

Paper 1 Topic 2 Weather hazards and climate change



Weather & climate change overview





Paper 1 Topic 2 Weather hazards and climate change - GAC

The movement of air across the planet occurs in a specific pattern. The whole system is driven by the equator, which is the hottest part of the Earth. Air rises at the equator, leading to low pressure and rainfall. When the air reaches the edge of the atmosphere, it cannot go any further and so it travels to the north and south. The air becomes colder and denser, and falls, creating high pressure and dry conditions at around 30° north and south of the equator. Large cells of air are created in this way.

Air rises again at around 60° north and south and descends again around 90° north and south. The names of the cells are shown in the diagram.

The Hadley cell

The first cell is called the Hadley cell. At the equator, the ground is intensely heated by the sun. This causes the air to rise which creates a **low-pressure** zone on the Earth's surface. As the air rises, it cools and forms thick cumulonimbus (storm) clouds. The air continues to rise up to the upper atmosphere, and the following then happens:

•The air separates and starts to move both north and south towards the poles.

•When it reaches about 30° north and south, the air cools and sinks towards the ground forming the subtropical **high-pressure** zone.

•As the air sinks, it becomes warmer and drier. This creates an area of little cloud and low rainfall, where deserts are found.

•The Hadley cell is then complete. The air completes the cycle and flows back towards the equator as the **trade winds**.

•In the northern hemisphere, the winds flow to the right and are called northeast trade winds. In the southern hemisphere the winds flow to the left and are called the southeast trade winds. This is down to the **Coriolis force** and friction.

The Ferrel cell

The Ferrel cell occurs at higher latitudes (between 30 degrees and 60 degrees N and 30 degrees and 60 degrees S):

•Air on the surface is pulled **towards** the poles, forming the warm south-westerly winds in the northern hemisphere and north-westerly winds in the southern hemisphere.

•These winds pick up moisture as they travel over the oceans. At around 60 degrees N and 60 degrees S, they meet cold air, which has drifted from the poles.

•The warmer air from the tropics is lighter than the dense, cold polar air and so it rises as the two air masses meet.

•This uplift of air causes low pressure at the surface and the unstable weather conditions that are associated with the **mid-latitude depressions**. Much of our wet and windy weather in the UK is determined by this.

The Polar cell

At the poles, air is cooled and sinks towards the ground forming high pressure, this known as the **Polar high**. It then flows towards the lower latitudes. At about 60 degrees N and S, the cold polar air mixes with warmer tropical air and rises **upwards**, creating a zone of low pressure called the **subpolar low**. The boundary between the warm and cold air is called the **polar front**. It accounts for a great deal of the unstable weather experienced in these latitudes.



Global atmospheric circulation creates winds across the planet and leads to areas of high rainfall, like the tropical rainforests, and areas of dry air, like deserts.

The **ITCZ** is a zone of convergence at the thermal equator where the trade winds meet. It is a low pressure belt and migrates with the changing position of the thermal equator.

The thermal equator receives the **most intense heat** from the Sun. Around 20th June each year the Sun is overhead at 23½° North, the Tropic of Cancer. Around 20th December the Sun is overhead at 23½° South, the Tropic of Capricorn.







Climate change – is the average climate conditions of the planet. They vary over time. The earth has a history of going between warm (interglacial) and cold (glacial) periods. Climate change can be caused by both natural events and humans

Factor	Effect
Milankovitch Cycles	 These are natural changes to the earth's orbit and position that affect how much solar radiation we receive from the sun Eccentricity – The orbit becomes elliptical so at times the earth is further from the sun causing it to be much cooler Axial tilt – The angle of the earth's tilt changes so summers and winters are more extreme when this happens Precession – The earth sometimes wobbles on it's axis and it changes seasons slightly.
Solar Variation	The amount of radiation the sun produces varies over time. Lower solar activity are likely to end in glacials.
Volcanism	Large-scale eruptions can lead to lots of ash in the atmosphere, sometimes it's so great it can block out the sunlight reducing global temperatures
Surface impact	Asteroids and comets can impact the earth's surface and cause lots of ash blocking out sunlight and reducing global temperatures

What is the evidence?

