people

- The benefits of unequal flows of people **within the country they are migrating to** are mainly concerned with the **workforce**. Migrant workers become an important part of the host country as they become intertwined in **work forces** and take jobs that must be done, but are 'unwanted' by others. For example, 44% of the **cleaning** workforce in London is made up of ethnic minorities.

- Also, states that are home to large **diaspora** population often have strong geopolitical ties with the diaspora's country origin. E.g. the friendship between UK and India.
- The **countries that people are flowing from** may also benefit from unequal flows of people out of their country. Workers send **remittances** back to their home country, helping their home economy to grow. An example of economic interdependency caused by migration is Indian workers moving to UAE. Over 2 million Indian migrants live in the United Arab Emirates (30% of population). An estimate of **\$15 billion** is returned to India annually as remittances.
- Furthermore, it is surely a positive that many people are **fleeing from conflict and poor quality of life**, and they may have a better life in countries they have moved to.

Problems associated with unequal flows of people

- Disproportionately large flows of people can have negative effects on the countries being migrated to. Host countries may become **dependent** on the migrant workers, and this causes issues if there is a change in circumstances. For example, **the reliance on Polish migrants on UK potato farms** has caused issues with potato crops in Jersey.
- Unequal flows can cause **overpopulation**. Many countries experiencing large flows of people believe they suffer due to **pressure on services** such as healthcare, and social tension with migrants 'taking' jobs.
- The country that migrants originate from may become **dependent** on remittances, so a change in circumstance may be detrimental to the economy. For example, the UK entered a recession in 2009. Many **building projects were cancelled**, meaning migrants working in construction industries lost their jobs and stopped sending remittances home. **Estonia's economy shrank by 13%**, which is thought to be related to the lack of remittances.
- Large amounts of **emigration** (leaving) can cause unemployment and economic deterioration, as areas may become **underpopulated**. Skilled workers leave to work in high income countries, meaning unskilled people are left to keep the economy running.
- As many migrants are more desperate for work than nationals, they may be vulnerable to **exploitation**, such as poor working conditions and low wages. In Qatar, an estimated (but disputed) **1,200** migrant workers have died while building for the upcoming 2022 World Cup.

Unequal Flows of Money

As previously mentioned, the majority of money flows are **into** low income countries. Foreign Direct Investment, aid, remittances all flow **into** low income countries, whereas the flows of money **into high income countries** are majorly repatriation of profits/product sales. These flows of money bring both benefits and issues.

Benefits

- To the country **receiving money**, foreign direct investments can **improve quality of life** as it provides an income, usually an income that is higher than other employment in low income countries.
- **Aid and remittances** can also help to improve quality of life, such as rebuilding after a disaster. For example, \$US11.28 million in foreign aid was given to Fiji after the devastating Cyclone Winston (2016), the majority of which has been invested into the Help for Homes scheme, which helps rebuild stronger homes.

- To the country **sending money**, there are also benefits. Richer countries can take advantage of **lower labour costs**, maximising their profits.

Problems

- Problems associated with unequal flows of money are mainly concerning **injustice** towards people living in low income countries.
- Companies in low income countries operating from high income countries can create **dependencies** for workers. They are **dependent** on the **higher wages**, meaning they must subject themselves to dangerous situations. **Sweatshops** with dangerous working conditions and low wages are set up by large companies. For example, the collapse of a garment factory - **Rana Plaza** - in 2013, killed 1134 people. The factory was known to provide clothing for well known brands such as Primark, Matalan, and Walmart.
- Foreign Aid can cause issues, as it can reduce **incentive** for governments to help their own countries.
- Companies can pressure governments to **alleviate taxes** or **relax social and environmental laws** so that TNCs will invest.
- TNCs have been criticised for **profiting** too much. The flows of money may be larger to low income countries, but the amount of profit that stays in the country is very small.

Unequal flows of ideas

High income countries usually **dictate ideas** of how countries should be run, and how trade should be carried out. This is mostly down to these countries having **more money**, thus more power over less developed countries.

Benefits

- High income countries have introduced ideas of **deregulation** to developing countries and **newly emerging economies (NEEs)**. Reducing **state ownership** has had benefits to developing countries, such as **lower prices of products and services** from competitive rates. For example, the long-distance telephone market in Chile has been deregulated, which has cut telephone rates by **50%**.
- **Free-trade** (**created** by HIC deregulation) has increased globally due to deregulation, allowing **global markets to thrive** and decreasing the risk of conflicts.
- Countries with successful strategies can **educate** low income countries on how to create **economic growth** or remove **social injustice**, meaning low income countries can implement these strategies.

Problems

- Some argue that **deregulation is occurring too quickly** for low income countries to keep up, and this is not allowing the **full benefits** of the growth of the private sector to be achieved. Rapid flows of FDI and growth of the global markets mean some countries cannot keep up, and a **reform** of regulations would work better than only **deregulation**.

- **Privatisation** allows **large companies** who buy originally state-owned industries to **grow**. Profits are massively **concentrated within these companies**, rather than **nationalised industries**. This means low income countries may not benefit from privatisation as it is **not growing their economy** but is instead funding the company.
- Low income countries may feel **forced** to keep up with ideas of the wealthier countries, even if the ideas are not the most beneficial to these countries. E.g. it is a massive disadvantage to a country's economy if they **do not join trade agreements** etc.
- Deregulation may lead to more **relaxed** social and environmental laws in low income countries, causing social **injustice** and environmental **damage** without proper government regulation.
- Ideas of **multiculturalism** and **interdependency** may be disputed by some people. Some citizens fear an interdependent country as a **threat** to their nation's **sovereignty**.

Unequal flows of technology

There are flows of technology both ways between HICs and LICs/NEEs. However, these flows are unequal as **different types of technology** flow between countries.

In the past, the **majority of flows of technology were within HICs**, as there was virtually **no demand** for technology in **lower income countries**.

Now, HICs and companies wish to **invest in lower income countries** due to the benefits they bring, so **technology that can make capital gains** (e.g. manufacturing equipment, components for assembly etc.) flows to LICs. This type of technology does not flow from LICs to HICs because there are **less companies based in LICs that wish to invest in HICs** (as there are less benefits, including higher wages).

In contrast, although design and research occurs in HICs, a lot of **consumer technology** is **manufactured in lower income countries**, only to be **distributed to HICs**. Phones, office and telecommunications technology, and electronics are mainly manufactured in lower income countries, then sold to HICs. This is slowly changing though, with a higher demand for **consumer technology in newly emerging economies, such as China**.

The EU, for example, receives **10x** the amount of electrical imports from China than it exports to China.

