

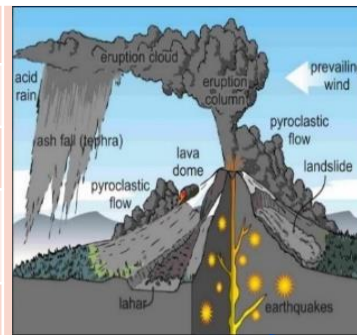


The structure of the Earth

The Crust	Varies in thickness (5-10km) beneath the ocean. Made up of several large plates.
The Mantle	Widest layer (2900km thick). The heat and pressure means the rock is in a liquid state that is in a state of convection.
The Inner and outer Core	Hottest section (5000 degrees). Mostly made of iron and nickel and is 4x denser than the crust. Inner section is solid whereas outer layer is liquid.

Volcanic Hazards

Ash cloud	Small pieces of pulverised rock and glass which are thrown into the atmosphere.
Gas	Sulphur dioxide, water vapour and carbon dioxide come out of the volcano.
Lahar	A volcanic mudflow which usually runs down a valley side on the volcano.
Pyroclastic flow	A fast moving current of super-heated gas and ash (1000°C). They travel at 450mph.
Volcanic bomb	A thick (viscous) lava fragment that is ejected from the volcano.



Managing Volcanic Eruptions

Warning signs	Monitoring techniques
Small earthquakes are caused as magma rises up.	Seismometers are used to detect earthquakes.
Temperatures around the volcano rise as activity increases.	Thermal imaging and satellite cameras can be used to detect heat around a volcano.
When a volcano is close to erupting it starts to release gases.	Gas samples may be taken and chemical sensors used to measure sulphur levels.
Preparation	
Creating an exclusion zone around the volcano.	Being ready and able to evacuate residents.
Having an emergency supply of basic provisions, such as food	Trained emergency services and a good communication system.

Convection Currents

The crust is divided into tectonic plates which are moving due to convection currents in the mantle.

- Radioactive decay of some of the elements in the core and mantle generate a lot of heat.
- When lower parts of the mantle molten rock (Magma) heat up they become **less dense** and **slowly rise**.
- As they move towards the top they cool down, become **more dense** and **slowly sink**.
- These **circular movements** of semi-molten rock are **convection currents**
- Convection currents create **drag** on the base of the tectonic plates and this causes them to move.

LIC-CS: Nepal Earthquake 2015



Causes

On a destructive collision plate margin, involving the Eurasian and Indo-Australian plates moves towards each both (both continental)
The **magnitude 7.6 earthquake** was only **45 miles** from the capital Kathmandu. With a very **shallow focus of 13km deep**.

Effects

9000 people died and 3.5 million homeless.
Many **emotionally affected**.
Avalanche on Mt Everest killed 17

Management

Individuals tried to recover people.
Many countries **responded with appeals** or **rescue teams** sending aid such as water and shelter & money (\$1.5 billion worldwide).
Children educated how to be safe in and EQ

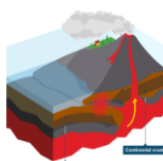
Unit 1a

The Challenges of Natural Hazards



Types of Plate Margins

Destructive Plate Margin



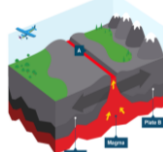
When the denser plate subducts beneath the other, friction causes it to **melt and become molten magma**. The magma forces its ways up to the surface to form a volcano. This margin is also responsible for **devastating earthquakes**.

Constructive Plate Margin



Here two plates are **moving apart** causing new magma to reach the surface through the gap. Volcanoes formed along this crack cause a submarine mountain range such as those in the **Mid Atlantic Ridge**.

Conservative Plate Margin



A conservative plate boundary occurs where plates **slide past each other** in opposite directions, or in the same direction but at different speeds. This is responsible for earthquakes such as the ones happening along the San Andreas Fault, USA.

