ANGLO-CHINESE JUNIOR COLLEGE
JC 2 Preliminary Examinations 2016

GEOGRAPHY 9730/02
Higher 2

Time: 3 hours **29 August 2016 (Monday)**

READ THESE INSTRUCTIONS FIRST

Write your Centre number, index number and name on all the work you hand in.
Write in dark blue or black pen.
You may use a soft pencil for any diagrams, graphs or rough working.
Do not use staples, paper clips, highlighters, glue or correction fluid.

Section A
Answer **all** questions.

Section B
Answer **two** questions, each from a different topic.

Insert contains all the Figures and Table referred to in the question paper. Diagrams and sketch maps should be drawn whenever they serve to illustrate an answer. The world outline map may be annotated and handed in with relevant answers. You are reminded of the need for good English and clear presentation in your answers. The number of the marks is given in brackets [ ] at the end of each question or part question.

At the end of the examination, fasten your answers to Section A **separately** from that of Section B.

On the **cover sheet** provided, include:
- Your name and index no.
- The question numbers of the question you have attempted in the boxes provided, and place the cover sheet as the top page over your answers to Section A.

This document consists of 5 printed pages, including this cover page.
The Insert consists of 6 printed pages.

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Section A

Answer **four** questions in this section.
Questions 1, 2 and 4 carry 12 marks and Question 3 carries 14 marks.
You should allocate your time accordingly.

The Globalisation of Economic Activity

1 Fig. 1 shows the total production volume within North America, employment numbers and total sales for General Motors (an American automobile transnational corporation).

(a) Describe and explain the employment numbers of the North American and Asian countries shown. **[6]**

Describe (2m)

- Higher for North America with a total of 123,000. Total for the Asian countries shown is 39,400
- US is clearly the highest contributor for all countries shown with a total of 98,000 employees.

Explain (Total 4m, 2m per point/sub-point, both Asia and North America needs to be explained)

- Higher value for North America could be due the high sales volume of North America.
    - As automobile is a bulky product, it may make sense for production to be at the site of sales to reduce costs of transportation and reduce the risk of damage.
    - Higher value for North America could be due to the need to cater to the needs of the consumers in North America. As such, GM may have hired advertising talents etc.
- The employment numbers for Asia are mainly contributed by South Korea and China. SK may have an affluent market hence it is chosen as a site for production (see earlier explanation) while China may have been chosen for the lower wage rates given that firms are profit-driven.
- Higher level of employment in US may be due to the home country advantage. US may have been chosen as the site for the GM HQ and/or research and development efforts due to both inertia and the prestige/sentimental value of locating within the home country.

(b) Compare non-labour locational advantages that firms seek when outsourcing manufacturing and service functions. **[6]**

2m each

	Manufacturing	Services
Similarity	• Govt policies e.g. lower taxation, the building of EPZs in the case of manuf or research facilities in the case of R&D which is a form of service • Importance of connectivity e.g. container ports in the case of manufacturing. Communication technologies e.g. fibre options are important for both manuf and services but would be more important for services.	
Difference – Environmental	Considers environmental legislation – the absence of environmental legislation e.g. carbon emissions taxation, requirements on green technology reduces cost of production	Does not consider environmental legislation
Difference – Site	Require a large land area with extensive transport networks	Does not require a large land area but location is dependent on the type of services e.g. legal and accountancy services tend to be within the CBD given the need for face-to-face interactions while research and back-office functions tend to be sited in rural, idyllic areas.
Difference – Market	Less important except in the case where the final product is bulky	Important consideration to be close to the market given that some services need to be consumed at the site of production.

Population Issues and Challenges

2 Fig. 2 shows Britain's demographic transition from 1700 to 2020 (predicted).

(a) Using evidence from Fig. 2, describe **two** possible limitations of population prediction. **[4]**

- Sudden events e.g. WW1, WW2. These sudden events may increase mortality OR unexpected post war baby boom that increased fertility. Population prediction would not have been able to predict wars.
- Issue with data collection – lack of data e.g. data prior to 1801 were estimates. This indicates either a small sample size that compromises accuracy or the lack of data.
- Effect of government policies unknown e.g. population change after the year 2000 is likely to be dependent on the success of pro-natal policies

(b) How far is Britain's demographic transition as shown in Fig. 2 similar to that proposed by the Demographic Transition Theory? **[4]**

Stage 1 –

- Similar as the high fluctuating stage is reflected in the period from 1700 to 1760 with a BR and DR of approximately 32 to 36 per 1000.

Stage 2 & 3 –

- Unlike the DTM, there is no clear distinction between Stage 2 and 3 for the actual demographic transition of Britain. Characteristics of the transition from stage 2 to 3 is that birth rates start their decline and the decline is death rate slows down. Based on the data, birth rate declines in 1860 while the fall in death rates slows in 1820.
- Disruption to stage 3 with WW1 and WW2. The DTM does not take into account sudden events.
- Overall, DR falls from approximately 36 per 1000 to 12 per 1000. BR falls from approximately 36 per 1000 to 14 per 1000.

Stage 4 –

- Low values are seen from the Fig. from approx. 1940.
- Fluctuation in the Fig is generally less prominent than that of the DTM

Stage 5 –

- Starts at approximately 2000.
- From the year 2000, it is expected that death rates will exceed birth rates and the gap is continually increasing with a final gap of approximately 2 per 1000 in 2020.

(c) As the Chief Planning Officer of the Population Policy Division of a less developed country (LDC), what recommendations would you propose to prepare for the increase in the proportion of the economically active? **[4]**

Possible issues to prepare for:

- Insufficient jobs
    - Any policies that increase FDI e.g. tax exemptions, building of an EPZ
- High total fertility rate due to population momentum
    - Any anti-natal: elaborate on any possible strategy
- Carrying capacity given that likely increase in population size
    - Any facilities/amenities related point e.g. transport or housing

[Turn Over

Urban Issues and Challenges

3 Fig. 3A shows the population size of the core and suburban regions of Tokyo from the year 1950 to 2010.
Fig. 3B shows the incidence of road rage in the United States of America based on the respondents' place of residence for the year 2001.

(a) With reference to Fig. 3A, describe the changes in urban population within Tokyo. **[3]**

1m each

- Overall Increase in urban population from approximately 12 million to 35 million.
- Slight increase in population within the Core from 5 million to 9 million.
- Large increase in population within the suburban area from approximately 7 million to 26 million.

(b) Explain how the changes to population size in suburban areas seen in Fig. 3A may contribute to urban sprawl. **[4]**

Contribution to urban sprawl – 2m (any 1 point)

- The increase in population size is likely to lead to an increase in congestion and overcrowding in the suburbs. This may lead to an outward pressure with residents opting to move towards the fringe of the suburbs leading to an expansion to the suburbs and eventual urban sprawl.
- The increase in population may lead to an increase need for facilities within the suburbs. This would lead to the expansion of the suburbs as more hospitals, schools etc are built.
- The expansion of the suburbs may lead to the subsuming of surrounding residential locales into the boundaries of the central city.

However,

- May not contribute to urban sprawl if greenbelts are able to contain the increase in population size. As such, there may not be a physical growth of the suburban area.

(c) With reference to Fig. 3B and your own knowledge, discuss the impacts of urban sprawl. **[5]**

Max 3m if ref to Fig. 3B is not made.

Positive:

- Urban sprawl could be beneficial as it may relieve pressure from the inner city, CBD and the older suburbs

Negative:

- Increase in the level of stress for commuters and lead to anti-social behaviour (include large city evidence from Fig.) due to

the increase in commuting between the suburbs and CBD/inner city
- Increase in commuting – environmental damage, loss of productivity
- Loss of agricultural land

The Globalisation of Economic Activity and Urban Issues and Challenges

4 Fig. 4 shows the plans to develop Jurong Lake District.

(a) With reference to Fig. 4, explain why the Jurong Lake District would be an attractive location for foreign direct investment. **[5]**

2m per point

- Transport connectivity:
    - Presence of Lakeside and Chinese Garden station as well as the proposed HSR. This will allow for the movement of population (including Malaysians) to Jurong Lake District and this will allow firms in the area to become more popular as employers
    - Proximity to AYE – transportation of goods that may be produced in the area.
- Presence of greenery and recreational activities including Westgate, JCube and Big Box which are shopping areas. This will increase the ability of the area to attract foreign talent as it is better positioned as an area that allows for work and play.
- The adaptable spaces for the future economy could mean that businesses may be attracted into the area to capitalise on the rapidly emerging technologies and more flexible business models which they can incorporate into their own operations.
- The idea of a 'car-lite' environment will reduce the amount of pollution and congestion in the Jurong Lake District hence created idyllic conditions which can appeal to foreign talent such that Jurong Lake District is not only a place to work but a place to live.
- Presence of Devan Nair Institute for Employment and Employability could indicate an overall improvement to labour skills in Singapore. This could benefit all areas including Jurong

Lake District.