Benefits

- The **economies of LICs can develop** through technology investments, opening up factories and increasing employment. This also strengthens **trade deals** between HICs and LICs, which allows HICs to benefit from the exports of LICs.
- Companies benefit from products being **produced overseas**, meaning they can maximise profits.
- The concentration of technology innovation in HICs has led to the development of **beneficial** technological advancements. This leads to consumers getting better products.

Problems

- HICs with developed markets have a **technological** advantage over lower income countries because they can **afford to buy the technology**. People in LICs cannot afford to purchase technology that will **advance their economy** and **improve quality of life**, meaning HICs can rapidly develop while LICs are left behind.
- It can be considered an **injustice** that **the employees** that **manufacture and assemble** consumer technology such as computers, phones, and household appliances receive **so little compared with what they are sold for**. Companies make a **large majority of profits**, whereas those who do a lot of the work are left with **little income**, as well as **often poor working conditions**. These countries rarely even have the **benefits** of the product they are creating - China is the largest producer of smartphones, yet only 55% of the population has a smartphone, compared to 77% of the USA.
- Companies investing technology into LICs means that HIC **manufacturing jobs** are often lost. This can leave many out of work due to job losses, and those with **relevant training** in manufacturing technology often have nowhere to go.

Unequal Power Relations caused by Interdependence

In general, richer, more developed countries are the more **powerful** countries. These countries have more **money and technology**, as well as **deeper relations with other countries**, meaning they are able to **influence** global systems to their advantage.

In contrast, low income countries that lack money and technology have less **influence** over geopolitical events. This is **problematic** for these countries, as they **rely** on the decisions made by richer countries, and only have the power to **respond** to the events rather than directly intervene.

Some examples of how unequal power relations affect global systems are:

- **The environment:** As previously mentioned, all countries are **interdependent** in a way due to our reliance on others to protect the environment. Richer, powerful countries (and emerging economies especially) usually **emit** a lot of carbon dioxide.

Some rich countries may be less likely to **agree to global environmental protection** if this may reduce CO₂ emissions, even though they are likely to feel the effects of climate change less. Poorer, less powerful countries that are frequently affected by climate change induced **natural disasters** cannot do much to **influence the ideas of these richer countries**. The USA, for example, has recently withdrawn from the Paris Climate Agreement. In theory, the USA's reluctance to fight climate change may cause less powerful countries to suffer.

- **Trade:** Richer countries generally control trade agreements, as those who enter trade agreements with rich countries can **benefit** from the country's wealth, whereas the richer countries will not benefit to the extent of the less wealthy countries.

As richer countries have the **upper hand**, this means they can **pressure low income countries** into making **more beneficial deals** to the richer countries. Lower income countries may **lower taxes, reduce tariffs, set up Special Economic Zones (SEZs)**, etc. to encourage investment, which may have negative effects on the economy.

Rich corporations and TNCs can influence trade, as they may create **sanctions** on other countries or refuse to trade with them in order to get their way.

- For example, the '**Banana Wars**' was a six year disagreement caused by the EU
- granting **special access** to EU markets for Caribbean banana farmers. TNCs that
- controlled Latin American crops **filed a complaint** against the EU for unfairly creating this
- agreement, and the countries of TNC operation imposed sanctions on EU products.
- Eventually, the EU agreed to **reduce tariffs** on Latin American bananas, which has
- negatively affected the Caribbean crops as they struggle to compete with competitive
- prices from the TNC plantations.

Global Financial Institutions: The IMF and the World Bank can be seen as **reinforcing** the unequal power relations between countries, rather than providing a **level playing field**. The main concern is that these institutions attach **loan conditionalities**, such as deregulation, privatisation etc. This is usually without regards to the economies receiving the loan, and can have negative effects such as **less investments into education and healthcare sectors**.

The World Trade Organisation (WTO) has also been criticised for **widening the gap** between low income and high income countries, despite being the very organisation created to avoid this. In general, the WTO can be seen as **biased towards richer countries**. Some examples include:

- The maintenance of (some say unfair) **high import duties** and **quotas** in rich countries, which **reduces imports** from **developing countries**
- The protection of **HIC agriculture**, but the pressure for LICs to **open their markets up to international produce**
- Developing countries are **not represented as much** in the WTO

International Trade

Trade and Investments in a Globalised World

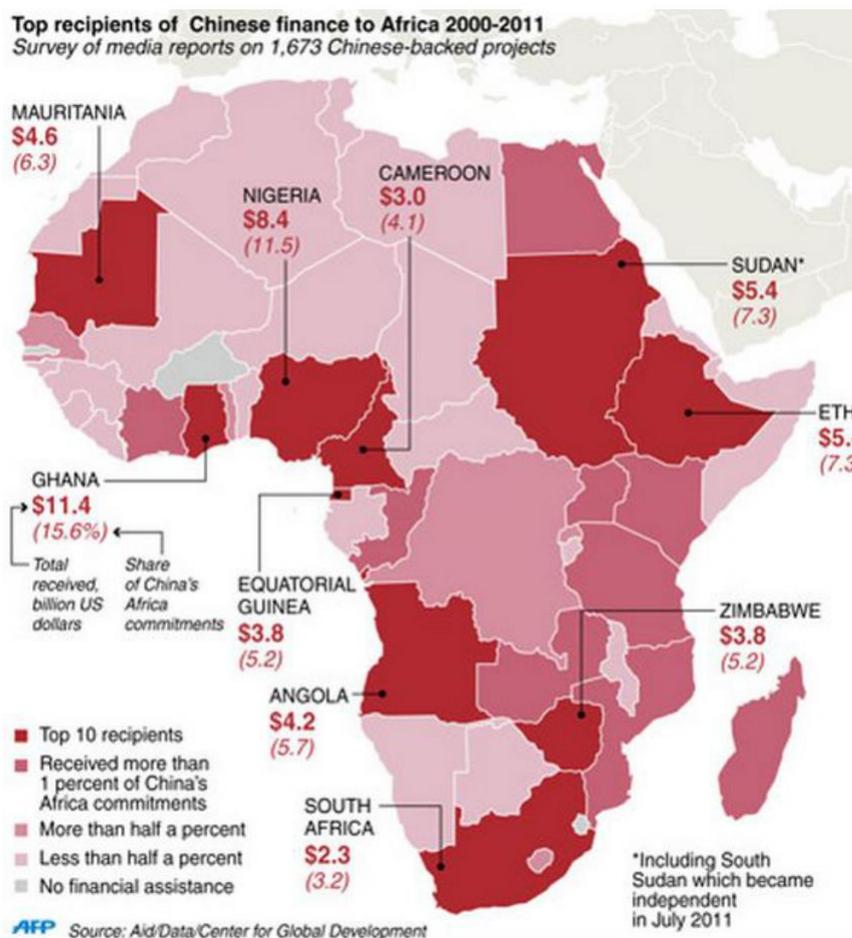
Volume

International trade is occurring **more than ever before**. Globally, the amount of exports has been steadily increasing. The only time trade has **decreased** was during the Global Financial Crisis. World exports of manufactured goods has increased from US\$8 trillion in 2006 to US\$ 11 trillion in 2016.

