

GCSE Geography AQA

Key Vocabulary

	Paper 1	Paper 2
Section A	The challenge of Natural Hazards	Urban Issues and Challenges
Section B	The Living World	The changing economic World
Section C	Physical Landscapes in the UK	The Challenge of Resource Management.



Name



Key vocabulary you will need to know to succeed in Geography.

Key words running throughout GCSE Geography

LIC	A low income country. This is a country which is classified as poor. E.g. Lagos, Haiti or the Philippines.
HIC	A high income country. This is a country which is categorised as wealthy. E.g. The UK, New Zealand.
NEE	A newly emerging economy. Countries that have begun to experience higher rates of economic development, usually with higher levels of industrialisation. They differ from LICs in that they no longer rely primarily on agriculture, have made gains in infrastructure and industrial growth, and are experiencing increasing incomes and high levels of investment, eg. Brazil, Russia, China and South Africa (the so-called BRICS countries).

Phrases you need to understand to answer questions well

Social	This is something connected to people. E.g. a social effect would be something effecting people. Therefore a social effect of a large earthquake would be people would die.
Economic	This is something connected to money or the economy (finances) of the country. E.g. an economic effect of a Typhoon would be that there would be large insurance costs or rebuild expenditure.
Environmental	This is something connected to the environment. This includes wildlife, habitats and the surroundings. E.g. an environmental impact of deforestation would be the amount of CO2 absorbed would be reduced which increases global warming.
Opportunities	This means potential benefits. E.g. wind power has environmental opportunities as it will reduce the rate of global warming. Also, mineral extraction in the Western desert has economic opportunities as it will provide large sums of money.
Challenges	This is something which makes something particularly tricky or negative. E.g. drilling for oil in the ocean has environmental challenges as oil spills can kill wildlife. Also, living in squatter settlements can provide social challenges as there is little access to sanitation.
Costs and benefits	Costs are negatives (they don't need to be connected to money) and benefits are positives. E.g. A cost of deforestation is habitat loss and a benefit of deforestation is the country makes money and improves its economy.

Section A: The challenge of natural hazards

Natural Hazards	
Hazard Risk	The probability or chance that a natural hazard may take place
Natural Hazard	A natural event (for example an earthquake, volcanic eruption, tropical storm, flood) that threatens people or has the potential to cause damage, destruction and death.
Tectonic hazards	
Conservative plate margin	Tectonic plate margin where two tectonic plates slide past each other
Constructive plate margin	Tectonic plate margin where rising magma adds new material to plates that are diverging or moving apart.
Destructive plate margin	Tectonic plate margin where two plates are converging or coming together and oceanic plate is subducted. It can be associated with violent earthquakes and explosive volcanoes.
Earthquake	A sudden or violent movement within the Earth's crust followed by a series of Shocks.
Immediate response	The reaction of people as the disaster happens and in the immediate aftermath
Long-term response	Later reactions that occur in the weeks, months and years after the event.
Monitoring	Recording physical changes, such as earthquake tremors around a volcano, to help forecast when and where a natural hazard might strike.
Plate Margin	The margin or boundary between two tectonic plates
Planning	Actions taken to enable communities to respond to, and recover from, natural disasters, through measures such as emergency evacuation plans, information management, communications and warning systems.
Prediction	Attempts to forecast when and where a natural hazard will strike, based on current knowledge. This can be done to some extent for volcanic eruptions (and tropical storms), but less reliably for earthquakes.
Primary effects	The initial impact of a natural event on people and property, caused directly by it, for instance the ground buildings collapsing following an earthquake.
Protection	Actions taken before a hazard strikes to reduce its impact, such as educating people or improving building design.
Secondary effects	The after-effects that occur as indirect impacts of a natural event, sometimes on a longer timescale, for instance fires due to ruptured gas mains resulting from the ground shaking.
Tectonic Hazard	A natural hazard caused by movement of tectonic plates (including volcanoes and earthquakes).
Tectonic plate	A rigid segment of the Earth's crust which can 'float' across the heavier, semi - Molten rock below. Continental plates are less dense, but thicker than oceanic plates.
Volcano	An opening in the Earth's crust from which lava, ash and gases erupt.
Weather Hazards	
Economic impact	The effect of an event on the wealth of an area or community.
Environmental	The effect of an event on the landscape and ecology of the surrounding area.

