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Table Graphs

The tables below give information about sales of Fairtrade*-labelled coffee and bananas in 1999 and 2004 in five European countries.

Sales of Fairtrade-labelled coffee and bananas (1999 & 2004)

Coffee	1999 (millions of euros)	2004 (millions of euros)
UK	1.5	20
Switzerland	3	6
Denmark	1.8	2
Belgium	1	1.7
Sweden	0.8	1

Bananas	1999 (millions of euros)	2004 (millions of euros)
UK	15	47
Switzerland	1	5.5
Denmark	0.6	4
Belgium	1.8	1
Sweden	2	0.9

The tables show the amount of money spent on Fairtrade coffee and bananas in two separate years in the UK, Switzerland, Denmark, Belgium and Sweden.

It is clear that sales of Fairtrade coffee rose in all five European countries from 1999 to 2004, but sales of Fairtrade bananas only went up in three out of the five countries. Overall, the UK saw by far the highest levels of spending on the two products.

In 1999, Switzerland had the highest sales of Fairtrade coffee, at $\leqslant 3$ million, while revenue from Fairtrade bananas was highest in the UK, at $\leqslant 15$ million. By 2004, however, sales of Fairtrade coffee in the UK had risen to $\leqslant 20$ million, and this was over three times higher than Switzerland's sales figure for Fairtrade coffee in that year. The year 2004 also saw dramatic increases in the money spent on Fairtrade bananas in the UK and Switzerland, with revenues rising by $\leqslant 32$ million and $\leqslant 4.5$ million respectively.

Sales of the two Fairtrade products were far lower in Denmark, Belgium and Sweden. Small increases in sales of Fairtrade coffee can be seen, but revenue remained at €2 million or below in all three countries in both years. Finally, it is noticeable that the money spent on Fairtrade bananas actually fell in Belgium and Sweden.

(216 Words, Band 9)

The table below shows changes in the numbers of residents cycling to work in different areas of the UK between 2001 and 2011.

Area	2001	2011	Percentage Change (%)
Inner London	43,494	106,219	144
Brighton and Hove	3,168	6,635	109
Bristol, City of	8,108	15,768	94
Manchester	4,610	8,426	83
Newcastle upon Tyne	1,781	3,223	81
Sheffield	2,365	4,267	80
Cardiff	3,514	5,791	65
Gateshead	816	1,314	61
Exeter	2,304	3,542	54
Leeds	4,189	6,237	49
Liverpool	2,686	3,970	48
Outer London	33,836	49,070	45

The table compares the numbers of people who cycled to work in twelve areas of the UK in the years 2001 and 2011.

Overall, the number of UK commuters who travelled to work by bicycle rose considerably over the 10-year period. Inner London had by far the highest number of cycling commuters in both years.

In 2001, well over 43 thousand residents of inner London commuted by bicycle, and this figure rose to more than 106 thousand in 2011, an increase of 144%. By contrast, although outer London had the second highest number of cycling commuters in each year, the percentage change, at only 45%, was the lowest of the twelve areas shown in the table.

Brighton and Hove saw the second biggest increase (109%) in the number of residents cycling to work, but Bristol was the UK's second city in terms of total numbers of cycling commuters, with 8,108 in 2001 and 15,768 in 2011. Figures for the other eight areas were below the 10 thousand mark in both years.

(172 words, band 9)

Percentages of mobile phone owners using various mobile phone features

	2006	2008	2010
Make calls	100	100	99
Take photos	66	71	76
Send & receive text messages	73	75	79
Play games	17	42	41
Search the Internet	no data	41	73
Play music	12	18	26
Record video	no data	9	35

The table compares the percentages of people using different functions of their mobile phones between 2006 and 2010.

Throughout the period shown, the main reason why people used their mobile phones was to make calls. However, there was a marked increase in the popularity of other mobile phone features, particularly the Internet search feature.

In 2006, 100% of mobile phone owners used their phones to make calls, while the next most popular functions were text messaging (73%) and taking photos (66%). By contrast, less than 20% of owners played games or music on their phones, and there were no figures for users doing Internet searches or recording video.

Over the following 4 years, there was relatively little change in the figures for the top three mobile phone features. However, the percentage of people using their phones to access the Internet jumped to 41% in 2008 and then to 73% in 2010. There was also a significant rise in the use of mobiles to play games and to record video, with figures reaching 41% and 35% respectively in 2010.

(178 Words, Band 9)

The table below gives information on consumer spending on different items in five different countries in 2002.

Percentage of national consumer expenditure by category - 2002

Country	Food/Drinks/ Tobacco	Clothing/ Footwear	Leisure/ Education
Ireland	28.91%	6.43%	2.21%
Italy	16.36%	9.00%	3.20%
Spain	18.80%	6.51%	1.98%
Sweden	15.77%	5.40%	3.22%
Turkey	32.14%	6.63%	4.35%

The table shows percentages of consumer expenditure for three categories of products and services in five countries in 2002.

It is clear that the largest proportion of consumer spending in each country went on food, drinks and tobacco. On the other hand, the leisure/education category has the lowest percentages in the table.

Out of the five countries, consumer spending on food, drinks and tobacco was noticeably higher in Turkey, at 32.14%, and Ireland, at nearly 29%. The proportion of spending on leisure and education was also highest in Turkey, at 4.35%, while expenditure on clothing and footwear was significantly higher in Italy, at 9%, than in any of the other countries.

It can be seen that Sweden had the lowest percentages of national consumer expenditure for food/drinks/tobacco and for clothing/footwear, at nearly 16% and just over 5% respectively. Spain had slightly higher figures for these categories, but the lowest figure for leisure/education, at only 1.98%.

(155 Word, Band 9)

The table below shows the proportion of different categories of families living in poverty in Australia in 1999.

Family type	Proportion of people from each household type living in poverty		
single aged person	6%	(54,000)	
aged couple	4%	(48,000)	
single, no children	19%	(359,000)	
couple, no children	7%	(211,000)	
sole parent	21%	(232,000)	
couple with children	12%	(933,000)	
all households	11%	(1,837,000)	

The table gives information about poverty rates among six types of household in Australia in the year 1999.

It is noticeable that levels of poverty were higher for single people than for couples, and people with children were more likely to be poor than those without. Poverty rates were considerably lower among elderly people.

Overall, 11% of Australians, or 1,837,000 people, were living in poverty in 1999. Aged people were the least likely to be poor, with poverty levels of 6% and 4% for single aged people and aged couples respectively.

Just over one fifth of single parents were living in poverty, whereas only 12% of parents living with a partner were classed as poor. The same pattern can be seen for people with no children: while 19% of single people in this group were living below the poverty line, the figure for couples was much lower, at only 7%.

(150 words, band 9)



The table below gives information about the underground railway systems in six cities.

City	Date opened	Kilometres of route	Passengers per year (in millions)
London	1863	394	775
Paris	1900	199	1191
Tokyo	1927	155	1927
Washington DC	1976	126	144
Kyoto	1981	11	45
Los Angeles	2001	28	50

The table shows data about the underground rail networks in six major cities.

The table compares the six networks in terms of their age, size and the number of people who use them each year. It is clear that the three oldest underground systems are larger and serve significantly more passengers than the newer systems.

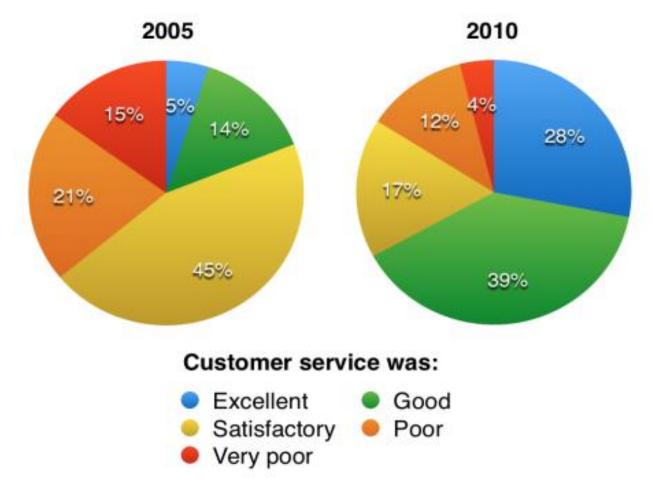
The London underground is the oldest system, having opened in 1863. It is also the largest system, with 394 kilometers of route. The second largest system, in Paris, is only about half the size of the London underground, with 199 kilometers of route. However, it serves more people per year. While only third in terms of size, the Tokyo system is easily the most used, with 1927 million passengers per year.

Of the three newer networks, the Washington DC underground is the most extensive, with 126 kilometers of route, compared to only 11 kilometers and 28 kilometers for the Kyoto and Los Angeles systems. The Los Angeles network is the newest, having opened in 2001, while the Kyoto network is the smallest and serves only 45 million passengers per year.

(185 words, Band 9)

Pie Charts

The charts below show the results of a questionnaire that asked visitors to the Parkway Hotel how they rated the hotel's customer service. The same questionnaire was given to 100 guests in the years 2005 and 2010.



The pie charts compare visitors' responses to a survey about customer service at the Parkway Hotel in 2005 and in 2010.

It is clear that overall customer satisfaction increased considerably from 2005 to 2010. While most hotel guests rated customer service as satisfactory or poor in 2005, a clear majority described the hotel's service as good or excellent in 2010.

Looking at the positive responses first, in 2005 only 5% of the hotel's visitors rated its customer service as excellent, but this figure rose to 28% in 2010. Furthermore, while only 14% of guests described customer service in the hotel as good in 2005, almost three times as many people gave this rating five years later.

With regard to negative feedback, the proportion of guests who considered the hotel's customer service to be poor fell from 21% in 2005 to only 12% in 2010. Similarly, the proportion of people who thought customer service was very poor dropped from 15% to only 4% over the 5-year period. Finally, a fall in the number of 'satisfactory' ratings in 2010 reflects the fact that more people gave positive responses to the survey in that year.

(193 words, band 9)

The pie charts below compare water usage in San Diego, California and the rest of the world.



The pie charts give information about the water used for residential, industrial and agricultural purposes in San Diego County, California, and the world as a whole.

It is noticeable that more water is consumed by homes than by industry or agriculture in the two American regions. By contrast, agriculture accounts for the vast majority of water used worldwide.

In San Diego County and California State, residential water consumption accounts for 60% and 39% of total water usage. By contrast, a mere 8% of the water used globally goes to homes. The opposite trend can be seen when we look at water consumption for agriculture. This accounts for a massive 69% of global water use, but only 17% and 28% of water usage in San Diego and California respectively.

Such dramatic differences are not seen when we compare the figures for industrial water use. The same proportion of water (23%) is used by industry in San Diego and worldwide, while the figure for California is 10% higher, at 33%.

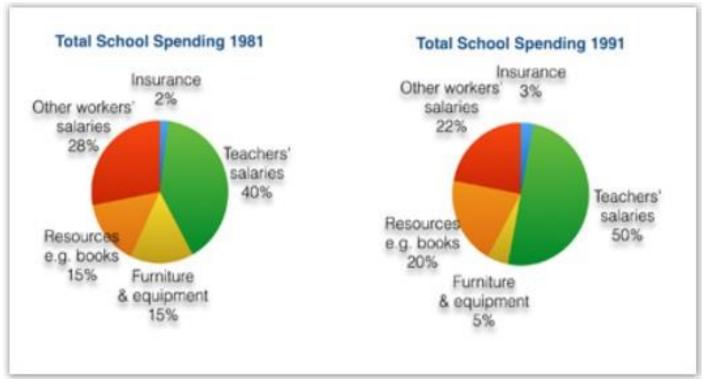


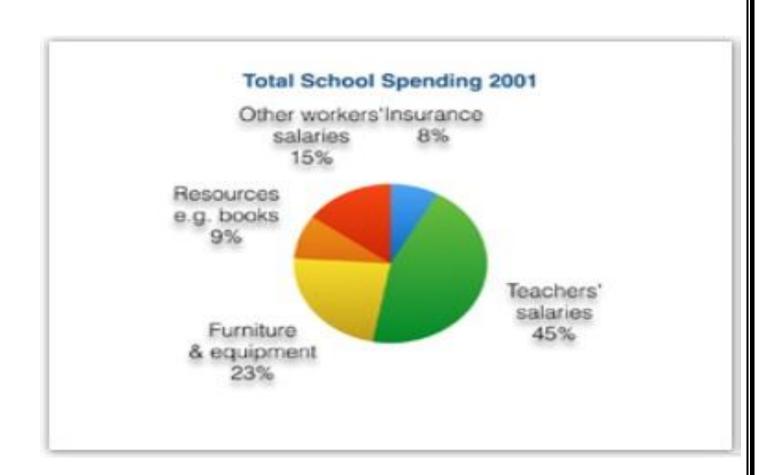


The three pie charts below show the changes in annual spending by a particular UK school in 1981, 1991 and 2001.

