



AS and A Level OCR Revision Booklet

Topic 1.1.1: Option A: Coastal Landscapes

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Teacher's Introduction

The revision booklets in this series are designed to support your students as they study AS OCR Geography (H081) and A Level OCR Geography (H481). These revision summaries match the Edexcel specification perfectly. **This particular set supports Topic 1.1.1 Option A: Coastal Landscapes, 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 one would expect from a revision summary.

Each topic follows a clear structure of:

- **Key words:** lots of key words 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 tips are included 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)

October 2019

Students' Introduction

What's the topic?

If you're reading this, your teacher has chosen to teach you the optional module more to coasts than just making sandcastles. And you'll be living in the coastal zone where the sea meets the land, and the land is being eaten away by the sea. You'll have to fight a battle to prevent the land from coastal recession.

You will be examined 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 curve ball – a different type of question – 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 may be asked to use the figure(s) and your knowledge to answer the question.
 - These might be medium-length questions.
- Finally, you'll get a longer, essay-based question. You'll probably be asked for your viewpoints or to weigh up two sides of an argument. You may also be able 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 supported opinion. PEEL or, even better, PEEL here! And no, we don't recommend you eat out at a satsuma in the exam – link together evidence.

If you're studying this at AS, the exam questions are part of Section A in Paper 1.

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 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 glance after 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 time.

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 time for another look!

Topic	When did I last look at this? <i>Write the date in the box, preferably today's</i>	I know this
Coastal systems		
Coastal processes, influences and management		
Landscapes of erosion		
Landscapes of deposition		
The effects of past, present and future climate change on the coastal system		
Coastal management		
Case studies: 1. Coastal management, 2. Economic development		

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 the exam.

Command words

In each question there are 'command words'. These are essentially the instructions to answer the question, and 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 throughout your year(s) studying the course.

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

- ✓ **DESCRIBE:** Identify the main ideas, processes, or a source. But you don't need to explain them.
- ✓ **SUGGEST:** Use a diagram or your knowledge to identify a cause or reason.
- ✓ **IDENTIFY:** Using data or knowledge, pick out issues, e.g. find limitations with a particular indicator.
- ✓ **ASSESS:** Show knowledge of a topic and give evidence on both sides of an argument.
- ✓ **EXAMINE:** Present facts and explain them. Show evidence and balance.
- ✓ **CALCULATE:** Perform a calculation or use a statistical test.
- ✓ **EXPLAIN:** Set out causes of the issue, event and/or factors influencing its form or change. Show evidence and balance.
- ✓ **OUTLINE:** Give a brief account of relevant information.
- ✓ **DISCUSS:** Put forward for and against of an argument, and come to a conclusion based on the evidence between sides.
- ✓ **HOW FAR / TO WHAT / ASSESS THE EXTENT:** Express opinion on merit or demerit of a topic, examining evidence and/or different sides of an argument.

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Assessment objectives

You may come across the words 'assessment objectives', or 'AOs' for short. These are command words. They are set by the government and vary by subject. As you'd expect, AO1s are the easiest, AO2s are the middle, and AO3s are the hardest.

Here's a quick summary:

	What you need to do	Skills
AO1	Show your knowledge and understanding of geographical concepts and issues.	✓ Collecting evidence together
AO2	Make maps and draw conclusions from geographical information, both familiar and new.	✓ Use of maps ✓ Statistics ✓ ICT skills: using data ✓ Analysis, presentation
AO3	Investigate questions and reach 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 AO3 marks. Most of those in the NEA (fieldwork investigation). AO3 marks are usually reserved for the NEA and when you need to interpret data. Where you perform calculations, you must use AO3.

For every question, OCR will have decided which AOs they are targeting. Bear this in mind when you answer. If it's clear that an answer is looking for some AO2 or AO3 marks, don't stop at AO1. Go through.

You might find it useful to have a look at a couple of mark schemes for the topic you are studying to see how each AO mark is achieved.

Level marking

Now that you have a handle on how the command words work and what the examiner is 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 get, 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	(1–4 marks)	<p>AO1:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student demonstrates simplistic comprehension Specific detail is limited and inaccurate. <p>AO2:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student gives a simplistic presentation of comprehension Enquiry is simple and is somewhat inaccurate. Reasoning and (dis)agreement are unsupported and
Level 2	(5–10 marks)	<p>AO1:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student demonstrates good comprehension and There is some specific detail that is generally accurate <p>AO2:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student demonstrates comprehension and fact Enquiry is simple and is of some accuracy. Reasoning and (dis)agreement are generally supported relating to the different factors and their relative imp
Level 3	(11–16 marks)	<p>AO1:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student demonstrates detailed comprehension There is good and precise specific detail. <p>AO2:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student evidences excellent comprehension and Enquiry is strong and correct. Reasoning and (dis)agreement are well supported and relating to the different factors and their relative imp