Ice Cores

Ice sheets in Greenland or Antarctica has built up over many years. In some places ice can be 3,000m deep. As snow falls and compacts as ice, it traps air bubbles – these contain a sample of what the atmosphere was like at that time.

Water in the ice also contains isotopes – scientists can measure the temperature of the earth at the time





Historical Sources:

Historical documents such as diaries, paintings etc. can describe what the climate is like at the time



Tree rings:

As trees grow they produce growth rings. In warmer climates growth rings are further apart. In cooler climates they are closer together.

These can indicate what the climate was like 100,1000 years ago



Paper 1 Topic 2 Weather hazards and climate change – Human causes





Paper 1 Topic 2 Weather hazards and climate change – Evidence





Paper 1 Topic 2 Weather hazards and climate change – Impacts





Hurricanes

The strongest tropical storms are called **hurricanes**, **typhoons** or **tropical cyclones**. The different names all mean the same thing, but are used in different parts of the world. If these huge storms start in the Atlantic, off the west coast of Africa, they are called **hurricanes**.

In an average year, over a dozen hurricanes form over the Atlantic Ocean and head westwards towards the Caribbean, the east coast of Central America and the southern USA (Florida in particular). Hurricanes may last as long as a month and although they travel very slowly - usually at about 24 km/h (15 mph) - wind speeds can reach over 120 km/h (75 mph).

How hurricanes form

When this warm and wet air rises, it condenses to form towering clouds, heavy rainfall. It also creates a low pressure zone near the surface of the water.

Rising warm air causes the pressure to decrease at higher altitudes. Warm air is under a higher pressure than cold air, so moves towards the 'space' occupied by the colder, lower pressure, air. So the low pressure 'sucks in' air from the warm surroundings, which then also rises. A continuous upflow of warm and wet air continues to create clouds and rain.

Air that surrounds the low pressure zone at the centre flows in a spiral at very high speeds - anti-clockwise in the northern hemisphere - at speeds of around 120 km/h (75 mph).

Air is ejected at the top of the storm – which can be 15km high – and falls to the outside of the storm, out and over the top, away from the eye of the storm. As this happens, it reduces the mass of air over the 'eye of the storm' - causing the wind speed to increase further. Some ejected air also cools and dries, and sinks through the eye of the storm, adding to the low pressure at the centre.

The faster the winds blow, the lower the air pressure in the centre, and so the cycle continues. The hurricane grows stronger and stronger.

Seen from above, hurricanes are huge circular bodies of thick cloud around 450 km (300 miles) wide. The cloud brings heavy rain, thunder and lightning.

In the centre is the **eye of the hurricane**, about 45 km across (30 miles) across. Often there will be no clouds in the eye. Seen from below it will seem calmer, with a circle of blue sky above. The eye is formed because this is the only part of the hurricane where cold air is descending.

In the northern hemisphere, the prevailing easterly tropical winds tend to steer hurricanes toward land - although their course is unpredictable. As hurricanes move inshore, their power gradually reduces because their energy comes from sucking up moist sea air.







Paper 1 Topic 2 Weather hazards and climate change – Tropical storms

	Description	Impact on people	Impact on environment
High Winds	Winds from 119 – 250 kmph	 Infrastructure such as power lines damaged Buildings destroyed Loss of life/injury 	Trees uprooted
Intense Rainfall	Heavy rainfall causing surface flooding	Damage propertyInjuryPotential loss of life	FloodingPollution of water systems
Storm Surges	Low pressure allows local sea level to rise, the winds help push the water up on land	 Coastal defences destroyed Flooded inland areas contaminating farmland Damage to properties 	Beaches and coastal habitats destroyed
Coastal Flooding	Intense rain and storm surges leads to coastal flooding	 Peoples lives and properties at risk of destruction Farming, tourism and industry at risk of flooding 	 Salt water intrusion Habitats destroyed Water contamination
Landslides	Intense rain in high relief areas can saturate the soil quickly, making it heavy. This can mean the soil can't hold together	 Settlements destroyed/damaged Transport routes cut off Loss of life and injury Displacement 	 River flooding if a channel is blocked Habitats destroyed Debris contaminate water