Summarize the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant.

» You should write at least 150 words.





The pie charts compare the expenditure of a school in the UK in three different years over a 20-year period.

It is clear that teachers' salaries made up the largest proportion of the school's spending in all three years (1981, 1991 and 2001). By contrast, insurance was the smallest cost in each year.

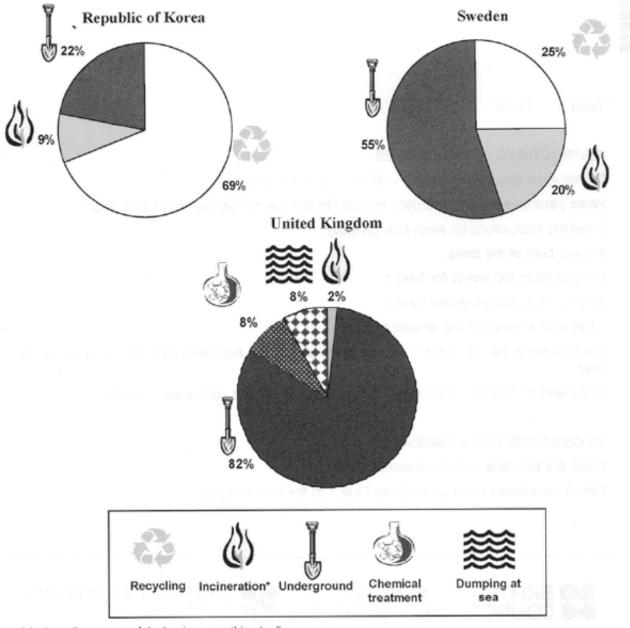
In 1981, 40% of the school's budget went on teachers' salaries. This figure rose to 50% in 1991, but fell again by 5% in 2001. The proportion of spending on other workers' wages fell steadily over the 20-year period, from 28% of the budget in 1981 to only 15% in 2001.

Expenditure on insurance stood at only 2% of the total in 1981, but reached 8% in 2001. Finally, the percentages for resources and furniture/equipment fluctuated. The figure for resources was highest in 1991, at 20%, and the proportion of spending on furniture and equipment reached its peak in 2001, at 23%.

(158 words, band 9)



The pie charts below show how dangerous waste products are dealt with in three countries.



^{*} Incineration: a way of destroying something by fire

The charts compare Korea, Sweden and the UK in terms of the methods used in each country to dispose of harmful waste.

It is clear that in both the UK and Sweden, the majority of dangerous waste products are buried underground. By contrast, most hazardous materials in the Republic of Korea are recycled.

Looking at the information in more detail, we can see that 82% of the UK's dangerous waste is put into landfill sites. This disposal technique is used for 55% of the harmful waste in Sweden and only 22% of similar waste in Korea. The latter country recycles 69% of hazardous materials, which is far more than the other two nations.

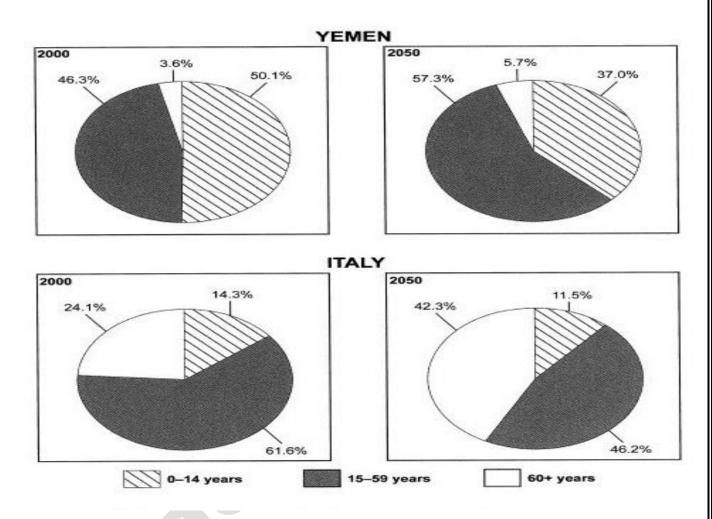
While 25% of Sweden's dangerous waste is recycled, the UK does not recycle at all. Instead, it dumps waste at sea or treats it chemically. These two methods are not employed in Korea or Sweden, which favour incineration for 9% and 20% of dangerous waste respectively.

(159 words, band 9)

The charts below give Information on the ages of the populations of Yemen and Italy In 2000 and projections for 2050.

Summarize the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant.

You should write at least 150 words.



The pie charts compare the proportions of people falling into three distinct age groups in Yemen and Italy in two different years.

It is clear that Italy had the older population in the year 2000, and that the same is predicted for the year 2050. The populations of both countries are expected to age over the fifty-year period.

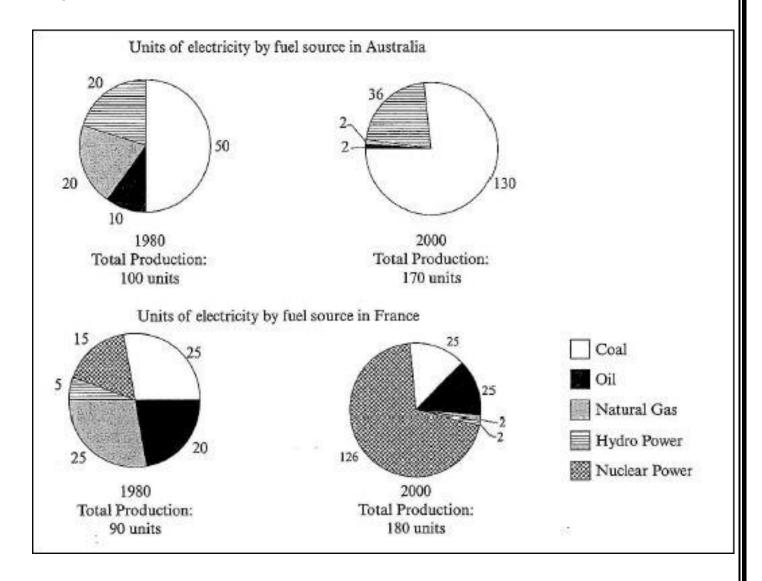
In the year 2000, just over half of the population of Yemen was aged 14 or under, while most Italians (61.6%) fell into the 15 to 59 age group, and only 14.3% were children under 15 years of age. People aged 60 or over accounted for almost a quarter of the Italian population, but only 3.6% of the inhabitants of Yemen.

By 2050, the proportion of children under 15 is predicted to drop in both countries, most noticeably in Yemen where the figure is expected to fall by 13.1%. On the other hand, the figures for elderly people are expected to rise, by 2.1% in Yemen and a massive 18.2% in Italy. Finally, it is anticipated that the 15 to 59 age group will grow by around 10% in Yemen, but shrink by around 15% in Italy.

(195 words, Band 9)

The pie charts show the amount of electricity produced from different sources in two countries in 1980 and 2000.

Summarise the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant.



The pie charts compare the amount of electricity produced using five different sources of fuel in two countries over two separate years.

Total electricity production increased dramatically from 1980 to 2000 in both Australia and France. While the totals for both countries were similar, there were big differences in the fuel sources used.

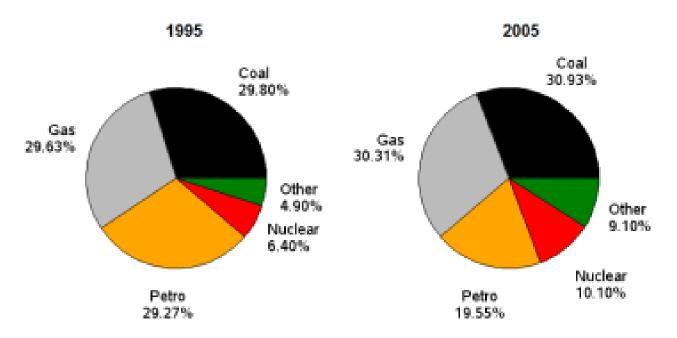
Coal was used to produce 50 of the total 100 units of electricity in Australia in 1980, rising to 130 out of 170 units in 2000. By contrast, nuclear power became the most important fuel source in France in 2000, producing almost 75% of the country's electricity.

Australia depended on hydro power for just under 25% of its electricity in both years, but the amount of electricity produced using this type of power fell from 5 to only 2 units in France. Oil, on the other hand, remained a relatively important fuel source in France, but its use declined in Australia. Both countries relied on natural gas for electricity production significantly more in 1980 than in 2000.

(170 words, Band 9)

The pie charts below show the comparison of different kinds of energy production of France in two years.

Comparison of Energy Production



The two pie charts illustrate five types of energy production in France in 1995 and 2005.

Overall, in both years, the most significant sources of energy were gas and coal, which together accounted for over half the production of energy, while nuclear and other kinds of energy sources generated the least amount of energy in France. In all types of energy production there was only minimal change over the 10 year period.

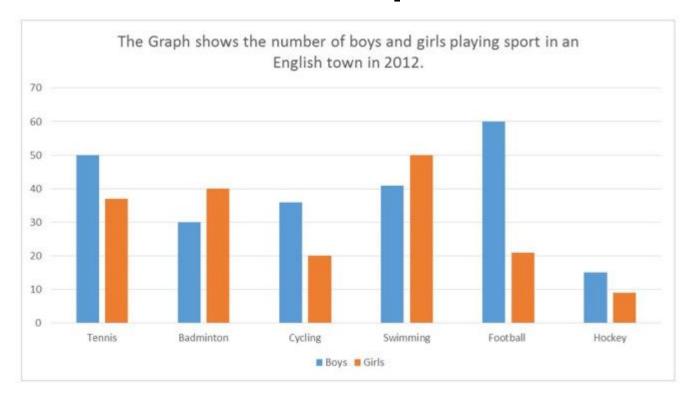
Energy produced by coal comprised of 29.80% in the first year and this showed only a very slight increase of about a mere 1 % to 30.9% in 2005. Likewise, in 1995, gas generated 29.63% which rose marginally to 30.1% 10 years later.

With regards to the remaining methods of producing energy, there was an approximate 5% growth in production from both nuclear power and other sources to 10.10% and 9.10% respectively. Petrol, on the other hand, was the only source of energy which decreased in production from 29.27% in 1995 to around a fifth (19.55%) in 2005.

(LIZ- 170 Words, Band 9)



Bar Graphs



The bar chart illustrates how many children, divided by gender, played six kinds of sports (tennis, badminton, cycling, swimming, football and hockey) in a town in England in 2012.

Overall, the number of boys playing sport exceeded that of girls in the given period and the sport with the most significant difference between the genders was football. Football was also the most popular sport for boys while the majority of girls preferred swimming. Furthermore, both males and females least preferred playing hockey.

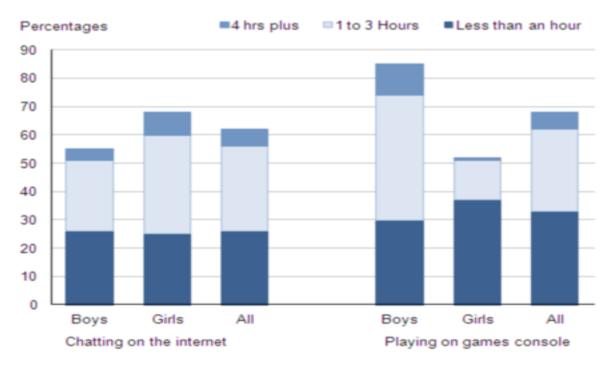
There were four sports in which boys participated more than girls. While 60 boys played football, the number of girls playing that sport was considerably lower (around 20). With regards to tennis, the figure for boys who played that sport was 50 as opposed to just under 40 for girls. Similarly, more boys cycled than girls (approximately 35and 20 respectively). The difference, in terms of hockey, was minimal with only about 5 more boys playing that sport than girls.

On the other hand, more girls took part in the two remaining sports which both showed a difference of about 10 between the genders. As many as 50 girls preferred swimming in comparison to 40 girls for badminton.