The volume of **global investments** is also rising. FDI has risen from \$400 billion to \$1500 billion in 20 years. The graph below shows how FDI has risen over the past decades as a percentage of the **receiving** country's GDP. **Patterns**

Global trade and investments have changed over the past 40 years. Trading and investments used to be heavily concentrated within **the most developed countries**. Investments are now mainly concerned with **High Income Countries** investing into **Low Income Countries**, due to the profits that can be made from lower labour costs etc.

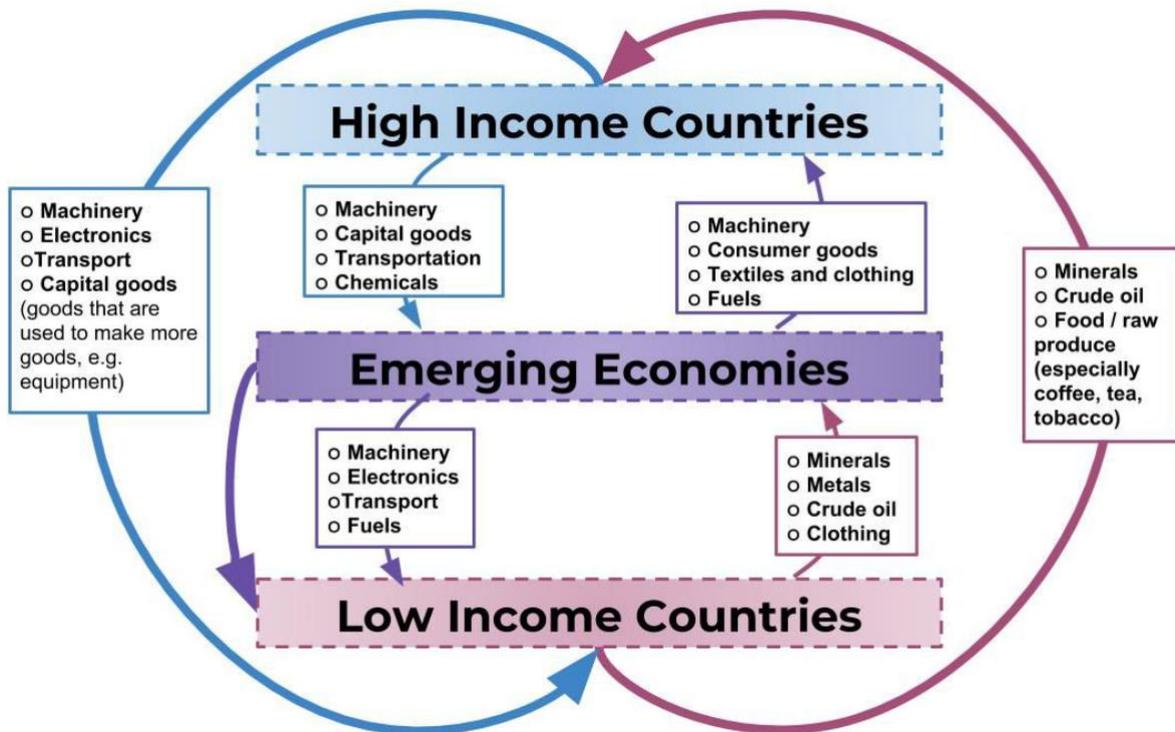
Investment patterns have also changed because **emerging economies** are beginning to invest in **low income countries**, causing these emerging economies to rapidly develop. For example, China invests a lot of money into Africa.



There are some **patterns arising in international trade**. Although high income countries remain the largest exporters, many **emerging economies** are also arising as huge exporters, such as China (the world's largest exporter). Developing economies' share of world merchandise trade is currently at 41%.

Low income countries are also **trading more**, but the growth at which LICs trade is the slowest out of every economy. The least developed countries (LDCs) make up **less than 1% of global merchandise and commercial services exports**.

International trade is also changing due to new international **relationships**, including **fair trade** and **trade blocs**. Trading relationships between high income, middle income (NEEs), and low income countries generally follows the same pattern.



In general, economies with **more money** invest into those with **less money** in order to develop lower income countries. This generates economic growth in the LIC, and allows HICs to take advantage of the lower labour costs. This is why HICs especially send **capital goods** to lower income countries - these goods can create consumer goods, generating a profit. Emerging economies produce **consumer goods** for HICs, e.g. the garment industry in Eastern Asia and the Pacific.

Fair trade

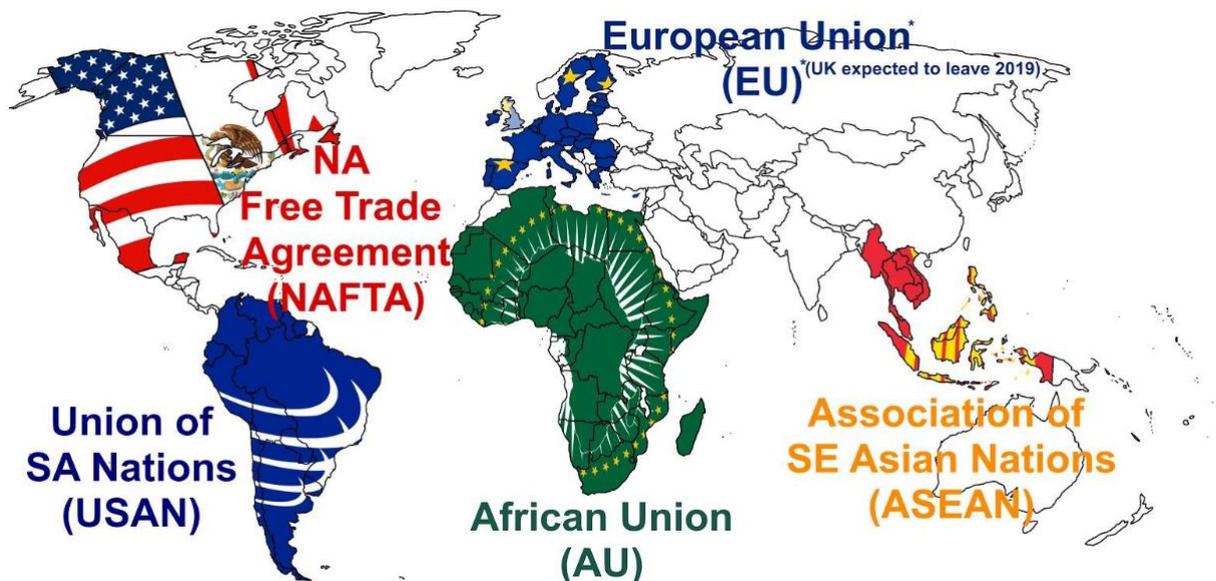
Globalisation has unfortunately left many **less developed markets** vulnerable to exploitation. Many small-scale farmers in LICs struggle to compete with the **competitive prices** of huge plantations owned by TNCs. This has led to farmers being paid **much less than deserved for a large amount of labour and produce**. The **Fairtrade Foundation** was set up in 1992 to ensure producers receive better trading conditions, and since then has developed into a well-known trademark, sold to supermarkets.