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Coastal Systems

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Key words

- ✓ **Open system:** A cycle or process where inputs and outputs can add or remove matter or energy.
- ✓ **Input:** Addition to a system.
- ✓ **Store:** Area where material resides for a period of time (residence time).
- ✓ **Flow:** Movement between stores.
- ✓ **Outputs:** Losses from a system.
- ✓ **Dynamic equilibrium:** The steady, balanced state of a system, where inputs and outputs are equal.
- ✓ **Positive feedback:** A 'runaway' system loop where the system moves further from equilibrium.
- ✓ **Negative feedback:** Cycle where the effect weakens, bringing the system back to equilibrium.
- ✓ **Sediment cell:** A self-contained section of coastline along which material is input and output without impacting upon neighbouring cells.
- ✓ **Sediment budget:** The difference between the inputs and outputs of material on a stretch of coastline, the determination of erosion and deposition.
- ✓ **Closed system:** System where energy can transfer across its boundary, but matter cannot.

Key points

- Coasts are open systems, sediment cells are closed systems.
- Coasts have inputs, outputs, stores and processes.
- These all work together to form distinctive landscapes.
- Coastal processes work towards dynamic equilibrium. Positive and negative feedback loops can change or restore the system to an equilibrium.
- Humans can alter or modify the equilibrium.
- On every coastline, there are different processes that work together in a balanced way.
- There are different sediment cells, which are essentially closed systems.
- Sediment budgets depend on the inputs and outputs of material on a stretch of coastline. They can be positive or negative.

The natural coastal system

We can break down coasts into systems.

Coasts are **open** systems because they have inputs and outputs of matter and energy.

Most material entering coasts is from outside – rivers.

Coastal systems are driven by energy. They have:

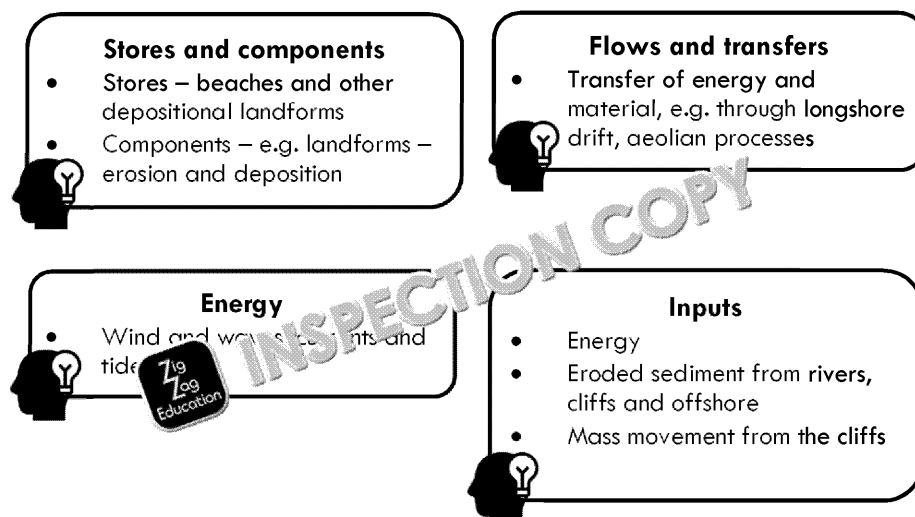
- Inputs
- Stores and components
- Flows
- Processes
- Outputs



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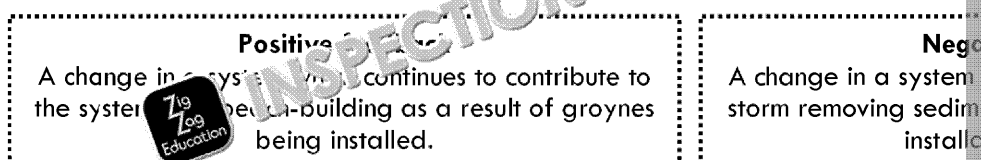
Here are some examples:



Note that some things can be in more than one box – for example longshore drift is out of a system, or features can be stores and landforms – such as a beach.

Dynamic equilibrium

- Coasts are usually in a state of **dynamic equilibrium**. Their inputs and outputs are balanced.
- If this is the case, then there is little change.
- Some coasts are not in equilibrium. They are subject to **positive** and **negative** feedback cycles.
- These feedback cycles will result in a new equilibrium.
- Human activity, such as coastal engineering, can change the state of equilibrium.



What about sediment cells?

We can divide coastlines up into contained closed systems, where material cycles, but can't escape. There are 11 **sediment cells (littoral cells)** in England and Wales. They are separated by headlands, and areas of deep water. Each can be divided into smaller sub-cells.