(199 Words, Band 9)

The chart below shows the amount of time that 10 to 15-year-olds spend chatting on the Internet and playing on games consoles on an average school day in the UK.

...



. . .

The bar chart compares the time spent by 10 to 15-year-olds in the UK on two activities, namely chatting online and playing computer games.

Overall, we can see that playing computer games is marginally more popular than chatting on the Internet. However, completely different trends can be seen if we look at the specific figures for boys and girls.

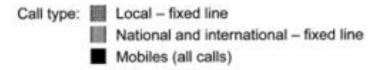
Boys aged between 10 and 15 clearly favour playing on games consoles over chatting online. According to the chart, while 85% of boys play computer games every day, only 55% chat online daily. Furthermore, the majority of boys play on their consoles for more than one hour each day, and 10% do this activity for four hours or more.

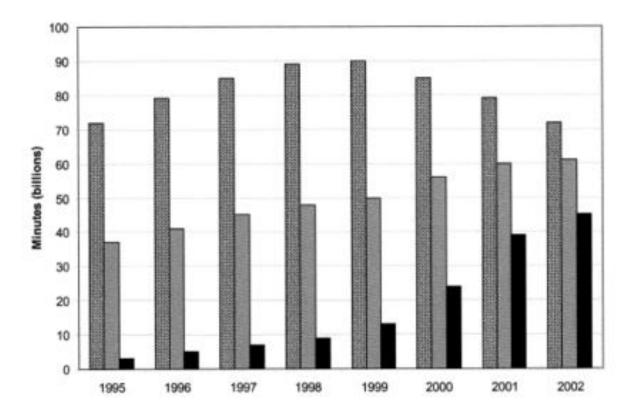
By contrast, girls prefer chatting online. Close to 70% of 10 to 15-year-old girls engage in online conversation each day, compared to about 50% of this cohort who play computer games. Of the girls who do play on consoles, most of them play for less than an hour, whereas most girls who chat online do so for more than one hour, and nearly 10% chat for four hours or more.

(188 Words, Band 9)

The chart below shows the total number of minutes (in billions) of telephone calls in the UK, divided into three categories, from 1995-2002.

UK telephone calls, by category, 1995-2002





The bar chart compares the amount of time spent by people in the UK on three different types of phone call between 1995 and 2002.

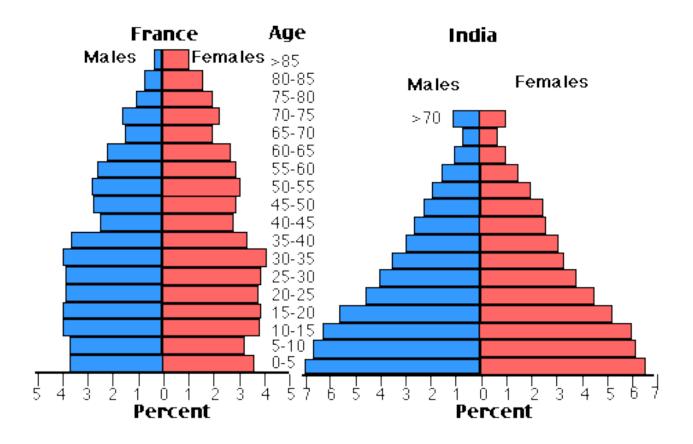
It is clear that calls made via local, fixed lines were the most popular type, in terms of overall usage, throughout the period shown. The lowest figures on the chart are for mobile calls, but this category also saw the most dramatic increase in user minutes.

In 1995, people in the UK used fixed lines for a total of just over 70 billion minutes for local calls, and about half of that amount of time for national or international calls. By contrast, mobile phones were only used for around 4 billion minutes. Over the following four years, the figures for all three types of phone call increased steadily.

By 1999, the amount of time spent on local calls using landlines had reached a peak at 90 billion minutes. Subsequently, the figure for this category fell, but the rise in the other two types of phone call continued. In 2002, the number of minutes of national / international landline calls passed 60 billion, while the figure for mobiles rose to around 45 billion minutes.

(197 words, band 9)

The charts below compare the age structure of the populations of France and India in 1984.



The two charts compare the populations of France and India in terms of age distribution by gender in the year 1984.

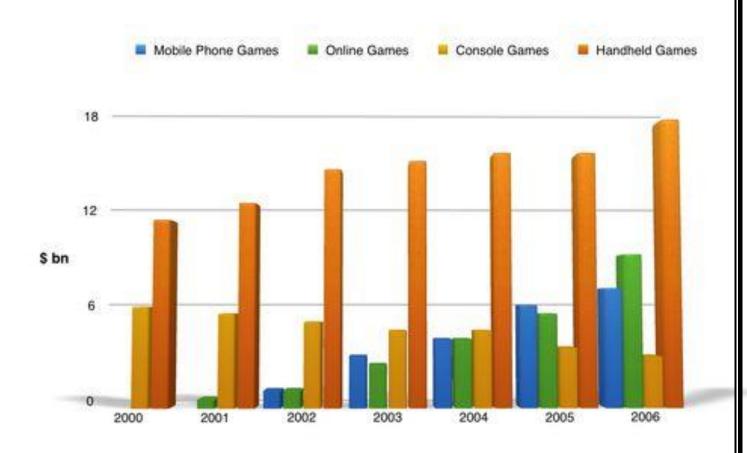
It is clear that the population of India was younger than that of France in 1984, with a noticeably larger proportion of people aged under 20. France, on the other hand, had a significantly larger percentage of elderly inhabitants.

In India, close to 14% of people were aged 5 or under, and each five-year age bracket above this contained an increasingly smaller proportion of the population. France's population, by contrast, was more evenly distributed across the age ranges, with similar figures (around 7% to 8% of all people) for each five-year cohort between the ages of 0 and 40. Somewhere between 10% and 15% of all French people were aged 70 or older, but the equivalent figure for India was only 2%.

Looking more closely at gender, there was a noticeably higher proportion of French women than men in every cohort from age 50 upwards. For example, almost 3% of French 70- to 75-year-olds were women, while just under 2% were men. No significant gender differences can be seen on the Indian population chart.

(199 words, band 9)

The bar graph shows the global sales (in billions of dollars) of different types of digital games between 2000 and 2006.



The bar chart compares the turnover in dollars from sales of video games for four different platforms, namely mobile phones, online, consoles and handheld devices, from 2000 to 2006.

It is clear that sales of games for three out of the four platforms rose each year, leading to a significant rise in total global turnover over the 7-year period. Sales figures for handheld games were at least twice as high as those for any other platform in almost every year.

In 2000, worldwide sales of handheld games stood at around \$11 billion, while console games earned just under \$6 billion. No figures are given for mobile or online games in that year. Over the next 3 years, sales of handheld video games rose by about \$4 billion, but the figure for consoles decreased by \$2 billion. Mobile phone and online games started to become popular, with sales reaching around \$3 billion in 2003.

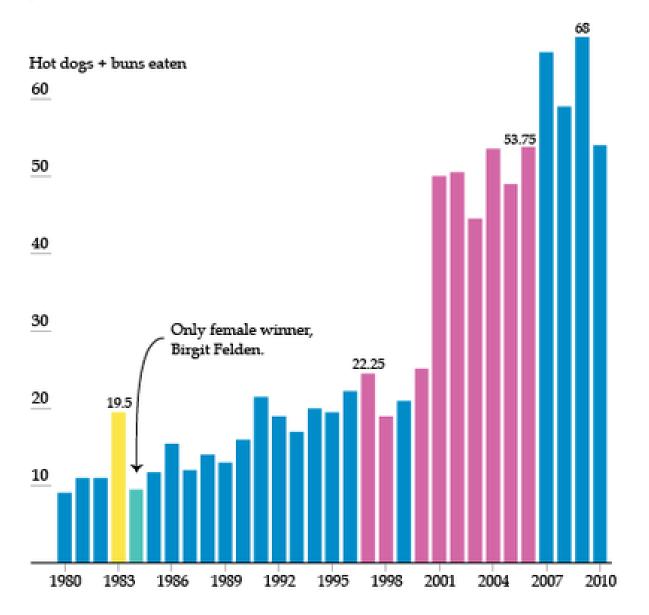
In 2006, sales of handheld, online and mobile games reached peaks of 17, 9 and 7 billion dollars respectively. By contrast, turnover from console games dropped to its lowest point, at around \$2.5 billion.

(187 Words, Band 9)

Nathan's Hot Dog Eating Contest

Nathan's hot dog eating contest is held in Brooklyn's Coney Island every 4th of July. The current record of 68 hot dogs and buns consumed in 15 minutes is held by American Joey Chestnut. Prior to Chestnut's reign, Takeru Kobayashi of Japan won six years in a row.





The bar chart shows the number of hot dogs and buns eaten in 15 minutes by the winners of 'Nathan's Hot Dog Eating Contest' in Brooklyn, USA between 1980 and 2010.

It is noticeable that the number of hot dogs and buns eaten by winners of the contest increased dramatically over the period shown. The majority of winners were American or Japanese, and only one woman had ever won the contest.

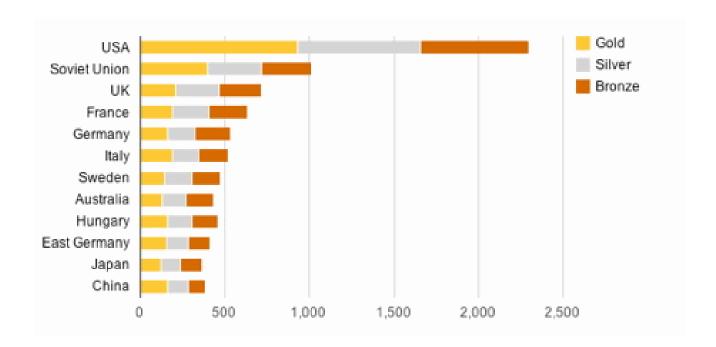
Americans <u>dominated the contest</u> from 1980 to 1996, and the winning number of hot dogs and buns consumed rose from only 8 to around 21 during that time. 1983 and 1984 <u>were notable exceptions to the trend</u> for American winners. In 1983 a Mexican won the contest after eating 19.5 hot dogs, <u>almost double the amount that any previous winner had eaten</u>, and 1984 saw the only female winner, Birgit Felden from Germany.

A Japanese <u>contestant</u>, Takeru Kobayashi, <u>reigned as hot dog eating champion</u> for six years from 2001 to 2006. Kobayashi's <u>winning totals</u> of around 50 hot dogs were roughly double the amount that any previous winner had <u>managed</u>. However, the current champion, American Joey Chestnut, <u>took hot dog eating to new heights</u> in 2009 when he consumed an incredible 68 hot dogs and buns <u>in the allotted</u> 15 minutes.

(212 Words, Band 9)



The chart below shows the total number of Olympic medals won by twelve different countries.



The bar chart compares twelve countries in terms of the overall number of medals that they have won at the Olympic Games.

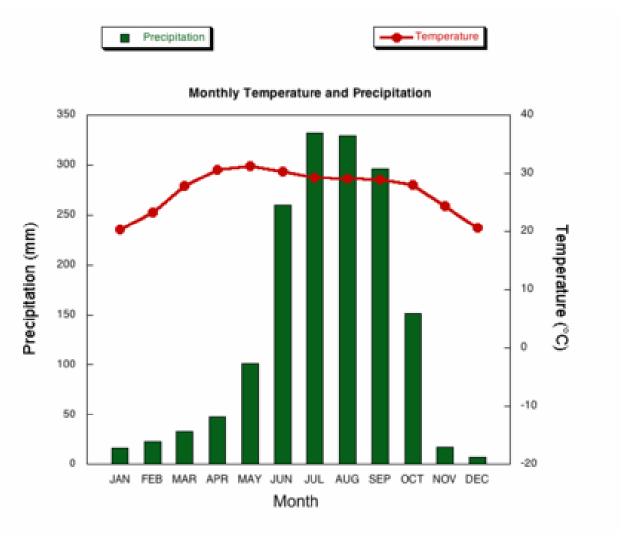
It is clear that the USA is by far the most successful Olympic medal winning nation. It is also noticeable that the figures for gold, silver and bronze medals won by any particular country tend to be fairly similar.

The USA has won a total of around 2,300 Olympic medals, including approximately 900 gold medals, 750 silver and 650 bronze. In second place on the all-time medals chart is the Soviet Union, with just over 1,000 medals. Again, the number of gold medals won by this country is slightly higher than the number of silver or bronze medals.

