



A Level AQA Revision Booklet

3.1.1 Water and Carbon Cycles

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Teacher's Introduction

The revision booklets in this series are designed to support your students as they study the AQA Advanced Subsidiary GCE in Geography (7036) and the AQA Advanced GCE in Geography (7037). These revision summaries match the AQA specification perfectly. **This particular set supports AS Unit 3.1.1 Water and carbon cycles, examined in Paper 1. It also supports A Level Unit 3.1.1 Water and carbon cycles, examined in Paper 1.**

Remember!

Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

The concept is that *all* students need a clearly explained, concise yet comprehensive body of notes to revise from, both as they progress through the course and when preparing for the end-of-course examination. For this reason, the booklets are broken into manageable chunks and are provided in both A4 and A5 formats for easy photocopying. A5 booklets allow easy carrying and reference for students, right up to the moment they walk into the exam hall, and allow for effective revision time.

Since revision should be ongoing throughout one's study, it is recommended that after teaching each topic you issue students with the relevant revision booklet as they progress through the course. The booklets can also be issued as a complete revision pack in the run-up to the examinations.

By use of bullet points, text boxes and grids, these revision booklets provide succinct yet comprehensive and relatively detailed coverage of the specification content – probably far more than what one would expect from a revision summary.

Each topic follows a clear structure of:

- **Keywords:** lots of keywords are clearly defined, and by covering up the definitions with a sheet of paper, students can easily self-test their memory of these all-important terms.
- **Key points:** these form the main body of the summaries for each topic. Concise, detailed and easy to follow, they provide a solid bank of notes to support students' knowledge, understanding and evaluation.
- **Core content:** the main content of the specification in bullet points, boxes and diagrams. Boxes with suggested examples allow students to name-drop examples in their exam, or give ideas for further research.
- **If you only remember these three things...:** the three most important takeaways from the topic.
- **Consolidation questions:** several quick questions on the core content – designed to ensure that the key points have been retained.
- **Take it further:** offers suggestions to support the option of extending learning further.
- **Student checks:** useful checklist to help students monitor their own learning.

Each pack also contains a **students' introduction** which introduces the topic and sets out some of the exam structure; introduces command words, AOs and level marking, along with exam tips and a checklist; and explains how to use the booklet. At the end are included tips on time management, and planning and writing answers, along with an introduction to synopticity.

By using this resource, teachers will know that all students have the key points for all the topics of the course in a clear, written format. It saves time in class for teachers and decreases the amount of preparatory work needed outside class.

This resource also helps achieve greater equality among students of differing abilities, as often the weakest students make the least helpful notes from which to study and revise outside class. These easy-to-understand revision summary notes help to overcome this problem and promote greater equality of opportunity.

And remember, these revision booklets are also perfect to refer back to as end-of-year summaries before the examination – especially useful nowadays with linear examinations.

I trust that you and your students will enjoy using these revision summaries as much as I have enjoyed writing them for you.

Free Updates!

Register your email address to receive any future free updates* made to this resource or other Geography resources your school has purchased, and details of any promotions for your subject.

* resulting from minor specification changes, suggestions from teachers and peer reviews, or occasional errors reported by customers

Go to [zzed.uk/freeupdates](https://www.zzed.uk/freeupdates)

June 2019

Students' Introduction

What's the topic?

'Water and carbon cycles' is a compulsory module. As you know, this topic teaches about the most important cycles on Earth. These cycles keep us alive – without them, we wouldn't be able to control the climate. In a way, we take these cycles for granted – but they are essential. By burning fossil fuels and changing the land's surface, we're changing the climate and the implications for our way of life.

You will be asked questions on this topic in Paper 1, Section A.

Here's a quick overview of the things you might find in the exam. However, expect sometimes exam boards can throw in a curveball – a different type of question or format – but don't be too alarmed. Just read the questions carefully and be ready to adapt.

You'll be presented with a range of questions – remember that they ramp up in difficulty.

- Firstly, you might be presented with a short factual recall question.
- Then, you might be given a couple of figures – maps, charts and data. You've seen these before. They're designed to see how you cope with unfamiliar sources – how you analyse them. You might have heard the term 'AO2'. AO2 marks require you to show that you understand what it means.
 - You may be asked to use the figure(s) and your knowledge to answer the question.
 - These might be medium-length questions, worth around 6 marks.
- Finally, you'll get a longer, essay-based question – typically worth 20 marks. You'll be asked to state your viewpoints or to weigh up two sides of an argument. You may also be asked to use a case study to support your answer. Justify your opinion(s), and support it with facts and balanced arguments if you are reaching for the higher marks. You'll need to draw on your knowledge and offer a well-thought opinion. PEE, or even better, PEEL here! And no, we don't recommend you get out a satsuma in the exam – link together evidence.
- And *finally*, don't forget that you'll be asked questions from the whole of the syllabus – any of the topics. You'll also need to have a few named examples at the tips of your fingers. You need to have learnt a couple of case studies in depth to really ace the exam.

If you're studying this at **AS**, the exam questions are also part of Section A in the exam. There are also multiple-choice questions at the start.

How to use this guide

You may be given this at the start or at the end of teaching on the topic. Don't worry about it being stuffed in your pocket (although don't take it into the exam itself!). Remember to use it when you want to. Scribble all over it, or highlight bits you need to look at again.

Here are some brief suggestions:

- Work through it as you go through the course.
- Give it a read at the end of the lessons.
- Give it a read before an upcoming test.
- Use it when you revise, of course – perhaps even outside the exam hall if you can.

Now write down the date of the exam. You can use this to plan your revision timetable.

Date of my exam:

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Checklist

It can be a useful idea to make a note of when you've read through something. If you're confident that you know a topic, or you last looked at this six months ago, then it's worth another look!

Topic	When did you read this? <i>Write in the box here – preferably today's</i>	I know this
What are cycles?		
The Water Cycle 1: Stores and processes		
The Water Cycle 2: The drainage basin, run-off and human influence		
The Carbon Cycle 1: Stores and flows		
The Carbon Cycle 2: Changes and human activity		
The importance of water and carbon, and mitigating climate change		
Case Studies: Tropical rainforest and a local catchment		

Exam tips

Now that you've thoroughly revised and hopefully answered a few sample exam questions, you should have a good idea of what to expect in your exam.

Command words

In each question there are 'command words'. These are essentially the instructions to answer the question, and they give you a clue on the type of response the examiner is looking for.

Command words are not a secret, and they're nothing to worry about. You've probably seen them from throughout your year(s) studying the course.

AQA has created a list for you to refer to:

<https://www.aqa.org.uk/resources/geography/as-and-a-level/geography/tips-for-answers>

Unfortunately, AQA hasn't given a breakdown of the possible number of marks for each command word. However, the more marks they will be worth.

- For example, the word 'define' wants a short answer stating facts (AO1). As a definition, you can quickly gain a couple of marks.
- Assess, for example, requires more thinking, and you might have to consider different viewpoints.
- The words with the most marks might be 'to what extent' – you will need an understanding of the topic and will need to provide examples!
- However, the same command words may have different numbers of marks. For example, 'assess' is used for both 6- and 9-mark questions, and 'to what extent' is used for 6- and 9-mark questions!

Here's our quick run-down of different command words and what you need to provide for a balanced answer.

- ✓ **JUSTIFY:** Set out the pros and cons of EVERY view or opinion. Weigh them up and state which are stronger pros according to your weighing of opinion.
- ✓ **DISCUSS:** Set out for and against of an argument, and come to a conclusion between sides.
- ✓ **EXPLAIN:** Set out causes of the issue, event and/or factors influencing its form and understanding of processes.
- ✓ **OUTLINE:** Provide a brief account of relevant information.

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- ✓ **TO WHAT EXTENT:** Express opinion on merit or validity of a view after examining different sides of argument.
- ✓ **COMMENT ON:** Make a statement arising from a factual point. Add a view, like a Geographer!
- ✓ **EVALUATE:** Consider several options or arguments and come to a conclusion on success or worth.

Assessment objectives

You may come across the words 'assessment objectives', or 'AOs' for short. These are command words. They are set by the exam board and vary by subject. As you'd expect, the AO1s are the highest, and AO3s are the lowest.

Here's a quick summary:

	What you need to do	
AO1	Show your knowledge and understanding of geographical concepts and issues	✓ Collecting evidence together
AO2	Manipulate and draw conclusions from geographical information, both familiar and new	✓ Use of maps ✓ Statistics ✓ ICT skills: using data ✓ Analysis, presentation
AO3	Investigating questions and reaching conclusions through many geographical skills and techniques	✓ Concluding ✓ Use of maps ✓ Statistics ✓ ICT skills: using data ✓ Analysis, presentation

In your Paper 1 exam, you'll mostly be assessed on AO1 and AO2. There will be very few AO3s in the NEA (fieldwork investigation).

For every question, the AO1s have decided which AOs they are targeting. Bare this in mind when answering. If it's clear that an answer is looking for some AO2 or AO3 marks, don't stop there.

You might find it useful to have a look at a couple of mark schemes for the topic you're studying to see how many AO marks are achievable.

Level marking

Now that you've got a handle on how the command words work and what the AO1s are looking for, you need to be aware of how they will mark your answers.

For anything but the shortest of questions, you will be level marked. Each level has a range of marks. L1 = 1–3 marks, L2 = 4–6 marks. The essay-based questions will have four levels. The more marks you'll get.

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An example of level marking criteria can be found below.

Level	Mark	Descriptor
Level 1	(1–5 marks)	AO1: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The answer uses little geographic theory, and info is superficial. No use of geographical terms. Little evidence of comprehension. No or minimal use of example material, where appropriate.
		AO2: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investigation, connections and developments are unclear. Argument is unclear; points may be brief, biased or of poor structure. Answer is likely to be poorly written for the question.
Level 2	(6–10 marks)	AO1: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of more complex theories may be inaccurate, but information is correct. Geographical terms used infrequently. Comprehension is apparent but may be patchy. Case study material is present, where appropriate, but may be superficial.
		AO2: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investigation, connections and developments are apparent but may be poorly structured or not fully relevant to the question.
Level 3	(11–15 marks)	AO1: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reliable reference to key geographical theories; the answer demonstrates a good level of critical comprehension. Geographical terms used often. Case study material is appropriate, specific and well written where applicable.
		AO2: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investigation, connections and developments are explicit, with a good balance of evidence and conclusion. Answer is highly relevant to the question.
Level 4	(16–20 marks)	AO1: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Geographical theories and processes are appropriately used, demonstrating comprehensive and specific knowledge. Frequent use of geographical terms. Critical comprehension is self-evident from the correct use of geographical theory and information. Use of case study material is suitable, broad and tailored to the question. Specific facts and figures are fully integrated and used to support the answer.
		AO2: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investigation, connections and developments are well written, supported by the evidence. Argument is well written, supported by the evidence. Uses a balance of viewpoints in order to reach a justified conclusion. Conclusions are creative, sophisticated and highly relevant to the question.