The map to the right shows the 11 sediment cells, separated by the dotted lines. The circles show the boundaries between the sub-cells.

The **sediment budget** is the difference between the amount of material added and removed from a section of coastline. We must know every source and sink of material, so they are often estimates.

The budget is controlled by erosion and transport:

- Positive budgets occur when erosion adds more material than is transported away, and beaches will build up.
- A negative budget occurs when there is little erosion or more transport away – beaches become thin and eroded.



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They're **closed systems** because headlands and areas of deep water stop the material from moving from one cell to another.

We can apply the concept of a **sediment budget** to an area of coastline, or by measuring the inputs and outputs, we can work out whether a beach will grow or shrink in depth, depending on whether the inputs are larger or smaller than the outputs.

Characteristic landscapes

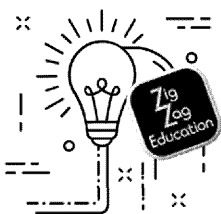
- Coasts are very complex places, and dynamic places. There are many different landforms that can often be seen at once.
- Processes such as erosion and deposition occur at the same time, and the processes can be dependent on each other, without erosion first occurring.



There's a lot going on in this photo:

- 🌊 inputs – waves and wind
- 🌊 processes – erosion and mass movement – we can see a large crack in the cliff face on the stacks because of the different rock strata
- 🌊 transport – suspended load
- 🌊 stores – e.g. the beach in front of the cliff
- 🌊 outputs – sand and sediment from the cliffs

If you only remember these three things...



1. Coasts are open systems – energy and material flow in and out.
2. Processes create characteristic landscapes and features.
3. Coasts eventually reach dynamic equilibrium. Natural processes create positive and negative feedback cycles – a new equilibrium is reached. This can split the coast into independent sediment cells, and can be managed using sediment budgets for a coastline.

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Activities

Consolidation questions

1. Give a source of material that enters the coastal environment.

.....

.....

2. Give a source of energy in the coastal environment.

.....

.....

3. Give an example of how humans can affect the dynamic equilibrium of a coast.

.....

.....

4. How could a negative sediment budget influence a beach?

.....

.....

5. Why can coasts be described as 'dynamic'?

.....

.....

Take it further

Take a look at this page on the dynamic landscape at Birling Gap:
[zzed.uk/9987-nat-trust-birling](https://www.zigzageducation.co.uk/9987-nat-trust-birling)

Here's a recent news article: [zzed.uk/9987-birling-gap-fall](https://www.zigzageducation.co.uk/9987-birling-gap-fall)
 How does this rockfall relate to the cycle in coastal landscapes?



Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea ☹️	Nearly 😐	Sure 😊	
Coastal systems	The coastal system and parts of the cycle				
	Dynamic equilibrium, positive and negative feedback				
	Sediment cells and budgets				
	Formation of characteristic landscapes				

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Coastal Processes, Influence of Sediment

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Key words

- ✓ **Fetch:** Distance over water that the wind blows – the greater the distance, the the waves have, and coastal erosion and deposition increase.
- ✓ **Prevailing wind:** The direction the wind blows from the majority of the time.
- ✓ **Constructive wave:** Low and flat wave frequently associated with swells that (100–150 per minute) frequencies (6–8 per minute), building up beaches.
- ✓ **Destructive wave:** Wave frequently associated with storm conditions that has frequencies (12–14 per minute), diminishing beach size.
- ✓ **Wave refraction:** Curving of the wave as shallower water is reached, such as
- ✓ **Swash:** Uprush of water onto a beach caused by incoming waves.
- ✓ **Backwash:** Return of water towards the sea immediately after the swash.
- ✓ **Tidal range:** The vertical distance between high and low water experienced
- ✓ **Spring tide:** The tide with the greatest range, occurring when there is a full or
- ✓ **Neap tide:** The tide with the lowest range, a week after the spring tide when right angles.
- ✓ **Intertidal zone:** The foreshore – the area between the limits of high and low
- ✓ **High-energy coastline:** Area of shore where there is more erosion than deposition headlands to form because the waves are large with high erosive power.
- ✓ **Low-energy coastline:** Area of shore where there is more deposition than erosion because the waves are small with less erosive power.
- ✓ **Unconsolidated material:** Loose deposits which have not yet been cemented together, example, boulder clay.
- ✓ **Sedimentary rock:** Layers of stone created by the deposition of material, e.g. can be fairly soft, therefore susceptible to erosion.
- ✓ **Metamorphic rock:** Sedimentary rock which has been altered by heat, from the intrusions of magma making the rocks harder than before.
- ✓ **Igneous rock:** Created by a volcano, usually very hard and resistant to erosion.
- ✓ **Rock fracture:** Fracture within stone, allowing erosion to occur at a faster rate.
- ✓ **Bedding plane:** Boundary between each layer of sedimentary rock.
- ✓ **Stratum:** A layer of sedimentary rock, different to the layers either side (separated either side).
- ✓ **Concordant coastline:** A region of the coast where alternating bands of hard rock are parallel to the coast.
- ✓ **Discordant coastline:** Coast section where alternating bands of hard rock are at near right angles.
- ✓ **Current:** Flow of water around a coastline.
- ✓ **Ocean current:** Flow of water in the deep ocean, for example from the equator at depth.
- ✓ **Physical (mechanical) weathering:** The in-situ breakdown of rocks by the action of moisture and frost, differential temperature, etc.
- ✓ **Chemical weathering:** The in-situ breakdown of rock resulting from the action of chemicals within seawater.
- ✓ **Biological weathering:** The in-situ breakdown of rock resulting from the action of plant growth and burrowing creatures.
- ✓ **Mass movement:** The downslope transport of soil, bedrock, rock debris or material under the influence of gravity.
- ✓ **Erosion:** The transport away of weathered material – such as by water (waves).
- ✓ **Hydraulic action:** Water compresses air in gaps in a rock face, creating high pressure expansion that can cause rocks to break apart when repeated.
- ✓ **Corrasion (abrasion):** Pebbles transported in the sea grind against, and are causing erosion.