(b) Explain how Fig. 4 demonstrates the role of state planning in urban morphology. **[5]**

Examiner's Note: Students need to make links to urban morphology. Some students made links to economic development instead of urban morphology.

- Zoning: Clear zoning and protection of greenery through the Jurong Lake Park. Under normal economic logic, Jurong Lake Park would have been removed to make way for more commercial functions. This changes the functions found within Jurong Lake District.
- Building of infrastructure: MRT, AYE, HSR. Infrastructural provision is needed to increase the connectivity of the urban area for both business and residents. This changes the morphology of the area.
- Distinctive identity of Jurong Lake District with the preservation of both natural and heritage assets e.g. former Jurong Town Hall building.
- The vibrant round-the-block retail, entertainment and leisure options take the form of shopping centres. The presence of amenities is generally zoned by the government and the parcels of land are placed for bidding by the Government.

(c) Suggest **two** impacts that may arise from the decentralisation of commercial functions from the existing central business district. **[4]**

Max 3m if the answer only contains a discussion of the origin or destination
Max 3m if only positive or negative impacts are discussed
Max 3m if only economic impacts are discussed.

Origin
+ Relieve congestion in the existing CBD as functions are lost.
+ Frees up space for other commercial functions that require the prestige of a more established CBD location
- Could lead to a decline of the original CBD if important commercial functions are lost

Destination
+ Increases economic activities leading to economic development in this area. Especially important in reducing disparity within the country
+ Leads to a higher standard of living in the new CBD as incomes increase/increase access to a wider range of good and services characteristic of a CBD

- Could lead to the removal of the original function e.g. residential function/destruction of greenery as the original function is priced out.

Section B

Answer **two** questions, each from a different topic. Each question carries 25 marks.

The Globalisation of Economic Activity

5 Either (a) Explain why less developed countries (LDCs) would want to industrialise. **[9]**

Max 6m for a strong conceptual discussion on why LDCs would want to industrialise without the use of examples (China case study + Nestle case study).

Frame: Explain the benefits of industrialisation

Economic benefits:
- Investments from TNCs and its associated socio-economic benefits e.g. tax revenue for govts
- Large scale employment → income → associated socio-economic benefits
- Technological and skills transfer
- Increase exports and hence export earnings

Social benefits:
- Increase incomes and hence standards of living
- Greater product variety in the consumer market
- Possibly greater gender equality
- Changes in lifestyle habits
- Possible corporate social responsibility programmes which may be a byproduct of TNC activities.

(b) Evaluate the view that economic disparity is a result of economic development. **[16]**

Max 10 marks if only a single scale is discussed e.g. national disparity, global disparity

Frame: Economic disparity is a result of various factors besides economic development. Furthermore, the culprit of disparity is not economic development but the poor management of economic development.

Possible Thesis:
- In an open economy depending on external linkages derived from trade of a few primary products, external exogenous shock dictated the trends of regional development. At the

regional level in Brazil, the leading export products – sugar and cotton, in the Northeast and coffee, in the South were strongly subject to fluctuations in the international markets. Disparities may increase or decrease with the fluctuations.

- Arguably, economic development which is achieved through industrialisation in Brazil has disproportionately benefitted coastal regions as the areas are more attractive to firms and have gained tax revenue and the increase in jobs and income.
    - THEREFORE, this is not a natural process but disparity is dependent on the Govt's efforts in attracting and spreading out investments. In the case of Brazil, Govt investment in infrastructure is concentrated within the existing cities at coastal areas. Communications within coastal Brazil are much better than in the rest of the country. Road transport is the main form of transport in all regions except the north where river transport is still the major means of communications. The densest road networks are in the South-east and the South. Rail transport has never been very important in Brazil and such lines that do exist are use to transport heavy bulky commodities along export corridors to the coast. The best inter-urban railway links are between Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo and both cities now have their underground railway systems. The size of Brazil makes a network of air transport essential.
    - With cumulative causation in the case of Brazil where investment capital and managerial power were centralised in the industries of south-east, the social and economic infrastructure of the South-east is far superior than the rest of the country. A pool of wealth and affluence was established here; domestic and international capital flowed into the area and perpetuated its growth. Even the shift of administrative capital to Brasilia (centre-west) in 1960 has not reduced the political and economic power of the south-east. Sao Paulo still acts as the financial capital of Brazil.
- Early economic development may not guarantee a higher income as the ability to attract investments needs to be sustained. E.g. Southern UK → Suffered the most during the restructuring as the region was already developed industrially and was dependent on manufacturing. Decline then occurred given the out-dated equipment and working practices + foreign competition which reduced demand for heavy industrial products. In contrast, Northern UK → Suffered least during the restructuring as the region was not industry dependent. Benefited from later recovery → recovery in

service sector. 1983-89: banking, finance and insurance created 75000 jobs with London experiencing a 41% expansion of the sector and the rest of the southeast experiencing 59% expansion.

- In terms of global disparity, economic development may lead to an increase in disparity with the lower-income countries becoming dependent on the investments from firms in the DCs. DCs would also benefit from higher gains in terms of value-addedness.
    - However, it must also be acknowledged that the gains of economic wealth within NIEs have translated into the growth of TNCs from these NIEs and this has narrowed the developmental gap between countries.

Possible Anti-thesis:

- Physical factors
    - Concentration of people in the coastal areas of Brazil possibly due to warmer climates. There are regional variations in settlement patterns and communications in Brazil. Most settlements are concentrated along the coastal plain and 75% of the Brazilians live within 160km of the coast. There are 9 cities with over a million inhabitants. Only Belo Horizonte and Brasilia lie outside the coastal belt. The larger urban areas are in the South-east with Sao Paulo dominating.
    - The Amazonian rainforest in the North and the savanna grassland in the centre-west; couple with undulating Brazilian highlands makes infrastructural development difficult. Additionally the poor soils of the regions make profitable agriculture almost impossible.
- Political Factors:
    - There were also British investments in infrastructure, the better human capital of the European immigrants and the technological progress in coffee sector established Brazil as the main world supplier of coffee. However, these changes did not benefit the Northeast. In fact, trade policies carried out in the late 19th century included a series of currency devaluation and tariff protection, benefiting coffee exporters and the manufacturing sector in the Sao Paulo area.
    - On a global scale, monetary dependence has also led to disparities. A good example of monetary dependence is the financial operation in the franc zone. The currency of the dependent southern country like is the case in Francophone West Africa, is directly linked to the currency of the

dominant northern country (France), which thereby manages or significantly influences both the external and internal monetary policy of the southern country. Monetary dependent can also occur when an underdeveloped southern country in a chronic balance of payments difficulty for instance, becomes dependent or external balance-of-payment assistance through such western institutions as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), which then reserves the right to shape and to influence such a southern country's domestic and foreign monetary policy.

- Foreign aid which is often sought by southern countries from the North, can also create dependence, as it can allow for external manipulation and interference in Southern economies. In most cases

- Further disparity within regions that have benefitted from high levels of economic development:
  - Although South-east Brazil is considered the most developed, there are poor underdeveloped areas within the region. For example, the favela settlements in Sao Paulo and Rio de Janerio are centers of poverty that have developed as a result of economic development where rural migrants have been attracted by the lure of jobs and higher incomes but have ended up as urban poor.

Evaluate the view that economic disparity is a result of economic development.