Only four other countries - the UK, France, Germany and Italy - have won more than 500 Olympic medals, all with similar proportions of each medal colour. Apart from the USA and the Soviet Union, China is the only other country with a noticeably higher proportion of gold medals (about 200) compared to silver and bronze (about 100 each).

(178 words, band 9)

The climograph below shows average monthly temperatures and rainfall in the city of Kolkata.



The chart compares average figures for temperature and precipitation over the course of a calendar year in Kolkata.

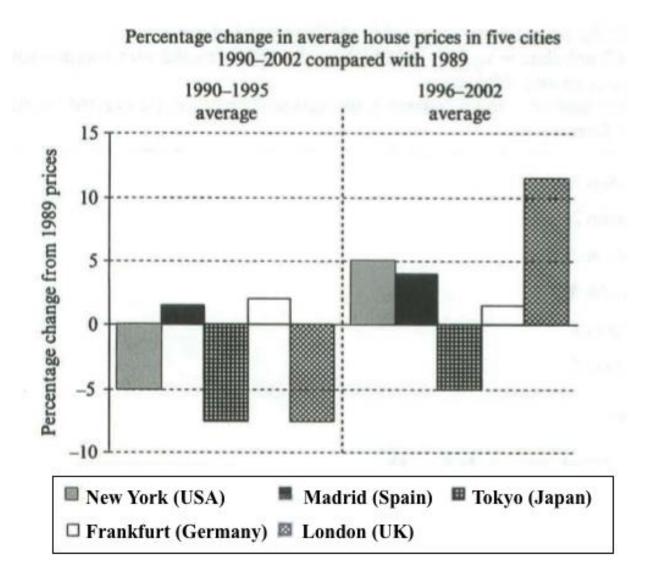
It is noticeable that monthly figures for precipitation in Kolkata vary considerably, whereas monthly temperatures remain relatively stable. Rainfall is highest from July to August, while temperatures are highest in April and May.

Between the months of January and May, average temperatures in Kolkata rise from their lowest point at around 20°C to a peak of just over 30°C. Average rainfall in the city also rises over the same period, from approximately 20mm of rain in January to 100mm in May.

While temperatures stay roughly the same for the next four months, the amount of rainfall more than doubles between May and June. Figures for precipitation remain above 250mm from June to September, peaking at around 330mm in July. The final three months of the year see a dramatic fall in precipitation, to a low of about 10mm in December, and a steady drop in temperatures back to the January average.

(173 words, band 9)

The chart below shows information about changes in average house prices in five different cities between 1990 and 2002 compared with the average house prices in 1989.



The bar chart compares the cost of an average house in five major cities over a period of 13 years from 1989.

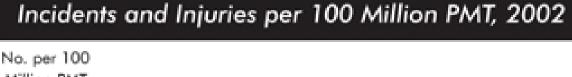
We can see that house prices fell overall between 1990 and 1995, but most of the cities saw rising prices between 1996 and 2002. London experienced by far the greatest changes in house prices over the 13-year period.

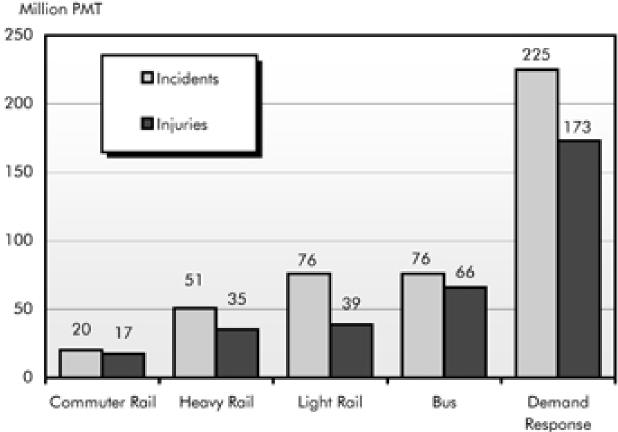
Over the 5 years after 1989, the cost of average homes in Tokyo and London dropped by around 7%, while New York house prices went down by 5%. By contrast, prices rose by approximately 2% in both Madrid and Frankfurt.

Between 1996 and 2002, London house prices jumped to around 12% above the 1989 average. Homebuyers in New York also had to pay significantly more, with prices rising to 5% above the 1989 average, but homes in Tokyo remained cheaper than they were in 1989. The cost of an average home in Madrid rose by a further 2%, while prices in Frankfurt remained stable.

(165 words)

The chart below shows numbers of incidents and injuries per 100 million passenger miles travelled (PMT) by transportation type in 2002.





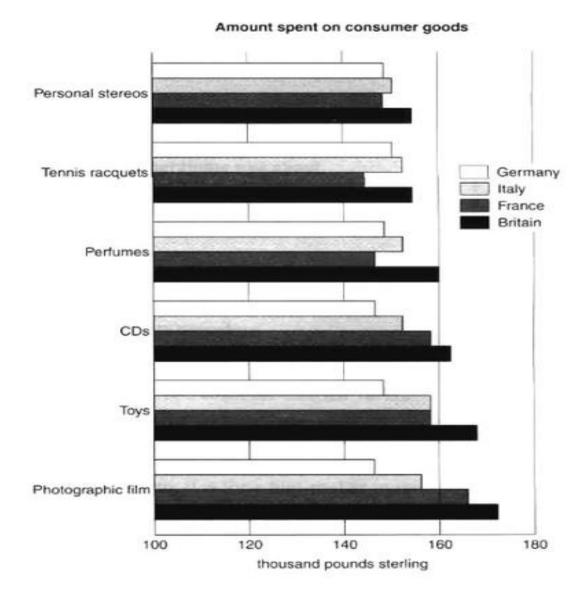
The bar chart compares the number of incidents and injuries for every 100 million passenger miles travelled on five different types of public transport in 2002.

It is clear that the most incidents and injuries took place on demand-response vehicles. By contrast, commuter rail services recorded by far the lowest figures.

A total of 225 incidents and 173 injuries, per 100 million passenger miles travelled, took place on demand-response transport services. These figures were nearly three times as high as those for the second highest category, bus services. There were 76 incidents and 66 people were injured on buses.

Rail services experienced fewer problems. The number of incidents on light rail trains equalled the figure recorded for buses, but there were significantly fewer injuries, at only 39. Heavy rail services saw lower numbers of such events than light rail services, but commuter rail passengers were even less likely to experience problems. In fact, only 20 incidents and 17 injuries occurred on commuter trains.

(165 words, band 9)



The bar chart compares consumer spending on six different items in Germany, Italy, France and Britain.

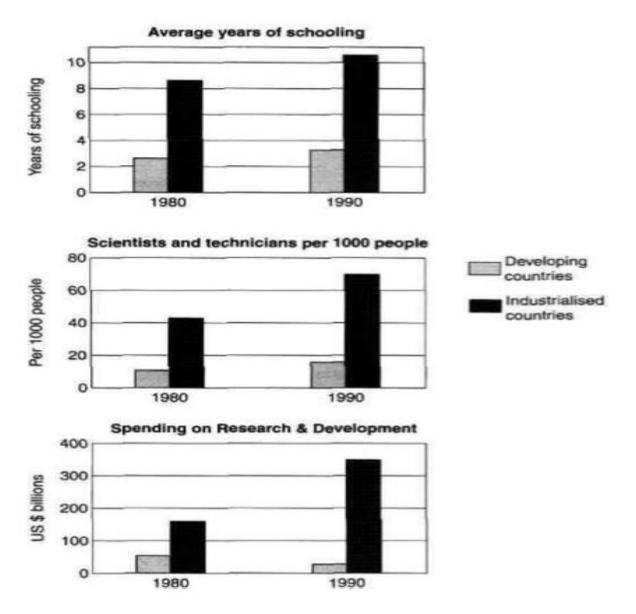
It is clear that British people spent significantly more money than people in the other three countries on all six goods. Of the six items, consumers spent the most money on photographic film.

People in Britain spent just over £170,000 on photographic film, which is the highest figure shown on the chart. By contrast, Germans were the lowest overall spenders, with roughly the same figures (just under £150,000) for each of the six products.

The figures for spending on toys were the same in both France and Italy, at nearly £160,000. However, while French people spent more than Italians on photographic film and CDs, Italians paid out more for personal stereos, tennis racquets and perfumes. The amount spent by French people on tennis racquets, around £145,000, is the lowest figure shown on the chart.

(154 Words, Band 9)

The charts below show the levels of participation in education and science in developing and industrialized countries in 1980 and 1990.



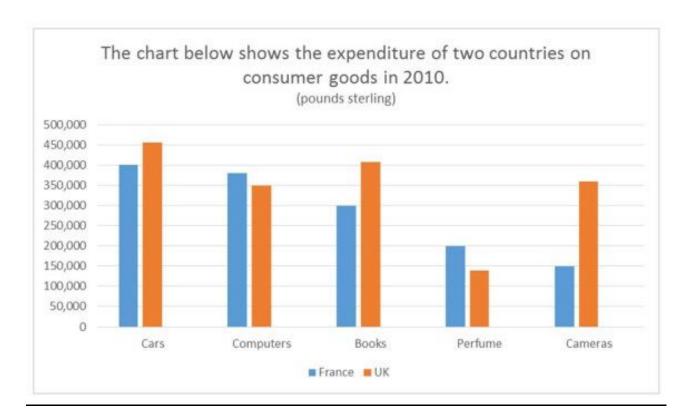
The three bar charts show average years of schooling, numbers of scientists and technicians, and research and development spending in developing and developed countries. Figures are given for 1980 and 1990.

It is clear from the charts that the figures for developed countries are much higher than those for developing nations. Also, the charts show an overall increase in participation in education and science from 1980 to 1990.

People in developing nations attended school for an average of around 3 years, with only a slight increase in years of schooling from 1980 to 1990. On the other hand, the figure for industrialised countries rose from nearly 9 years of schooling in 1980 to nearly 11 years in 1990.

From 1980 to 1990, the number of scientists and technicians in industrialised countries almost doubled to about 70 per 1000 people. Spending on research and development also saw rapid growth in these countries, reaching \$350 billion in 1990. By contrast, the number of science workers in developing countries remained below 20 per 1000 people, and research spending fell from about \$50 billion to only \$25 billion.

(187 words, Band 9)



The chart illustrates the amount of money spent on five consumer goods (cars, computers, books, perfume and cameras) in France and the UK in 2010. Units are measured in pounds sterling.

Overall, the UK spent more money on consumer goods than France in the period given. Both the British and the French spent most of their money on cars whereas the least amount of money was spent on perfume in the UK compared to cameras in France. Furthermore, the most significant difference in expenditure between the two countries was on cameras.

In terms of cars, people in the UK spent about £450,000 on this as opposed to the French who spent £400,000. Similarly, the British spent more money on books than the French (around £400,000 and £300,000 respectively). In the UK, expenditure on cameras (just over £350,000) was over double that of France, which was only £150,000.

On the other hand, the amount spent on the remaining goods was higher in France. Above £350,000 was spent by the French on computers which was slightly more than the British who spent £300,000. Neither countries spent much on perfume which accounted for £200,000 of expenditure in France but under £150,000 in the UK.

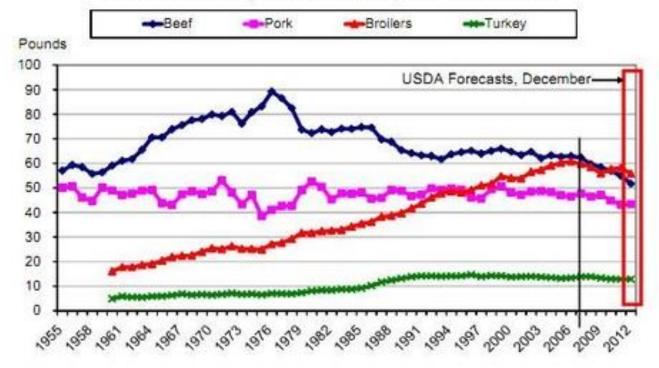
(201 Words, Band 9)



Line Graph

The graph below shows trends in US meat and poultry consumption.

U.S. MEAT & POULTRY CONSUMPTION, PER CAPITA, BONELESS, BY SPECIES



The line graph shows changes in the per capita consumption of beef, pork, broilers and turkey in the United States between 1955 and 2012.