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- ✓ **Solution (erosion process):** Rocks containing calcium carbonate (limestone) dissolve in acids within the seawater.
- ✓ **Attrition:** Rocks transported in the sea are slowly worn down into smaller, rounder shapes as they are swirled around.
- ✓ **Transport:** Movement of material around a coastline, for example in currents.
- ✓ **Traction:** Large particles, such as pebbles, are rolled across the sea floor (or dragged) because they are too heavy to be suspended.
- ✓ **Saltation:** Waves and currents bounce larger material across the seabed (or beach) if insufficient energy available to constantly lift and move the material.
- ✓ **Suspension:** Fine sediment requires very little energy for it to be maintained in the water (or air), therefore it will remain in the water for a long time.
- ✓ **Solution (transport process):** Transport of dissolved material within the water.
- ✓ **Aerial processes:** Processes relating to the wind – such as transport and erosion.
- ✓ **Deposition:** Process where material is dropped from suspension or movement. Friction increases.
- ✓ **Longshore drift:** Sediment transport along the coast. Waves approach at an angle, moving material obliquely up the beach. Backwash moves material towards the sea.

Key points

- The energy source is the Sun, which causes wind, which blows across the ocean.
- Wave strength depends on the fetch, wind speed and the duration/direction of the wind.
- Waves can be constructive or destructive – building up or eroding beaches.
- Tides occur because of the gravitational pull of the Moon (and the Sun) – tide changes twice a month.
- We can classify coasts based on their energy.
- Coasts derive their sediment from the land, the cliffs, from offshore, from oceanic or biological sources.
- Geology and energy combine to create distinctive coastal landscapes of erosion and deposition.
- Coasts erode faster when the rock is soft, has lots of cracks or weaknesses, or is made of loose, unconsolidated material.
- Rock dip and whether coasts are concordant or discordant also play a role in erosion.
- Weathering affects the cliffs and can be physical, chemical and biological.
- Material slides downwards towards the sea under gravity via a number of processes, in the term of mass movement.
- The sea and its waves erode the coast through a number of processes such as abrasion. The sediment is worn down by attrition.
- Material is then transported away by waves and currents.
- Material is deposited when the energy is lost.
- The process of longshore drift transports material along the coast.

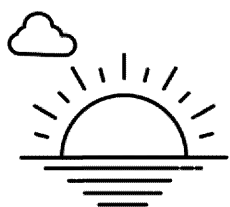
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Sources of energy within the coastal zone



Ultimately, the Sun is the primary energy source. Earth's surface air to rise – low pressure. The equator is strongly heated, while the poles are higher pressure, where cooler air sinks. This creates a pressure gradient – and, therefore, wind. The surface.

Sun → Moon → Waves

Waves and their formation

Wind affects coastal environments, mainly because the wind blows across the ocean surface, forming **waves**.

- Waves form in the open sea where they are circular motions of water.
- When they reach the shore (shallow water), they slow down because of friction. They therefore 'fall over' – it's called breaking – the waves spill or plunge down onto the shore.

Wind also causes erosion and transport in coastal environments, by entraining material.

There are several factors which affect the size of the wave:

Fetch

The amount of ocean that the wind has blown across – the larger the fetch, the larger the wave.

Strength

The greater the pressure gradient, the greater the wind speed and, therefore, the larger the winds.

Types of wave

Waves can be classified as **constructive** and **destructive**.