Physical vulnerability:	Economic vulnerability:
Coastal areas are more at risk as tropical cyclones form over oceans and seas. Island	Countries with higher levels of development are more likely to have better technology
nations (e.g. Maldives and the Philippines) are more vulnerable as they are surrounded by warm water and are low-lying. They are more likely to suffer flooding,	to prediction and monitoring systems and are therefore able to prepare for tropical cyclones by evacuating areas and putting up coastal defences and preparing
storm surges and high wind speeds. Some areas are also at risk from heavy rain and	emergency response teams
landslides	

Social vulnerability:

Areas with high poverty are more vulnerable as infrastructure (buildings etc) are not very stable and will be easily damaged or destroyed. The after effects also worse in poorer areas as there might not be access to food, water, medical supplies etc often resulting in higher losses of life. Age is another social inequality, older and younger people are more vulnerable as they are likely to suffer an injury during evacuation and have more difficulty in evacuation too. Young and old are more likely to catch illnesses and diseases



Paper 1 Topic 2 Weather hazards and climate change – Case Study Hurricane Irma

What: Hurricane Irma, Category 5 When: 8th to 11th September 2017 Where: Gulf of Mexico Who: Barbuda, Caribbean Islands, Florida, USA







Why/How: Causes Description:

Tropical depression formed in the Atlantic Ocean. Spinning vortex of winds as heat energy is evaporated from the ocean to fill gap of very low air pressure. Sea temperatures 32°C in Gulf of Mexico. Air pressure 915mb. Trade

winds blowing away from the Equator.

Developing country	Developed country
Caribbean - Barbuda Up to 185mp winds 600 students had to go to school on other islands 90% properties damages 68 sq. miles covered by Category 5 hurricane No water or communications - island considered uninhabitable 3 deaths Most people evacuated from Barbuda to Antigua \$250 million in damages = 12% of islands GDP 1,800 residents evacuated 3m storm surge causing significant flooding 60 tons of relief supplies sent by USA and British Aid Agencies	 USA - Florida Keys 7 direct deaths in USA 85 indirect deaths of which 80 were in Florida 77,000 people in shelters 6.5 million ordered to evacuate 70% buildings built before 1994 6.9 million homes left without power 2 - 3 m storm surge causing significant flooding 250 to 300mm rainfall an hour \$62.5 million in damages Loss of tourism trade







Characteristics and types of droughts

Droughts occur when there is abnormally low rainfall for an extended period of time. This means that a desert would not be considered in drought unless it had less rainfall than normal, for a long period of time. Droughts can last from weeks to months and even years.

Why are some areas more vulnerable to droughts?

Droughts can occur all over the world. However, there is a link between drought and some climate patterns. •A lack of water vapour in the atmosphere means there is less **precipitation** and more chance of drought. Highpressure systems reduce evaporation and moisture in the atmosphere.

•El Niño – as the surface temperature of the Pacific Ocean around the central South American

coast **increases**, storm patterns are disrupted. This phenomenon is thought to create droughts in Indonesia and Australia.

•La Niña - as the surface temperature of the Pacific Ocean around the central South American coast **decreases**, storms are again disrupted and North and South America are prone to

Types of droughts

There are three main types of drought:

•Meteorological drought – when the amount of precipitation received in a specific area is less than the average. •Hydrological drought – when reduced precipitation impacts on water supply, eg there is decreased streamflow, soil moisture, reservoir and lake levels, and groundwater.

•Agricultural drought – when the above two types of drought impact on agricultural activities, eg reduced soil moisture or reservoir levels required for irrigation.

Hazardous impacts of droughts

Droughts, unlike **earthquakes** and **volcanic eruptions**, are not a sudden hazard event. Instead, their beginning and end are hard to gauge and they can last for months and even years.

Approximately 780 million people worldwide lack a reliable and sufficient water supply. This can have many serious impacts:

•A lack of clean and reliable water can cause people in developing countries to drink contaminated water which could cause a range of diseases such as cholera and typhoid.

•Commercial and **subsistence farmers** can experience high crop or livestock losses and a reduction in the land's value. Subsistence farmers may experience **famine**.

•With less moisture and rainfall, wildfires can become common, damaging crops, buildings and even causing death. •Businesses and services which rely on clean water may be closed, eg hospitals and restaurants.