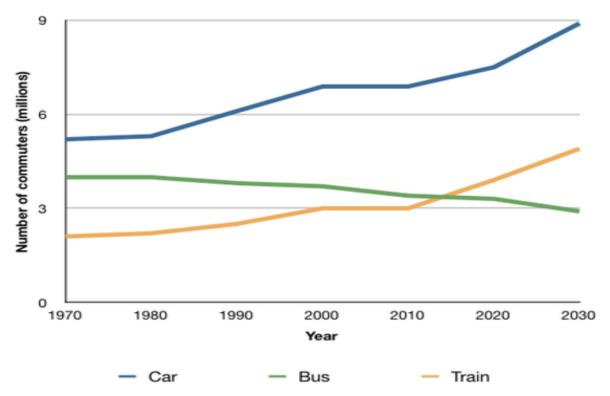
It is noticeable that beef was by far the most popular of the four types of meat for the majority of the 57-year period. However, a considerable rise can be seen in the consumption of broilers, with figures eventually surpassing those for beef.

Between 1955 and 1976, US beef consumption rose from around 60 to a peak of 90 pounds per person per year. During the same period, consumption of broilers also rose, to nearly 30 pounds per person, while the figures for pork fluctuated between 50 and 40 pounds per person. Turkey was by far the least popular meat, with figures below 10 pounds per capita each year.

By 2012, the amount of beef consumed by the average American had plummeted to around 50 pounds, but the consumption of broilers had doubled since the 1970s, to approximately 55 pounds per capita. By contrast, there were no significant changes in the trends for pork and turkey consumption over the period as a whole.

(187 Words, Band 9)





The line graph compares figures for daily travel by workers in the UK using three different forms of transport over a period of 60 years.

It is clear that the car is by far the most popular means of transport for UK commuters throughout the period shown. Also, while the numbers of people who use the car and train increase gradually, the number of bus users falls steadily.

In 1970, around 5 million UK commuters travelled by car on a daily basis, while the bus and train were used by about 4 million and 2 million people respectively. In the year 2000, the number of those driving to work rose to 7 million and the number of commuting rail passengers reached 3 million. However, there was a small drop of approximately 0.5 million in the number of bus users.

By 2030, the number of people who commute by car is expected to reach almost 9 million, and the number of train users is also predicted to rise, to nearly 5 million. By contrast, buses are predicted to become a less popular choice, with only 3 million daily users.

(188 Words, Band 9)

Secondary Second

2005

Chart 1. Average annual expenditures on cell phone and residential phone services, 2001–2010

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Consumer Expenditure Survey

2004

2003

The line graph compares average yearly spending by Americans on mobile and landline phone services from 2001 to 2010.

2006

2007

2008

2009

2010

It is clear that spending on landline phones fell steadily over the 10-year period, while mobile phone expenditure rose quickly. The year 2006 marks the point at which expenditure on mobile services overtook that for residential phone services.

In 2001, US consumers spent an average of nearly \$700 on residential phone services, compared to only around \$200 on cell phone services. Over the following five years, average yearly spending on landlines dropped by nearly \$200. By contrast, expenditure on mobiles rose by approximately \$300.

In the year 2006, the average American paid out the same amount of money on both types of phone service, spending just over \$500 on each. By 2010, expenditure on mobile phones had reached around \$750, while the figure for spending on residential services had fallen to just over half this amount.

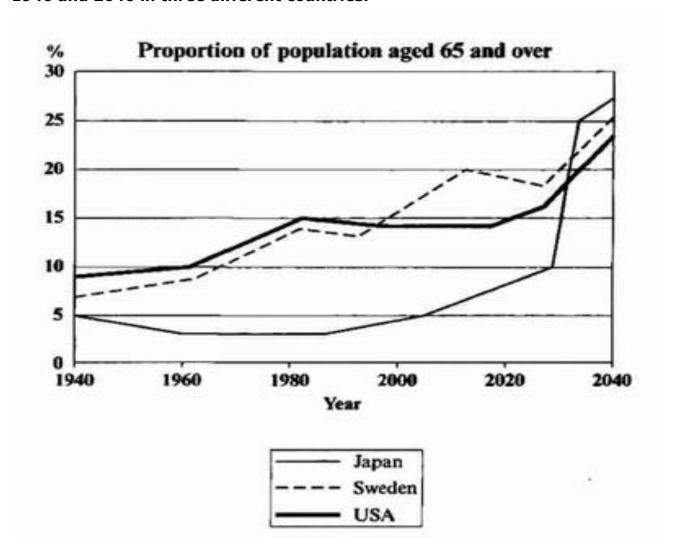
(162 words, band 9)

\$200

2001

2002

The graph below shows the proportion of the population aged 65 and over between 1940 and 2040 in three different countries.



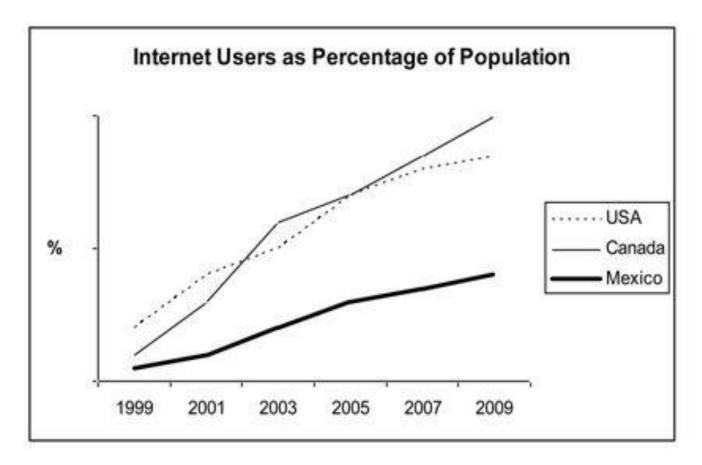
The line graph compares the percentage of people aged 65 or more in three countries over a period of 100 years.

It is clear that the proportion of elderly people increases in each country between 1940 and 2040. Japan is expected to see the most dramatic changes in its elderly population.

In 1940, around 9% of Americans were aged 65 or over, compared to about 7% of Swedish people and 5% of Japanese people. The proportions of elderly people in the USA and Sweden rose gradually over the next 50 years, reaching just under 15% in 1990. By contrast, the figures for Japan remained below 5% until the early 2000s.

Looking into the future, a sudden increase in the percentage of elderly people is predicted for Japan, with a jump of over 15% in just 10 years from 2030 to 2040. By 2040, it is thought that around 27% of the Japanese population will be 65 years old or more, while the figures for Sweden and the USA will be slightly lower, at about 25% and 23% respectively.

(178 words, band 9)



The line graph compares the percentage of people in three countries who used the Internet between 1999 and 2009.

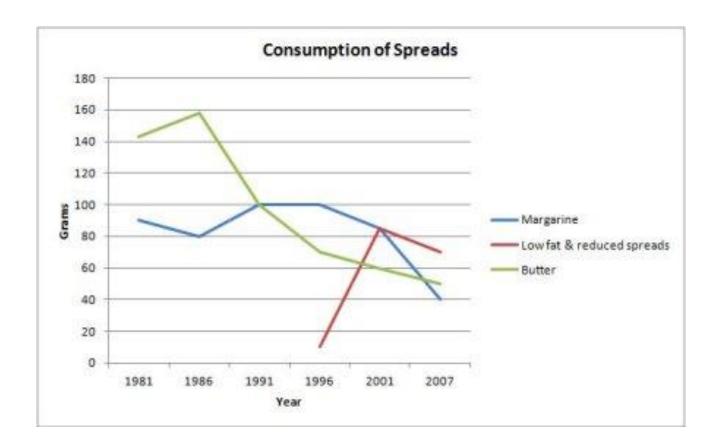
Overall, It is clear that the proportion of the population who used the Internet increased in each country over the period shown. A much larger percentage of Canadians and Americans had access to the Internet in comparison with Mexicans, and Canada experienced the fastest growth in Internet usage.

A closer look at the graph reveals that in 1999, the proportion of people using the Internet in the USA was about 20%. The figures for Canada and Mexico were lower, at about 10% and 5% respectively. In 2005, Internet usage in both the USA and Canada rose to around 70% of the population, while the figure for Mexico reached just over 25%.

Moving on, by 2009, the percentage of Internet users was highest in Canada. Almost 100% of Canadians used the Internet, compared to about 80% of Americans and only 40% of Mexicans.

(151 Words, Band 9)

The graph below shows the consumption of 3 spreads from 1981 to 2007.



The line graph illustrates the amount of three kinds of spreads (margarine, low fat and reduced spreads and butter) which were consumed over 26 years from 1981 to 2007. Units are measured in grams.

Overall, the consumption of margarine and butter decreased over period given while for low fat and reduced spreads, it rose. At the start of the period, butter was the most popular spread, which was replaced by margarine from 1991 to 2001, and following that low fat and reduced spreads became the most widely used spread in the final years.

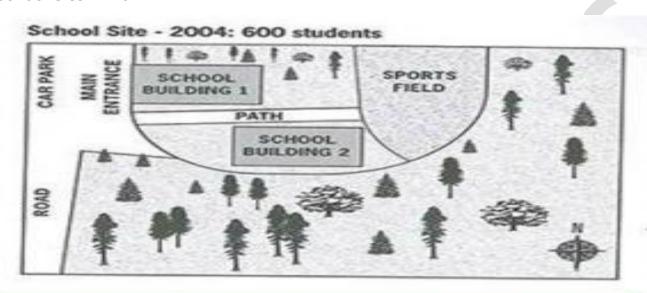
With regards to the amount of butter used, it began at around 140 grams and then peaked at 160 grams in 1986 before falling dramatically to about 50 grams in the last year. Likewise, approximately 90 grams of margarine was eaten in the first year after which the figure fluctuated slightly and dropped to a low of 40 grams in 2007.

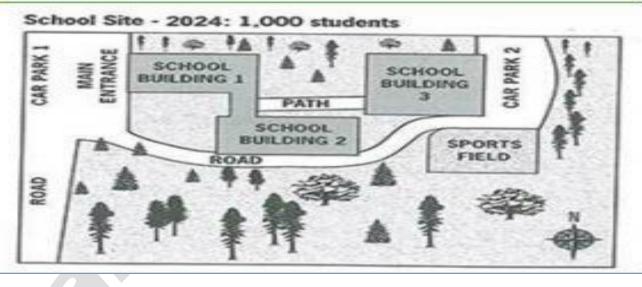
On the other hand, the consumption of low fats and reduced spreads only started in 1996 at about 10 grams. This figure, which reached a high of just over 80 grams 5 years later, fell slightly in the final years to approximately 70 grams in 2007.

(200 Words, Band 9)

Map

The diagrams below show the site of a school in 2004 and the plan for changes to the school site in 2024.





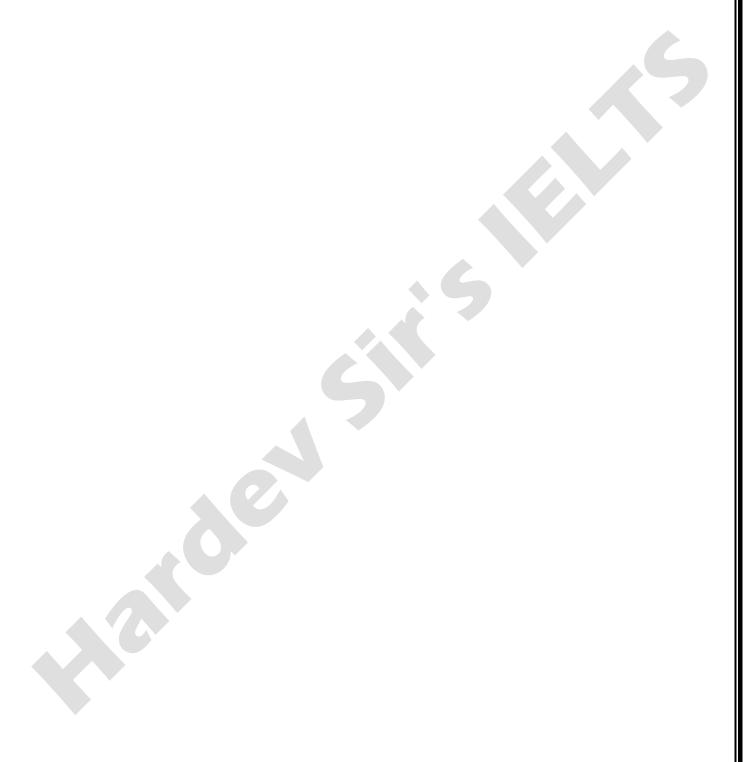
The two pictures compare the layout of a school as it was in the year 2004 with a proposed site design for the year 2024.