Trade Blocs

Trade Blocs are groups of countries in a **trading agreement**, allowing them to have certain **advantages** over other countries, such as reduced tariffs or higher quotas. A trade bloc gives all countries involved **mutual benefits**, and often include countries with **varying economic levels**. Trade Blocs are usually between **neighbouring countries**, but this is not always the case. There are also trade blocs for **industries**, such as **oil trade blocs**.

There are several major trade blocs around the world that **exemplify international trade**.

- **EU** - The European Union. 28 countries. Free trade within the EU has allowed goods and services to be transported internationally with ease.
- **NAFTA** - The North American Free Trade Agreement. 3 countries. The aim of NAFTA was to remove barriers to agricultural products, manufactured products, and services.
- **ASEAN** - The Association of Southeast Asian Countries. 10 countries. The bloc has free trade agreements to ensure political, economic, and social stability.



Other trading blocs include The African Union (**AU**), The Union of South American Nations (**USAN**), and The Caribbean Community (**CARICOM**).

The effects of trading blocs are both positive and negative. There are obvious positives concerning free trade, the removal of non-tariff barriers, and other trading advantages. However, some criticise that trading blocs **limit trade to other countries**, causing disadvantages to both the countries within the trade bloc and those outside of it. Overall, trade blocs (among other reasons) are said to limit the **access to markets**, which will be explored further.

Access to Markets within International Trade

All countries have **differential access to markets**. Access to markets refers to a nation or company's ability to **trade within the international market**. A country's access to market is limited by any **barriers** that limit a country's imports and exports. If access to markets is poor, a country is likely to be negatively affected. Economically, a country would be missing out on **profits from exports**, and societally, a country may miss out on products (and the poor economy may also negatively affect societal well-being).

Factors Impacting Access to Markets

Trade Agreements

Trading agreements, such as trade blocs, can positively and negatively affect countries. A country's access to markets may be **improved** by trade agreements, as **relationships between countries** are created that allow more trade to occur. This is especially true when lower income countries are introduced to trade agreements, as they are able to trade at lower prices, sometimes freely.

However, trade agreements may also bring negative effects to countries. Some argue that trade agreements disallow countries **within them** to trade as well with other countries, which may negatively affect these countries. One of the reasons that the UK has decided to leave the EU was that the EU **limits trading** with other countries, as trading **within the EU** is obviously encouraged.

Furthermore, countries **left out** of trade agreements can be at even **more** of a disadvantage. Less developed markets especially must pay tariffs when those in trade agreements do not, meaning they may struggle to have access to the market. Countries like Kenya struggle to get a good price for the food they sell to European markets, due to the tariffs placed on non-EU agricultural produce as an attempt to protect EU farmers. Heavy tariffs are also placed on African citrus fruits - especially South African orange produce - in order to protect Spanish farmers. This has weakened LICs access to markets. Overall, many trade blocs and agreements are made up of primarily **core regions**, meaning they develop quickly and benefit the most, whilst the **periphery regions** are left with **less developed markets** and little opportunity to gain access into the market.

Other Agreements

Special Economic Zones (SEZs) are areas **within a country** that do not have the same **trading regulations** as the country they are located in. The regulations within the SEZs are usually **less strict**, with lower tariffs and lower taxes. SEZs increase access to markets as countries can afford to invest in the area, increasing international trade from that area.

Special and Differential Treatment (SDT) agreements are put in place by the WTO to help specifically **developing markets** with **poor access to markets**. These countries receive **special treatment** such as reduced tariffs and taxes, priority in trading etc. Overall, SDTs aim to **develop the least economically developed countries' access to markets**.

Wealth

Generally, countries with **less wealth** have less **access to markets**. In HICs, countries can afford to pay for higher tariffs on exports and imports, meaning overall they are able to make profits and receive products. HICs also increase their access to markets through FDI into foreign markets, as this allows some countries to **save money** through cheaper labour and often **avoid** tariffs.

In contrast, those with less wealth may struggle to pay for **high tariffs**, and cannot save money through offshoring and outsourcing as they do not have the funds. This reduces LIC's already poor access to markets.

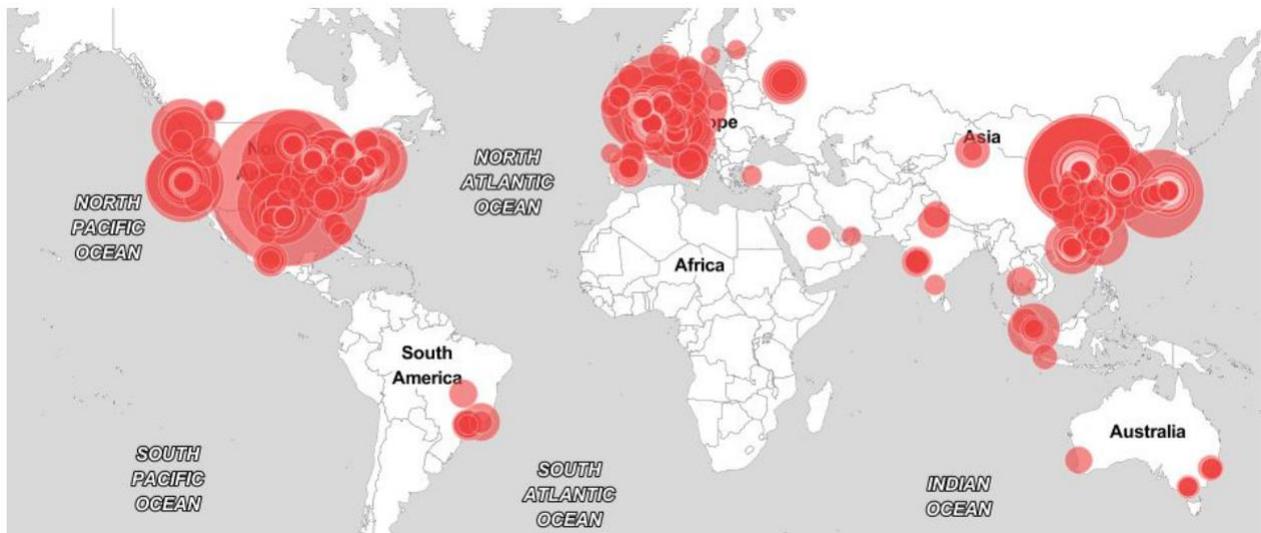
Transnational Corporations (TNCs)