	Poor (0-7)	Developing (8-12)	Excellent (13-16)
Concept	☐ Little elaboration on the concept of economic disparity ☐ Little elaboration on factors affecting economic disparity. ☐ No concept of scale at which economic disparity may occur.	☐ Accurate and comprehensive discussion on factors affecting economic disparity.	☐ Accurate and comprehensive discussion on the idea of economic disparity on various scales. ☐ Accurate and comprehensive discussion on factors affecting economic disparity.
Case Study	☐ No/limited examples/evidence	☐ Relevant use of case study issues to illustrate the influence of various factors on economic disparity.	☐ Case study details are woven into explanations on the influence of various factors on economic disparity. ☐ Case study details are woven into evaluations.
Evaluation	☐ No or little evaluation of the influence of economic development on economic disparity.	☐ Some attempt at the evaluation of economic development as a cause of economic disparity ☐ Some evaluation of other factors which may play a less/more significant role in causing economic disparities.	☐ Clear essay framework (stand and links) with paragraphs that clearly support an overall stand/argument. ☐ Top students in this band (15-16m) will also be able to discuss the relative importance of factors that have resulted in economic disparity on different scales.

(a) Explain the locational trends of the service sector. **[9]**

Or

Max 5m if only internationalisation of services OR decentralisation and centralisation are discussed.

TREND 1: Centralisation of some services within the city centre (Applied to UK)

- Finance and business (quaternary services) have grown more quickly in London than elsewhere in UK
  - ✓ Evidence: Over 500 000 of these business service jobs (33% of the jobs in this sector are in London) are located in the city centre and the Docklands.
  - ✓ Evidence: Increasing numbers of employees have put pressure on office space, forcing rents up. Since 1995, business services have been expanding into west London. The M4 corridor is one of the areas with concentration of financial service jobs.

REASONS for centralisation within London's city centre

- Inertia – historically, London has been the centre of government, trading, banking and insurance. As such, new banking services tend to site themselves within London leading to the growth of financial services. London's prestige is global, along with Tokyo and New York, it is one of the 3 global cities.
- The need for face-to-face contact in some quinary and quaternary services, which has only been partially replaced by Information Communications Technology (ICT) remains in the ideal location of London
- HQs of TNCs remain in London and quaternary services chose to locate near the TNC HQs.

TREND 2: Decentralisation of some services away from city centre (Applied to UK)

- Quinary services such as education, healthcare and tertiary services such as retail are dispersed to serve the population.

REASONS for decentralisation away from London's city centre

- Government policies (1964 and 1979)
  - Objective: Reduce pressure of demand for office space in London, from public and private sectors.
  - Office decentralization policies steered firms and civil service jobs away from London.
  - Planning policies in Greater London encouraged the growth of nodes in the outer suburbs, for example, Croydon and Kingston
  - Regional development policies to attract offices to development areas. Subsequent policies, such as urban regeneration and urban development corporations, have also assisted decentralization – for example to Canary Wharf
- Routine or 'back office' work, which needs no contact with the public,

does not need to be located in premises with high rents e.g. call centre work is 'footloose'

- Services dealing with transport and communication are on the rise with the increasing decentralization of population in DCs. There is an increasing need to serve people living in the suburbs and rural areas.
- Quinary services too have grown in the suburbs to serve the needs of the new population. With the labour force now living in the suburbs, various quaternary services which require less face-to-face contact may also find the suburbs an attractive location e.g. engineering design due to the available labour force coupled with lower rents.

TREND 3: Internationalisation of Services/Outsourcing (Applied to India)

Cost advantage is the driving force behind off-shoring, the choice of off-shoring destination is also made according to cultural preferences. Japanese companies are starting to off-shore and outsource to China, where large numbers of Japanese speakers can be found; particularly in the city of Dalian. German companies tend to outsource to Poland and Romania, where proficiency in German is common.

Example: India

- Commonwealth link to UK
- English language skills are good and most outsourcing comes from USA and UK
- Strength of IT in the education system in India
- Low communication costs – sending car hire calls to Bangalore rather than UK reduces cost by 50%
- Wages are lower – in 2004, US IT manager cost $55 000 whereas the cost in India was $8 500
- India produces 3 million graduates a year

(b) How far do you agree that transnational corporations (TNCs) are responsible for the globalisation of economic activity? **[16]**

Frame: Discussion of contribution by TNCs towards the globalisation of economic activity. L3 responses MUST evaluate that TNCs are not fully responsible and bring in other drivers e.g. state/supranationals or factors e.g. the enabling influence of technology.

TNCs as actors/drivers of the globalisation of economic activities

- TNCs have increased the extensity and intensity of connections between countries as economic activity has been fragmented into its various functions and redistributed to various countries based on the theory of comparative advantage such that profits can be maximised for the TNCs.

Headquarters

- Most HQs would not have relocated but work to facilitate the globalisation of the production process through its control and command functions by handling, processing and transmitting information and decisions to various parts of the world.

Regional headquarter

- **Definition:** Regional headquarter is the intermediate level in the corporate organisational structure, having a geographical sphere of influence encompassing several countries

- **What it does: Roles of regional headquarter**
  - ✓ Integrate parents company's activities within the region - to coordinate and control the activities of the firm's affiliates (manufacturing units, sales offices etc)
  - ✓ TNC's 'intelligence-gathering' system
  - ✓ Entrepreneur role - act as base to initiate new regional ventures or to demonstrate to the government that the company has commitment to the region
  - ✓ Monitoring – Located close to the firm's major production facilities

- **What it needs: Locational requirements** (Somewhat similar to HQs):
  - ✓ **Strategic location** on the global transportation and communications networks in order to keep close with other geographically dispersed parts of the organisation. In particular 'connectedness' with the HQ and the branch plants are vital as these regional HQs act as intermediaries between the other two.
  - ✓ Access to a particular range of **labour market skills**; especially people for information processing

- **Where it is: Spatial pattern**
  - ✓ On a global scale: in DCs as well as advanced NIEs (e.g. HP and Seagate have their regional HQ in Singapore)
  - ✓ On a national scale: a relatively small number of cities contain a large proportion of regional HQs
  - ✓ Together with the HQs, these locations are considered as the geographical **'control points' of the global economy**

Research and Development

- Relocation may be to another DC which may be an international interdependent R&D laboratory which allows access to skilled labour such as highly trained scientists etc.
- Relocation may also be to the country where the product is meant to be sold such that local product innovation and development can take place. Proximity to markets can also allow benefits from the closeness to customer needs, tastes and preferences.

Marketing and sales

- Most geographically dispersed because these functions need to be as

close to the market served by the TNCs, to be sensitive to local conditions in order to provide feedback and must be in the position to tailor to the needs of the locals
- Can also concentrate at corporate headquarter or increasingly within regional headquarter where they are responsible for marketing decisions in the specific region
- With sophisticated communications system, virtual proximity may replace physical proximity
- Sales units are smaller and very widely spaced

Transnational branch/production plants
- For HQs and R&D, the locational requirements and spatial patterns are somewhat similar for all firms. However for production plants their locational requirements vary considerably – depending on nature of production, location-specific factors ; e.g. labour requirements, need for extensive space, etc
- These are more geographically dispersed; with no one simple pattern of location. The pattern varies from industry to industry but any form of outsourcing will lead to the globalisation of economic activity.

<u>Other Actors/Drivers – State and/or supranational bodies</u>

The State plays an important role in creating conditions suitable for TNCs to set up their production processes.

State as a provider to drive globalisation of economic activity:
- Important in attracting FDIs as these provide the basis for any form of economic activity
- E.g. Transport infrastructure and services: Provision of transportation within and between countries →allow for transport of raw materials, semi-finished products and finished products. This therefore enables the setting up of factories (a form of physical investment).
- E.g. devt of Cholla in South Korea was centred upon an expansion of motorway and the building of a new airport built – this is turn brought investments from TNCs into the region

- E.g. Taiwan's universities produce nearly 50 000 new engineers a year and in addition many young people go to study at American universities. This has attracted TNCs and the relocation of parts of the production process by these TNCs has increased the globalisation of economic activities.
- E.g. Providing a stable financial sector: Governments often have national banks and stock exchanges to spearhead the financial sector. They also maintain the value of the currency and government bonds.
- S'pore's Science Parks – such as One-North – JTC (a govt body) created relevent infrastructure such as tpt access, preparation of land. Objectives were to integrate the existing science park facilities and research centres and create a multifaceted research

community, with schools, public transport and other amenities

State as a regulator to drive globalisation process:

- Governments can regulate FDI flows into and out of the country. In order to increase inward FDI, the government may decide to reduce taxation on profits, relaxation of laws on degree of foreign ownership in domestic enterprises or to directly promote the country to TNCs e.g. EDB Singapore
- Choosing type of economic devt path – e.g. some NIEs such as HK, S'pore in the 60s decided to focus on export-oriented industrialization (EOI). Even some now such as China, Vietnam have looked to EOI as a formula to increase economic devt -- Strong trade policy focus on export of manufactured goods
- Explicit state incentives to promote large export-oriented firms – e.g. establishing EPZs – putting in infrastructure as well as a wide range of incentives
- E.g.s (Choose one to explain) Taiwan's Hi-tech Science Parks and EPZs, in SK there was regulation of union activities to reduce labour militancy and to stabilize cheap labour supply, in Singapore strikes were illegal, labour was ruled by a national wage council, and wage increases were linked to productivity

State as an entrepreneur to drive globalisation process:

- The government also helps create new economic opportunities for local firms e.g. FTAs. In joining NAFTA, Mexican exporters and investors stand to enjoy a myriad of benefits through FTAs like tariff concessions, preferential access to certain sectors, faster entry into markets and inward investments from the other two member-states; namely USA and Canada.
- EDB's role in attracting investments from foreign countries e.g. China and Dubai into Singapore through the setting up of overseas offices.