What is a Natural Hazard

A natural hazard is a natural process which could cause death, injury or disruption to humans, property and possessions.

Geological Hazard

These are hazards caused by land and tectonic processes.

Meteorological Hazard

These are hazards caused by weather and climate.

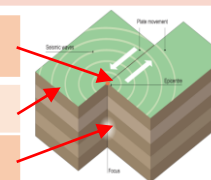
Causes of Earthquakes

Earthquakes are caused when two plates become **locked** causing **friction** to build up. From this **stress**, the **pressure** will eventually be released, triggering the plates to move into a new position. This movement causes energy in the form of **seismic waves**, to travel from the **focus** towards the **epicentre**. As a result, the crust vibrates triggering an earthquake.

The point directly above the focus, where the seismic waves reach first, is called the **EPICENTRE**.

SEISMIC WAVES (energy waves) travel out from the focus.

The point at which pressure is released is called the **FOCUS**.



Earthquake Management



PREDICTING

Methods include:

- Satellite surveying (tracks changes in the earth's surface)
- Laser reflector (surveys movement across fault lines)
- Radon gas sensor (radon gas is released when plates move so this finds that)
- Seismometer
- Water table level (water levels fluctuate before an earthquake).
- Scientists also use seismic records to predict when the next event will occur.

PROTECTION

You can't stop earthquakes, so earthquake-prone regions follow these three methods to reduce potential damage:

- Building earthquake-resistant buildings
- Raising public awareness
- Improving earthquake prediction

HIC - CS: Eyjafjallajökull (E15) Eruption, Iceland 2010



Causes

The North-American and Eurasian plates move apart on a **constructive plates**.

The disruption caused by Eyjafjallajökull was the result of a series of small volcanic eruptions from March to October.

Effects

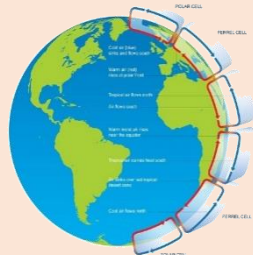
The **thick ice cap** melted which caused major flooding.
No reported deaths.
Airspace closed across Europe, with at least **17,000** flights cancelled
Costed insurers **£65m** to cancelled flights.



Management

Iceland had a good warning system with **texts being sent** to residents within **30 minutes**.
Large sections of **European airspace were closed** down due ash spread over the continent.
Airlines developed **ash monitoring equipment**.

Global pattern of air circulation	
Atmospheric circulation is the large-scale movement of air by which heat is distributed on the surface of the Earth.	
Hadley cell	Largest cell which extends from the Equator to between 30° to 40° north & south .
Ferrel cell	Middle cell where air flows poleward between 60° & 70° latitude.
Polar cell	Smallest & weakness cell that occurs from the poles to the Ferrel cell.



Distribution of Tropical Storms.	High and Low Pressure	
They are known by many names, including hurricanes (North America), cyclones (India) and typhoons (Japan and East Asia). They all occur in a band that lies roughly 5-15° either side of the Equator.	Low Pressure Caused by hot air rising. Causes stormy, cloudy weather.	High Pressure Caused by cold air sinking. Causes clear and calm weather.

Formation of Tropical Storms	
1	The sun's rays heats large areas of ocean in the summer and autumn. This causes warm, moist air to rise over the particular spots
2	Once the temperature is 27° , the rising warm moist air leads to a low pressure . This eventually turns into a thunderstorm. This causes air to be sucked in from the trade winds .
3	With trade winds blowing in the opposite direction and the rotation of earth involved (Coriolis effect), the thunderstorm will eventually start to spin .
4	When the storm begins to spin faster than 74mph , a tropical storm (such as a hurricane) is officially born.
5	With the tropical storm growing in power, more cool air sinks in the centre of the storm, creating calm, clear condition called the eye of the storm .
6	When the tropical storm hits land, it loses its energy source (the warm ocean) and it begins to lose strength. Eventually it will 'blow itself out'.