TNCs, to put it simply, are companies operating **across multiple countries** (*trans*=- across, *-national*= nations). These companies usually work by having their headquarters, production, and sales all in **different countries across the globe**, meaning they are a crucial aspect of globalisation.

These corporations can provide raw products, manufactured goods, services, or information - they exist in different **industries (sectors)**. Overall, TNCs make **products**, produce **jobs**, **invest** in countries, and sometimes contribute to **cultures**. Some TNCs are very powerful, and can even have **political influence**, e.g. the pressuring of some countries to reduce taxes and create SEZs so that the TNC will invest there.

Spatial Organisation

1. The Headquarters of TNCs are usually located in **high income countries**. HQ is responsible for the **big decisions**, such as **investments**, **meetings with global organisations** etc.



This map shows the Headquarters of Fortune 500's largest companies. The majority of headquarters are heavily concentrated within the USA, Europe, Japan, as well as many in the emerging economy of China.

2. **Research and Development (R&D)** are the facilities in which customer research, software developing, plans for manufacture etc. is carried out. There are usually R&D facilities in the country where the TNC operates from, but there may also be multiple facilities in different countries, so that research can be **varied** and **specific to the target market**.

3. **Manufacturing** and production facilities are mainly concentrated in lower income countries due to increased profits. Lower costs for labour, lower material costs, and lower taxes/tariffs all contribute to the global shift in manufacturing. The **production** of TNC products is usually organised and complex, allowing the **greatest profits possible** to be achieved.

Production

TNCs use global **management systems** in order to maximise their profits. These systems of production, as previously mentioned, are:

- **Economies of scale:** TNCs usually have a large revenue, meaning they can afford to **upscale their production**. This allows **profits to increase** as less is spent in production.
- **Global supply chains:** TNCs use global supply chains in order to increase profits. HQ and R&D are in HICs, whereas the **production** often occurs globally, especially with TNCs that operate within the **secondary industry sector**.

As an example, Boeing is an American aircraft TNC. Different components are manufactured in different countries, which overall gives the **best product**. This type of global supply chain happens throughout TNCs.

Products that are made for **consumer audiences**, such as smartphones, use global supply chains as a way to **spend less money on manufacturing**. TNCs may often **invest in the source of raw materials** also in order to save money in the supply chain. E.g. many TNCs that provide food (like fruit) invest in plantations to lower the cost and remove the 'middle man'.

- **Outsourcing:** TNCs that provide **tertiary industry** products (services) will often **outsource** tasks to other companies in order to save money and time. TNCs like Apple outsource their manufacturing process so that profits can be maximised.
- **Offshoring:** Companies that make **manufactured products** will often have their factories in LICs due to lower labour costs, better taxes, weaker regulations for workers and weaker environmental regulations. This leads to much dispute about the **ethical issues** with TNCs exploiting poorer citizens in order to maximise their products.

Linkages

TNCs create **links** between countries and with other companies. Linkages are created in order to **benefit the TNC**, and often includes **expanding** the company.

- **Links through FDI:** TNCs create links with other countries by **investing in them**, which benefits the country as this creates jobs and contributes to the economy. TNCs can be investments into a factory, for example, but they may also take the form of:
 - **Mergers:** TNCs **join to form one larger company**, helping to form foreign links if the TNC is from a foreign country.
 - **Acquisitions:** A TNC **buys another company** in order to expand (usually a smaller company). Acquisitions are frequently associated with local job loss as a large TNC will take **full control**.
- **Links through integration:** TNCs often **expand** their company by creating linkages between other companies. There are two types of integration:

- **Horizontal integration:** taking ownership of part of the **supply chain**, e.g. buying a plantation
- **Vertical integration:** **taking ownership of another company**, often one that is in a similar industry. The food industry is a prime example of vertical integration. A lot of large companies control the majority of smaller companies.



Trading and Marketing Patterns

The majority of TNCs trade with **HICs**, as the market for **consumer goods** is concentrated within richer countries. However, there is now a **rapid increase in demand for popular brands in emerging economies** such as Latin America, East Asia and the Pacific. This means TNC trading has increasingly expanded to countries. The lowest income countries, though, still see a lack of TNC-made consumer products, as few people have a disposable income to buy these products.

As TNCs are usually large companies with a **lot of revenue**, they can afford to **take advantage of global marketing**. Many TNCs use the same marketing strategy as it creates a **trademark**, but they also have the money to **adjust their marketing strategy to different countries to maximise profits**.

Global Governance

Global governance is the process of **multiple nations** acting together in matters that affect **the entire world**. In our globalised world, issues can be **international**, such as climate change, famine, epidemics, war etc. This has caused the **need** for global governance, as a single nation cannot tackle **worldwide** issues. Countries are not only governed by their governments, but are now also under a sort of **global management**.

Global governance works on a **variety of scales**, from local to global. In short, decisions made by **global institutions affect all scales, including local**. This can be seen in many scenarios.

Trade agreements set by the WTO (a **global** institution) affects how trading happens internationally, for example in the EU (an international institution).

In turn, the Department for International Trade (a **national** institution) decides what products the UK imports from where.

A **regional** institution, such as a warehouse, receives the international products and distributes them.

A **local** shop buys the international products from the warehouse.

The effects of global governance **on a variety of scales** occurs in different respects, such as the environment. Nations sign global agreements, which affects, for example, how much CO2 localities can emit.

Global governance **maintains global systems** (e.g. the environment, politics, economics etc.) through **global societal norms**, global **laws** and global **institutions**.

Norms in Global Governance

A **norm** generally refers to a **social norm**. This is normal and therefore **accepted** behaviour. Although norms differ between countries, global governance has worked to develop **global norms**, mainly concerning the unfair treatment of people.