impact	
Extreme weather	This is when a weather event is significantly different from the average or usual weather pattern, and is especially severe or unseasonal. This may take place over one day or a period of time. A severe snow blizzard or heat wave are two examples of extreme weather in the UK.
Global atmospheric circulation	The worldwide system of winds, which transports heat from tropical to polar latitudes. In each hemisphere, air also circulates through the entire depth of the troposphere which extends up to 15 km.
Immediate responses	The reaction of people as the disaster happens and in the immediate aftermath
Long term responses	Later reactions that occur in the weeks, months and years after the event.
Management strategies	Techniques of controlling, responding to, or dealing with an event.
Monitoring	Recording physical changes, such as tracking a tropical storm by satellite, to help forecast when and where a natural hazard might strike.
Planning	Actions taken to enable communities to respond to, and recover from, natural disasters, through measures such as emergency evacuation plans, information management, communications and warning systems.
Predication	Attempts to forecast when and where a natural hazard will strike, based on current knowledge. This can be done to some extent for tropical storms (and volcanic eruptions, but less reliably for earthquakes).
Primary effects	The initial impact of a natural event on people and property, caused directly by it, for instance buildings being partially or wholly destroyed by a tropical storm.
Protection	Actions taken before a hazard strikes to reduce its impact, such as educating people or improving building design.
Secondary effects	The after-effects that occur as indirect impacts of a natural event, sometimes on a longer timescale, for instance impact on access to potable water can lead to spread of disease.
Social impact	The effect of an event on the lives of people or community.
Tropical storm (hurricane, cyclone, typhoon)	An area of low pressure with winds moving in a spiral around the calm central point called the eye of the storm. Winds are powerful and rainfall is heavy.
Climate Change	
Adaptation	Actions taken to adjust to natural events such as climate change, to reduce potential damage, limit the impacts, take advantage of opportunities, or cope with the consequences.
Climate change	A long-term change in the earth's climate, especially a change due to an increase in the average atmospheric temperature.
Mitigation	Action taken to reduce or eliminate the long-term risk to human life and property from natural hazards, such as building earthquake-proof buildings or making international agreements about carbon reduction targets.
Orbital changes	Changes in the pathway of the Earth around the Sun.
Quaternary period	The period of geological time from about 2.6 million years ago to the present. It is characterized by the appearance and development of humans and includes the Pleistocene and Holocene Epochs.

Section B: The Living world

Ecosystems	
Abiotic	Relating to non-living things.
Biotic	Relating to living things.
Consumer	Creature that eats animals and/or plant matter.
Decomposer	An organism such as a bacterium or fungus, that breaks down dead tissue, which is then recycled to the environment.
Ecosystem	A community of plants and animals that interact with each other and their physical environment.
Food Chain	The connections between different organisms (plants and animals) that rely on one another as their source of food.
Food web	A complex hierarchy of plants and animals relying on each other for food.
Nutrient cycling	A set of processes whereby organisms extract minerals necessary for growth from soil or water, before passing them on through the food chain -and ultimately back to the soil and water.
Global ecosystems	Very large ecological areas on the earth's surface (or biomes), with fauna and flora (animals and plants) adapting to their environment. Examples include tropical rainforest and hot desert.
Producer	An organism or plant that is able to absorb energy from the sun through photosynthesis.
Tropical Rainforests	
Biodiversity	The variety of life in the world or a particular habitat
Commercial farming	Farming to sell produce for a profit to retailers or food processing companies.
Debt reduction	Countries are relieved of some of their debt in return for protecting their rainforests.
Deforestation	The chopping down and removal of trees to clear an area of forest.
Ecotourism	Responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the wellbeing of the local people, and may involve education. It is usually carried out in small groups and has minimal impact on the local ecosystem.
Logging	The business of cutting down trees and transporting the logs to sawmills.
Mineral extraction	The removal of solid mineral resources from the earth. These resources include ores, which contain commercially valuable amounts of metals, such as iron and aluminium; precious stones, such as diamonds; building stones, such as granite; and solid fuels, such as coal and oil shale.
Selective logging	The cutting out of trees which are mature or inferior, to encourage the growth of the remaining trees in a forest or wood.
Soil erosion	Removal of topsoil faster than it can be replaced, due to natural (water and wind action), animal, and human activity. Topsoil is the top layer of soil and is the most fertile because it contains the most organic, nutrient-rich materials.
Subsistence farming	A type of agriculture producing food and materials for the benefit only of the farmer and his family.
Sustainability	Actions and forms of progress that meet the needs of the present without reducing the ability of future generations to meet their needs.