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What are Cycles

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Keywords

- ✓ **System:** Simplified model of the real world, where a process occurs. There are inputs and stores within the system.
- ✓ **Open system:** A cycle or process where inputs and outputs can add or remove matter or energy from the system.
- ✓ **Closed system:** Linked processes where there are no inputs or outputs of matter or energy from the system.
- ✓ **Input:** Addition to a system.
- ✓ **Output:** Removal from a system.
- ✓ **Store:** A place where water, for example, is retained for a period of time, e.g. a reservoir.
- ✓ **Dynamic equilibrium:** The steady, balanced state of a system.
- ✓ **Positive feedback:** A 'runaway' system loop where the system moves further away from equilibrium.
- ✓ **Negative feedback:** A cycle that returns a system back towards a normal (equilibrium) state.

Key Points

- We simplify the world into systems. Energy and matter can flow in and out of systems.
- Systems contain stores and have inputs and outputs.
- Systems can be open or closed.
- The water and carbon cycles are systems.
- When inputs and outputs are balanced, the system is in a state of dynamic equilibrium.
- Positive and negative feedback changes the equilibrium.

What are systems?

The real world is incredibly complicated. This is why we break it down into **systems**.

Systems include many different parts which are all related. They occur because there is a common factor.

The driver is usually the sun.

Sometimes, larger systems can be sub-divided into sub-systems.

The parts of a system include:

- Stores (components)
- Inputs and outputs

Earth has four main interlinked **open** systems. They all affect each other.

They are:



Atmosphere



Hydrosphere



Lithosphere



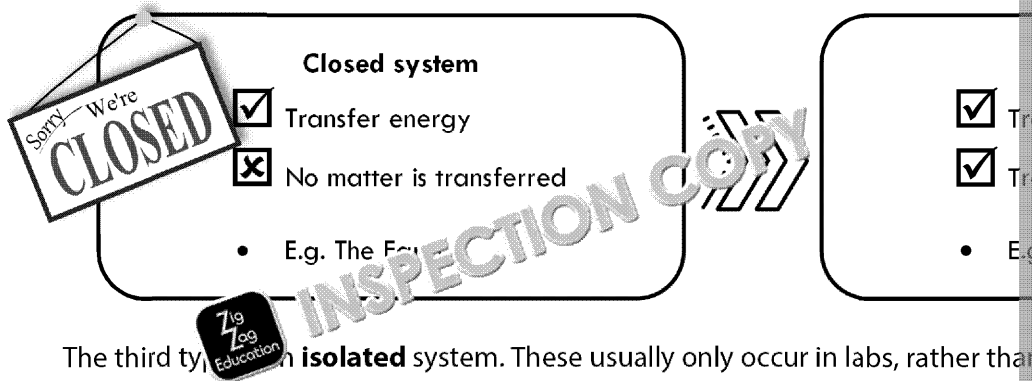
Biosphere



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There are three types of system, based on whether energy and matter can be transferred into or out of the system.



The third type is an **isolated** system. These usually only occur in labs, rather than in nature. There are no inputs or outputs of either material or energy.

Dynamic equilibrium

Systems have **inputs** and **outputs**. Inputs are energy and matter.

In a **closed** system, the outputs and inputs simply cycle around one store (usually the atmosphere).

In an **open** system, inputs enter and flows take place between stores. Eventually the system reaches a state of **dynamic equilibrium**.

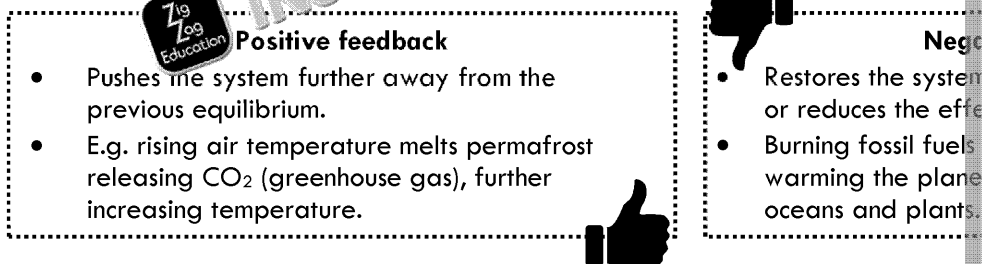


Dynamic equilibrium is where the system is stable – the inputs and outputs are balanced. Sometimes something changes which changes the equilibrium.

Positive and negative feedback

Sometimes, the equilibrium changes. The inputs and outputs change, and the system is no longer in balance.

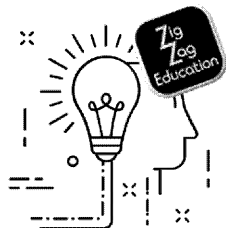
There are two types:



Applications of the water and carbon cycles

- We couldn't live without the water and carbon cycles.
- They are both interrelated, open systems.
- The water cycle can be sub-divided into drainage basins.
- However, on a global scale, they are closed systems.

If you can remember these three things...



- 1 Systems include stores and components, and can be open or closed.
- 2 Earth as a whole is a closed system because there are no inputs or outputs.
- 3 If the inputs and outputs are balanced, the system is at equilibrium. Negative feedback makes the system deviate away from the current state, but positive feedback helps to restore the system back to its previous state.

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Activities

Consolidation questions

- Give an example of:
 - an input
 - an output
- What is the term given to a system where the inputs and outputs are balanced?
- Are the water and carbon cycles open or closed?
- What is the term given to a stable system where the inputs and outputs are balanced?
- Removing forest increases the atmospheric CO₂ levels. Increasing warming might this cause?

Take it further

Take a look at the article on winter storms: [zzed.uk/9582-beaches](https://www.zzed.uk/9582-beaches)
Can you explain the feedback processes involved in restoring the beaches?



Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹️	Nearly 😊	Sure 😄	
What are cycles?	What are systems?				
	Dynamic equilibrium				
	Positive and negative feedback				
	Links to the water and carbon cycles				

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The Water Cycle 1: Stores and processes

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Keywords

- ✓ **Lithosphere:** Rock environments – contains a store of water.
- ✓ **Hydrosphere:** The store of water on the Earth's surface.
- ✓ **Cryosphere:** The ice and snow on Earth.
- ✓ **Atmosphere:** Water is stored as gas (vapour) within the air, or is condensed.
- ✓ **Cascading system:** Several linked systems which all affect each other.
- ✓ **Soil water:** Liquid located just below the Earth's surface in loose, unconsolidated bedrock.
- ✓ **Groundwater:** Water located below the Earth's surface, stored in the pores of rock.
- ✓ **Surface water:** Water located above ground; for example, in lakes, streams.
- ✓ **Permafrost:** Ground which is permanently frozen for at least two years in a row.
- ✓ **Evaporation:** State change of water from a liquid to a gas.
- ✓ **Condensation:** Change in state from a gas to a liquid – e.g. water vapour to liquid.
- ✓ **Sublimation:** A direct change in state from solid (ice) to gas (water vapour) – e.g. snow to water vapour.
- ✓ **Residence time:** The average period of time that water molecules stay in a store (or a specific lake) before they flow away, or evaporate.

Key Points

- Most of our water is in the oceans – 97%. Most of the freshwater is locked away below the ground. There is very little surface water on Earth!
- Water is found in all four 'spheres' – the lithosphere, hydrosphere, cryosphere and atmosphere.
- Soil water is located in the soil and groundwater within rock. Some of that is frozen.
- Most water in the atmosphere is invisible – water vapour.
- Water exists in all three states – liquid, solid and gas.
- Water is transferred between the three states.
- The length of time that water remains in a store is called its residence time.
- Stores and processes can occur naturally – such as through ice ages. Humans can affect the cycle as a result of human-caused climate change.

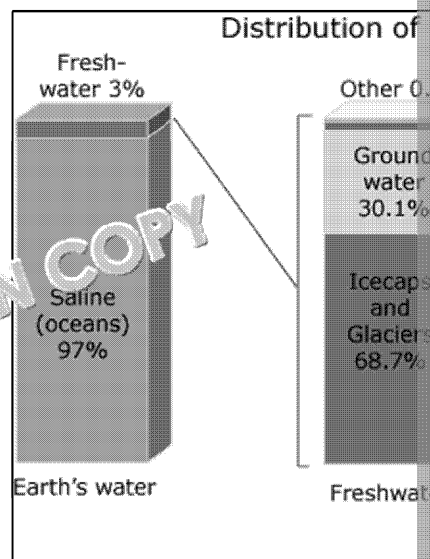
Where is our water?

Unsurprisingly, most of Earth's water is in the oceans – estimated at around 1,338,000,000 km³.

! You'll see variations in all the sources you look at because the figures are estimates, or are rounded !

In fact, 71% of the surface is covered with water. This ocean water is salty (saline). We can't drink it, unless we spend energy and therefore money removing the salt.

The diagram on the right shows the stores.



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We can divide the Earth's water stores into the following 'spheres'. They are exa

The lithosphere:

Water within soil and rocks.

- **Soil water** within non-saturated soil and unconsolidated material - dependent on soil type, time of year and water level.
- **Groundwater** - saturated rock beneath the water table - called



E.g. Found throughout the world – Northwestern Sahara, Great Artesian Basin (Australia) and the Arabian Aquifer System.



The hydrosphere:

This is the liquid w

The main form is c
salty sea water w
consists of fresh su
lakes, rivers and v



E.g. All of the w
rivers includ
Yangtze, and maj
Caspian Sea, Lake
Superior.

The cryosphere:

This is all of the frozen water on Earth, including:

- Ice caps, ice sheets, ice shelves, sea ice and glaciers.
- **Permafrost** - ground frozen for more than 2 years.



E.g. Greenland and Antarctica, winter sea ice, permafrost in Canada and Siberia, Alpine glaciers, etc.



The atmosphere:

Water within the at

- Gaseous water (a source).
- Clouds (water crystals).



E.g. Everywhere all around temperature – but w

Note that technically, the hydrosphere is a term which encompasses all of the Ea
the term terrestrial water to mean all water on and below the surface.

Biological water is found in living things. The sap of plants and trees, and in hum
60% water!



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Here's the full breakdown in a table.

Can you work out which 'spheres' each category falls into?

Water source
Oceans, seas and bays
Ice caps, glaciers and permanent snow
Groundwater
Fresh
Saline
Soil moisture
Ground ice and permafrost
Lakes
Fresh
Saline
Atmosphere
Swamp water
Rivers
Biological water

Water transfers

- Water can change states.
- State changes take in, or give out, latent heat.

Water exists in the

- Liquid
- Solid (ice)
- Gas (vapour)

Examples include:

- **Evaporation** of liquid water (liquid → water vapour/gas) because of heat from the sun.
 - There are various determinants of evaporation rate: temperature (the warmer the air, the more water it can hold – the relative humidity), the availability of water, and the amount of wind (is it already saturated? – if so, it can't hold any more).
 - We often use the phrase evapotranspiration to include the water vapour lost through transpiration from plants.
- **Condensation** – water vapour back into liquid water.
 - E.g. formation of **clouds** as warm air rises and cools to its dew point – or around condensation nuclei. Can occur due to heating of the ground, cooling at weather fronts, etc.
 - Dew forms in the evening as the ground surface temperature drops and reaches its dew point. Radiation fog can also occur.
- **Sublimation** (below freezing).
 - Glacier ice directly to water vapour.
 - Frost direct from water vapour to ice.
- **Melting and freezing**
 - On cold winter nights, puddles and lakes freeze, and the surface soil also freezes.
 - When the weather warms up, the sun comes up in the morning, the ice melts, and the soil thaws.