Supranational organisations can also play impt role in driving the globalisation process:

- **E.g. Trade blocs**: the inclusion of new countries into existing trade blocs often result in a diversion of FDI to tap onto the typically lower labour costs of the new country e.g. Eastern European countries benefitting from increased inward FDI upon joining EU.
- Often changes the nature of FDI flows from a more international orientation to a more regional orientation.

How far do you agree that transnational corporations (TNCs) are responsible for the globalisation of economic activity?

	Poor (0-7)	Developing (8-12)	Excellent (13-16)
Concept	☐ Little elaboration on the concept of the globalisation of economic activity. ☐ Little elaboration on the role of TNCs in contributing towards the globalisation of economic activity.	☐ Comprehensive discussion on the role of TNCs in the globalisation of economic activity. ☐ Some discussion of the role of other factors/drivers in the globalisation of economic activity.	☐ Comprehensive discussion on the role of TNCs in the globalisation of economic activity. ☐ Comprehensive discussion of the role of other factors/drivers in the globalisation of economic activity such that the role of state/supranationals are differentiated from that of TNCs.
Case Study	☐ No/limited examples/evidence	☐ Relevant use of case study issues to illustrate the role of TNCs as well as other factors/drivers.	☐ Case study details are woven into the explanation of how TNCs contribute towards the globalisation of economic activity. ☐ Case study details are woven into the evaluation of how TNCs and other factors/drivers contribute towards the globalisation of economic activity.
Evaluation	☐ No or little evaluation of the influence of the role of TNCs in contributing towards the globalisation of economic activity.	☐ Some attempt at the evaluation of the level of responsibility that TNCs hold in the globalisation of economic activity as compared to other factors/drivers.	☐ Clear essay framework (stand and links) with paragraphs that clearly support an overall stand/argument. ☐ Top students in this band (15-16m) will also be able to discuss the relative importance of drivers that have resulted in the globalisation of economic activity.

Population Issues and Challenges

6 Either (a) Explain why sizes of ecological footprints differ amongst countries. **[9]**

Max 7m if students do not discuss the differences found within DCs and within LDCs.

- **<u>The 'depth' of the footprint is conditioned by 3 key factors:</u>**
  - The rate of population growth
  - The levels of development and consumption
  - The nature of available technology

- By measuring the ecological footprint of a population we can assess our overshoot, which helps us manage our ecological assets more carefully. Ecological footprints enable people to take personal and collective action.
- Consider the interaction between the 3 factors for developed countries (DCs) and less developed countries (LDCs)

  - Rate of population growth:

DC	LDC
• Low rate of population growth	• High rate of population growth [Dependent on the govt's role in LDCs e.g. anti-natal policies] There is a high and growing consumption of resources due to the large population size and high population growth rate for many LDCs in Asia e.g. India with a population of 1.24 billion and a TFR of 2.5 in 2014 . Although the population size of the LDCs of the African continent may be lower, the high rate of population growth mean an increasing demand for resources. E.g. Zimbabwe with a population size of 13.7 million and a TFR of 3.56 in 2014 has a population growth rate of 4.36%

  - Levels of development, affluence & consumption:

DC	LDC
• Higher level of development and affluence which is likely to lead to higher consumption. With a higher level of development, it is likely that the population is more affluent. This translates into spending power and will then lead to an increase in resources used and an increase in waste produced. For instance, on average, each American produced 4.5 pounds of garbage each day in 2000. Most of this waste is either burned, emitting pollutants into the air, or deposited in landfills, taking up increasing land near urban areas and introducing toxic substances to groundwater and soil. In 2000, about 70 percent of the world's automobiles were in more developed countries. The increase in motor vehicles is associated with pollution and land-use problems. As their incomes increase, people tend to add more animal fats to their diets. Raising livestock requires more land, produces more waste, and consumes more grain per food calorie than growing grains such as wheat or rice for direct consumption. • **On the other hand**, development can also increase	• Lower level of development and affluence which is likely to lead to higher consumption. A low level of development and poverty could also increase EF and affect the sustainability of development. LDCs may enact policies that worsen environmental conditions as they deem it fair for them to exploit resources and their environment like the DCs in the past during the industrialisation era. E.g. irrigation policies of the former Soviet Union, instituted to boost agricultural production, resulted in a 40% reduction in the size of the Aral Sea in Central Asia. E.g. In the Philippines, timber policies encouraged the surge in upland migration in the 1980s, resulting in a heavy loss of forest cover and substantial increases in soil erosion. • Low levels of social development are often linked to high TFR (refer to fertility lecture).

environmental consciousness. [Therefore dependent on the influence that affluence has on DCs] International and national policies are pushed to enable more environmentally-friendly protective legislations. E.g. The Montreal Protocol on Substances That Deplete the Ozone Layer is an international treaty designed to protect the ozone layer by phasing out the production of a number of substances believed to be responsible for ozone depletion.	

- Technology:

DC	LDC
[Dependent on technological decisions made by the DCs in terms of env regulations and decisions made by TNCs in terms of tech use] • Technology can reduce EF Enabled **more efficient use of current resources**. For instance electric motors with computerized controls can run more efficiently than traditional motors. Generating electricity through gas turbines rather than large thermal plants is another way to substitute a more-efficient technology for a less efficient one. • Technologies can also increase EF. Technologies may not be environmentally	• Likely to have more environmentally unfriendly technologies.

friendly especially because most technologies are controlled by businesses rather than governments. Technology plays a **vital role in unlocking and exploiting resources**. E.g. crude oil deposits exploited through the installation of drilling-rigs, pipelines, refineries and tankers and are used in automobile. Also notable, is the increase in CFC emissions from air-conditioning and refrigeration.	

(b) Discuss the need for governments to manage migratory flows and outline the strategies that have been implemented in countries you have studied. **[16]**

Frame: Objectives of managing migratory flow may or may not be achieved through migration policies. As such, the policies may or may not be needed. Also, the objectives may be achieved through other policies hence reducing the need of migration policies.

Need/Objective 1: Spur urban development [China case study]
~ Counter: infrastructural developments and job creation in city may naturally act as pull factors without the need for govt intervention in increasing migration flows.

Need/Objective 2: Reduce R-U divide [China case study]
~ Counter: Rural development projects e.g. TVE

Need/Objective 3: Reduce negative impacts of over-population and spur economic development [Philippines case study]
~ Counter: anti-natal policies

Need/Objective 4: Selective migration for economic development and increase labour force and market size through in-migration [Singapore case study]
~ Counter: pro-natal policies

Discuss the need for governments to manage migratory flows and outline the strategies that have been implemented in countries you have studied. [16]

	Poor (0-7)	Developing (8-12)	Excellent (13-16)
Concept	☐ Little elaboration on the types of migratory flows. ☐ Little elaboration on the **need** to manage migratory flows. ☐ Little elaboration on the **strategies** used to manage migratory flows.	☐ Comprehensive discussion on the **need** to manage migratory flows but discussion may be too general with little distinction on the types of migratory flows. ☐ Discussion of a variety of **strategies** to manage migratory flows but discussion may be too general with little distinction on the types of migratory flows.	☐ Comprehensive discussion on the **need** to manage migratory flows. Discussion is applied to various types of migratory flows. ☐ Discussion of a variety of **strategies** to manage migratory flows. Discussion is applied to various types of migratory flows.
Case Study	☐ No/limited examples/evidence	☐ Relevant use of case studies to illustrate the need to manage migratory. ☐ Relevant use of case studies to illustrate the various strategies to manage migration.	☐ Case study details are woven into the explanation. ☐ Case study details are woven into the evaluation.
Evaluation	☐ No or little evaluation of the need to manage migratory flows. ☐ Outline of migratory flows is vague.	☐ Some attempt at evaluating the need to manage migratory flows ☐ Good illustration of how migration strategies can help to achieve the objectives/needs discussed earlier.	☐ Clear essay framework (stand and links) with paragraphs that clearly support an overall stand/argument. ☐ Top students in this band (15-16m) will also be able to discuss the need to manage migration and how the strategies allow for the objectives to be met.