Constructive

- Build up beaches as the **swash** is greater than the backwash.
- Waves are small and spill onto the beach.
- Can create a **berm**.
- Can help form beaches on an incoming tide.
- Have a lower frequency.

- Large, powerful waves that erode material.
- Waves plunge down the beach.
- The strong backwash.
- Can erode the beach.
- Have a higher frequency.

Wave refraction causes differential erosion from the way that waves bend around headlands.

Tides

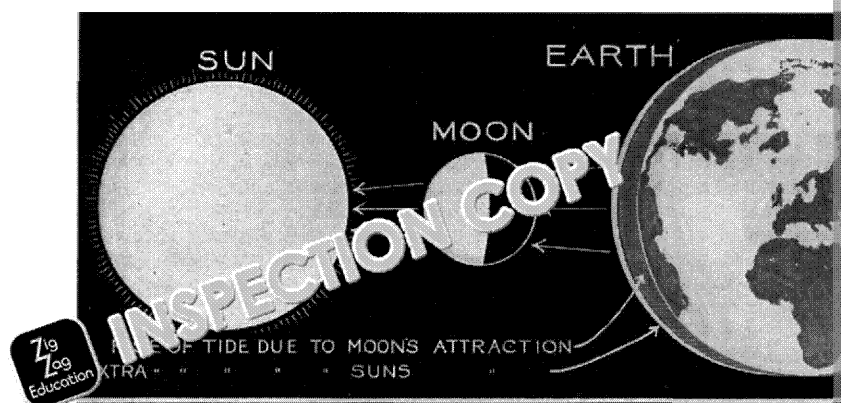
Tides are the rise and fall of water level at the coast, mainly due to the gravitational pull of the Moon. To a lesser extent the Sun (because the Sun is further away). The pull creates a bulge of water, and there's a bulge on the other side of the Earth. This is the *high tide*. At 90°, *low tide* occurs.

- There are usually two high and two low tides each day.
- The **tidal range** (the difference between heights of the high and low tides) changes throughout the month based on the alignment of the Sun and Moon.
 - When the Sun, Earth and Moon align (as in the diagram), there is a large tidal range (a spring tide) as the gravitational pulls combine.

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- When the Moon doesn't align (at right angles), the pulls of the Moon and the Sun on the Earth are reduced. This is called a *neap tide*.



While there is variation in tidal ranges because of spring and neap tides, coastlines have their typical tidal ranges.



The tidal range can influence erosion – whether a large width of shoreline is exposed (exposed zone), or whether just a small area is constantly exposed.

Coastal flooding can be caused by storm surges – onshore winds, and low pressure can combine at high tide to suck up the water and push it onto the land.

Geology

Geology is very important in understanding coastal features. For example:

- The **rock type** affects the rate of erosion – the softer the rock, the faster it erodes.
 - The softest 'rocks' are **unconsolidated material** such as sand and boulder clay.
 - **Sedimentary** rocks are made of compressed deposits. They form in layers as they were laid down at different times.
 - The hardest rocks are **igneous** rocks – they are volcanic.
 - **Metamorphic** rocks are in between – they were formed by increased heat and pressure, or as a result of volcanic activity.
- **Rock joints** – **bedding planes** and **strata** – weaknesses that can be eroded and cause rock falls.
- **Dip** of the rock – whether the strata are horizontal, or dip towards the sea or away from it. The photo above dip towards the sea. Dip affects the way that cliffs collapse.

Geology is complicated – just look at any geological map. The UK is made up of many different rock types, and form very different sequences. It's why coastlines are also complicated, causing differential erosion.

- The type of coastal features are also partially dependent on whether the coastline is rocky or sandy.

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Concordant coasts

Bands of rock run parallel to the coast.
Form coves where areas of weaknesses are exploited.