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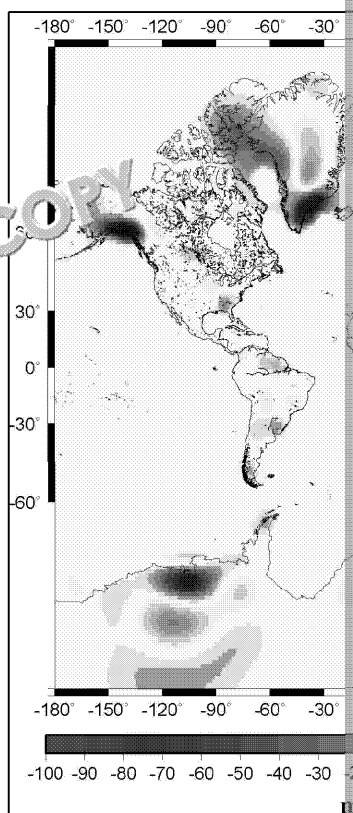
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How have things changed?

One of the largest changes that our planet sees is in the development of ice ages. During cold periods, ocean levels drop, as ice builds up on the land (several kilometres thick), spreading from the poles to the equator.

Humans are also causing changes to the hydrological cycle through climate change, causing change to stores of water and increasing evaporation. Changes in water stores for 2002–2012 are shown on the map.



Storage length

The amount of time that water is stored is called the '**residence time**'. This is calculated within a store by the transfer in (both in and out) of the store. Of course, these

- ◆ Each store has a different timescale, varying from less than two weeks (the atmosphere) to over 10,000 years (the ocean).
- ◆ Deep underground water might last for 10,000 years.
- ◆ Ice caps have a residence time of around 800 years.
- ◆ Lakes might be several years, and soil water might be replaced within a year.



If you only remember these three things



- ❶ 97% of the Earth's water is saline sea water. Only a tiny amount of fresh water is actually located on the surface.
- ❷ Each of the 'spheres' stores water, which exists in all three states (solid, liquid, and gas) between the three states.
- ❸ Stores and transfers of water can change over time – e.g. glacial cycles, sea level rise as a result of human activity – climate change.



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Activities

Consolidation questions

- How much of the Earth's fresh water is locked up as ice?
.....
.....
- Which is the largest component of atmospheric water?
.....
.....
- What is the name of the process when a gas becomes a solid (or soil becomes a solid phase)?
.....
.....
- During an ice age, how do the stores of water change?
.....
.....
- Which stores have the shortest and the longest residence time?
.....
.....

Take it home

Why does it rain? This short web page and video from the Met Office explains why. www.bbc.com/news/uk-12345678

For a longer read, take a look at this site, which explains how climate change is affecting water supplies in the US. www.bbc.com/news/uk-12345678

www.bbc.com/news/uk-12345678



Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹️	Nearly 😐	Sure 😊	
The water cycle part 1	Stores of water				
	Transfers between stores				
	Natural and human changes to stores and transfers				
	Residence time				

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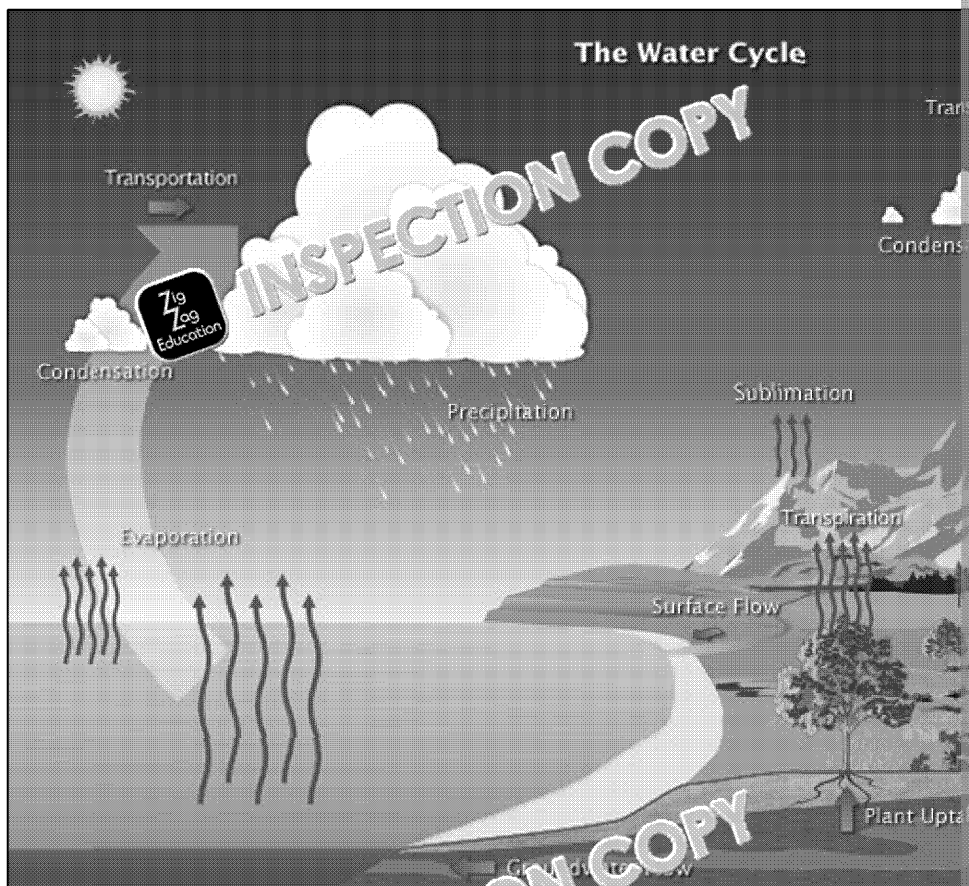


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How do we model drainage basins?

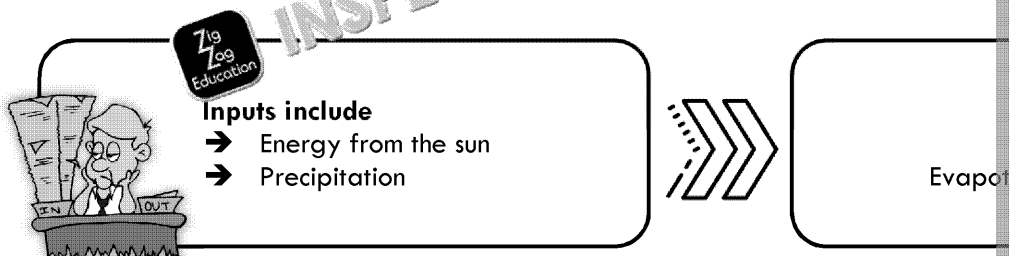
Below is a common representation of the hydrological cycle. There are several flows



Let's break it down:

- Water **evaporates** from the oceans and the land surface (driven by the sun) via vegetation, to become part of the atmosphere.
- At height, the water vapour **condenses** into clouds and falls back to Earth as precipitation.
- The water is stored and transmitted in several ways:
 - On high ground, or towards the poles, the water will fall as ice and could form a glacier.
 - Some of the water **infiltrates** into the soil. Movement of water through the soil is called percolation. When it **percolates** (reaches) the water table, it moves as **groundwater** stored within voids in the soil (soil water).
 - Some of the water is intercepted by vegetation. It flows to the ground as throughfall or stemflow.
 - If the precipitation is intense and/or there is little interception, or the soil is saturated, water can't infiltrate and **overland flow (surface flow)** occurs.
 - Overland flow and groundwater (base flow) contribute to river flow. Rivers generally flow into the oceans.
 - Rivers may flow in and out of lakes.

Therefore:



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Note that water doesn't have to reach the oceans every time – it can evaporate and rain over the land surface once again.



The water balance (budget)

The water balance is the balance between the inputs and outputs of water.

We use the equation:

$$\text{Precipitation} = \text{discharge} + \text{evapotranspiration} \pm \Delta S$$

It can be written as $P = Q + E \pm \Delta S$



The flow in a river changes throughout the year as the seasons change. Factors include **evaporation** and weather patterns – e.g. rainfall. This is called the **regime**. Some rivers have a high flow in the summer – that's why some villages include 'Winterbourne' or 'Bourne' in their names.

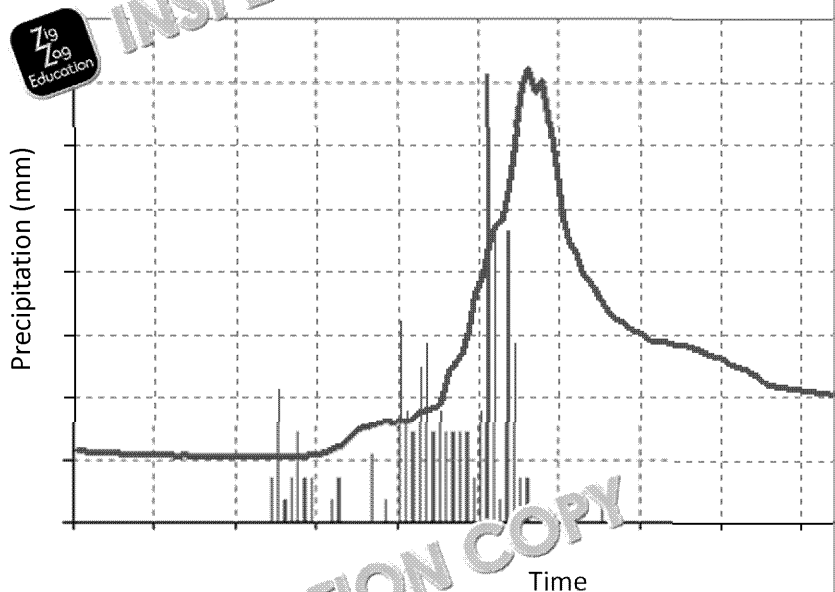
The water balance is often used to measure soil water.

In the UK, for example:

- Precipitation is greatest in the winter – it rises in the autumn and falls over the summer.
- Potential evaporation is very low in the winter, and rises to a peak in the summer.
- During the autumn, when precipitation exceeds evaporation, groundwater levels rise.
- There is a groundwater surplus in the spring, utilisation in the early summer and deficit in the summer.

The flood hydrograph

We can represent precipitation and river discharge in a graph. This allows us to see how precipitation affects river discharge. Planners can use these to plan river engineering projects.



This is a classic **hydrograph**.

The precipitation is shown by the vertical bars and measured on the left axis.

The discharge is usually measured in cumecs (m^3/s) – is shown by the continuous line on the right axis.

The graph clearly shows the **rising** and **receding limbs** as the water rises and falls.