An example of a global norm is gender equality. It is generally a norm for women to be equal to men, however in other countries, such as Saudi Arabia (who only lifted a ban that **prohibited women from driving** in 2018), equality is not a social norm. Although countries may **disagree** with **societal norms** in other countries, there is little that can be done to **globally govern** a country's norms and ideologies, which is where **international laws** are helpful.

Laws in Global Governance

International laws are an aspect of global governance, as this is an example of how **multiple nations** act together to maintain global systems. A **law** is legally binding, unlike a norm, meaning **failure to comply with this law** can result in **prosecution**. Anything from trading sanctions to attacks can result from countries not respecting international laws.

For example, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is a **legally binding document** that protects the social rights of citizens. If a member has **agreed** with the declaration but does not **abide by it**, there may be consequences and prosecutions.

As laws are legally binding, countries may be **deterred** from global governance if they do not agree with the laws but must follow them. As an example, one of the reasons UK citizens wished to leave the EU was so the country did not have to comply with their rules and regulations.

Global Institutions

In order for countries and people to be **governed globally**, there are certain **international institutions** that have been developed to **oversee** the maintenance of global systems. These institutions aim to **represent all nations**, as well as **protect these nations**. This can include the development and enforcement of laws, dealing with law breaks, keeping international peace, and promoting equality. The majority of global institutions are Intergovernmental Organisations (IGOs), as global governance should obviously include members from **around the globe** so that all opinions are fairly expressed.

Global institutions have **positive** and **negative effects**. This is especially true of the United Nations, which will be discussed in more detail in a separate case study.

| Promoting Growth and Stability | Exacerbating Inequalities and Injustices |
|--|---|
| <p>Institutions aim for global economic equality, allowing less developed countries to grow economically. Economic growth is mainly promoted through trade laws and regulations set by the WTO. Special and Differential Treatments and other agreements are put in place by these global institutions so that struggling economies can grow.</p> | <p>Some institutions have been accused of creating more inequalities as they are not representative of every country, putting underrepresented countries at a disadvantage. Institutions like G7 represent only the richest countries. Although these institutions work to help LICs and their debts, there are arguments that these countries should still be involved.</p> |
| <p>Global institutions stabilise economies. The World Bank provides development loans and aid, and the IMF provides stabilising loans. These allow economies to stable during times of instability, hopefully avoiding economic crashes which can have global consequences.</p> | <p>As discussed previously, the World Bank and the IMF only give loans conditionally, which can lead countries exposed to exploitation. It is perhaps unjust to force countries to open their markets up to receive help.</p> |
| <p>Societal growth is promoted by global institutions maintaining social equality. The International Criminal Court, as an example, can prosecute those who have committed</p> | <p>international laws and treaties are voluntary meaning many institutions do not hold full power on global systems. For example, members of the UN security council can veto</p> |

| | |
|--|--|
| <p>genocide, war crimes, or crimes against humanity.</p> | <p>propositions. Not every country in the world is part of the security council, meaning their laws do not apply to these countries.</p> |
| <p>Social stability is maintained by global institutions, including the prevention of conflicts and promoting global health. The World Health Organisation (WHO) combats global epidemics such as malaria, obesity, and ebola.</p> | <p>Despite global institutions' best efforts, some countries and companies may still act against the policies, which can create inequalities. For example, there is much conspiracy that Japan are acting against the International Whaling Committee by illegally whaling for profits.</p> |
| <p>Environmental stability is maintained by IGOs and other global institutions, such as non-government organisations (NGOs). The World Wildlife Fund (WWF) and the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) are some of the institutions that work for environmental conservation.</p> | <p>Companies may also manipulate the rules of global institutions in order to enhance their profits, which creates injustices. For example, in the 'Banana Wars', American TNCs like Dole argued against the EU's special treatment of Caribbean plantations, despite Latin American bananas supplying 75% of the entire market.</p> |

The Global Commons

'The Global Commons' is the concept of **an area that does not belong to a single country.** Rather than belonging to **nobody**, the commons are supposed to belong to **everybody**, meaning every country has a right to **benefit** from the Global Commons.

The four global commons are:

International Waters-areas of the sea that do not belong to a country.

The Atmosphere -the gases that surround the Earth, making life possible.

Outer Space - The area after our atmosphere.

Antarctica - The only continent without citizens; only scientists live there. The global commons are **very beneficial to humanity** as they provide **untouched environments** for **research** and **wildlife growth.** Animals can **thrive** in these environments where humans cannot **interact**, such as deep sea creatures. **Scientific research** is also enhanced by these environments, as scientists can gather information about the world without interactions by humans, as well as beyond our world.