E.g. Lulworth Cove, Dorset

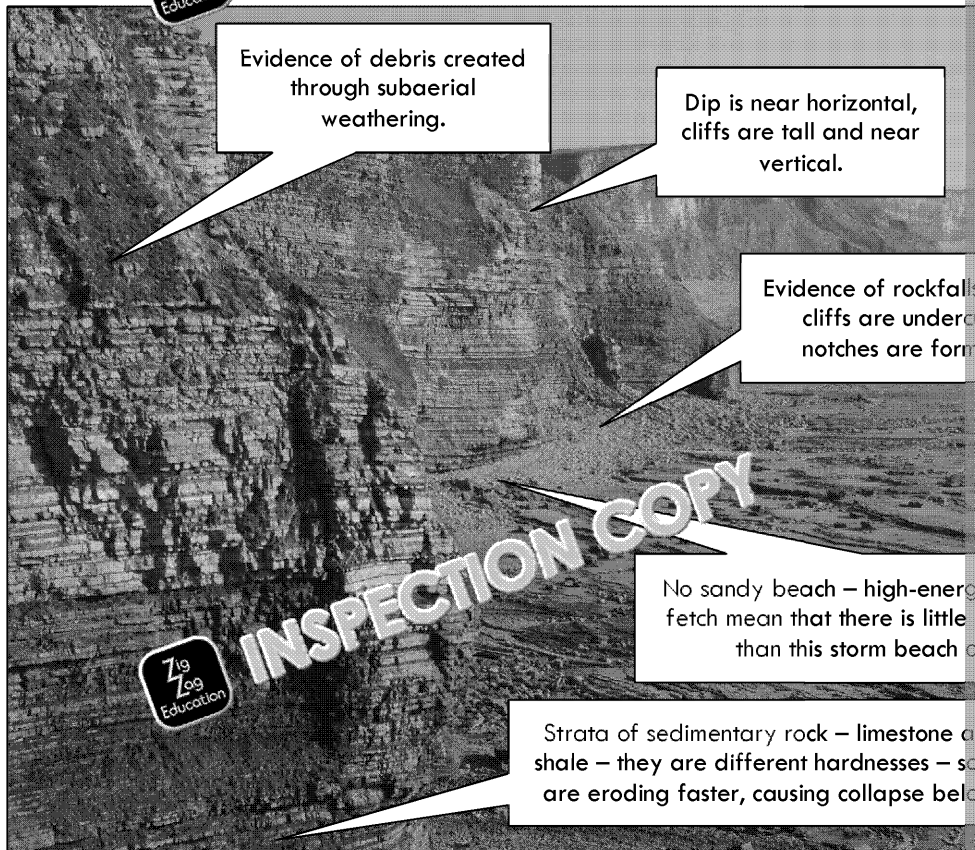
Discordant coasts

Bands of rock run perpendicular to the coast.
Headlands and bays formed by less resistant rock, while



E.g. Swanage Bay, Dorset

How has geological processes affected this landscape?



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Low-energy and high-energy coasts

We classify coasts based on their 'energy'.

High energy	Low energy
<p>Lots of erosional features and material transport caused by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Powerful, destructive waves. Onshore wind (prevailing) and waves. May have a long fetch. Dynamic coasts. <p>  E.g. Cornwall</p>	<p>Lots of deposition</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low, constructive waves. More depositional features like beaches, mudflats. Achieve dynamic equilibrium. e.g. sheltered coasts, estuaries. <p> E.g. South coast of England</p>


Other influences on the coasts

Currents are the movement of water and they can transport suspended material. **longshore drift** – moving sediment along a coastline. Offshore currents are called **drift** and move water and material out to sea.

Ocean currents are larger-scale currents of warm surface water from the equator to the poles and cold water return. They indirectly affect coasts by changing the air temperature, which can affect weather conditions. Storm conditions can increase mass movement and speed up chemical weathering.

Sediment sources




Coasts receive sediment from a number of sources including from the land (terrestrial) and from the sea (marine).

<p>Rivers:</p> <p>Fine sediment from eroded rock and soil is a major source of sediment.</p>	<p>Cliffs:</p> <p>Mass movement, rockfall and cliff erosion send material down cliffs onto the beach.</p>
<p> Shore and the seabed:</p> <p>During storms, powerful waves stir up the seabed.</p>	<p>Ocean currents:</p> <p>Upwelling of material from the seabed.</p>
<p>Biological sources:</p> <p>Form sands of broken-up shells and coral.</p>	<p>Human sources:</p> <p>Beach nourishment – adding material to the beach, often dredged from the seabed.</p>

Geomorphological processes

Weathering is the *in-situ* break-up of rock structure. It's often called *sub-aerial* weathering as it occurs on cliffs and land not affected by waves, but can be influenced from the sea. Factors like the Sun, wind, and rain.

There are three types of weathering:

<p> Physical</p> <p>Changes to the rock structure are caused by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Freezing and thawing Wetting and drying Heating and cooling / exfoliation Salt crystallisation <p></p>	<p>Chemical</p> <p>Chemical attack on the rock, such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oxidation ('rusting') Carbonation (acid attack) Solution (dissolving soluble minerals) <p></p>
--	---