Hot Deserts	
Appropriate technology	(Also called Intermediate technology) Technology that is suited to the needs, skills, knowledge and wealth of local people in the environment in which they live. It usually combines simple ideas with cheap and readily available materials, especially for use in poorer countries, and is environmentally friendly.
Biodiversity	The variety of life in the world or a particular habitat.
Desertification	The process by which land becomes drier and degraded, as a result of climate change or human activities, or both.
Hot Desert	Parts of the world that have high average temperatures and very low precipitation.
Mineral Extraction	The removal of solid mineral resources from the earth. These resources include ores, which contain commercially valuable amounts of metals, such as iron and aluminium; precious stones, such as diamonds; building stones, such as granite; and solid fuels, such as coal and oil shale.
Over-cultivation	Exhausting the soil by over-cropping the land.
Over grazing	Grazing too many livestock for too long on the land, so it is unable to recover its vegetation.

Section C: Physical Landscapes in the UK

UK Physical Landscapes	
Landscape	An extensive area of land regarded as being visually and physically distinct
Coastal Landscapes in the UK	
Abrasion (or corrasion)	The wearing away of cliffs by sediment flung by breaking waves.
Arch	A wave-eroded passage through a small headland. This begins as a cave formed in the headland, which is gradually widened and deepened until it cuts through.
Attrition	Erosion caused when rocks and boulders transported by waves bump into each other and break up into smaller pieces
Bar	Where a spit grows across a bay, a bay bar can eventually enclose the bay to create a lagoon. Bars can also form offshore due to the action of breaking waves.
Beach	The zone of deposited material that extends from the low water line to the limit of storm waves. The beach or shore can be divided in the foreshore and the backshore.
Beach nourishment	The addition of new material to a beach artificially, through the dumping of large amounts of sand or shingle.
Beach re profiling	Changing the profile or shape of the beach. It usually refers to the direct transfer of material from the lower to the upper beach or, occasionally, the transfer of sand down the dune face from crest to toe
Cave	A large hole in the cliff caused by waves forcing their way into cracks in the cliff face.
Chemical weathering	The decomposition (or rotting) of rock caused by a chemical change within that rock; sea water can cause chemical weathering of cliffs.
Cliff	A steep high rock face formed by weathering and erosion along the coastline.
Deposition	Occurs when material being transported by the sea is dropped due to the sea losing energy.
Dune regeneration	Action taken to build up dunes and increase vegetation to strengthen the dunes and prevent excessive coastal retreat. This includes the re-planting of marram grass to