•Conflicts or war between people and countries can occur when pressure is put on water supplies. It can also lead to people having to migrate away from drought-stricken areas.







What: Worst drought in 125 years When: 2002 to 2009 Where: South-east Australia Who: Everyone, especially farmers

Why/How: Causes Description:

This was credited to El Niño, where moist trade winds are reversed, so instead of bringing rainfall to Australia they travelled west towards South America, leaving south-east Australia with a lack of rainfall. Some scientists believe climate change exacerbated this drought by also reducing rainfall.

The region most affected was the Murray-Darling River Basin in New South Wales. This area usually provides 75% of Australia's water, 40% of Australia's agricultural produce and is home to nearly 2 million people.

This drought had severe **agricultural impacts**:

•Significant loss of livestock and crops. Some farmers had to sell machinery, land or even move elsewhere and lose their livelihood.

•With fewer crops and livestock, Australia had to import more food. This increased the price of food for the whole country.

•Droughts degrade the quality of the soil, affecting farming for years to come.

This drought had severe impacts on the **natural ecosystem**:

•Wildfires caused by drought destroyed vegetation and animals' habitats.

•Creeks and rivers dried up causing the organisms relying on them to die or migrate.

•Increased soil erosion destroyed vegetation and the creatures which relied on it to survive.





\$11.1 billion in Australian Government funding committed to drought-related programs since 2018-19 (as at 31 December 2021)

Responses



Long-term resilience and preparedness

\$5 billion Future Drought Fund8 drought resilience hubs80 soil and agricultural landscapes projects

Immediate action for those in drought

2,567 drought loans to farmers
124 drought loans to small businesses
11,389 rebates for on-farm emergency water infrastructure
16,800+ farmers received Farm Household Allowance (since 2014)
1,591 small regional businesses accessed rural financial counselling
57 regional climate guides

Support for wider communities affected by drought

57,000+ households assisted to pay urgent expenses
Support for 180 local government areas (infrastructure & other projects)
Support for 250 schools
\$10+ million in cash and/or voucher support for farmers



Paper 1 Topic 2 Weather hazards and climate change – Case Study The Sahel Ethiopia

The Sahel is located directly south of the Sahara desert and stretches from the east to the west of Africa. The Sahel is semi-**arid**, receiving between 250 and 450 mm of rainfall in total in an average year, however it only falls in one or two months. This region provides Africa with food and cash crops such as millet and cotton.



Since the 1970s, the Sahel has experienced drought conditions on a regular basis. This is down to physical and human factors:

•Overgrazing and deforestation on marginal land can lead to desertification. With less vegetation there is less transpiration and evaporation from the soil, causing less rainfall.

•Changes in surrounding ocean temperature – the temperatures of the south Atlantic and Indian Oceans increased, with a smaller temperature gap between land and ocean, and **monsoon** rains were reduced.

•Some scientists believe climate change has reduced rainfall or made it less predictable.

The social and economic impacts of drought in the Sahel Social impacts

- •Subsistence farmers' crops fail and livestock dies. This can lead to famine and hunger.
- •Commercial farms growing cash crops such as cotton lose income, which may cause unemployment.
- •With less food being grown and an increase in demand, food prices increase.
- •Increased soil erosion makes the land less fertile, creating a long-term issue for the farming community.
- •Clean water is not available for people to drink, increasing the use of contaminated water and diseases such as cholera.
- •People (usually women and children) travel further to find water, which means children miss school and the carrying of heavy loads can lead to back problems.

Environmental impacts

•Seasonal rivers and water holes dry up, so organisms which live in them or rely on them for water may die.

- •Vegetation dies causing animals depending on it for food or shelter to perish or migrate.
- •Increased soil erosion. Eroded material is washed into rivers or water holes resulting in contamination.

Attempted solutions

•Encouraging farmers to grow drought-resistant crops.

•Improving knowledge and understanding of droughts across the region by launching the Africa Climate Exchange

- •Use of drip irrigation systems to reduce water usage.
- •Lines of rocks are placed across the land to slow flowing rainwater and encourage the **deposition** of sediments (rich in nutrients). This is a cost-effective option.