It is clear that the main change for 2024 involves the addition of a new school building. The school will then be able to accommodate a considerably larger number of students.

In 2004, there were 600 pupils attending the school, and the two school buildings were separated by a path running from the main entrance to the sports field. By 2024, it is expected that there will be 1000 pupils, and a third building will have been constructed. Furthermore, the plan is to join the two original buildings together, creating a shorter path that links the buildings only.

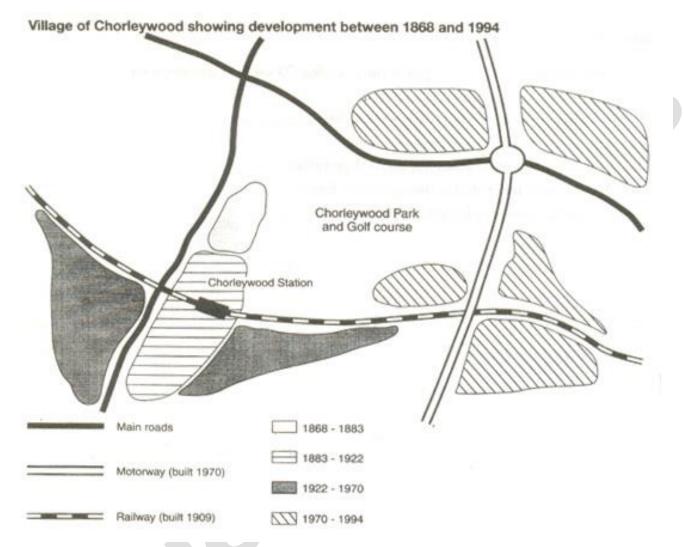
As the third building and a second car park will be built on the site of the original sports field, a new, smaller sports field will need to be laid. A new road will also be built from the main entrance to the second car park. Finally, no changes will be made to the main entrance and original car park.

(183 words, band 9)



Chorleywood is a village near London whose population has increased steadily since the middle of the 19th century. The map below shows the development of the village.

Write a report for a university lecturer describing the development of the village.



The map shows the growth of a village called Chorleywood between 1868 and 1994.

It is clear that the village grew as the transport infrastructure was improved. Four periods of development are shown on the map, and each of the populated areas is near to the main roads, the railway or the motorway.

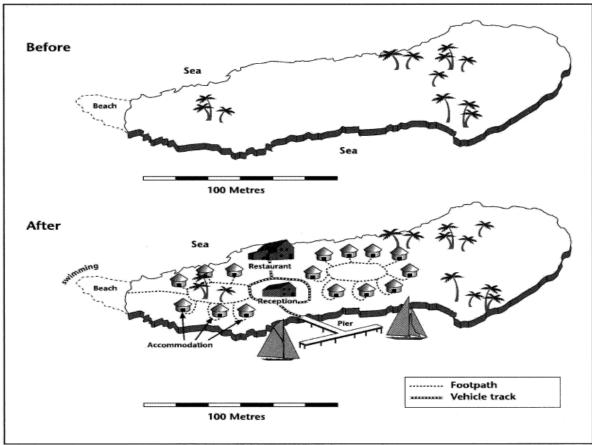
From 1868 to 1883, Chorleywood covered a small area next to one of the main roads. Chorleywood Park and Golf Course is now located next to this original village area. The village grew along the main road to the south between 1883 and 1922, and in 1909 a railway line was built crossing this area from west to east. Chorleywood station is in this part of the village.

The expansion of Chorleywood continued to the east and west alongside the railway line until 1970. At that time, a motorway was built to the east of the village, and from 1970 to 1994, further development of the village took place around motorway intersections with the railway and one of the main roads.

(174 Words, Band 9)

The two maps below show an island, before and after the construction of some tourist facilities.

Summarize the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant.



The diagrams illustrate some changes to a small island which has been developed for tourism.

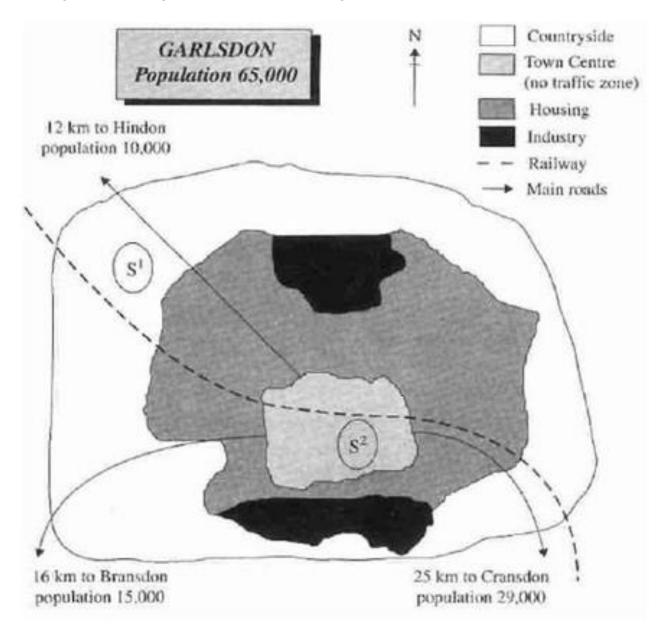
It is clear that the island has changed considerably with the introduction of tourism, and six new features can be seen in the second diagram. The main developments are that the island is accessible and visitors have somewhere to stay.

Looking at the maps in more detail, we can see that small huts have been built to accommodate visitors to the island. The other physical structures that have been added are a reception building, in the middle of the island, and a restaurant to the north of the reception. Before these developments, the island was completely bare apart from a few trees.

As well as the buildings mentioned above, the new facilities on the island include a pier, where boats can dock. There is also a short road linking the pier with the reception and restaurant, and footpaths connect the huts. Finally, there is a designated swimming area for tourists off a beach on the western tip of the island.

(175 words, band 9)

The map below is of the town of Garlsdon. A new supermarket (S) is planned for the town. The map shows two possible sites for the supermarket.



The map shows two potential locations (S1 and S2) for a new supermarket in a town called Garlsdon.

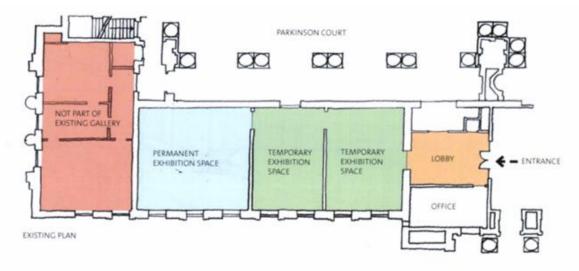
The main difference between the two sites is that S1 is outside the town, whereas S2 is in the town centre. The sites can also be compared in terms of access by road or rail, and their positions relative to three smaller towns.

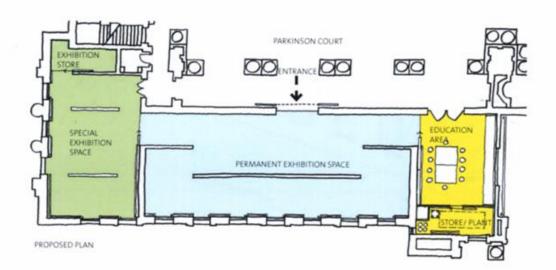
Looking at the information in more detail, S1 is in the countryside to the north west of Garlsdon, but it is close to the residential area of the town. S2 is also close to the housing area, which surrounds the town centre.

There are main roads from Hindon, Bransdon and Cransdon to Garlsdon town centre, but this is a no traffic zone, so there would be no access to S2 by car. By contrast, S1 lies on the main road to Hindon, but it would be more difficult to reach from Bransdon and Cransdon. Both supermarket sites are close to the railway that runs through Garlsdon from Hindon to Cransdon.

(171 Words, Band 9)

The diagrams below are existing and proposed floor plans for the redevelopment of an art gallery.





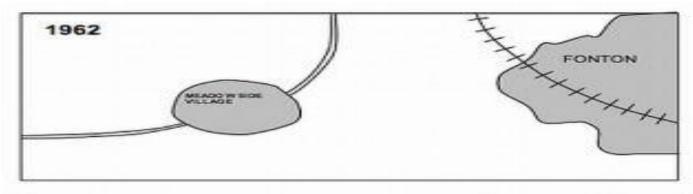
The first picture shows the layout of an art gallery, and the second shows some proposed changes to the gallery space.

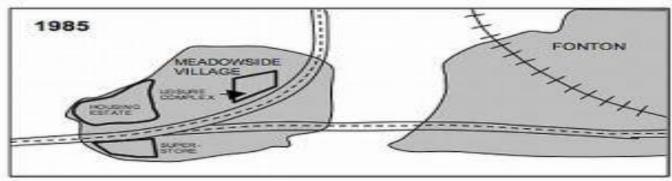
It is clear that significant changes will be made in terms of the use of floor space in the gallery. There will be a completely new entrance and more space for exhibitions.

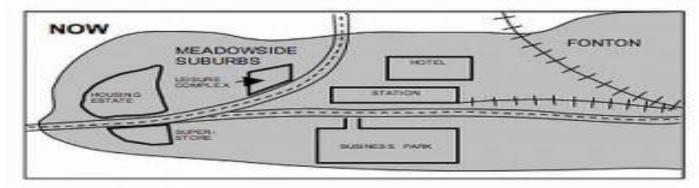
At present, visitors enter the gallery through doors which lead into a lobby. However, the plan is to move the entrance to the Parkinson Court side of the building, and visitors will walk straight into the exhibition area. In place of the lobby and office areas, which are shown on the existing plan, the new gallery plan shows an education area and a small storage area.

The permanent exhibition space in the redeveloped gallery will be about twice as large as it is now because it will occupy the area that is now used for temporary exhibitions. There will also be a new room for special exhibitions. This room is shown in red on the existing plan and is not currently part of the gallery.

(178 words, band 9)







The maps illustrate how Meadowside village and Fonton, which is a neighbouring town, have developed over three different time periods (1962, 1985 and the present).

Overall, Meadowside village increased in size and has become Meadowside Suburb as it merged together with Fonton. Furthermore, there have been significant changes in infrastructure, housing and facilities over the period given.

In 1962, both Meadowside and Fonton were completely separate with no roads or rail connecting them. While Fonton had a railway line running through it to the north, Meadowside, located to the west of Fonton, only had a small road from the west.

By 1985, there was a considerable growth in the size of Meadowside village and Fonton. The small road in Meadowside village had been converted into a main road and was also extended to the east to connect with Fonton. Meadowside, moreover, had also developed a housing estate in the west, a leisure complex and a supermarket in the south.

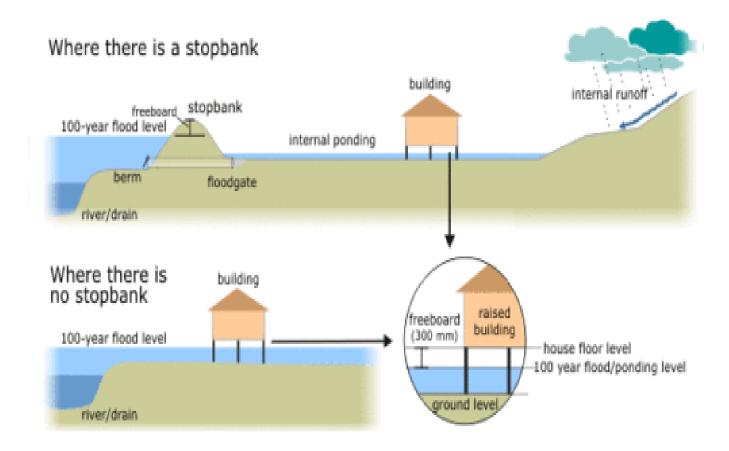
Currently, both Meadowside, which is now a suburb, and Fonton are joined. The railway line, which runs through Fonton, has been extended to the west where a train station has been built. To the north of the station, a hotel has been constructed and opposite the station, to the south, there is now a business park.

(215 Words, Band 9)

Process Graph

The diagrams below show how houses can be protected in areas which are prone to flooding.

...