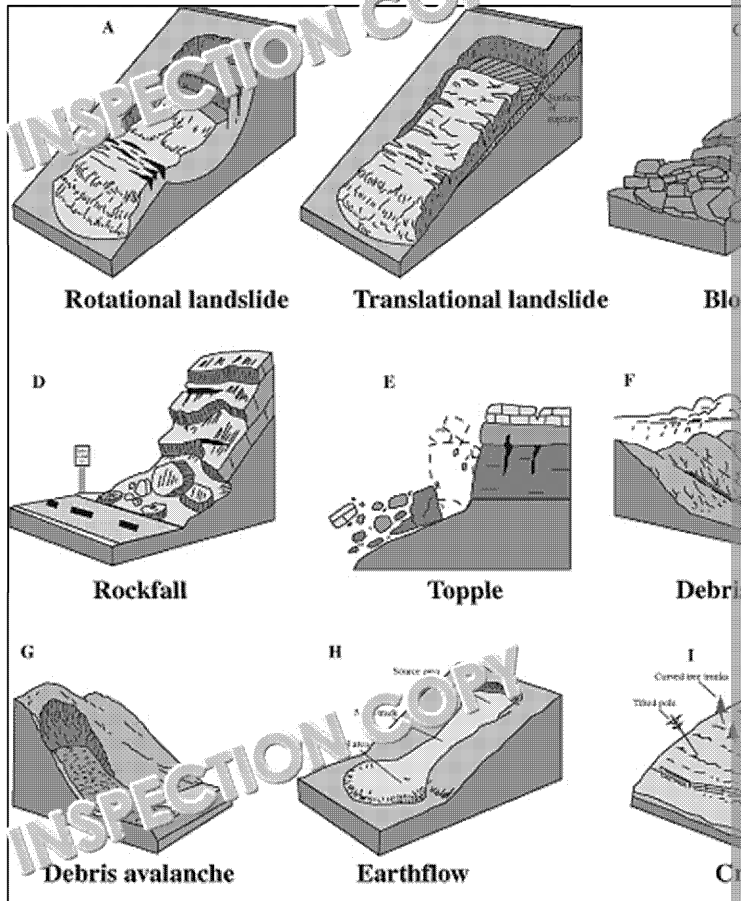
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Mass movement is the downslope movement of soil and

- Soil loses its mechanical strength when lubricated with water, and run-off, and mass movement is influenced by rock type.
- There are several different types – some are very slow, taking years or even centuries, while others happen in seconds.
- Mass movement adds material from the land area to the sea.



A – also called a **slump**. They occur in loose soils, with impermeable rock below. They are formed by the curved rupture surface.

B – **landslides** keeps the material more intact – can be fast, and occur when the slope towards the sea.

D and E – **rockfalls** and **topples** occur quickly, blocks fall from the cliffs onto beaches. They are undercut, or from freeze-thaw.

H – **mudflows** occur when soil is lubricated with rainwater and material quickly.

I – **creep** is a very slow process, and forms terraces as the soil conditions change.



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Transportation

Once eroded material reaches, or is eroded within, the coastal zone, there are four main ways that the oceans and waves **transport** the material along the coast. The larger the particle, the more energy that is required to move it!

Wind and currents can also entrain and transport material.

From **largest** to smallest material...



Traction:
Largest particles (boulders) are rolled along during storms. Too large to ever be suspended.

Saltation:
Smaller pebbles or shingle 'bounce' along in stages – require powerful waves.

Suspension:
Small particles such as sand and silt are suspended within the water, making it look cloudy.

Solution:
Dissolved load (minerals) – essentially invisible.

Hydraulic action:
Waves force air into cracks in cliffs, increasing erosion.

Wave-cutting:
Process where waves erode the base of a cliff.

Corrosion:
Waves pick up pebbles and use them to erode the cliff, or scrape material off the cliff face.

Corrosion:
Process where volcanic rocks are eroded by hydrochloric acid.


Corrosion:
Some rocks are more resistant to erosion than others.

Corrosion:
Eroded material is more rounded as it is knocked about.

Marine processes

Erosion

Waves cause erosion of cliffs and beaches by wearing it away. There are several erosion processes.



The wind can also transport material. This is called **aeolian** transport.

The wind can entrain dry sand, where it can be suspended, or move by traction at low wind speed. When the wind speed drops, or friction increases, **dunes** are formed. Sand is moved by saltation and sometimes suspension if the grains are small enough.

Deposition

Erosion is affected by factors such as:

- Geology – the hardness (resistance of the rock) – or unconsolidated material such as sand and boulder clay – will erode quickly!
- The cliffs – the *dip* of the rock – whether the layers slope to, or away from, the sea.
- Run off – rivers create valleys down towards the sea, and mass movement helps to erode the cliff sides.