	stabilise the dunes, as well as planting trees and providing boardwalks.
Erosion	The wearing away and removal of material by a moving force, such as a breaking wave.
Gabion	Steel wire mesh filled with boulders used in coastal defences.
Groyne	A wooden barrier built out into the sea to stop the longshore drift of sand and shingle, and so cause the beach to grow. It is used to build beaches to protect against cliff erosion and provide an important tourist amenity. However, by trapping sediment it deprives another area, down-drift, of new beach material.
Hard engineering	The use of concrete and large artificial structures by civil engineers to defend land against natural erosion processes.
Headlands and bays	A rocky coastal promontory made of rock that is resistant to erosion; headlands lie between bays of less resistant rock where the land has been eroded back by the sea.
Hydraulic power	The process by which breaking waves compress pockets of air in cracks in a cliff. The pressure may cause the crack to widen, breaking off rock.
Longshore drift	The zigzag movement of sediment along a shore caused by waves going up the beach at an oblique angle(wash) and returning at right angles(backwash). This results in the gradual movement of beach materials along the coast.
Managed retreat	Allowing cliff erosion to occur as nature taking its course: erosion in some areas, deposition in others. Benefits include less money spent and the creation of natural environments. It may involve setting back or realigning the shoreline and allowing the sea to flood areas that were previously protected by embankments and seawalls.
Mass movement	The downhill movement of weathered material under the force of gravity. The speed can vary considerably.
Mechanical weathering	Weathering processes that cause physical disintegration or break up of exposed rock without any change in the chemical composition of the rock, for instance freeze thaw.
Rock armour	Large boulders dumped on the beach as part of the coastal defences.
Sand dune	Coastal sand hill above the high tide mark, shaped by wind action, covered with grasses and shrubs.
Sea wall	A concrete wall which aims to prevent erosion of the coast by providing a barrier which reflects wave energy.
Sliding	Occurs after periods of heavy rain when loose surface material becomes saturated and the extra weight causes the material to become unstable and move rapidly downhill, sometimes in an almost fluid state.
Slumping	Rapid mass movement which involves a whole segment of the cliff moving down-slope along a saturated shear-plane or line of weakness.
Soft engineering	Managing erosion by working with natural processes to help restore beaches and coastal ecosystems.
Spit	A depositional landform formed when a finger of sediment extends from the shore out to sea, often at a river mouth. It usually has a curved end because of opposing winds and currents.
Stack	An isolated pillar of rock left when the top of an arch has collapsed. Over time further erosion reduces the stack to a smaller, lower stump
Transportation	The movement of eroded material.
Wave cut platform	A rocky, level shelf at or around sea level representing the base of old, retreated cliffs.
Waves	Ripples in the sea caused by the transfer of energy from the wind blowing over the surface of the sea. The largest waves are formed when winds are very strong, blow for

	lengthy periods and cross large expanses of water.
River Landscapes in the UK	
Abrasion	Rocks carried along by the river wear down the river bed and banks.
Attrition	Rocks being carried by the river smash together and break into smaller, smoother and rounder particles.
Cross profile	The side to side cross-section of a river channel and/or valley.
Dam and reservoir	A barrier (made on earth, concrete or stone) built across a valley to interrupt river flow and create a man-made lake (reservoir) which stores water and controls the discharge of the river.
Discharge	The quantity of water that passes a given point on a stream or river-bank within a given period of time.
Embankments	Raised banks constructed along the river; they effectively make the river deeper so it can hold more water. They are expensive and do not look natural but they do protect the land around them.
Estuary	The tidal mouth of a river where it meets the sea; wide banks of deposited mud are exposed at low tide.
Flood	Occurs when river discharge exceeds river channel capacity and water spills out of the channel onto the floodplain and other areas
Flood plain	The relatively flat area forming the valley floor on either side of a river channel, which is sometimes flooded.
Flood plain zoning	This attempts to organise the flood defences in such a way that land that is near the river and often floods is not built on. This could be used for pastoral farming, playing fields etc. The areas that rarely get flooded would therefore be used for houses, transport and industry.
Flood relief channels	Building new artificial channels which are used when a river is close to maximum discharge. They take the pressure off the main channels when floods are likely, therefore reducing flood risk.
Flood risk	The predicted frequency of floods in an area.
Flood warning	Providing reliable advance information about possible flooding. Flood warning systems give people time to remove possessions and evacuate areas.
Fluvial processes	Processes relating to erosion, transport and deposition by a river.
Gorge	A narrow, steep sided valley, often formed as a waterfall retreats upstream
Hard engineering	Involves the building of entirely artificial structures using various materials such as rock, concrete and steel to reduce, disrupt or stop the impact of river processes.
Hydraulic action	The force of the river against the banks can cause air to be trapped in cracks and crevices. The pressure weakens the banks and gradually wears it away.
Hydrograph	A graph which shows the discharge of a river, related to rainfall, over a period of time.
Interlocking spurs	A series of ridges projecting out on alternate sides of a valley and around which a river winds its course.
Lateral erosion	Sideways erosion by a river on the outside of a meander channel. It eventually leads to the widening of the valley and contributes to the formation of the flood plain.
Levees	Embankment of sediment along the bank of a river. It may be formed naturally by regular flooding or be built up by people to protect the area against flooding
Long profile	The gradient of a river, from its source to its mouth
Meander	A pronounced bend in a river.
Ox-bow lake	An arc-shaped lake which has been cut off from a meandering river