The Tragedy of the Commons

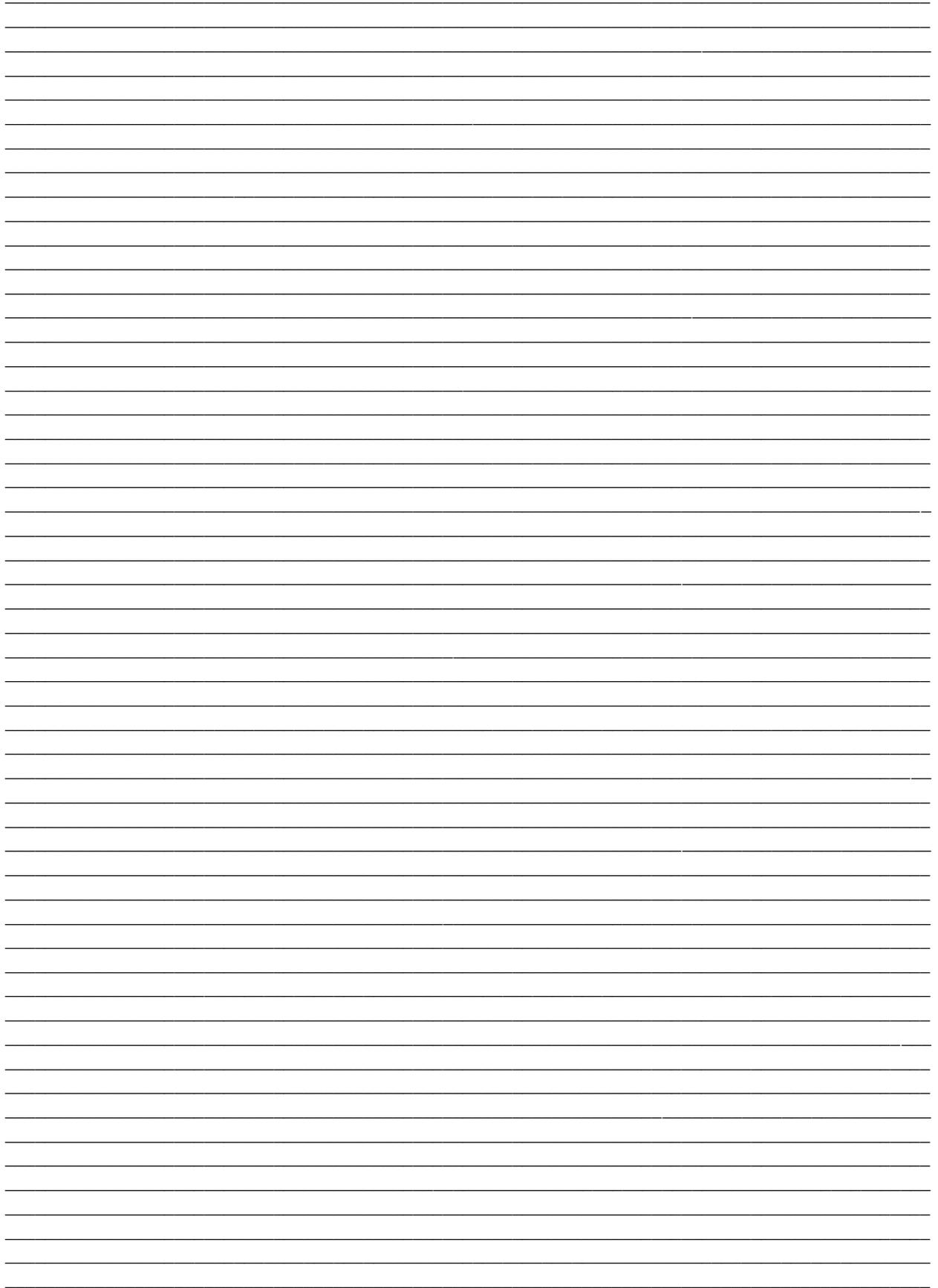
Unfortunately, as the commons do not belong to one country, this can leave the commons **vulnerable to exploitation**, especially considering these environments are **rich in resources** (such as oil, wildlife, minerals etc.). Countries and companies that exploit the global commons may face **fewer consequences**, due the fact that they are 'owned' by every country. Therefore, unless an international law is created there are no rules. The 'shared' nature of the commons has unfortunately left it vulnerable to issues such as mineral exploitation, fossil fuel extraction, overfishing etc. Furthermore, the often **pristine and untouched nature of the commons** is also under threat from **human advancements**. CO2 levels are causing climate change, which affects the **atmosphere, the oceans, and Antarctica**. Furthermore, technology is, in some cases, threatening these commons as they are becoming more and more explorable every day. Therefore, these environments need the **proper protection** in order to stay a beneficial asset to mankind.

Protection

Although every country has a right to use the commons to **develop**, it is now recognised that this development must be **sustainable**. In order for the use of the commons to be sustainable, there are measures in place to ensure it is protected.

- **Global Institutions** have been created to directly manage issues associated with the global commons so that these issues can be solved in a fair and sustainable way. For example, between 1973 to 1982 the **United Nations** developed The United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS), a **treaty** designed to tackle marine pollution, overfishing and competing territorial claims between states.
- **International laws** are now effective within the global commons, although these laws are usually set by institutions like the UN. This means any non-member countries will not be prosecuted under these laws. There are several treaties in action to protect **outer space**, including the Convention on Registration of Objects Launched into Outer Space (Registration Convention), which ensures countries protect outer space by documenting their launchings etc.
- **NGOs** campaign to protect the commons, by spreading awareness as well as raising money for their protection.

Although there are protection efforts for the commons, these are hard to police and regulate due to their **size** and **isolated, hard to reach nature**. It is impossible to monitor the **entirety** of the commons, meaning they are still left vulnerable to exploitation. In oceans, for example, illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing still takes place frequently. Monitoring boats cannot patrol the whole of international waters or protected areas constantly, so many illegal practices take place. For example, there are numerous reports of **ships displaying false flags** as an attempt to pose as another country to avoid laws and commit crimes.



Mark scheme

1. Explain how one transnational corporation (TNC) has contributed to the globalisation of the world's economy. (4 marks)

Notes for answers

Allow credit for specific knowledge of how the chosen TNC has contributed to increased flows of goods, capital, labour and /or technology and ideas

- Nike has become one of the world's largest suppliers of sports equipment (1), employing over 44 000 workers in over 50 countries (1) (d).
- Manufacturing helps the social and economic development of these countries through the transfer of skills, technology and the rise in wages (1).
- The company's headquarters and much research takes place in Oregon in the USA (1) but its products are manufactured in poorer countries like Indonesia and Vietnam, where labour costs are cheaper (1) (d).
- Components for sports goods are sourced from various different countries around the world (1), including rubber for its trainers from Malaysia and Indonesia and cotton from Turkey and India(1) (d).
- From its global operations Nike's annual turnover continues to rise, with profits reaching \$14 billion in 2015 (1).
- The company has increased its global market and reputation by sponsoring and promoting international sports events and sports stars (1).

2. Assess the vulnerability of the oceans to economic pressures such as fishing. (6 marks)

Notes for answers:

- Fishing pressures boost the economy of many nations, not just LICs.
- Other fishing techniques are more targeted and less of an issue.
- Fishing can be sustainable.
- Other pressures on the ocean's environment including cruises, tankers etc.
- Management of fishing on the oceans.

3. Evaluate the view that trading relationships between highly developed economies such as the United States, and emerging economies such as India, is beneficial to both types of country involved (9marks)

AO1 – Knowledge and understanding of the series of trading relationships and interactions between HICs and emerging economies. Knowledge and understanding of the pros and cons of these relationships to both types of country.

AO2 – Application of knowledge and understanding to evaluate whether both types of country (HICs and emerging economies) equally benefit from trading relationships. There should be an application of this knowledge and understanding to analyse the way that these relationships impact on the countries involved in trading.

AO1

- Social and economic groupings.
- Globalisation.
- Uneven flows of capital, labour and people
- New international division of labour.
- Multinational corporations and their relationships.
- HICs and their economy.
- Emerging economies and their economy.
- The role of emerging economies in trade, services and manufacturing.

AO2

- Linking the causes of NIDL to the effects on emerging economies and the HICs who benefit from the agreements.
- Issues that might have arisen from MNCs working in and with emerging economies.
- Analysis of the benefits and worth of international trade agreements and groups to both parties involved.