The **lag time** is the duration between peak precipitation and peak discharge.

Before the precipitation is the **base flow** (from ground and soil water).

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Flashy?

If there is a very short lag time with high discharge, it means that the river responds to precipitation. We call this a **flashy** hydrograph.

There are many factors – both natural and human – which cause a flashy hydrograph. These factors are outlined below.




We can reduce the flashiness of a hydrograph – for example, by planting trees (to increase interception) or employing sustainable farming practices, and through sustainable urban drainage.

Changes to the water cycle

Local-scale hill slope basins can be affected by natural and human factors.

Weather phenomena can temporarily affect a drainage basin – such as extreme drought.



E.g. Flooding in Cumbria in December 2015 (Storm Desmond), flooding in February 2009 as the result of snowmelt, and drought in the summer of 2012 leading to low river flows.

Humans can cause changes as follows:

- Farming
 - Harvesting crops means that the soil is not protected by vegetation – therefore reduced interception. Overgrazing and soil erosion can occur, and machinery can compact the soil, reducing infiltration. Wind can also erode soil.
 - Ploughing can increase infiltration, although downslope ploughing can increase overland flow towards streams.
 - Soil and wetlands can be drained – water runs into ditches.

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- Land-use change and urbanisation
 - Urbanisation seals the land, meaning that water cannot infiltrate.
 - Deforestation increases runoff and reduces evapotranspiration. On a large scale, deforestation can reduce the overall precipitation and therefore the flow of rivers.
- Water abstraction
 - Last time you turned on the tap, your water might have come from a river reservoir or from the ground. If you live in London, some of that water has been desalinated at Beckton. We use water in our homes, in industry and for agriculture.
 - Abstracting river water reduces streamflow, and reduces the water quality.
 - Building dams and reservoirs floods land and streamflow below the dam.
 - Pumping out groundwater lowers the water table. In coastal areas, salt water enters the aquifer. Baseflow of rivers is also reduced.
 - Therefore, the Environment Agency regulates water abstraction in the UK.

If you only remember these three things



- 1 We can model the water cycle using the drainage basin. A drainage basin map shows all of the stores and flows of water.
- 2 We can model the inputs and outputs of a drainage basin using a water balance equation – the stores change throughout time.
- 3 We measure the flow of water in a river on a hydrograph. Factors like weather and land use combine to affect the shape of the graph – such as affecting the peak flow.



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Activities

Consolidation questions

1. On what scales are drainage basins?

.....

.....

2. Name the processes where water enters the soil and rock.

.....

.....

3. Are rivers stores of water, transfers of water, or both?

.....

4. At what time of year is potential evaporation the greatest?

.....

.....

5. Why does deforestation result in a 'flashy' hydrograph?

.....

.....

Take it further

Read and watch the video at [zed.uk/9582-nz-humans-water](https://www.zigzageducation.co.uk/9582-nz-humans-water) – from New Zealand

Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹	Nearly ☺	Sure 😊	
The water cycle part 2	Drainage basins				
	The water cycle				
	The water balance				
	The flood hydrograph				
	Human changes to the water cycle				

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The Carbon Cycle 1: Stores and flows

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Keywords

- ✓ **Carbon:** Black (when solid) non-metallic element with the atomic number 6, the Earth, many rocks and fossil fuels.
- ✓ **Carbon stores:** Within the carbon cycle, carbon can be removed from flux for a period of time – e.g. in sedimentary rock, or within oceans.
- ✓ **Carbon sinks:** Store(s) of carbon – more carbon is added than lost. For example, in the atmosphere, rocks, soils and forests.
- ✓ **Carbon sources:** Store(s) of carbon where more carbon is lost from the store.
- ✓ **Carbon fluxes:** The movement of carbon between stores.
- ✓ **Fast and slow carbon cycles:** Both are flows and stores of carbon between different mechanisms – both biological and non-biological. The fast cycle occurs through exchange between the ocean and atmosphere, while the slow carbon cycle occurs through fluxes from geological stores.
- ✓ **Decomposers:** After plants and animals die, their remains are broken down by decomposers. Carbon is released back into the atmosphere.
- ✓ **Weathering:** Process which removes CO_2 from the atmosphere as it dissolves carbonate rock, which is transported to the oceans and is buried as sediment.
- ✓ **Respiration:** Living things produce CO_2 as sugars are broken down to produce energy. It's the reverse of photosynthesis.
- ✓ **Photosynthesis:** Chemical process – plants derive their energy source from the sun to create glucose sugar from carbon dioxide and water.

Key Points

- Carbon is found above and below ground, and in the air – as rocks, soils, dissolved in the oceans, frozen permafrost, and within living things.
- Animals are very good at driving changes.
- Sinks are accumulating stores of carbon, sources are stores which release carbon.
- Carbon moves:
 - between the oceans and the atmosphere.
 - between rocks and the atmosphere (volcanoes and plate margins).
 - between ocean sediments and the lithosphere.
- Plants remove CO_2 from the atmosphere through photosynthesis. Plants, animals and decomposers return that carbon back to the atmosphere via respiration.
- Atmospheric CO_2 concentrations have changed over time – and are responsible for the interglacial periods.

What is carbon?

Carbon is a black element. It is vitally important to life – but we don't usually see it in its pure form. Living things use carbon as a building block – you and me, and the plants and trees outside. It's found in carbonate rocks and in diamond rings. It's the fuel for your car, we use it to heat our homes and to generate electricity. There's carbon in the air, and it's dissolved in the oceans. Most of the carbon is combined with other elements – like oxygen, hydrogen and calcium.

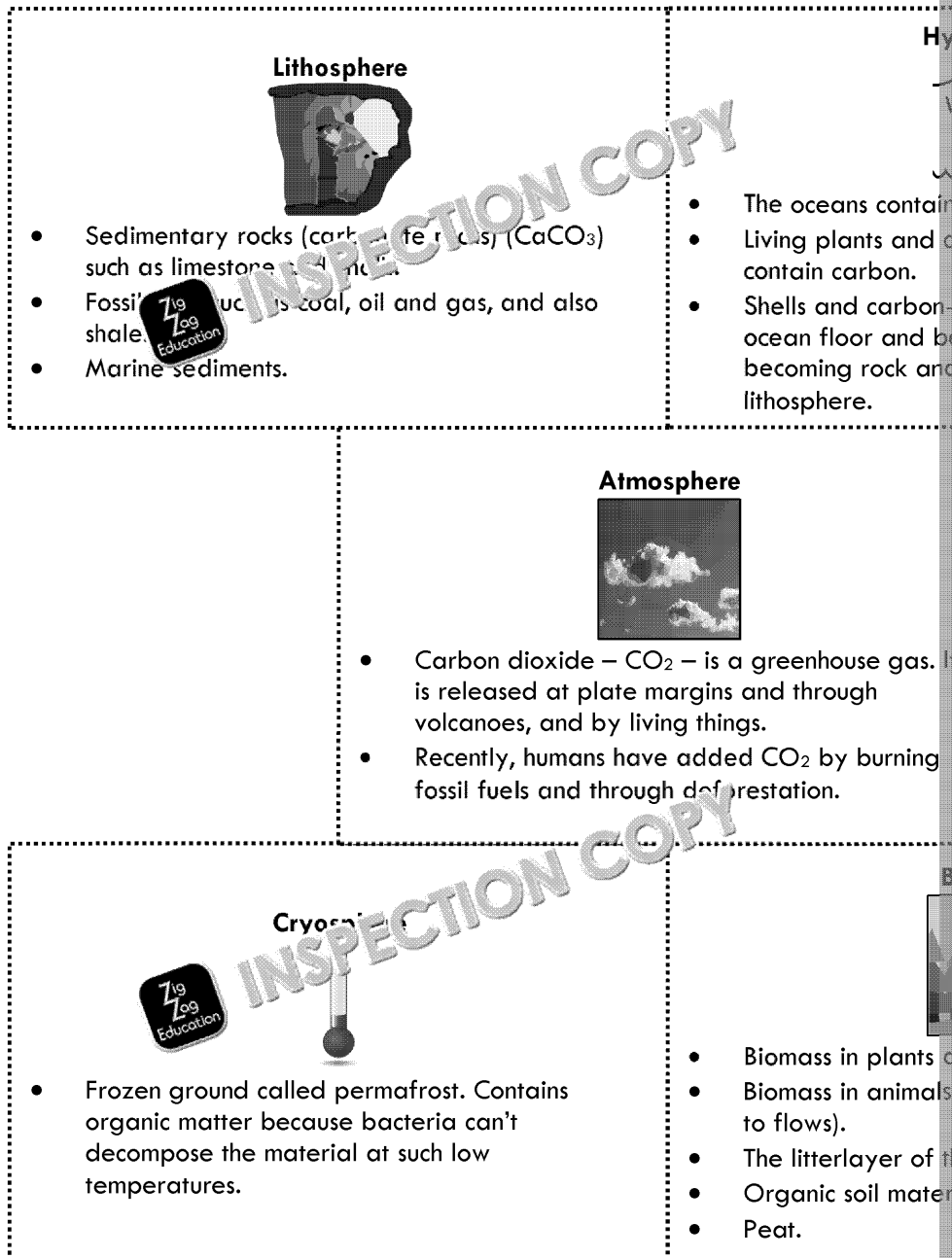
Like the water cycle, carbon has stores and transfers. Carbon passes between the living and non-living world. Humans are great at releasing stores of carbon back into the atmosphere. And that's a problem. And we need to do something about it.

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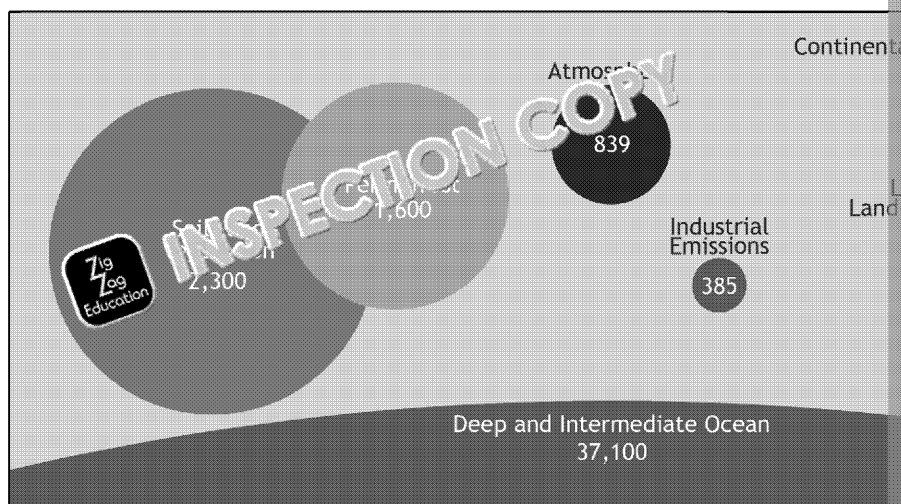


Where are the stores of carbon?

Apart from within this piece of paper, and in the toner (ink) on this paper...