Or **(a)** Discuss the need for pro-natal policies in developed countries. **[9]**

Frame: Discuss the positive and negative impacts of an age-ing population/shrinking population size. A discussion on whether pro-natal policies, when implemented, can resolve the issues they are meant to resolve will also contribute towards the quality of response.

Aging population:

	Short-term implications	**Long-term implications**
Economic	- Increased (govt) expenditure on elderly-care, e.g. health care, retrofitting environment - Increase in welfare cost - Increase in dependency ratio with reducing number of working people o Retirement age may have to be increased as well as greater incentives provided for those able to work but not currently working (e.g. women who left work) + Increase in 'third age' consumers hence demand for associated goods and services. This can provide a boost to the GDP due to the increase in consumption and can even spark off the blossoming of the silver industry.	- Relative loss of competitiveness of labour force +/- Migration policies need to encourage more incoming migrants to fill up vacancies (can be positive or negative depending on whether migrants are welcomed and whether migrants are active contributors and innovators in the economy) +/- Policies to encourage births Eg. Japan: • Increasing old-age dependency ratio -- <u>17.2% in 1990 to 35.1% in 2010</u> o Social security costs for medical and nursing care services and pensions will exert great pressure on people → hence increased burden on families, economically active and government • **Population loss**

		and loss of viable community: In 2009, births in Japan were registered at 1,069,000, or 22,000 less than in 2008, and the number of deaths at 1,144,000, or 2,000 more than in 2008. As a result, Japan's population is estimated to have shrunk by 75,000 in 2009, 1.46 times the decrease marked in 2008. ○ This decline in population numbers has been seen since 2009. ○ Translates to shrinking labour force as well as consumer market which can devastate the economy
Social	• Social needs of the elderly people ○ Develop social services catering to needs of the elderly ○ Increasing market for leisure activities for elderly (e.g. cruise tourism, etc) • Uneven social burden as distribution of elderly is not even	• Population loss; shift in status quo • Use of migration to keep status quo • Potential migrants-locals conflict • Encouraging independence among elderly (pro-elderly policies) • Increasing leisure opportunities for elderly • Encouraging young population to increase births (pro-natal policies) E.g. Japan ○ Loss of unique culture and

		community → especially with rural depopulation as more and more people live in the large urban agglomerations. This could result to loss of tradition, culture and agriculture unique to rural Japan. ○ Also translates to continuously low fertility

Likely Failure:

(a) High cost of having children – especially pertaining to cost of education

- Parents today in DCs like Japan want to focus on quality of their children. Hence giving them the best; including education becomes an important priority
- In Japan, both private and public education has become more expensive and there is smaller governmental support for tertiary education as compared to other developed countries.

(b) Marriage and financial stability

- With economic turmoil in the 1990s, many young Japanese have delayed or even avoided marital commitments. This has been made worse with the rising unemployment in the 90s and high unemployment throughout the 1990s and 2000s.

Therefore, to consider resolving the issues with migration policies instead.

(b) To what extent can the Malthusian theory explain mortality rates in both developed and less developed countries? **[16]**

Frame: Explain the Malthusian theory and its reference to mortality. Discuss alternative factors that influence mortality.

Factors affecting mortality:

- Demographic [IMR and CMR: nutrition aspects may be linked to M Theory]
- Natural disasters

- Medical technology
- Public Health measures
- Socio-economic changes [nutrition aspects linked to M Theory]
- Political circumstances [war: linked to M Theory]
- Epidemics and Pandemics

[Turn Over

To what extent can the Malthusian theory explain mortality rates in both developed and less developed countries? **[16]**

	Poor (0-7)	**Developing (8-12)**	**Excellent (13-16)**
Concept	☐ Little elaboration on the Malthusian theory. ☐ Little discussion on factors affecting mortality rates	☐ Good discussion of factors affecting mortality. ☐ Good discussion of Malthusian theory. ☐ Links made between Malthusian theory and mortality factors may be weak.	☐ Accurate and comprehensive discussion of factors affecting mortality including how Malthusian theory may have represented some of these factors
Case Study	☐ No/limited examples/evidence.	☐ Good conceptual discussion on examples of countries/regions which may/may not undergo a Malthusian crisis and experienced an increase in mortality. ☐ Some use of examples for the other factors affecting mortality rates.	☐ Appropriate use of detailed case studies. E.g. Mauritius ☐ Good use of examples for the other factors affecting mortality rates.
Evaluation	☐ Malthusian theory is discussed in an isolated manner from its influence on mortality. ☐ Other factors affecting mortality are not discussed.	☐ Some attempt at evaluation. Good link from the premise of Malthusian Theory and the checks to mortality rates. ☐ Some attempt at evaluation. Good explanation of factors influencing mortality.	☐ Clear essay framework (stand and links) with paragraphs that clearly support an overall stand/argument. ☐ Good discussion on the importance of Malthusian theory in comparison with other factors in explaining mortality.

Urban Issues and Challenges

7 Either (a) Describe the characteristics and explain the causes of inner city decline. **[9]**

3m for characteristics and 6m for causes for inner city decline.

Characteristics of inner city decline (Write any 3)
(a) Depopulation
- Loss of people to rest of the city and country; especially loss of productive and economically active age groups
- This dampens demand for consumer and retail services and the social diversity needed to maintain an attractive residential and retail environment

(b) Inflow of unskilled, low income workers and potentially high unemployment
- Mismatch between the workers and the jobs available
- Loss of manufacturing jobs and the rise of service industries

(c) Old and rundown housing
- Common to find mainly nineteenth century properties in the inner city that were designed and built using traditional designs and older technology. These building lacked modern amenities and facilities
- Improvements are rarely made as there is little financial gain from the tenants here

(d) Brownfield sites
- Recap: Brownfield sites are parts of the CBD or inner city that were previously used (e.g. factories, nineteenth century residential apartments) which are now abandoned and in a state of decline

(e) Conflicts
- Increased in crimes rates
- Perpetuated by gang crimes in inner cities. This has been on the rise as immigrant communities are controlled by the presence of such gangs that protect their ‘turf’.
- High unemployment in inner city areas (where old industries were once located) leads to social problems

(f) Prevalence of diseases
- Overcrowding, poor quality housing and infrastructure leads to the widespread of air- and water-borne diseases

(g) Deterioration of infrastructure
- Buildings, roads, utilities network that are over-used and

abused
- Diminishing level of social infrastructure provision (including services and retail)
- Other problems such as traffic problems: car ownership and commuting means an increase in congestion and pollution

(h) Pollution
- Pollution from industry and congestion

(i) Economic problems
- As cities mature, there will be high rate of unemployment among the blue collar worker due to the shift from secondary to service industry
- Declining tax base, increased cost of social service provision, investors pulled out due to all the inner cities problems
- Lack of investment as older industries have closed they have left empty, derelict building towards the center of the city. Modern industries need more space so tend to locate on the edge of the city. Changes in shopping have also caused problems. City center locations are no longer favoured. There has been a recent growth in out of town shopping centers, which has led to the decline of many CBDs.

(j) Poverty
- The disproportionate concentration of today's society's most economically disadvantaged in the declining mature city leads to an area of poverty (the downward transition zone)

CAUSES:

i. Economic decline

· Since the 1950s there has been a widespread movement of employment away from the large conurbations to smaller urban areas and to rural areas. This fall in employment has been largely taken place in the traditional manufacturing industries formerly based on coal, steam power and railways. These industries had their location in today's inner city areas. Hence with the re-location of industries, the inner cities were most affected.

- o Closure of industries was due to various reasons such as restructuring that moved investments to new cheaper locations in the country (decentralisation of industries, the second wave of decentralisation) and more importantly to low-cost locations in LDCs.
- o Closure of factories was also attributed to new technologies that made the older factories found in the inner cities redundant.