Changing pattern of Tropical Storms	
Scientist believe that global warming is having an impact on the frequency and strength of tropical storms. This may be due to an increase in ocean temperatures.	
Management of Tropical Storms	
Protection Preparing for a tropical storm may involve construction projects that will improve protection.	Aid Aid involves assisting after the storm, commonly in LIDS.
Development The scale of the impacts depends on the whether the country has the resources cope with the storm.	Planning Involves getting people and the emergency services ready to deal with the impacts.
Prediction Constant monitoring can help to give advanced warning of a tropical storm	Education Teaching people about what to do in a tropical storm.
Primary Effects of Tropical Storms	
- The intense winds of tropical storms can destroy whole communities, buildings and communication networks. - As well as their own destructive energy, the winds can generate abnormally high waves called storm surges. - Sometimes the most destructive elements of a storm are these subsequent high seas and flooding they cause to coastal areas.	
Secondary Effects of Tropical Storms	
- People are left homeless, which can cause distress, poverty and ill health due to lack of shelter. Shortage of clean water and lack of proper sanitation makes it easier for diseases to spread. Businesses are damaged or destroyed causing employment. - Shortage of food as crops are damaged.	
Case Study: Typhoon Haiyan 2013	
Causes Started as a tropical depression on 2nd November 2013 and gained strength. Became a Category 5 "super typhoon" and made landfall on the Pacific islands of the Philippines.	
Effects - Almost 6,500 deaths. 130,000 homes destroyed. - Water and sewage systems destroyed had caused diseases. Emotional grief for dead.	Management - The UN raised £190m in aid. - USA & UK sent helicopter carrier ships deliver aid remote areas. Education on typhoon preparedness.

Case Study: UK Heat Wave 2003	
Causes The heat wave was caused by an anticyclone (areas of high pressure) that stayed in the area for most of August. This blocked any low pressure systems that normally brings cooler and rainier conditions.	
Effect - People suffered from heat strokes and dehydration. 2000 people died from causes linked to heatwave. - Rail network disrupted and crop yields were low.	Management - The NHS and media gave guidance to the public. - Limitations placed on water use (hose pipe ban). - Speed limits imposed on trains and government created 'heatwave plan'.
What is Climate Change?	
Climate change is a large-scale, long-term shift in the planet's weather patterns or average temperatures. Earth has had tropical climates and ice ages many times in its 4.5 billion years.	
Recent Evidence for climate change.	
Global temperature	Average global temperatures have increased by more than 0.6°C since 1950.
Ice sheets & glaciers	Many of the world's glaciers and ice sheets are melting. E.g. the Arctic sea ice has declined by 10% in 30 years.
Sea Level Change	Average global sea level has risen by 10-20cms in the past 100 years. This is due to the additional water from ice and thermal expansion.
Enhanced Greenhouse Effect	
Recently there has been an increase in humans burning fossil fuels for energy. These fuels (gas, coal and oil) emit greenhouse gases. This is making the Earth's atmosphere thicker, therefore trapping more solar radiation and causing less to be reflected. As a result, the Earth is becoming warmer.	
Evidence of natural change	
Orbital Changes	Some argue that climate change is linked to how the Earth orbits the Sun, and the way it wobbles and tilts as it does it.
Sun Spots	Dark spots on the Sun are called Sun spots. They increase the amount of energy Earth receives from the Sun.
Volcanic Eruptions	Volcanoes release large amounts of dust containing gases. These can block sunlight and results in cooler temperatures.
Managing Climate Change	
Carbon Capture This involves new technology designed to reduce climate change.	Planting Trees Planting trees increase the amount of carbon is absorbed from atmosphere.
International Agreements Countries aim to cut emissions by signing international deals and by setting targets.	Renewable Energy Replacing fossil fuels based energy with clean/natural sources of energy.