Here are the amounts of carbon in each store. As with the water cycle, all of the figures are estimates and you will see slight variations between sources.



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We measure the **stores** in gigatonnes of carbon.

We measure **fluxes** (movement between stores) in gigatonnes of carbon per year.

We measure atmospheric CO₂ in parts per million (ppm).

Sink or source?

Sinks take in carbon – more is added to the store than is lost.
Sources release carbon – more is lost than is added.

The fast and slow carbon cycles

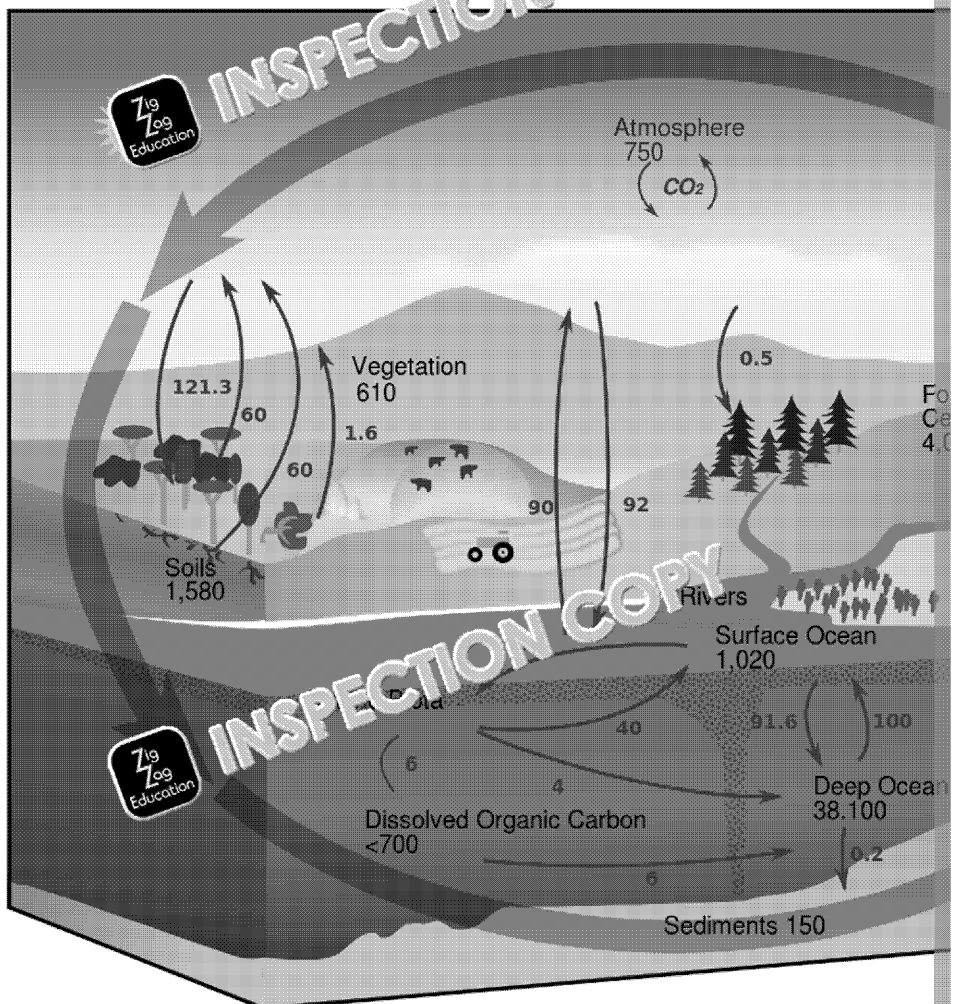
There are two parts to the overall carbon cycle – the **fast** cycle and the **slow** cycle. The fast cycle lasts at most for centuries. The slow cycle takes place over millennia. The cycles are always occurring.

Within each of the fast and slow cycles, there are two components.

1

Fast 1 (non-organic) Transfer of CO ₂ between the oceans and atmosphere.	Fast 2 (non-organic) Exchange of CO ₂ between the atmosphere and land.
Slow 1 (non-organic) Formation of rock and the release of CO ₂ at plate margins.	Slow 2 (non-organic) Oceanic crustal subduction and volcanic activity.

Here is the classic diagram of the carbon cycle, showing the stores of carbon and the fluxes that are caused by humans.



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Movement of carbon (fluxes)

Here's a rundown of the fluxes in the **fast** carbon cycle.

Photosynthesis – plants remove CO_2 from the air, turning it into glucose and oxygen. The carbon becomes part of the plant's biomass. This is called **sequestration**. Plants are eaten by animals.

Respiration – both plants and animals reverse the process of photosynthesis, returning stores of carbon back into atmospheric CO_2 .

Plant matter falls to the ground, where it forms a litter layer on the surface. Some of the material is **decomposed**. The decomposers respire, but in low-oxygen conditions, they produce methane – CH_4 which is a more potent greenhouse gas than CO_2 . Not all of the matter is decomposed, and the carbon becomes part of the soil humus.

Plant material burns (**combustion**). Wildfires burn forests and grasslands, releasing CO_2 back into the atmosphere.

Here's a rundown of the **slow** carbon cycle.

The largest store of carbon is in the lithosphere. Carbon is stored for millions of years.

The **oceans** are major carbon sinks and absorb CO_2 . They absorb more CO_2 than they release, helping to offset anthropogenic emissions. This is a form of a carbon sink. Ocean currents help to move carbon around.

Marine organisms, such as corals, can sequester carbon. When they die, they sink to the sea floor. What is left eventually becomes rock. Some organisms have a carbonate exoskeleton. When sea water from weathering is removed, it can be formed from carbon dioxide.

Rainwater is slightly acidic due to dissolved CO_2 (**weathering**). This can form calcium bicarbonate which becomes a precipitate. The skeletons of creatures can be buried.



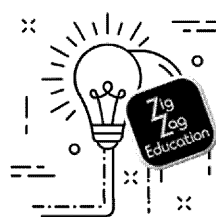
Changes over time

The amount of CO_2 in the atmosphere has fluctuated. We've seen that negative feedback loops have contributed to the changes. For example, a negative feedback response, reducing CO_2 in the atmosphere and cooling the planet.

Positive feedback can help warm the planet, by increasing atmospheric CO_2 . We've seen that this is a self-reinforcing process.

There can be large-scale or global events which release CO_2 into the atmosphere. Changes can also occur on a local scale, as the result of weather changes and human activity.

If you only remember these three things...



- 1 Carbon is found in all of the 'spheres', the greatest store of carbon is in the lithosphere. The fluxes occur naturally and are influenced by human activity.
- 2 There are two 'carbon cycles'. These are cycles between different timescales, and have both organic and inorganic components.
- 3 The carbon cycles can change naturally through feedback loops, contributing to this natural process.

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Activities

Consolidation questions

1. Which is the largest store of carbon?

.....

.....

2. Name a store of carbon within the biosphere.

.....

.....

3. Which process is essentially the 'reverse' of photosynthesis?

.....

.....

4. Why are oceans important within the carbon cycle?

.....

.....

5. Give a large-scale, cataclysmic event which can release CO₂ from rock into the atmosphere.

.....


.....

Take it further

Learn more about carbon sources and sinks here: [zzed.uk/9582-carbon-sinks](https://www.zzed.uk/9582-carbon-sinks)



Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹	Nearly ☺	Sure 😊	
The carbon cycle part 1 	What is carbon?				
	Carbon stores				
	The fast and slow carbon cycle				
	Carbon fluxes				
	Changes over time				

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The Carbon Cycle 2: Change due to human activity

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Keywords

- ✓ **Carbon budget:** The overall inputs and outputs of carbon in part of the carbon cycle. For example, the carbon stored in the atmosphere, oceans, or soil, etc.
- ✓ **Albedo:** The reflecting ability of a surface – light-coloured surfaces reflect more light, whereas dark surfaces have a low albedo because they absorb more light.
- ✓ **Greenhouse gases:** Gases which include carbon dioxide and methane, etc. that absorb and re-emitting outgoing radiation.
- ✓ **Radiative forcing:** Mismatch between incoming and outgoing energy from the sun.
- ✓ **The natural greenhouse effect:** Gases within the atmosphere, such as carbon dioxide, are retaining outgoing infrared radiation. Humans are increasing greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere – which causes the **enhanced greenhouse effect**.

Key Points

- In the past, all sources of CO₂ were natural – emitted by volcanoes and wild fires.
- Humans release stores of carbon into the atmosphere as part of everyday life, such as burning fossil fuels to generate electricity, to heat our homes and to drive our cars.
- This means that we generate far more CO₂ than natural sources.
- Farming generates CO₂, as does land-use change, deforestation and population growth.
- The carbon budget is the difference between the inputs and outputs of carbon. The current carbon budget has increased atmospheric CO₂ levels from 280 ppm to over 400 ppm.
- Changing the carbon budget has effects on the ocean, land and atmosphere, with negative consequences to humans.
- The increase in atmospheric CO₂ is causing radiative forcing, warming our planet.
- This process is called the enhanced greenhouse effect – greenhouse gases absorb and re-emitting some back to the surface.

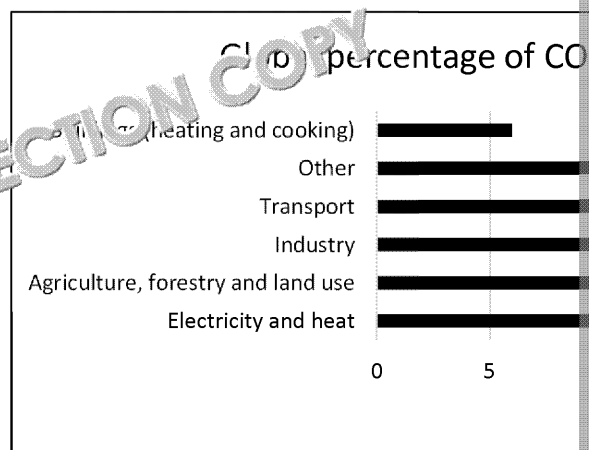
What are the natural emitters of CO₂?

Volcanoes release CO₂. But they release a tiny amount compared to human activity. In the past, volcanoes caused major climate change in the past, they don't today.

Wildfires occur naturally in forests and grasslands, for example caused by lightning. Ecosystems are adapted to surviving fires. However, humans are now starting fires more frequently and deliberately, releasing CO₂ back into the atmosphere.

How are we influencing the carbon cycle?

Here's a graph showing the global sources of CO₂ emissions. Most of these sources are from burning fossil fuels such as coal, oil and gas.



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For example, we burn fossil fuels to:

- generate electricity
- run our cars, buses, trains, ships and aeroplanes
- heat our homes and buildings
- cook with
- manufacture goods

Fossil fuels

As noted above, we use fossil fuels every day. You might have travelled to school this morning on a bus or in a car. There's probably a light bulb in the room.



Fossil fuels release CO₂ that was sequestered by plants millions of years ago, returning the CO₂ into today's atmosphere.