· This decline in manufacturing was accompanied by a growth in employment in service industries. This growth, however, did not compensate for the massive job losses in manufacturing. Furthermore, the skills required for the service industries were not the same as the manufacturing.
· This decline was further deepened as other commercial activities (retail and offices) begun decentralizing. Retailing attracted to its wealthier customers has grouped in suburban shopping centres or massive out-of-town developments. Wholesaling too has moved, for like industry the greater use of road transport has given great advantage to sites where ring roads intersect motorways. Finally, even office uses have been attracted by rural locations with pleasant environments, ample parking space, yet easy accessibility.

· This deindustrialisation in inner cities was accompanied by the expansion of both the manufacturing and service sectors in rural areas and smaller towns and cities. This expansion was made possible by the changing levels of technology and large space required for manufacturing industries.

· Regional planning efforts in UK also led to shifts in investments away from the inner city areas. Regional planning efforts tried to shift investment from what were seen as thriving metropoles to depressed regions. The greatest response came from entrepreneurs with old premises in congested inner city and other parts of the cities. A classic example in the public sector is the moving of the Royal Mint from London's East End to Llantrisant in South Wales. Crucial employment was actually encouraged to leave the inner cities by regional policy.

· All these changes not only deprive the inner city of employment, but also of services. It is a strange anomaly that the small shops remaining in the inner city - 'open all hours' - have to charge higher prices to make a profit from a small turnover while suburban supermarkets with large sales can offer goods at lower prices; the poorest have to pay the higher prices.

ii. Population decline

· As settlements grew due to industrialisation and its consequences, the central areas became less favoured for residence. The inner parts became noisy, polluted and congested, and open space was greatly limited.

· Fashions, too, changed and the demand arose for houses with all the new conveniences technical progress brought, and especially for larger gardens. House buyers were looking for neater, sweeter houses in a greener, cleaner land.

· However, those who could move to purchase and occupy these new homes were those who not only had the wealth to purchase them but also could meet the cost of the journey to work. Those who could not afford to move remained trapped in the deteriorating inner city.

· This has been a particular problem in relation to the elderly. Not only can many not afford to move, or cannot face the disturbance of moving, but after children have grown up and left they are faced with houses which are too large (hence the low occupation rate which can be found) and expensive to maintain. Very often lack of care leads to physical deterioration.

· In addition to private development, there were also government efforts to relocate people out of the inner cities. There was a concerted movement to solve overcrowding in the industrial conurbations as there was increasing demands for housing after the Second World War in UK. A solution offered was the building of New Towns. People were encouraged to move out to these new settlements which, in theory, were to have balanced populations; the mix of people by age and by social class should have approximated to that of Britain as a whole. But the New Towns attracted especially the younger, more skilled elements, leaving behind the unskilled and the elderly.

· Hence, large urban agglomerations began losing their population since the 50s in large numbers. For instance, in UK's largest conurbations lost 35% of their population due to out-migration. This was most evident in these inner city areas (e.g. Liverpool and Manchester had population declines of over 25% in the 70s). These declines were due to suburbanisation and counter-urbanisation.

- Lead to the process of Filtering- This is a process by which housing passes down from higher- to lower-income occupants. As suburbanisation is spearheaded by the more wealthy people, they leave behind houses that become occupied by families that are not as affluent. When these families move, they, in turn, vacate properties for the even less affluent people. Hence the change to 'upgrade' in terms of housing gradually 'filters' down in a wave-like manner from the rich to poor. At the end of the chain, the building is abandoned even by the poorest people. This creates brownfield sites that are ripe for development.
- This process of filtering perpetuates the vicious downward spiral of poverty and deprivation and contributes further to inner city decline.

iii. Poor physical environment

· The physical environment of the inner cities is usually poor with low quality housing, empty and derelict properties, vacant factories and unsightly overgrown waste land. The physical deterioration of inner city environments is characterized by high levels of vandalism, dereliction, graffiti and fly posting.

· These areas also have low levels of public amenities such as parks, open spaces and play areas. Such poor physical environment further promote those able to afford better living standards to move out of the inner city areas.

· Some of this dereliction is due to the continued existence of nineteenth century terraced housing which is some of the earliest and oldest parts of the city. Much of these early developments were constructed at a time when growth was rapid, controls on building quality were limited and standards low. The houses, therefore, are both old and poor in quality and lack modern amenities such as hot water and central heating systems and indoor toilets and bathrooms.

· *Why has there been no improvement or replacement?*
After all, the city centre/ CBD has been largely rebuilt in recent times. Certainly one response is that there indeed has been a good deal of rebuilding in these inner areas too, for they constituted the worst parts and were often the first to be

dealt with.

· E.g. of such efforts- *Slum clearance* in Britain goes as far back as 1875 and the Artisans' and Labourers' Dwellings Improvement Act (the Cross Act).

· But, in the UK, in the rush to solve the critical housing shortage that rose as a result of the Second World War, there been no building but rather actual physical destruction. The new products turned out to be little better than those being replaced. *Comprehensive redevelopment* cleared everything away regardless of the quality or function of any individual buildings. In replacement the high-rise tower blocks of the 1960s were constructed. The motive (i.e. to retain relatively high densities to prevent sprawl) was admirable but the execution poor. The blocks were built quickly and with few of the facilities which such structures need to make life in them tolerable, let alone attractive. The result has been that they themselves have become part of the inner city problem.

· Comprehensive redevelopment had other unfortunate consequences. It took out all those local services, small shops and public houses for example, which were the basis of community life. Above all it removed many small scale industries occupying cheap if somewhat old and inferior premises. Such industries were either forced out of business or to relocate and the newer, more attractive sites were at the periphery. One consequence of clearance was a loss of jobs and the extension of unemployment, especially amongst families who for whatever reason could not move elsewhere.

iv. Conflicting interests for private developers

· A political interpretation has also been put forth in explaining inner city decline. Inner city decline has been seen as the direct consequence of the exploitative nature of capitalist society. Capital will always be invested where it can find the best return.

· For private developers, all sorts of problems arise in trying to regenerate the inner city, e.g. assembling land owned by large numbers of people for development, relocating current residents, cleaning up pollution left behind by the old industries, etc.

· Furthermore, the evacuation of these inner cite areas by so many users - especially industry and commerce – also means that the tax base falls. More simply, in British terms, the income which the local authority can derive from these

large scale enterprises is quite catastrophically cut. This in turn hinders the government in embarking on its own upgrading projects for the inner city areas.

· It is far easier to make profits from the exploitation of new land; i.e. *greenfield sites,* at the city edge. Hence developers and builders avoid the inner city for house building and campaign for the release of land in the green belts which have been established around large cities.

(b) Fig. 5 depicts the living conditions of a slum in São Paulo, Brazil.

Discuss the view that the problem of substandard housing is difficult to resolve in LDC cities. **[16]**

Frame: Likely that substandard housing issues are difficult to resolve in LDCs due to the lack of funding as well as the high rate of R-U migration which is likely to exceed the rate at which infrastructural projects can cater to new migrants.

Homelessness…condition of lacking a permanent residence or lacking any residence at all

Substandard Housing…includes any form of housing not built according to local building or housing code (e.g. slums, favelas)

Possible solutions to homelessness (apply from LA case study to LDCs):

- Most successful strategy could be to set up a local authority which is independent unit of local govt formed to address the problems of homelessness. E.g. Los Angeles Homeless Services Authority (LAHSA) – LAHSA advocates for the needs of homeless people, plans for and funds homeless services through contracted providers, and ensures effective use of public resources through program and monitoring of funded programs.
- Mayor's office: In Apr 2007, spend $137m from the city's affordable-housing trust fund to build housing for locals with the greatest needs. This is aimed to build nearly 1,500 units of housing for low-income and homeless people. In addition to covering construction costs, there will also be subsidized rent and rehabilitation services.
    - Eval: Unable to cater to all the homeless, does not address root issues of homelessness (i.e. lack of sustained income), other issues not addressed (e.g. substance abuse, mental illness)
    - Eval: Sustained effort by govt to increase funding and may therefore be unsustainable in an LDC

Strategies by the Govt (slums and/or squatters):

Eviction of squatters

- Until the 60s the common policy towards the invasion of land and the construction of self-help housing was to force the people off the land and clear it with bulldozers. The shortage of land was to be met by conventional housing schemes; the extent of these was dependent on the availability of finance and the political ideology of the particular govt.
- The reason behind such actions was to deter migration away from the cities and hence slow down the urbanisation process with which the govt was unable to cope with. The

self-help housing was also considered unsuitable and unhealthy as the newly formed govts considered this self-help housing as an eyesore and deterring investments.