Precipitation	Moisture falling from the atmosphere -as rain, hail, sleet or snow.
Saltation	Particles bouncing down the river bed.
Soft engineering	Involves the use of the natural environment surrounding a river, using schemes that work with the river's natural processes. Soft engineering is usually much cheaper and offers a more sustainable option as it does not interfere directly with the river's flow.
Solution	Soluble particles are dissolved into the river
Channel straightening	Removing meanders from a river to make the river straighter. Straightening the river (also called channelising) allows it to carry more water quickly downstream, so it doesn't build up and is less likely to flood.
Suspension	Fine solid material held in the water while the water is moving.
Traction	The rolling of boulders and pebbles along the river bed.
Vertical erosion	Downward erosion of a river bed.
Waterfall	Sudden descent of a river or stream over a vertical or very steep slope in its bed. It often forms where the river meets a band of softer rock after flowing over an area of more resistant material.

Section A: Urban Issues and Challenges

Brownfield site	Land that has been used, abandoned and now awaits some new use. Commonly found across urban areas, particularly in the inner city.
Dereliction	Abandoned buildings and wasteland.
Economic opportunities	Chances for people to improve their standard of living through employment
Greenfield sites	A plot of land, often in a rural or on the edge of an urban area that has not yet been subject to any building development
Inequalities	Differences between poverty and wealth, as well as in peoples' wellbeing and access to things like jobs, housing and education. Inequalities may occur in housing provision, access to services, access to open land, safety and security.
Integrated transport systems	When different transport methods connect together, making journeys smoother and therefore public transport more appealing. Better integration should result in more demand for public transport and should see people switching from private car use to public modes of transport, which should be more sustainable. It may also lead to a fall in congestion due to less road users.
Mega cities	An urban area with a total population in excess of ten million people
Migration	When people move from one area to another. In many LICs people move from rural to urban areas (rural-urban migration).
Natural increase	The birth rate minus the death rate of a population.
Pollution	The presence of chemicals, noise, dirt or other substances which have harmful or poisonous effects on an environment.
Rural-urban fringe	A zone of transition between the built-up area and the countryside, where there is often competition for land use. It is a zone of mixed land uses, from out of town shopping centres and golf courses to farmland and motorways.
Sanitation	Measures designed to protect public health, including the provision of clean water and the disposal of sewage and waste.
Social deprivation	The degree to which an individual or an area is deprived of services, decent housing, adequate income and local employment.

Social opportunities	Chances for people to improve their quality of life, for instance access to education and health care.
Squatter settlements	An area of poor-quality housing, lacking in amenities such as water supply, sewerage and electricity, which often develops spontaneously and illegally in a city in an LIC.
Sustainable urban living	A sustainable city is one in which there is minimal damage to the environment, the economic base is sound with resources allocated fairly and jobs secure, and there is a strong sense of community, with local people involved in decisions made. Sustainable urban living includes several aims including the use of renewable resources, energy efficiency, use of public transport, accessible resources and services.
Traffic congestion	Occurs when there is too great a volume of traffic for roads to cope with, so traffic jams form and traffic slows to a crawl.
Urban greening	The process of increasing and preserving open space such as public parks and gardens in urban areas.
Urbanisation	The process by which an increasing percentage of a country's population comes to live in towns and cities. Rapid urbanisation is a feature of many LICs and NEEs.
Urban regeneration	The revival of old parts of the built-up area by either installing modern facilities in old buildings (known as renewal) or opting for redevelopment (ie demolishing existing buildings and starting afresh).
Urban sprawl	The unplanned growth of urban areas into the surrounding countryside
Waste recycling	The process of extracting and reusing useful substances found in waste.