Land-use change

We're very good at clearing land. Land that was once covered in rainforests are under pressure for their timber, and to clear land for agriculture. Trees are burned as clearance.

Not only is the carbon stored in the trees lost, but carbon is also diminished as trees are cut down.

Population growth and urbanisation

The human population is growing at a rapid rate, and countries are developing. We're manufacturing and consuming more stuff, and building large cities.

We use cement to build with (cement is also used in concrete). This produces CO₂ and equals 5% of human greenhouse gas emissions.

And those cities need more land to be cleared, a cause of deforestation.

And more food needs to be grown.

And more transport is needed.

The carbon budget



Carbon budgets

The carbon budget is the difference between the inputs and outputs of carbon within a system. The figures shown on the diagram in the previous chapter, however, the budget is a simplified example.

Note that you may see the term 'carbon budget' used when referring to a country's budget under an environmental or international agreement. We are not using this term.

In the past, the fluxes of carbon between the stores were due to natural processes. The fluxes, and therefore the budget, were balanced.

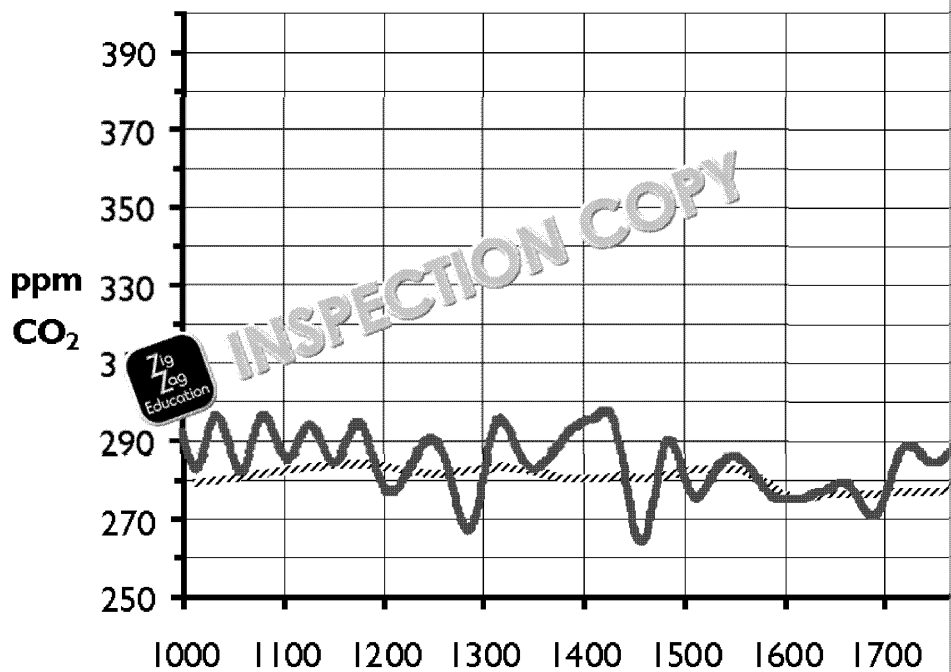
Despite natural negative feedback loops, such as increased ocean uptake and plant growth, the concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere has risen. Before industrial times, the CO₂ was 280 ppm. It rises every year. In 2013, it was 395 ppm.



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This graph shows how atmospheric CO₂ has risen.



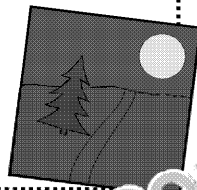
The dashed line shows the concentration of CO₂ in ppm. The graph also highlights the concentration and global temperature. If we went further back in time, we would find even lower concentrations.

Burning fossil fuels reduces the stores of underground carbon, while increasing the amount of CO₂ in the atmosphere.

So what are the effects of changing the carbon budget?

The land

- More CO₂ means there is more potential for plant growth.
- Climate change could lead to increased drought and forest fire risk.
- Decreases in carbon store (permafrost) as a result of climate change.
- Shifting agriculture – some areas may become too dry. Other, cooler areas might open up for agriculture.
- Biomes and ecosystems are likely to be affected – decrease in cold.
- Habitats and migration of (invasive) species towards the poles.
- Coastal flooding, resulting from sea level rise.



- Sea level rise from ocean expansion – oceans lead to coral bleaching (protect coastlines from surges), and reduce ability to absorb more CO₂.
- As oceans absorb more CO₂, shells are thinner, affecting marine life that produce and maintain shells.
- Reduced winter sea ice **albedo**.
- Reduced salinity of ocean currents due to melting of fresh water from ice sheets.

The atmosphere

- Increasing CO₂ store!
- Temperature rise due to enhanced greenhouse effect (see below).
- Shifting weather patterns – e.g. increase in droughts, extreme weather, strong winds.

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Climate and (enhanced) greenhouse effect

There are many different **greenhouse gases**. They act to warm the planet. They are important because they raise the temperature enough to allow life on Earth.

But we're releasing extra greenhouse gases into the atmosphere, and creating a **'greenhouse effect'**.

This enhanced effect leads to positive feedback cycles and **radiative forcing** – where the incoming and outgoing radiation is not balanced. The planet will warm if the value is positive (more is gained than lost) and cool if more is lost than gained.

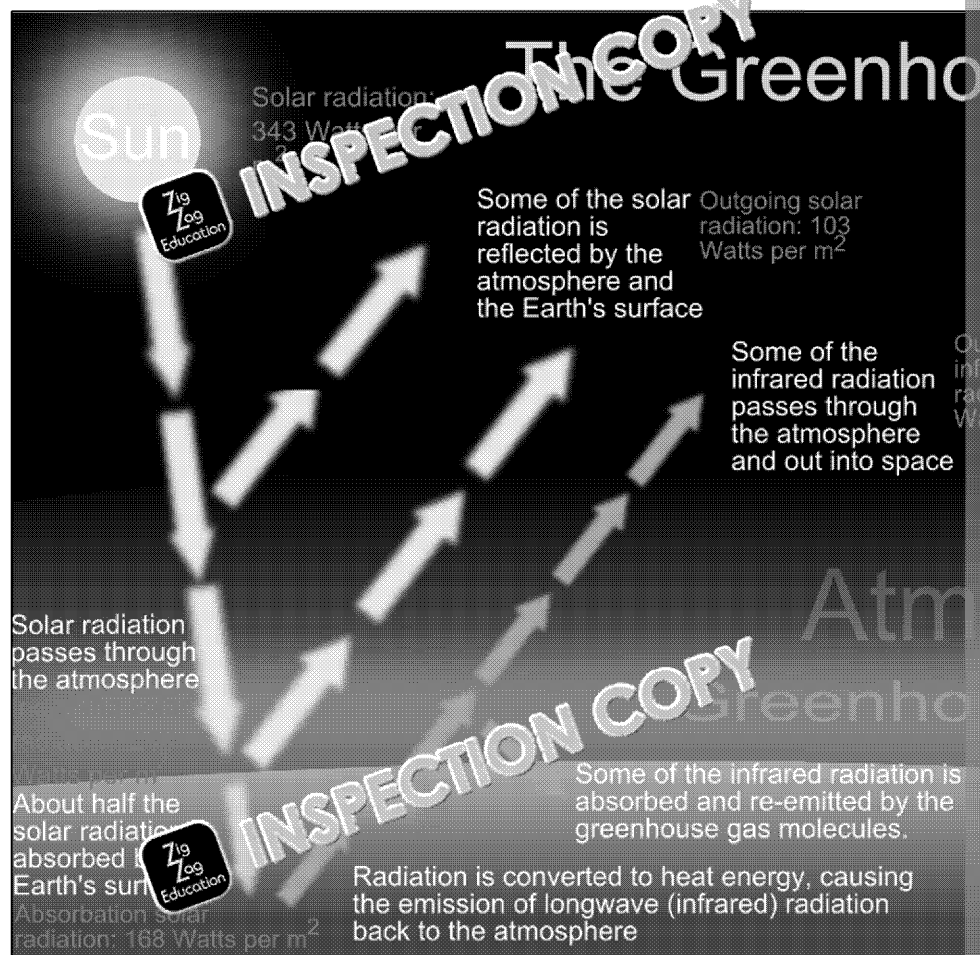
Greenhouse gases include water vapour, carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O). Each of the greenhouse gases has a residence time in the atmosphere.

- Most of the air is nitrogen and oxygen. They aren't greenhouse gases.
- Greenhouse gases only make up a tiny fraction of the atmosphere, but are very important.
- Water vapour has a short residence period (maybe a week). We don't need to worry about it too much.
- Some say that the effects of CO₂ emitted today will have a warming effect for centuries (and maybe even millennia to come).

CO₂ is such a powerful greenhouse gas.

When we use fossil fuels, we release CO₂ into the atmosphere.

This is the typical model showing the greenhouse effect.



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Here are the steps of the diagram:

1. The sun emits shortwave ultraviolet radiation. While some is reflected back to space, most passes through the atmosphere and is absorbed by the Earth's surface.
2. The Earth's surface is warmed.
3. The Earth's surface releases the energy as outgoing longwave infrared energy.
4. While some of this energy passes back through the atmosphere and back into space, some of the energy is absorbed and re-emitted by greenhouse gas molecules.
5. The greenhouse gases emit the energy in all directions – some is therefore reflected back to the surface.

The more greenhouse gases we add to the atmosphere, the greater the radiative forcing, and the greater the warming. There is also greater potential for positive feedback.

If you only remember these three things...



- 1 In the past, natural emitters such as volcanoes provided most of the CO₂ in the atmosphere. Nowadays, we are releasing vast quantities of CO₂ from fossil fuels, agriculture and land-use change. As the population grows and we develop, even more CO₂ is generated.
- 2 Humans are therefore changing the carbon budget – the balance between CO₂ entering and leaving the atmosphere – with a net effect on the land, the oceans and the atmosphere.
- 3 Humans are warming the Earth through the enhanced greenhouse effect. Radiative forcing is taking place, meaning that more heat enters the Earth than leaves it.



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Activities

Consolidation questions

- Which natural source of CO₂ altered climate in the past?
.....
- How does farming release greenhouse gases?
.....
.....
- Until the Industrial Revolution (around 1760 onwards), the atmospheric CO₂ was relatively stable. What was the approximate concentration?
.....
.....
- Give one impact of raising CO₂ concentration in the oceans.
.....
.....
- Why is CO₂ a greenhouse gas?
.....
.....

Take it further

In the UK, we are phasing out the use of coal to generate our electricity. We still use it mainly in industry. We also use a lot of gas to generate electricity.