The diagrams compare two different methods of defence for homes which are at risk of being flooded.

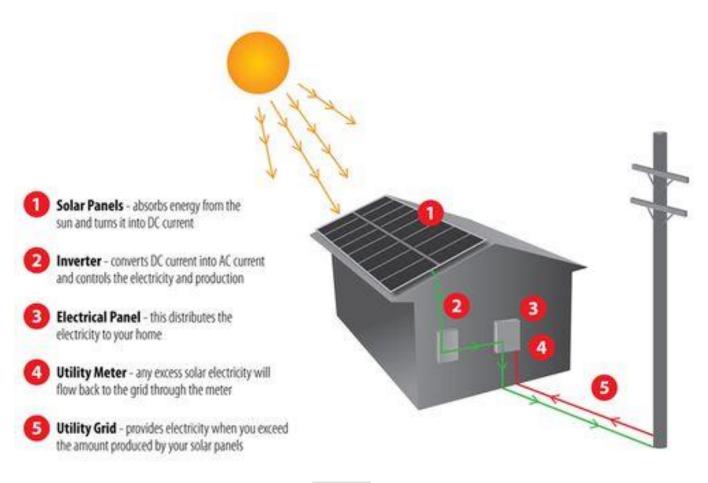
The key difference between the diagrams is that they show flood protection with and without a stopbank. In either case, the at-risk home is raised on stilts above ground level.

The first diagram shows how a stopbank acts as a flood barrier to stop river water from flooding homes. The stopbank is a small mound of land next to the river that is higher than the 100-year flood level, and prevents the river from bursting its banks. Nearby houses can be built on stilts to prevent flooding from rainwater, and a floodgate beneath the stopbank can be opened to allow this 'ponding' to drain off into the river.

When there is no stopbank, as shown in the second diagram, there will be nothing to stop the river from flooding. In this case, the solution is to put buildings on stilts. The height of the stilts is measured so that the floor of the house is 300mm above the 100-year flood level. This measurement is called the 'freeboard'.

(184 Words, Band 9)

The diagram below shows how solar panels can be used to provide electricity for domestic use.



The picture illustrates the process of producing electricity in a home using solar panels.

It is clear that there are five distinct stages in this process, beginning with the capture of energy from sunlight. The final two steps show how domestic electricity is connected to the external power supply.

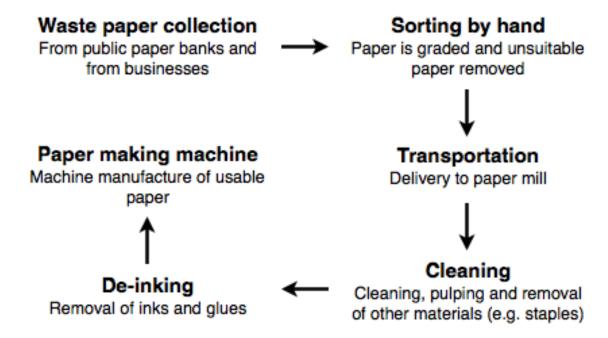
At the first stage in the process, solar panels on the roof of a normal house take energy from the sun and convert it into DC current. Next, this current <u>is passed</u> to an inverter, which changes it to AC current and regulates the supply of electricity. At stage three, electricity is supplied to the home from an electrical panel.

At the fourth step shown on the diagram, a utility meter in the home is responsible for sending any extra electric power outside the house into the grid. Finally, if the solar panels do not provide enough energy for the household, electricity will flow from the utility grid into the home through the meter.

(163 Words, Band 9)

Hardev Sir's IELTS 8528723949

The chart below shows the process of waste paper recycling.



The flow chart shows how waste paper is recycled. It is clear that there are six distinct stages in this process, from the initial collection of waste paper to the eventual production of usable paper.

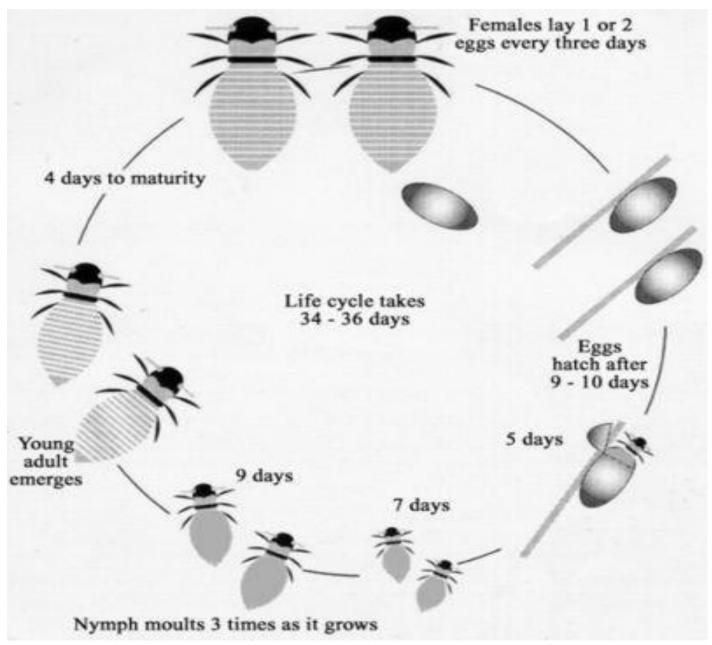
At the first stage in the paper recycling process, waste paper is collected either from paper banks, where members of the public leave their used paper, or directly from businesses. This paper is then sorted by hand and separated according to its grade, with any paper that is not suitable for recycling being removed. Next, the graded paper is transported to a paper mill.

Stages four and five of the process both involve cleaning. The paper is cleaned and pulped, and foreign objects such as staples are taken out. Following this, all remnants of ink and glue are removed from the paper at the de-inking stage. Finally, the pulp can be processed in a paper making machine, which makes the end product: usable paper.



The diagram shows the life cycle of the honey bee.

...



The diagram illustrates the various stages in the life of a honey bee. We can see that the complete life cycle lasts between 34 and 36 days. It is also noticeable that there are five main stages in the development of the honey bee, from egg to mature adult insect.

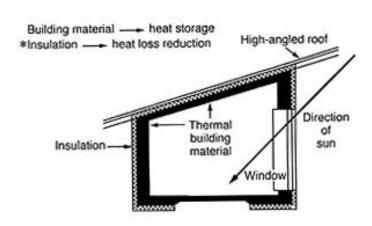
The life cycle of the honey bee begins when the female adult lays an egg; the female typically lays one or two eggs every 3 days. Between 9 and 10 days later, each egg hatches and the immature insect, or nymph, appears.

During the third stage of the life cycle, the nymph grows in size and sheds its skin three times. This moulting first takes place 5 days after the egg hatches, then 7 days later, and again another 9 days later. After a total of 30 to 31 days from the start of the cycle, the young adult honey bee emerges from its final moulting stage, and in the space of only 4 days it reaches full maturity.

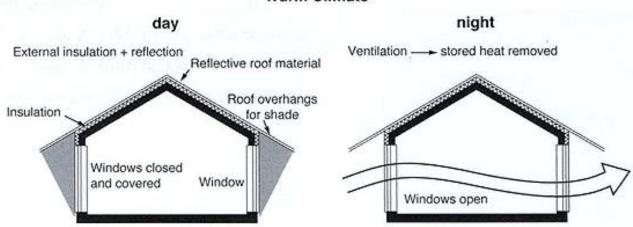
(169 words, band 9)

The diagrams below show some principles of house design for cool and for warm climates.

Cool Climate



Warm Climate



The diagrams show how house designs differ according to climate.

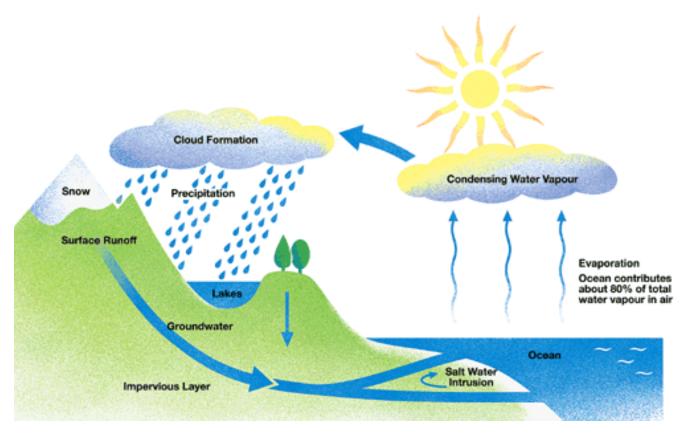
The most noticeable difference between houses designed for cool and warm climates is in the shape of the roof. The designs also differ with regard to the windows and the use of insulation.

We can see that the cool climate house has a high-angled roof, which allows sunlight to enter through the window. By contrast, the roof of the warm climate house has a peak in the middle and roof overhangs to shade the windows. Insulation and thermal building materials are used in cool climates to reduce heat loss, whereas insulation and reflective materials are used to keep the heat out in warm climates.

Finally, the cool climate house has one window which faces the direction of the sun, while the warm climate house has windows on two sides which are shaded from the sun. By opening the two windows at night, the house designed for warm climates can be ventilated.

(162 words, band 9)

The diagram below shows the water cycle, which is the continuous movement of water on, above and below the surface of the Earth.



The picture illustrates the way in which water passes from ocean to air to land during the natural process known as the water cycle.

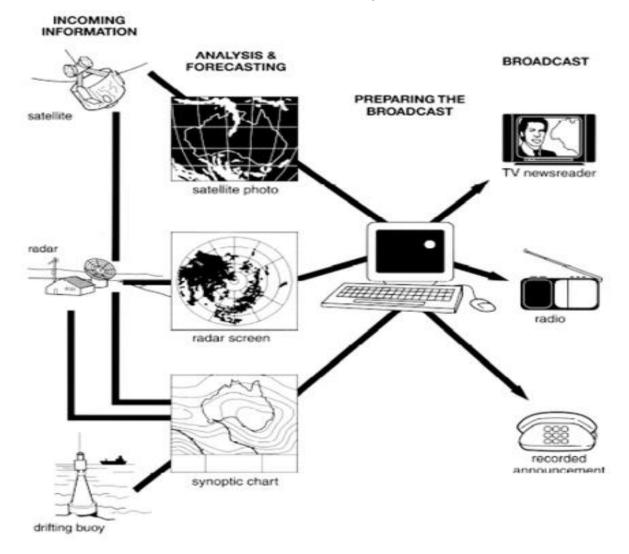
Three main stages are shown on the diagram. Ocean water evaporates, falls as rain, and eventually runs back into the oceans again.

Beginning at the evaporation stage, we can see that 80% of water vapour in the air comes from the oceans. Heat from the sun causes water to evaporate, and water vapour condenses to form clouds. At the second stage, labelled 'precipitation' on the diagram, water falls as rain or snow.

At the third stage in the cycle, rainwater may take various paths. Some of it may fall into lakes or return to the oceans via 'surface runoff'. Otherwise, rainwater may filter through the ground, reaching the impervious layer of the earth. Salt water intrusion is shown to take place just before groundwater passes into the oceans to complete the cycle.

(156 words, band 9)

The diagram below shows how the Australian Bureau of Meteorology collects up-to-theminute information on the weather in order to produce reliable forecasts.



The figure illustrates the process used by the Australian Bureau of Meteorology to forecast the weather.

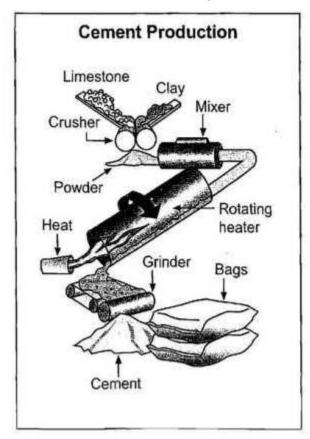
There are four stages in the process, beginning with the collection of information about the weather. This information is then analysed, prepared for presentation, and finally broadcast to the public.

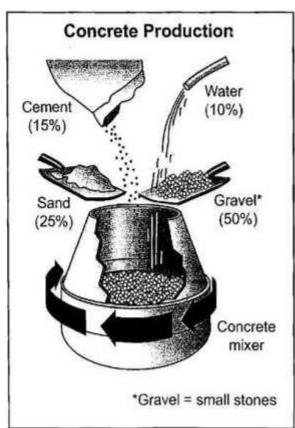
Looking at the first and second stages of the process, there are three ways of collecting weather data and three ways of analysing it. Firstly, incoming information can be received by satellite and presented for analysis as a satellite photo. The same data can also be passed to a radar station and presented on a radar screen or synoptic chart. Secondly, incoming information may be collected directly by radar and analysed on a radar screen or synoptic chart. Finally, drifting buoys also receive data which can be shown on a synoptic chart.