- E.g. include the bulldozing of the crossroads Settlement outside Cape Town in South Africa in the 1970s during the apartheid, and the removal of street children in Rio de Janeiro prior to the 1992 Earth Summit.
- Evaluation: Instant/short-term solution. However, squatters often resettle near the initial area and are in fact worse off given that they are likely to have lost possessions during the eviction. HOWEVER, deterrence can be an important strategy in reducing the rate of R-U migration to reduce the formation of squatters.

Land sharing

- In Bangkok, land sharing has been developed as an alternative to forcible eviction. This involves a negotiated agreement to partition the land into two parts, one for use by the landowner and the other for use by the present occupants of the site.
- From squatters' perspectives, land sharing is preferred alternative once it becomes clear that the continued occupation of the site is impossible. From landowners' perspectives reduces the uncertainty in development schedules and avoids legal cost of prosecution of squatters. From government point of view, land sharing offers a source of land for the urban poor without public finance.
- E.g. The Klong Toey land-sharing project in Bangkok
- Evaluation: A win-win solution for squatters, landowners and the govt. However, the private developers are usually less willing to share the land with squatters especially due to the legal fees which will still be incurred and may not welcome the idea of sharing the land with the squatters for years to come.

The New Towns (provision of large scale public housing)

- DC cities took this option
- Most LDCs embarked on large public housing programmes in the decades after the WWII
  - Primary function of LDC new towns → Act as a catalyst for regional development, most evident in the construction of new capital cities, such as Brasilia. Other traditional function of British new towns, decongestion of crowded urban areas, has received less emphasis.
  - Evaluation
    - Successful e.g. → Singapore where the provision of cheap and affordable public housing led to relocation of squatters in city centre into these high-rise buildings located within self-sufficient housing estates. Success due to:

- Effective govt planning. Housing estates were first built within close proximity to work place (city centre). Eventually as estates moved further away as cheap tpt access was developed.
- Ownership of flats with the use of Central Provident Funds (CPF) → enabling a sense of belonging
- Amenities and facilities were built up to ensure self-sufficiency of these estates.

○ Failure → If these New Towns have been located too close to major city to act as counter-magnets for either migrants or existing urban populations. Thus reduced the new towns to dormitory suburbs for middle-class residents.

- E.g. Malaysia→ new town of Petaling Jaya, 10km south-west of KL, was designed to be a satellite city of 70,000 linked to the redevt of squatter areas in the central city. However, growing demand for middle- and upper- income housing fuelled speculative devts in the new town. Petaling Jaya is now an overwhelmingly middle-class suburb from which white-collar residents commute to office jobs in the city, passing en route blue-collar workers from Kuala Lumpur travelling to take up industrial jobs in the 'new town'.

Self help housing programmes

- Whether an area receives financial help and govt support depended on a variety of factors; such as the political influence of the committees within the self-help area, the position and age of the self-help area, etc.
- Central to self-help programme → Ensuring <u>households have secure ownership or tenure of plot of land they occupy</u>. Without this → no incentive to improve and upgrade their units
- However problems include; poor administration of programmes, wastage of money and general lack of enthusiasm amongst local authorities for such programmes.

a. Upgrading → resolves substandard housing (LDCs)

- Involves improvement of dwellings but more usually refers to the insertion of basic infrastructure into a neighbourhood.
- Principal objectives: Upgrading in situ → reduce both the costs of housing improvement and the disruption caused by clearance to a peripheral resettlement scheme.
- In practice, benefits vary according to the way govt promotes the scheme and the extent to which goals other than the welfare of squatters enter the equation.
- Upgrading existing settlements: three steps

1.Firstly, authorities provide basic services which are absent, e.g. water, sanitation, an electric supply, schools and clinics. Some

improvement in layout of the area to enable provision of sves.
2. Secondly, house owners are then given security of tenure of their plots either by purchasing or leasing it.
3. Finally, credit and advice made available to help them improve and extend the dwelling unit.

Case study: Kampung Improvement Programme (KIP)

- *Kampungs*: informal, unplanned and, until recently, un-serviced housing area→ found in most Indonesian cities
- The **Kampung Improvement Programme (KIP)**, begun in Jakarta in 1969, is widely acknowledged to have been successful in its own terms of making simple marginal improvements in the living standards of many residents.
- This govt-assisted, self-help community planning programme provides three levels of upgrading infrastructure: paved access roads, bridges and footpaths; water supply, sanitation and drainage canals; schools and health clinics.

- Evaluate (Success)
  - Continued finance from World Bank
  - These community-based KIP Units are well supported by both the communities and the Housing Agency and therefore they have been able to set up *kampung* services and generate economic activities.
  - Small-scale enterprises are growing, and parts of the sanitation component, such as public toilets, were built with help from the community.
  - The programme triggered increased private investment in home improvement within upgraded areas, leading to increased property values.
  - The program recognizes that road and footpath improvement increases the socio-ec mobility of the *kampung* inhabitants. Subsequently, 88% of the funds go toward the physical development of the *kampungs*.
- Evaluate (Failure)
  - To achieve its goals in as short a time as possible, in 1974 control of the KIP was placed in the hands of a separate project management unit. However, this provoked criticism of a lack of popular participation in upgrading programme.
  - Some observers linked this to subsequent problems of maintaining the improved infrastructure, but in general the KIP has enjoyed wide community support. Since 1989 greater efforts have been made to involve community participation and self-help in *kampung* development, not least in order to increase the effectiveness of public investments

b. Site-and-services schemes → resolves substandard

housing (LDCs)

- When new land is involved, a 'site and service' approach is adopted. The land is given or purchased by the authorities. The land is prepared and a service infrastructure provided. As such, the plots are supplied with basic services and sewerage. The land is then divided into plots and sold or allocated to families with a secure lease ensured.
- The new residents either build a house themselves or contract the work out. Govt subsidies may extend to building materials and or cash loans. As incomes are improved, so families can gradually improve their housing.

- From a **resident's point of view** the main attraction of site and services housing is the security of tenure it affords, together with adequate infrastructure and freedom to build at one's own pace, once the requirement to construct a basic core house has been met. *On the other hand*, the peripheral location of most site and services schemes often results in their being some distance from major sources of employment, which can strain the ability of the household to make regular repayments. In some instances middle-income families may pressure low-income households to sell their tenure rights or their lease, even though these are not intended to be circulated commercially. In addition to this, there is also illegal subletting of the allocated house.

- Evaluate (Success)
  - The most successful aided self-help projects have been those in which govts have exercised control over the urban land market as in Tunisia, Botswana and Pakistan.

  - Public authorities in the Third World may also learn lessons from the devt strategy of the illegal sub-dividers, which is successful because it is compatible with the actual socio-economic conditions of the poor. In addition to ensuring an adequate supply of land for low-income housing and supporting the extension of credit to borrowers with less conventional forms of collateral, govts might usefully consider the benefits of limited bureaucracy and the application of more 'flexible' planning arrangements, including' less restrictive devt control procedures, that will facilitate shelter construction by small-scale developers at lower standards (while ensuring structural safety and public health) over an extended period.

- Evaluate (Failure)
  - Critics of aided self-help schemes have pointed to operational difficulties associated with poor administration, lack of enthusiasm by local authorities,

unwillingness to lower building standards, and an inability to prevent a middle-class takeover of improved dwellings. More fundamental criticism has been directed at the concept itself, which the political Left views as an excuse for non-action by govts on fundamental social issues of progressive taxation and land reform. From this perspective, self-help projects serve to maintain an unequal status quo. Further, encouraging low- income communities to address their problems through self-help while high-income areas expect govt to provide services and facilities at a high standard is regarded as discriminatory and exploitative.

- A more general criticism is that site and services schemes alone are insufficient to help the mass of the urban poor. In the absence of large-scale job creation programmes, too few people will be able to participate in even the cheapest of self- help schemes. To reach the bulk of the low-income population, aided self-help schemes would need to be accompanied by structural reform of the urban land market, taxation system and planning policies, which currently operate in favour of a minority of the population in Third World cities.