Section B: The Changing Economic World

Birth rate	The number of births in a year per 1000 of the total population.
Commonwealth	The Commonwealth is a voluntary association of 53 independent and equal sovereign states, which were mostly territories of the former British Empire. It is home to 2.2 billion citizens. Member states have no legal obligation to one another. Instead, they are united by language, history, culture, and their shared values of democracy, human rights, and the rule of law.
Death rate	The number of deaths in a year per 1000 of the total population.
De-industrialisation	The decline of a country's traditional manufacturing industry due to exhaustion of raw materials, loss of markets and competition from NEEs.
Demographic transition model	A model showing how populations should change over time in terms of their birth rates, death rates and total population size.
Development	The progress of a country in terms of economic growth, the use of technology and human welfare.
Development gap	The difference in standards of living and wellbeing between the world's richest and poorest countries (between HICs and LICs).
European Union	An international organisation of 28 European countries, including the UK, formed to reduce trade barriers and increase cooperation among its members. Seventeen of these countries also share the same type of money: the euro. A person who is a citizen of a European Union country can live and work in any of the other 27 member countries without needing a work permit or visa.
Fairtrade	When producers in LICs are given a better price for the goods they produce. Often this is from farm products like cocoa, coffee or cotton. The better price improves income and reduces exploitation.

Globalisation	The process which has created a more connected world, with increases in the movements of goods (trade) and people (migration and tourism) worldwide.
Gross National Income (GNI)	A measurement of economic activity that is calculated by dividing the gross (total) national income by the size of the population. GNI takes into account not just the value of goods and services, but also the income earned from investments overseas.
Human development index (HDI)	A method of measuring development in which GDP per capita, life expectancy and adult literacy are combined to give an overview. This combined measure of development uses economic and social indicators to produce an index figure that allows comparison between countries.
Industrial structure	The relative proportion of the workforce employed in different sectors of the economy (primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary).
Infant mortality	The average number of deaths of infants under 1 year of age, per 1000 live births, per year.
Information technologies	Computer, internet, mobile phone and satellite technologies –especially those that speed up communication and the flow of information.
Intermediate technology	The simple, easily learned and maintained technology used in a range of economic activities serving local needs in LICs.
International aid	Money, goods and services given by the government of one country or a multilateral institution such as the World Bank or International Monetary Fund to help the quality of life and economy of another country.
Life expectancy	The average number of years a person might be expected to live.
Literacy rate	The percentage of people who have basic reading and writing skills.
Microfinance loans	Very small loans which are given to people in the LICs to help them start a small business.
North-south divide (UK)	Economic and cultural differences between Southern England (the South-East, Greater London, the South-West and parts of the East) and Northern England (the North-East, West and Yorkshire and the Humber). There are clear differences in health conditions, house prices, earnings, and political influence.
Post-industrial economy	The economy of many economically developed countries where most employment is now in service industries.
Science and business parks	Business Parks are purpose built areas of offices and warehouses, often at the edge of a city and on a main road. Science parks are often located near university sites, and high-tech industries are established. Scientific research and commercial development may be carried out in co-operation with the university.
Service industries (tertiary industries)	The economic activities that provide various services -commercial (shops and banks), professional (solicitors and dentists), social (schools and hospitals), entertainment (restaurants and cinemas) and personal (hairdressers and fitness trainers).
Trade	The buying and selling of goods and services between countries.
Transnational Corporation (TNC)	A company that has operations (factories, offices, research and development, shops) in more than one country. Many TNCs are large and have well-known brands.