- Social, economic and environmental sustainability issues with trade and the impacts of the trade on these elements of sustainability.
- An evaluation of whether trading relationships are equal in terms of the benefits they bring and the problems that might occur as a result of the trading relationships.

SAMPLE ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Human Geography Topics

1. Define global shift (1)
2. Define the term TNC (1)
3. Suggest one reason why labour costs are significantly cheaper in Bangladesh (3)
4. Explain two ways change in transport have accelerated globalization (4)
5. Explain how globalization may result in exploitation of the environment in developing countries. (6)
6. Assess the extent to which cultural diffusion caused by globalization inevitably leads to social and political tension. (12)
7. Explain two ways that national government have contributed to globalization (4)
8. Explain why some locations remain 'switched off' from globalization (6)
9. Assess the extent to which ethical consumption trends may have reduced the negative consequences of globalization. (9)
10. State an example of a composite index using development (1)
11. Explain why one political factor and one social factor might cause some countries to be 'switched off' from globalization' (4)
12. Explain how levels of globalization can be measured using different indicators and indices (6)
13. Assess the role of trade blocs in contributing to the growth of both the global economy and national economies. (9)
14. Define shrinking world. (1)
15. Explain two reasons in which individual states can benefit from trade bloc membership. (4)
16. Explain how the growth of a global culture may help improve opportunities for disadvantaged people in developing countries. (6)
17. Assess the extent to which globalization is responsible for environmental degradation in developing and developed countries. (20)
18. Explain how changes in technology have speeded up the process of globalization (6)
19. Explain how technology has contributed to the process of globalization (6)
20. Explain the term 'liberalisation' of trade. (4)
21. Assess the extent to which the globalization of trade can bring problems as well as benefits. (9)
22. Explain two ways in which TNCs promote globalization. (4)
23. Assess the role players by TNCs in the globalization process. (12)
24. Explain why internet usage in sub-Saharan Africa is low compared to the rest of the world. (4)
25. Using examples, explain why some countries are more globalized than others (6)
26. Explain the impacts of the global shift on one country that you have studied. (6)
27. Assess the impacts of the global shift on one named country. (9)
28. Using examples, explain the impacts of international migration on host locations. (9)
29. Assess the role of international migration in the globalized economy. (9)
30. Explain the process of cultural diffusion. (4)
31. Assess the contribution of globalization to cultural diffusion. (9)
32. Explain why economic and human indicators of development can sometimes give different impression of a country's level of development. (6)
33. Assess the statement, 'globalization produces as many losers as it does winners'. (20)
34. Explain two attempts that have been made to control the spread of globalization. (4)
35. Assess the nature of social, political and environmental tensions that have resulted from change caused by globalization. (20)
36. Explain how local groups and NGOs can promote local sourcing of food and other goods. (6)
37. Assess the actions taken by NGOs and local governments in promoting ethical and environmental concerns about unsustainability. (9)
38. Explain how changes in communication and ICT has accelerated globalization (6)
39. Explain how national government encourage FDI in their economies. (4)

40. Explain why some emerging economies have experienced major environmental problems as a result of the global shift. (6)
41. Explain why it might be considered unethical to buy consumer products made in developing countries (6)
42. Explain how globalization may change cultural identity (4)
43. Assess the role of technology and trade blocs in accelerating globalization. (12)
44. Explain two reasons why regeneration plans can sometimes lead to conflict between different interest groups. (4)
45. Explain two reasons why different urban community groups may have contrasting views about regeneration (4)
46. For a local place that you have studied, explain why people's sense of identity has been influenced by the economic and social change it has experienced. (6)
47. In which employment sector is tourism (1)
48. Suggest one reason for the growth of employment in tourism in some regions. (3)
49. Explain two reasons why there are variations in people's attachment to rural places. (4)
50. Explain the consequences of a decline in rural services (6)
51. Explain why globalization has caused change to built environments in economically emerging countries (4)
52. Assess the social and economic problems caused by the rapid growth of megacities (9)
53. Explain how different strategies have been used to rebrand the post-production countryside. (6)
54. Assess the role of different stakeholders in managing change in areas undergoing regeneration. (9)
55. Define the term deindustrialized region (1)
56. Assess the extent to which economic regeneration brings benefits to urban areas (9)
57. Suggest two methods for assessing whether a place can be classed as 'successful'. (4)
58. Explain two reasons why there are variations in people's perceptions of their local place, based on reality or imagination. (4)
59. Explain the consequences of a loss of manufacturing in urban areas. (6)
60. Explain how employment changes have affected your local place. (6)
61. Assess the extent to which economic activity, social factors and quality of life have affected your local place. (9)
62. Explain how increasing connectedness has shaped the economic and social characteristics of a place you have studied (9)
63. Assess how far past and present connections have shaped the economic and social characteristics of a place you have studied. (9)
64. Explain how the identity of one place you have studied has been affected by change. (6)
65. Explain the reason for the economic success of one place you have studied. (9)
66. Evaluate the reasons why some places are 'economically successful' while others are not. (9)
67. Using examples, assess the reasons why the degree to which people engage with place varies. (20)
68. Evaluate the reasons why people's lived experience of places and engagement with them varies. (20)
69. Explain two ways in which the need for regeneration can be identified. (6)
70. Using examples, evaluate the need for regeneration in different places. (9)
71. Using examples, assess the role of central government in regeneration. (9)
72. Evaluate the role of central government in regenerating places. (9)
73. Assess the attempts by governments to regenerate urban areas. (9)
74. Evaluate the success of local government policies which aim to attract inward investment to urban areas. (9)
75. Explain the role of local councils in urban regenerations. (6)
76. Evaluate the success of a named urban regeneration process. (9)
77. Assess the success of regeneration in one area that you have studied. (9)
78. Using examples, assess the roles of different players in the urban regeneration process. (9)
79. Assess the reasons why different players have different criteria for judging the success of urban regeneration. (20)
80. Using examples, assess the success of one or more urban regeneration projects. (9)
81. Evaluate the role of different players in the success of urban regeneration projects. (9)

82. Explain two reasons why the function of a place might change over time. (4)
83. Explain why employment factors may create variations in quality of life between places (6)
84. Explain two reasons why levels of engagement in local communities vary (4)
85. Using a named place, explain why some regions are regarded as 'successful'. (6)
86. Explain two ways in which local national government can affect decision-making about regeneration (4)
87. Explain how the deregulation of capital markets affects growth and investment. (6)
88. Explain two ways in which social measures can be used to assess the success of regeneration schemes. (4)
89. Explain why different stakeholders assess the success of regeneration using contrasting criteria. (6)