Fig. 5 depicts the living conditions of a slum in São Paulo, Brazil. Discuss the view that the problem of substandard housing is difficult to resolve in LDC cities. [16]

	Poor (0-7)	Developing (8-12)	Excellent (13-16)
Concept	☐ Little elaboration on the problem of substandard housing. ☐ Little discussion on factors that have led to the difficulty of resolving issues of substandard housing. ☐ Insufficient strategies discussed.	☐ Max L2 if homelessness has not been mentioned. ☐ Accurate and comprehensive discussion of strategies which can resolve the problem of substandard housing	☐ Accurate and comprehensive discussion of factors that can increase the effectiveness of solutions to resolve the problem of substandard housing ☐ Good discussion of factors that limit the effectiveness of solutions to resolve the problem of substandard housing
Case Study	☐ No/limited examples/evidence.	☐ Good use of case studies for the discussion of each strategy.	☐ Relevant links made between case study details on evaluation of success/failure factors.
Evaluation	☐ No evaluation.	☐ Some attempt at evaluation but mostly generic evaluation points.	☐ Clear essay framework (stand and links) with paragraphs that clearly support an overall stand/argument. ☐ Good evaluation of factors that have increased or limited the effectiveness of solutions.

Or **(a)** Explain the factors leading to the growth of megacities. **[9]**

A mega city

- Defined as large urban agglomeration of at least 10 million inhabitants.
- E.g. Mexico City, Sao Paulo, Jakarta and Bangkok
- In 1950, there were only two cities that reached this status; New York and London.
  Now by 2000, there were 27. Of which 22 were found in poorer LDCs. This reflects the rapid urbanisation experienced by LDCs in the late twentieth century.
- E.g. India's largest city; Mumbai had a population of 18m in 2000 and had an average annual population growth rate of 3.4% (a first in human history). This resulted in gigantic urban problems. Most people live in poor quality housing, often sited illegally and poorly serviced with only basic infrastructure or even lack of it.
- Some mega-cities extend beyond the boundaries of a single city and are now referred to as metropolitan areas. E.g. the largest mega-city of Tokyo (i.e. Tokyo metropolis) is made of 23 municipalities and several cities.

a. Reasons for global growth of mega-cities

- **Urban bias** led to more attention and (national and global) investments being channeled into selected cities. This hence encourages the growth of these cities at the expense of other regions (and even cities) in the country.
- **Increased rate of urbanisation and urban population growth**
  - Due to increased rate of in-migration→
    - Rapid industrialization creating employment opportunities; e.g. Seoul, Sao Paulo. While others attract inward investment from wealthier DCs and TNCs; e.g. Bangkok
    - Many rural migrants flock to these cities hoping for better life and LDC megacities rarely meet up to these expectations.
  - As well as relatively high rates of natural increase →
    - In-migration attracts a large number of economically active who are also in their reproductive age groups
    - Elaborate on another fertility/mortality factor

- For DCs, the above two reasons may have led to the growth of megacities in the past. However, recent growth of megacities in DCs is due to **urban sprawl** that has been fast engulfing nearby cities and towns into existing metropolis. Cities grow out of their boundaries and merge with each other; forming large conurbations defined as megacities.

(b) Discuss the view that transport problems are complex and difficult to resolve. **[16]**

Frame:

- Common urban transport problems include – Traffic congestion, overcrowded public transport systems, pollution (explain briefly).
- Discuss why the problems are **complex** e.g. due to a variety of factors (DCs vs LDCs and why the factors are difficult to minimise)
- Stand: Tpt problems are easier to resolve if urban govts take a more comprehensive approach to tackling them. Their approach should consider strategies that are able to encourage public tpt; discourage pte vehicles and to more effectively use existing or new roads.
- Using the examples of Bangkok (a LDC city) and Singapore (a DC city), we have see the strategies put in place to resolve tpt problems and evaluate the success of these strategies.

Developing and encouraging public tpt → Why was S'pore more successful than Bangkok?

- Appeal of public tpt → Tpt problems like congestion can be resolved if more people are encouraged and willing to take public tpt instead of private vehicles. This appeal is created by (i) Comfort of travel → made possible due to funds available and higher fares in Singapore which aims to cover the costs incurred; investing into higher tpt technology

Singapore	Bangkok
air-conditioned buses and trains, decent quality of seats	Poor and declining quality of buses
Cashless transactions – EZ link card Possible to travel between different modes of public tpt easily	

- (ii) the affordability for public tpt – an issue for both cities;

Singapore	Bangkok
While most trains and buses do run on full capacity, the fares have been increasing gradually. This has come under intense scrutiny in recent times.	While buses were still within the reach of, the fares for the Skytrain and Metro system were out of reach for most of the urban residents. This led to trains running under capacity. The urban authority had to step in to reduce the

	fares.

- And (iii) the over-crowdedness of public tpt

Singapore	Bangkok
This is increasingly a big issue in Singapore, where peak hour overcrowding has made public tpt unpopular amongst commuters.	.

- Tpt problems are also resolved when there is extensive connectivity of the public tpt.

Singapore	Bangkok
Tpt connections reach out to the suburbs like Punggol in extreme East. This is made possible due to the smaller scale of the city as well as long-term coordinated growth of public tpt routes. E.g. MRT extensions taking place gradually.	Poor coverage to the suburbs → larger urban areas in LDC cities like Bangkok has haphazard growth patterns. This makes it difficult to reach out to suburban locations where most of the urban poor are concentrated in
Inter-suburban travel made possible with more comprehensive tpt routes (e.g. Circle line, Downtown lines)	

Discouraging pte tpt → What made S'pore and Zurich successful?

- Singapore and Zurich were able to better control the number of pte vehicles on the roads due to two main reasons. First was the use of advanced tpt technology and second was the decisive stand by the govt to curb no. of pte vehicles on the roads.

Singapore and Zurich
Use of advanced tpt technology – controlled and automated traffic lights, surveillance using traffic light cameras, Singapore's ERP gantry and cashless payment, Zurich's single ticketing system
Decisive govt stand – Singapore's use of COE and ERP, Zurich's official stand in making the city more pedestrian-friendly

Effective road mgt → What made S'pore / Zurich more successful than Bangkok?

- The key differences between the two cities' success rate were: first, the use of advanced tpt technology to ensure surveillance and second, level of govt corruption

Singapore	Bangkok
Use of advanced tpt technology – Singapore: controlled and automated traffic lights, surveillance using traffic light cameras. People are aware of most traffic rules and the hefty price to pay for any violation. This allows for a higher rate of abidance.	In Bangkok, a great deal of capital was invested into the automated traffic light system. The automatic system has reduced waiting time at many lights from 10 min or 2-3 min, thus spreading traffic out along Bangkok's limited road space. However, even with automated systems, people may still not abide by rules and regulation. Also, difficult to track their movements of informal transport providers; e.g. tuk-tuks and motorcycle taxis. Govt corruption makes surveillance difficult.

Discuss the view that transport problems are complex and difficult to resolve. [16]

	Poor (0-7)	Developing (8-12)	Excellent (13-16)
Concept	☐ Limited discussion on either complexity of transport problems or the difficulty of resolving them.	☐ Some attempt at identifying urban transport problems. Max 10m if students are vague in scoping. ☐ Accurate classification of strategies into promoting public tpt, discouraging private tpt and more efficient use of roads.	☐ Clear essay framework ☐ Background to urban transport problems provided. ☐ Strategies are well-classified into promoting public tpt, discouraging private tpt and more efficient use of roads.
Case Study	☐ Lacking in case study details This is largely a hypothetical essay.	☐ Case studies details are adequate. However, case studies may not be linked to specific urban problems are may only be linked to traffic congestion even if other problems were mentioned in the introduction.	☐ Appropriate use of detailed case studies. ☐ Details of case studies are applied to various urban transportation problems.
Evaluation	☐ No or little evaluation. Essay simply describes the solutions to urban transport problems applied to various cities.	☐ Strategies are classified and evaluated. ☐ Some attempts at evaluation may be made but evaluation is inconsistent/does not directly address the question or may be incoherent. ☐ Evaluation may also be applied only to traffic congestion.	☐ Clear essay framework (stand and links) ☐ Evaluation of the complementary nature of strategies or the relative importance of strategies. ☐ Top students in this band (15-16m) will also be able to discuss the ability of countries to implement certain strategies.

[End