At the third stage of the process, the weather broadcast is prepared on computers. Finally, it is delivered to the public on television, on the radio, or as a recorded telephone announcement.

(170 Words, Band 9)

The diagram below shows the stages and equipment used in the cement-making process, and how cement is used to produce concrete for building purposes.





The diagrams illustrate the way in which cement is made and how it is then used in the process of making concrete.

Overall, limestone and clay pass through four stages before being bagged ready for use as cement which then accounts for 15% of the four ingredients used to produce concrete. While the process of making cement uses a number of tools, the production of concrete requires only a concrete mixer.

In the first stage of making cement, limestone and clay are crushed together to form a powder. This powder is then combined in a mixer before passing into a rotating heater which has constant heat applied at one end of the tube. The resulting mixture is ground in order to produce cement. The final product is afterwards put into bags ready to be used.

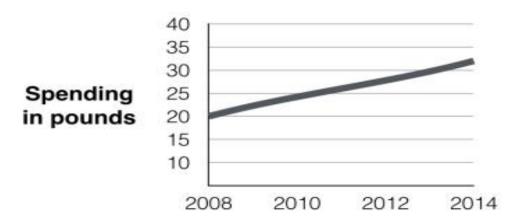
Regarding the second diagram, concrete consists of mainly gravel, which is small stones, and this makes up 50% of the ingredients. The other materials used are sand (25%), cement (15%) and water (10%). These are all poured into a concrete mixer which continually rotates to combine the materials and ultimately produce concrete.

(180 Words, Band 9)

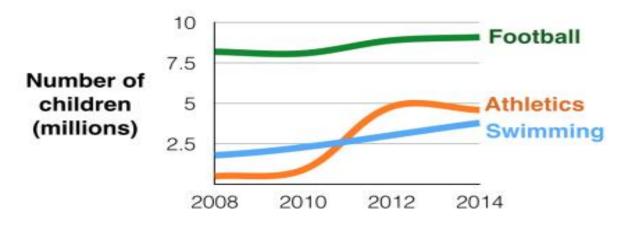
Combination Graphs

The first chart below gives information about the money spent by British parents on their children's sports between 2008 and 2014. The second chart shows the number of children who participated in three sports in Britain over the same time period.

Average monthly spend on children's sports



Participation in three different sports



The line graphs show the average monthly amount that parents in Britain spent on their children's sporting activities and the number of British children who took part in three different sports from 2008 to 2014.

It is clear that parents spent more money each year on their children's participation in sports over the six-year period. In terms of the number of children taking part, football was significantly more popular than athletics and swimming.

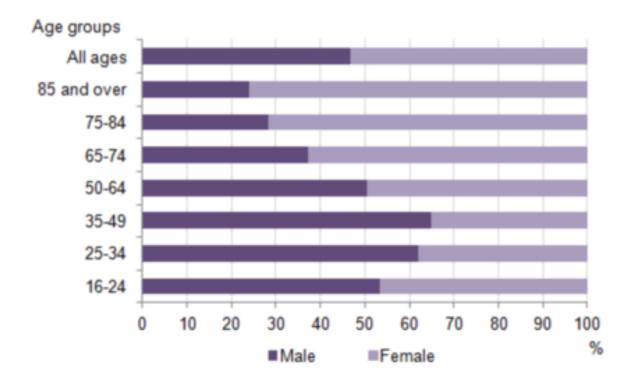
In 2008, British parents spent an average of around £20 per month on their children's sporting activities. Parents' spending on children's sports increased gradually over the following six years, and by 2014 the average monthly amount had risen to just over £30.

Looking at participation numbers, in 2008 approximately 8 million British children played football, while only 2 million children were enrolled in swimming clubs and less than 1 million practised athletics. The figures for football participation remained relatively stable over the following 6 years. By contrast, participation in swimming almost doubled, to nearly 4 million children, and there was a near fivefold increase in the number of children doing athletics.

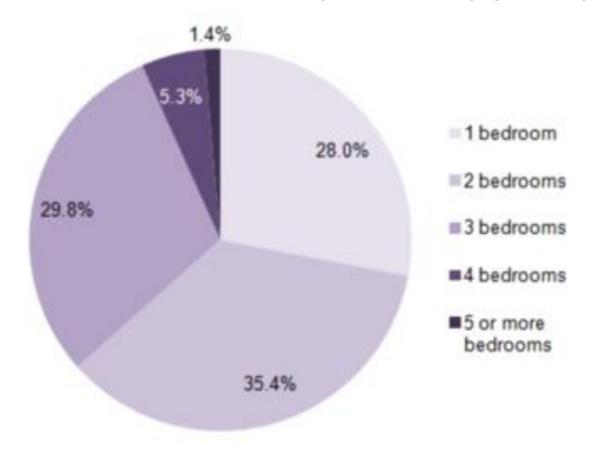
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The bar chart below shows the proportions of English men and women of different ages who were living alone in 2011. The pie chart compares the numbers of bedrooms in these one-person households.

Living alone in England by age and gender, 2011



Number of bedrooms in one-person households (England, 2011)



The two charts give information about single-occupant households in England in the year 2011. The bar chart compares figures for occupants' age and gender, and the pie chart shows data about the number of bedrooms in these homes.

Overall, females made up a higher proportion of people living alone than males, and this difference is particularly noticeable in the older age categories. We can also see that the most common number of bedrooms in a single-occupant home was two.

A significant majority of the people aged 65 or over who were living alone in England in 2011 were female. Women made up around 72% of single occupants aged 75 to 84, and 76% of those aged 85 or over. By contrast, among younger adults the figures for males were higher. For example, in the 35-49 age category, men accounted for nearly 65% of people living alone.

In the same year, 35.4% of one-person households in England had two bedrooms, while one-bedroom and three-bedroom homes accounted for 28% and 29.8% of the total. Under 7% of single-occupant homes had four or more bedrooms.

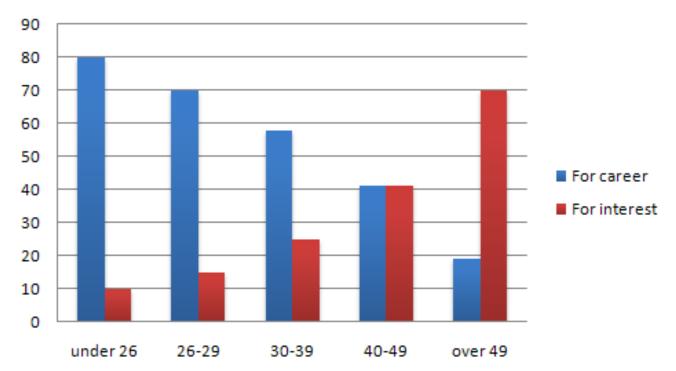
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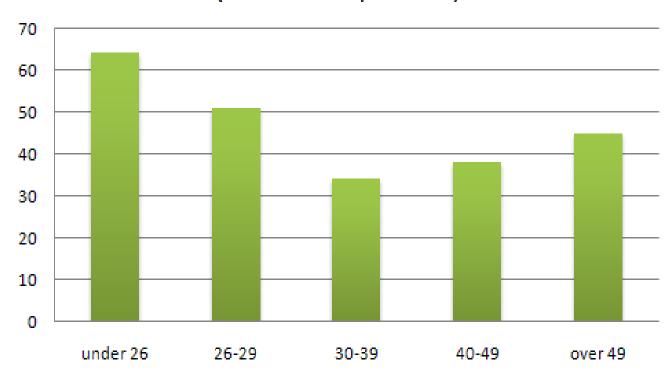
The charts below show the main reasons for study among students of different age groups and the amount of support they receive from employers.

Summarize the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant.

Reasons for study according to age of student



Employer support, by age group (Time off and help with fees)



Hardev Sir's IELTS 8528723949

The bar charts compare students of different ages in terms of why they are studying and whether they are supported by an employer.

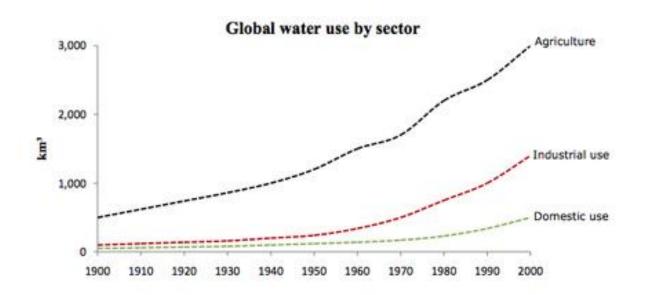
It is clear that the proportion of students who study for career purposes is far higher among the younger age groups, while the oldest students are more likely to study for interest. Employer support is more commonly given to younger students.

Around 80% of students aged under 26 study to further their careers, whereas only 10% study purely out of interest. The gap between these two proportions narrows as students get older, and the figures for those in their forties are the same, at about 40%. Students aged over 49 overwhelmingly study for interest (70%) rather than for professional reasons (less than 20%).

Just over 60% of students aged under 26 are supported by their employers. By contrast, the 30-39 age group is the most self-sufficient, with only 30% being given time off and help with fees. The figures rise slightly for students in their forties and for those aged 50 or more.

(178 words, band 9)

The graph and table below give information about water use worldwide and water consumption in two different countries.



Water consumption in Brazil and Congo in 2000

Country	Population	Irrigated land	Water consumption per person
Brazil	176 million	26,500 km²	359 m³
Democratic Republic of Congo	5.2 million	100 km²	8 m³

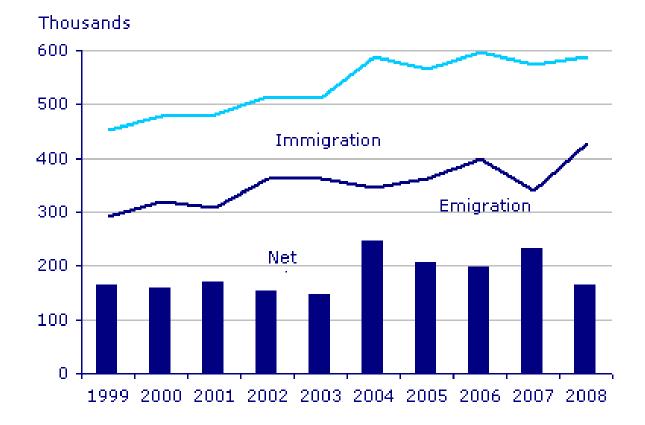
The charts compare the amount of water used for agriculture, industry and homes around the world, and water use in Brazil and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

It is clear that global water needs rose significantly between 1900 and 2000, and that agriculture accounted for the largest proportion of water used. We can also see that water consumption was considerably higher in Brazil than in the Congo.

In 1900, around 500km³ of water was used by the agriculture sector worldwide. The figures for industrial and domestic water consumption stood at around one fifth of that amount. By 2000, global water use for agriculture had increased to around 3000km³, industrial water use had risen to just under half that amount, and domestic consumption had reached approximately 500km³.

In the year 2000, the populations of Brazil and the Congo were 176 million and 5.2 million respectively. Water consumption per person in Brazil, at 359m³, was much higher than that in the Congo, at only 8m³, and this could be explained by the fact that Brazil had 265 times more irrigated land.

(184 words, band 9)



Long-Term International Migration, UK, 1999-2008

The chart gives information about UK immigration, emigration and net migration between 1999 and 2008.

Both immigration and emigration rates rose over the period shown, but the figures for immigration were significantly higher. Net migration peaked in 2004 and 2007.

In 1999, over 450,000 people came to live in the UK, while the number of people who emigrated stood at just under 300,000. The figure for net migration was around 160,000, and it remained at a similar level until 2003. From 1999 to 2004, the immigration rate rose by nearly 150,000 people, but there was a much smaller rise in emigration. Net migration peaked at almost 250,000 people in 2004.

After 2004, the rate of immigration remained high, but the number of people emigrating fluctuated. Emigration fell suddenly in 2007, before peaking at about 420,000 people in 2008. As a result, the net migration figure rose to around 240,000 in 2007, but fell back to around 160,000 in 2008.

(159 Words, Band 9)