Section C: The challenge of resource management

Resource Management	
Agribusiness	Application of business skills to agriculture.
Carbon footprint	A measurement of all the greenhouse gases we individually produce, through burning fossil fuels for electricity, transport etc, expressed as tonnes (or kg) of carbon-dioxide equivalent.
Energy mix	The range of energy sources of a region or country, both renewable and non-renewable.
Food miles	The distance covered supplying food to consumers.
Fossil fuel	A natural fuel such as coal or gas, formed in the geological past from the remains of living organisms.
Local food sourcing	A method of food production and distribution that is local, rather than national and/or international. Food is grown (or raised) and harvested close to consumers' homes, then distributed over much shorter distances.
Organic produce	Food which is produced using environmentally and animal friendly farming methods on organic farms. Artificial fertilisers are banned and farmers develop fertile soil by rotating crops and using compost, manure and clover. It must be free of synthetic additives like pesticides and dyes
Resource management	The control and monitoring of resources so that they do not become depleted or exhausted.
Biomass	Renewable organic materials, such as wood, agricultural crops or wastes, especially when used as a source of fuel or energy. Biomass can be burned directly or processed into biofuels such as ethanol and methane.
Energy conservation	Reducing energy consumption through using less energy and becoming more efficient in using existing energy sources.
Energy exploitation	Developing and using energy resources to the greatest possible advantage, usually for profit.
Energy security	Uninterrupted availability of energy sources at an affordable price.
Fossil fuel	A natural fuel such as coal or gas, formed in the geological past from the remains of living organisms.
Geothermal energy	Energy generated by heat stored deep in the Earth.
Hydro(electric) power	Electricity generated by turbines that are driven by moving water.
Nuclear power	The energy released by a nuclear reaction, especially by fission or fusion. Nuclear energy uses fuel made from mined and processed uranium to make steam and generate electricity.
Renewable energy sources	A resource which is not diminished when it is used; it recurs and cannot be exhausted (for example wind and tidal energy).
Solar energy	The Sun's energy exploited by solar panels, collectors or cells to heat water or air or to generate electricity
Sustainable development	Development that meets the needs of the present without limiting the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.
Sustainable energy supply	Energy that can potentially be used well into the future without harming future generations. Sustainable energy is the combination of energy savings, energy efficiency measures and technologies, as well as the use of renewable energy sources.
Wind energy	Electrical energy obtained from harnessing the wind with windmills or wind turbines.

Example questions

Below is a list of questions which could easily come up in the exam. A great way to revise is to practice these questions.

Tips:

1. You could revise the topic and then try out either planning or writing these in timed conditions.
2. Make sure you pay attention to the command word. E.g. is it asking you evaluate or assess? What will the examiner want to see?
3. Remember to **PEEL**. Point, evidence, explanation, link back to the question.

The Living world

Assess the strategies used to manage the rainforest sustainably. [6 marks]

Assess the strategies used to reduce the risk of desertification. [6 marks]

Discuss the causes of deforestation in a named case study. [9 marks]

Evaluate the impacts of deforestation. [9 marks]

The value of tropical rainforests to people and the environment is enormous. To what extent do you agree? [6 marks]

Assess the opportunities for development of a hot desert. [9 marks]

Assess the opportunities and challenges for development in the hot desert environment you have studied. [9 marks]

Assess the human and physical causes of desertification. [9 marks]

Describe and explain the strategies used to reduce the risk of desertification. [6 marks]

Physical landscapes in the UK

Assess the different management strategies that can be used to protect coastlines from the effects of physical processes.

Use a named case study to assess/ evaluate the different management strategies that have been used to protect coastlines.

Assess/ evaluate the different management strategies that can be used to protect river landscapes from the effects of flooding.

Use a named case study to assess/ evaluate the different management strategies that have been used to protect river landscapes from the effects of flooding.

Using an example from a section of coastline in the UK, explain how erosion and deposition can shape a coastline. [6 marks]

Discuss the importance of geology and rock types in shaping the coastline. [6 marks]

“Hard engineering is a more effective coastal management strategy than soft engineering.” To what extent do you agree? [9 marks]

Urban Issues and Challenges

Using a named case study in a LIC assess/discuss how urban planning is improving the quality of life for the urban poor.

Using a named case study in the UK discuss the reasons why the area was regenerated and give the main features of the urban regeneration project.

Assess/evaluate urban transport strategies that are used to reduce traffic congestion.