Visit this website to find out how we're currently generating electricity: [zzed.uk/9582-uk-stop-coal](https://www.zzed.uk/9582-uk-stop-coal) and [zzed.uk/9582-coal-comeback](https://www.zzed.uk/9582-coal-comeback)

Do you think it's possible to completely phase out coal by 2025?
[zzed.uk/9582-uk-stop-coal](https://www.zzed.uk/9582-uk-stop-coal) and [zzed.uk/9582-coal-comeback](https://www.zzed.uk/9582-coal-comeback)



Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹️	Nearly 😊	Sure 😄	
The carbon cycle	Natural emitters of CO ₂				
	Human causes of greenhouse gas increases				
	The carbon budget and its effects				
	The greenhouse effect				

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The Importance of Water and Carbon Cycles and Mitigating Climate Change

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Keywords

- ✓ **Feedback loops:** Positive and negative way in which a system is brought back to equilibrium or the equilibrium is changed.
- ✓ **Lag time:** The time it takes between the cause and the effect is seen – e.g. the increased CO₂ levels and the warming of the Earth.
- ✓ **Aerosols:** Tiny particles in the air which reflect heat back away from Earth.
- ✓ **Renewable energy:** Type of energy that cannot be depleted; for example, solar and wind to drive wind turbines and power photovoltaic cells.
- ✓ **Non-renewable energy:** Type of energy where the supply is finite – once the resource is gone, it's gone forever – e.g. fossil fuels which formed millions of years ago.
- ✓ **Biomass/biofuels:** Sugar cane, wood and other recently living resources used as a renewable form of energy.
- ✓ **Carbon capture and storage (CCS):** Process where CO₂ is removed from waste and stored in underground geological formations.
- ✓ **International agreement:** Legally binding or voluntary set of rules that countries agree to, such as the Kyoto Protocol or the Paris Agreement.
- ✓ **Mitigation:** Implementing measures to decrease risk or effect; for example, reducing CO₂ emissions.
- ✓ **Emissions trading / cap and trade:** Businesses are allocated rights to emit CO₂. If a business emits too much, they can buy credits from countries producing less than their quotas. If quotas are reduced, in terms of cap and trade, industrial sectors, such as aviation, have to reduce emissions.
- ✓ **Geoengineering:** often large-scale projects to alter the Earth's climate to mitigate climate change, such as introducing aerosols into the stratosphere.

Key Points

- Water and carbon are vital to life on Earth. We're made of both and they are essential for them for our everyday lives.
- The carbon and water cycles are linked and controlled by one another. There are feedback loops between them.
- Climate change will have serious and significant consequences to humans – a reduction in water supply, the economy, our way of life, and our health.
- We need to significantly reduce the level of CO₂ emissions that we produce.
- This can be done in many ways, such as:
 - individuals reducing their impact.
 - reducing emissions from power generation – using renewables and CCS.
 - land-use changes.
 - international agreements and government policy.
 - geoengineering.

How does water and carbon support life?

- ? We're made up of water and carbon, along with small amounts of many other elements.
- ? We need an adequate supply of fresh drinking water, and we also gain water from our food.
- ? We need water for the functioning of our bodily processes and reactions. We need water for respiration and to excrete waste.
- ? We gain energy from the food we eat – we need glucose for respiration, which we get from the carbohydrates we consume. We need to consume proteins and fats – all of which contain carbon.
- ? Plants require CO₂ for photosynthesis to produce biomass, and for their own respiration. Photosynthesis is how carbon enters the food chain.
- ? Unlike other animals, humans use water in other ways too – to irrigate crops, within industrial processes, and to bathe.
- ? We need the natural greenhouse effect to allow life on Earth.

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Links between the carbon and water cycles

The water and carbon cycles are strongly linked.

For example:

- Water vapour (a greenhouse gas) can increase global temperature – but CO₂ determines temperature, which in turn determines the ability of air to hold amount of evaporation.

There are many different **feedback loops** which include:

- Melting of permafrost and land ice as a result of warming, release of carbon and water stores, decreasing albedo – **+ve** feedback.
- Cloudiness due to condensation nuclei from phytoplankton (dimethyl sulphide) but increased cloudiness decreases phytoplankton – **-ve** feedback!
- Warmer oceans increase evaporation rates, increasing atmospheric water vapour – **+ve** feedback.
- Water temperature determines the amount of CO₂ stored by the oceans – warmer oceans mean that more CO₂ is emitted by the oceans – **+ve** feedback.
- Atmospheric CO₂ concentration affects acidity of rainwater. Combined with chemical weathering – **+ve** feedback.

There is a **lag time** between CO₂ rise and temperature rise due to the time needed to build. Warming is also offset by **aerosols** (particles) within the atmosphere.

There are various implications from warming the oceans and atmosphere, which include:

- Shifting weather patterns.
- Shifting biomes.
- Changes to northern, ice-bound shipping routes.
- Water availability.
- Health implications – increase in heat stroke etc.
- Changes to ways of life – could be disastrous for people living in cold environments, marginalised and places already at risk of droughts.

How can you reduce your impact?

Everyone produces CO₂. And everyone will be affected in some way by climate change. Simple changes to your lifestyle to reduce the amount you produce.

For example, you could:

- Switch off lights and appliances when you're out of the room.
- Travel on public transport, cycle or walk.
- Ensure you recycle waste, including green waste.
- Buy local, and avoid next-day delivery options.

Reducing emissions from power generation

The UK is committed to reducing carbon emissions. For example, the UK has committed to generating electricity by 2025. In 2016, the government committed to reducing emissions to 1990 levels.

CO₂ generation from electricity production can be reduced by:








Renewables
Using renewable sources of energy such as solar, wind and hydro. These sources will always be there, and they're carbon free.

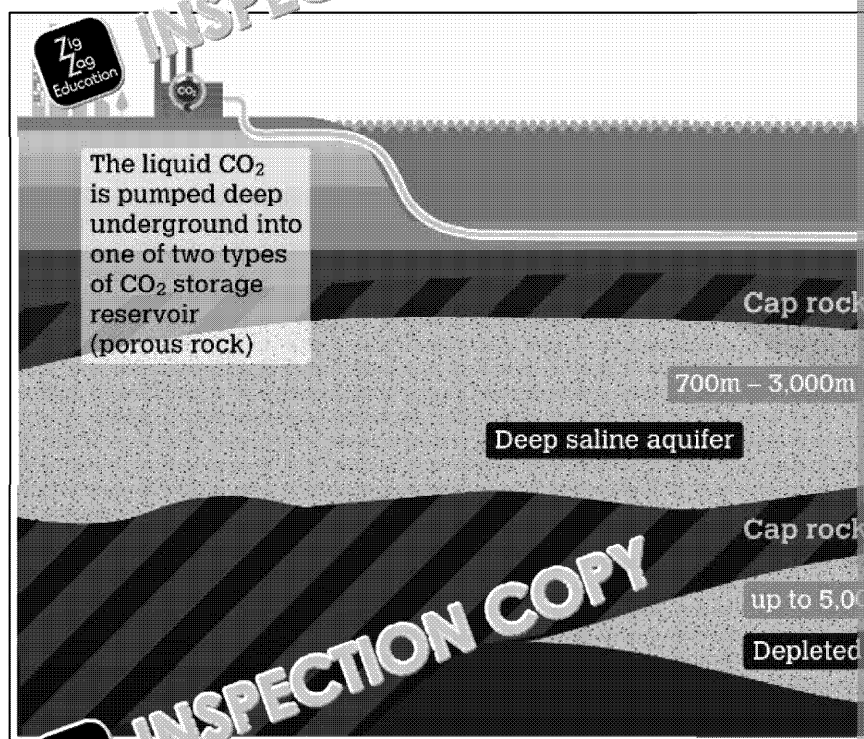
Biomass
Burning plant material or waste, the carbon was only recently removed from the atmosphere, rather than having been removed millions of years ago (coal, gas, etc.).

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More on CCS

-  CO₂ is captured from the source – e.g. the chimney from a coal-burning power station.
-  The gas is compressed and liquified.
-  It is then transported and pumped into permanent storage such as non-used oil fields and the deep ocean.
-  The process is very expensive, and the technology is still developing.
-  There may not be many suitable sites.
-  Injecting the CO₂ into oil and gas fields allows for enhanced oil recovery – but that is not a renewable source.
-  Ocean acidification may be a problem if the CO₂ is pumped into the deep ocean.



Land use

Removing trees, and farming techniques produce greenhouse gases. There are ways in which CO₂ can be offset, such as:

- Reafforestation (replanting trees).
- Improved farming techniques – reducing ploughing, increasing soil carbon, and avoiding overgrazing.

Large-scale agreements and emissions trading schemes

You've probably heard of the Kyoto Protocol. This was a voluntary, but legally binding agreement for countries to reduce their CO₂ emissions, while allowing other countries to develop. In 2015, the Paris Agreement was drafted with the aims to reduce emissions stopping 'dangerous' climate change (2 °C below industrial levels), ideally limiting temperature rises to 1.5 °C.

Each year, climate conferences are held by the UN. This is sometimes called COP – Conference of the Parties. They agree and set emissions targets, and were responsible for the Kyoto Protocol (1997), the Doha amendment (2012) and the Paris Agreement (2015). There have been 195 signatories to the Paris Agreement, including an EU ratification.



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One mechanism to achieve CO₂ reduction is a **carbon trading** scheme (**cap and trade**). Industries in each country are given a set number of carbon credits. If a company exceeds its credits, they can be sold to others who need them – or that company is fined. As demand goes down, it's not crucial where they are saved. Each year the number of available credits is reduced.

The process of reducing the effects of climate change is called **mitigation**.

National, regional schemes and others

In order to meet (and sometimes exceed) targets that countries have signed up to, they need to implement national policies. These could affect industries – such as power generation, or energy efficiency targets within homes and buildings.

There are also other ways that energy can be saved, such as efficient design of architecture and transport.

In the EU, appliances such as white goods, appliances and lightbulbs have an energy rating based on efficiency. Europe have phased out the use of incandescent bulbs, and LED bulbs are following.

Geoengineering

Geoengineering is large-scale climate change mitigation. In some cases, we keep the technology but try to find ways of reducing its effects.

Some of the technologies are unproven, experimental, expensive, and raise ethical issues. They are unlikely to happen, and may not work.

Examples include:

- Absorbing CO₂ using artificial trees.
- Fertilising the oceans.
- Causing global dimming by adding aerosols to the atmosphere.
- Reflecting sunlight away using space mirrors.

Concerns include:

- Unforeseen consequences.
- It doesn't stop us from producing the CO₂ in the first place.
- There are still problems such as ocean acidification.

If you only remember these three things



- 1 The water and carbon cycles are essential for life on Earth and are heavily linked – there are flows and feedbacks.
- 2 Increasing atmospheric CO₂ has significant consequences and we need to stop emitting as much CO₂ to stop significant climate change and create long-term problems to the economy, health and environment.
- 3 There are many ways that CO₂ emissions can be reduced: international agreements, national policies, cap and trade, increase in individual's actions.

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Activities

Consolidation questions

- Which gas determines temperature – water vapour or CO₂?
.....
.....
- How is atmospheric CO₂ concentration linked to the amount of water vapour?
.....
.....
- Give an example of how climate change could affect humans.
.....
.....
- How does CCS work?
.....
.....
- Give an example of an international agreement on climate change.
.....

Take it further

Watch this video which shows a speech by US President, Donald Trump, withdrawing the US from the Paris Agreement: [zzed.uk/95211111](https://www.bbc.com/news/health-55211111) (BBC News 3:34)

The US is withdrawing from the agreement until November 2020. Do you think that the US withdrawal is a good idea? What other plans could be made to reduce CO₂ emissions? What message does this withdrawal send to other countries? How do you think other countries, reacted to the news?



Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹️	Nearly 😊	Sure 😄	
The importance of water and carbon, mitigating climate change	The importance of water and carbon				
	Links between the water and carbon cycles				
	Reducing your impact				
	Reducing emissions from energy generation				
	International agreements and trading schemes				
	National schemes				
	Geoengineering				

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Case studies

Part 1: Tropical rainforest

Location of your chosen rainforest: <i>e.g. Amazon rainforest</i>	
Water Cycle	
Changes due to deforestation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduced evapotranspiration – large-scale deforestation could result in less rainfall (fewer clouds and fewer condensation nuclei), reducing river flow. Increased overland flow – reduced interception.
Relationships between the cycles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased CO₂ might mean that tree life cycles are shorter. Implications to both the water and carbon cycles. Reduced albedo – the air at the ground is warmer. There is less cooling. This can change weather systems, e.g. less rainfall. Warming could change river ecosystems – warmer water affects aquatic life. Slash and burn creates smaller aerosols, reducing rainfall.
How human activities affect the rainforest	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Greater silting of rivers. Flooding from intense precipitation on bare ground. Lower flows mean less available water for indigenous peoples. Dam building affects local hydrology and river flow.
Mitigating human activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For both water and carbon, local, national and international agreements are possible. For example, watershed management (REDLACH) in the Amazon. Changing farming techniques – e.g. continuous cover could maintain higher levels of interception than total logging.

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Part 2: Local catchment

Name of river catchment:	e.g. <i>Thames Basin</i>	
Describe the catchment:	River is 346 km long, has 38 main tributaries and 10 million people live within the basin, the river flows through towns such as Reading.	
How is the river linked to the water cycle?	Inputs	Upper source is in the Cotswolds, and the land use is mixed – pastoral and arable. Climate is drier in the southeast – about 10% below England's average.
	Flows	Upper course: 17.6 m ³ /s Middle course: 39.7 m ³ /s Lower course: 65.9 m ³ /s
	Stores	Replenished by rainfall, including the flows from stores such as chalk aquifers.
	Outputs	The Thames' mouth flows into a broad estuary and the sea. Some water will also flow into the bed of the river. The London clay is impermeable.
	Flooding	The Thames floods due to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High or intense rainfall • Antecedent conditions • Storm surges
How does the catchment relate to the carbon cycle?	Increase in urbanisation alters the carbon cycle through deforestation reducing biomass and carbon/soils stores, resulting from urbanisation.	
How does water abstraction affect the river?	The Thames supplies towns and villages with water. There is a desalination plant at Beckton, near the river, which is diminishing the flow of the Thames.	
How does flood mitigation affect the river?	<p>The Thames Barrier is at the river's mouth to prevent downstream flow meeting high tides, and upstream flow meeting low tides.</p> <p>The river has been channelised between embankments and flood walls in place.</p> <p>Within the catchment, river diversion has taken place during periods of high flow.</p>	

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Case studies

Part 1: Tropical rainforest




Location of your chosen rainforest:		
Water Cycle		
Changes from deforestation		
Relationships between the cycles		
How human activity affects the rainforest		
Mitigating human activity		

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Part 2: Local catchment

Name of river catchment:		
Describe the catchment:	You could discuss the physical characteristics such as size, geology, settlements within the catchment.	
 How is the river linked to the water cycle?	Inputs	
	Flows	
	Stores	
	Outputs	
	Flooding	
How does the catchment relate to the carbon cycle?	You could discuss land use change.	
 How does abstraction affect the river?		
How does flood mitigation affect the river?		
Fieldwork: This section is optional, depending on whether you have completed fieldwork relating to rivers. 	Present some of your fieldwork data in this box.	
	What is the data for, and how does it relate to your findings or hypothesis?	

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Exam Advice

Time management

If you open the paper and see a question you didn't expect: don't panic! Take a moment to follow the steps below. Whatever you do, don't just start writing down everything you know.

Before you rush headlong into the exam, take a moment to look at the questions.

Reading through the whole paper

- Remember to take your time at the beginning, reading through all of the questions.
- You don't have to answer them in any particular order, but be aware that sometimes AQA order the questions for a reason, and earlier questions might help you answer later ones.

Reading the questions

- Too often students rush and lose marks.
- It might be useful to underline command words and what the question is asking.

Planning

- After reading through the question, make sure you plan your answer.
- This stage is key to getting higher marks, so make sure you don't skip it. Planning can help you:
 - structure your answer
 - answer the question properly
 - save time
- You may do any rough work and planning in your extra paper, but make sure to put a line through it to indicate it is not to be marked.

- Remember to proofread for spelling, grammar and punctuation as content.
- You can use as many words as you need, but try to be concise. Don't be put off by how much you have to write.
- Any mistakes you make don't use correction fluid.
- If you get stuck, move on and go onto another question. You can come back to it at the end.
- Adopt a formal style, but be clear and concisely.
- Your introduction should state the issue at hand, give a brief overview of the information. The body of your answer should provide evidence for your points. For long-answer questions, you should demonstrate your knowledge and recommendation need to present viewpoints.

Checking

- Leave some time after to go through your answers, correcting spelling, grammar and terminology errors and making sure you haven't left anything out.
- Finally, double check that your candidate details are on any extra sheets you may have, and put them in the correct order with your answer book, using a treasury tag to attach them if you need to.
- Put a cross through any pages you don't want marked, e.g. planning pages.

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Writing

Geographical terms

One of the points you are being assessed on is the correct and appropriate use of geographical terms. You should have assembled a list of key terms that might be useful for this exam, so make sure you learn them and think about how you might include them in your answers. If you are scared of forgetting these words when you start writing your answers, you could try writing them down as soon as you are permitted to start writing, remember to cross them out at the end though!

However, don't use geographical terms if they are unnecessary or you are unsure. Only include them if you are sure they are relevant and useful.

Getting the tone right

As well as using key geographical terms in your answers, your writing should strike the right tone. This helps your answers appear considered and professional.

Do ✓	Do not ✗
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write out abbreviations in full the first time you use them Be clear when a statement is a personal opinion as opposed to fact Use linking words: thus, therefore Try to include the source of a fact if you can, e.g. according to the WHO, the death toll from the tsunami was 1,200. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write in the first person Use contractions: don't, can't Use slang terms and other informal language Use rhetorical questions

It might help to think of yourself talking to an examiner, or a geography teacher who doesn't know you, so you need to make sure you are clear, but they do know about the topic. You don't need to explain every key term, but it's not necessary.

Ask your teacher if you are unsure about your current 'tone', but don't worry about it too much. You are more focused on how you answer the question.

Spelling, punctuation, grammar and legibility

It can often be hard to think about these in the exam hall, but proper spelling, punctuation, grammar and grammar really help keep your meaning clear. They also keep your sentences from getting too long, which aids with clarity and readability.

While examiners are used to reading all sorts of handwriting, it is good to try to make your answers as legible as possible. One way to do this is to slow down while writing, making sure your letters are an appropriate size. The final read-through of your answers before finishing is a good idea, especially for any words which are especially tricky to read.



Quality over quantity: writing skills are equally important in that they help you to clearly and communicate your geographical knowledge and understanding. It's better to give a clear and clear answer than a long answer stuffed with complex words that you don't understand.

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In the event of emergencies!

- All your planning and preparation means this isn't going to happen... But if it does, the first rule is always to try and relax!
- Take a minute for some deep breaths, close your eyes and imagine a lush green woodland... clear your mind.
- Now read over the question, think over what you have just said yet, and continue.

'Thinking like a geographer' and 'synopticity'

Learning to 'think like a geographer' is crucial for exam success and important for your future.

As you are in the world, the world is a complicated place – cause and effect, and a lot of things to think about. You need to pull information together, join up the dots, and work out why things happen in the world. This includes space, place, environment and scale.

Don't be afraid to draw on your own knowledge and other modules to help illustrate your answer. Be creative, original and innovative, but use this skill wisely. Make sure you use that knowledge to answer the question rather than going off on a tangent or writing down *everything* you know. This is called 'synopticity'.

Here are a few tips on thinking like a geographer:

Consider the many aspects of the issue from many viewpoints

- Think across the social/natural divide, using your knowledge of both human and physical geography
- Involve many aspects of the issue: historical context, cultural perspectives, etc.
- SPEED can be a useful tool for thinking synoptically: social, political, economic, environmental, and geographical. But don't forget to consider cultural and material factors when appropriate.
- Try to think about the issue from many viewpoints: work on your empathy!
- Don't be afraid to think outside the box!

Spatial concepts

- Geographical perspectives often focus on the importance of space, location and scale in the issues at hand
- Think about movements and flows of people, goods, ideas, etc.
- Think about the effects of 'scale': local, regional, global

Be Creative

As long as your approach is logical and well justified, you can think in creative ways.

Exam preparation:

My take-home tips:

- ✓ Before the exam (Eat a good BREAKFAST)
- ✓ During the exam (Read the question CAREFULLY)
- ✓ Planning (HIGHLIGHT key words and concepts)
- ✓ After the exam (Take some time to RELAX!!!)

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Answers to Consolidation Questions

What are Cycles?

1. Allow energy and material, could be related to water and carbon cycles
2. Matter
3. Open (but closed on a global scale)
4. Dynamic equilibrium
5. Positive feedback

The Water Cycle 1: Stores and processes

1. 68.7%
2. Water vapour
3. Sublimation
4. Decreased ocean water, ice is deposited on the land surface
5. Shortest = atmosphere; longest = oceans

The Water Cycle 2: The drainage basin, runoff and infiltration

1. It depends – some are small-scale, others are hundreds to thousands of square kilometres
2. Soil = infiltration; rock = percolation
3. Both
4. During the summer
5. Reduced interception increases the overland flow, meaning that the water reaches the river more quickly

The Carbon Cycle 1: Stores and flows

1. The lithosphere – continental crust and upper mantle.
2. Any store – example, e.g. biomass, litter, soil and peat.
3. Respiration
4. Transfer CO₂ between oceans and atmosphere – mopping up some of the CO₂ from the atmosphere. Marine life transfers carbon to ocean sediments and therefore to the geological store.
5. Asteroid impact.

The Carbon Cycle 2: Changes and human activity

1. Volcanoes
2. Soil ploughing, methane from livestock production and paddy fields.
3. 280 ppm
4. Acidification – impact on carbonate shells and coral. Sea level rise. Other effects include coral bleaching.
5. CO₂ absorbs and re-emits the outgoing radiation, meaning that some of the radiation is reflected back to the Earth.

The Importance of Water and Carbon, and Mitigation

1. CO₂
2. Temperature of the air – warmer air can hold more water than cold air
3. Allow a suitable example – e.g. extreme weather events, droughts or flooding / changed lifestyles or economic effects, etc.
4. CO₂ is captured from a power station and injected into geological storage storage field
5. E.g. Kyoto, Paris, etc.

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