Using a case study of a major city in an LIC or NEE explain the importance of this city the regionally, nationally and internationally. [6 Marks]

Explain the causes of urban growth in an LIC you have studied. [4 Marks]

Discuss how rapid urban growth in LICs created both social opportunities and challenges. [9 Marks]

Describe how increasing industrial areas in the poor world can be a stimulus for economic development. [4 Marks]

Assess the challenges that urban growth in the poor world has created such as providing housing, clean water and sanitation. [6 Marks]

“The challenges faced to urban areas in LICs are similar to those challenges faced in HICs”. Using examples, discuss to what extent you agree with this statement. [9 Marks]

In cities in LICs social challenges are far greater than either economic or environmental ones. To what extent do you agree? [9 Marks]

Using an example, assess how well urban planning in an LIC is improving the quality of life for the urban poor. [6 Marks]

Describe the impact of urban sprawl and growth of commuter settlements on the rural-urban fringe. [4 Marks]

Explain the opportunities and challenges of building on brownfield and greenfield sites. [6 Marks]

Assess the social and economic challenges for cities in the richer world. [9 Marks]

Using an example of a city in the UK, evaluate the impacts of national and international migration on the growth and character of the city. [9 Marks]

Assess the usefulness of the integrated transport system in a city of your choice.

Outline the concept of urban greening. [3 marks]

Using a case study of a major city in the UK, discuss the opportunities created by urban change [9 marks]

The Challenge of Resource management

Discuss the economic and environmental issues associated with exploitation of energy sources. [6 Marks]

Explain how carbon footprints are related to food miles. [4 Marks]

Outline how inequalities in water availability in the UK can be addressed [4 Marks]

Assess the impacts of energy insecurity. [6 Marks]

Describe and explain why the demand for food has changed in the UK [4 Marks]

Discuss a range of strategies to increase energy supply. [6 Marks]

Explain reasons for the increasing energy consumption. [4 Marks]

Discuss the different factors which affect energy supply [6 Marks]

Using an example, explain how extracting fossil fuels has both advantages and disadvantages. [6 Marks]

Describe a variety of strategies that can be used to conserve energy. [4 Marks]

The Challenge of Natural hazards

Using named case studies compare how the effects and responses to a tectonic hazard vary between two areas of contrasting levels of wealth. [9 Marks]

Suggest reasons why people continue to live in areas at risk from a tectonic hazard. [4 Marks]

Evaluate how monitoring, prediction, protection and planning can reduce the effects of tropical storms. [6 Marks]

Using a named case study of a tropical storm assess the primary and secondary effects of the storm. [6 Marks]

Using a named case study of a tropical storm assess the immediate and long term responses to the storm. [6 Marks]

Discuss the evidence for climate change from the beginning of the last age to the present day. [6 Marks]

Discuss the effects of climate change on people and the environment. [6 Marks]

Outline the evidence which suggests that weather is becoming more extreme in the UK. [4 Marks]

Using an example of a recent extreme weather event in the UK discuss the social, economic and environmental impacts it had on the UK. [6 marks]

In reference to a recent extreme weather event in the UK outline how management strategies can reduce risk. [4 marks]

To what extent can mitigation and adaptation can manage the effects of climate change [6 Marks]

The Changing economic world

Assess the limitations of using economic and social measures of development. [6 marks]

Discuss the consequences of uneven development. [6 marks]

Describe and explain the strategies used to reduce the development gap. [6 marks]

Using a named case study evaluate how tourism in a LIC or NEE helps to reduce the development gap. [9 marks]

Using a case study of a named LIC / NEE which has experienced rapid economic development discuss the social changes this has brought. [6 marks]

Assess the environmental change caused by the rapid economic development discuss the environmental change in an LIC/NEE you have studied. [9 marks]

Describe and explain the cultural changes that have happened as a result of rapid economic development in a poorer part of the world that you have studied. [9 marks]

Outline the causes of economic change in the UK. [4 marks]

Using a named case study assess the impacts of industry on the physical environment. [6 marks]

Assess the place of the UK in the wider world. [6 marks]

Assess the success of the strategies used to resolve the regional differences in the north-south divide in the UK. [6 marks]

Describe and explain the consequences of uneven development. [6 marks]

Suggest how the demographic transition model links to different level of development [4 marks]

Using a case study of a poorer part of the world, describe how the balance between different sectors of the economy is changing. [6 marks]