Deposition

- ↓ The energy of the waves
- ↓ Friction – such as rocks and pebbles
- ↓ Flow of water
- ↓ Load of material

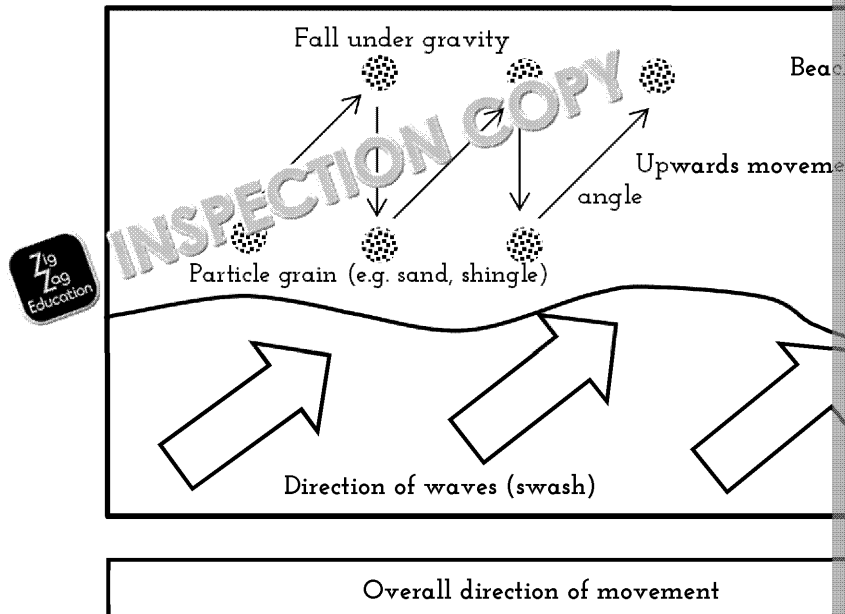
The largest particles are deposited first, as they require the most energy to move.

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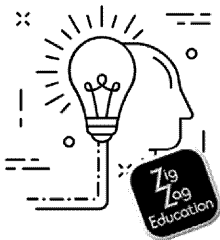


Longshore drift

One marine process is **longshore drift**. Waves meet the shore at an angle, pushing material up the beach. The material then falls back down towards the sea. To stop longshore drift, groynes are used to trap sediment.



If you only remember these three things



- 1 We classify coastlines based on their energy.
 - 2 We split the coast into independent sediment cells, and identify the limits of a coastline.
- Weathering and erosion break down material. Material is then moved by longshore currents (remember longshore drift).

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Activities

Consolidation questions

1. What causes waves to 'break'?

.....

.....

2. What is 'fetch'?

.....

.....

3. Which type of current draws water away from the coast (out to sea)?

.....

4. Which tide occurs when the Sun, Moon and Earth are **NOT** aligned?

.....

5. If winds are **offshore**, do you think that the coastline will be high or low energy?

.....

.....

6. What is the difference between weathering and erosion?

.....

.....

7. Which type of mass movement can be very slow?

.....

8. Which type of transport makes the sea appear cloudy?

.....

9. Which word is both a type of erosion, and a transport mechanism?

.....

10. Why does friction cause deposition?

.....

.....

Take it further

Check out the videos here: [zzed.uk/9987-coasts-videos](https://www.zzed.uk/9987-coasts-videos)




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Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
Coastal processes	Sources of energy				
	Waves				
	Tides				
	Geology				
	High- and low-energy coasts				
	Currents				
	Weathering				
	Mass movement				
	Transportation				
	Erosion				
	Deposition				
	Longshore drift				

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Landscapes of Eros

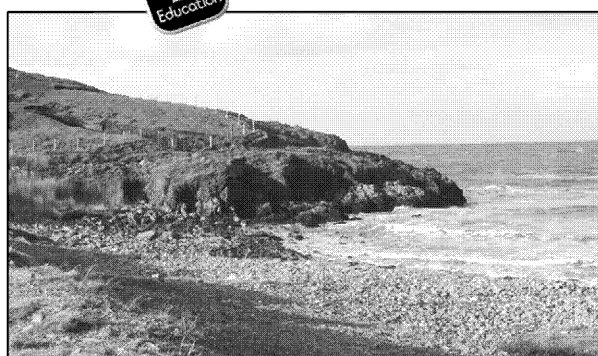
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Key words

- ✓ **Headland:** Resistant outcrop of rock, often along a discordant coastline, with influenced by wave refraction.
- ✓ **Bay:** A body of water surrounded by land on three sides (often two headlands) erosion of less resistant rock along the coastline.
- ✓ **Shore (wave-cut) platform:** A flat area caused by the retreat of a cliff further back.
- ✓ **Cliff:** Rock back wall of a canyon created by the erosion of the land.
- ✓ **Cove:** A small, narrow opening in a concordant coastline where erosion at the head of the bay has outlasted the erosion of the surrounding land.
- ✓ **Geo:** A small, circular hollow in a rock face, caused by the enlargement of a crack.
- ✓ **Cave:** A natural hollow within a cliff formed by the continual erosion of a crack.
- ✓ **Blowhole:** Upward erosion in a cave roof along a weakness in the rock, or where the cave collapses, extending the cave up to the surface.
- ✓ **Arch:** A continuous hole through a headland, formed by the backward erosion of the cliffs on either side; the overburden may later collapse.
- ✓ **Stack:** An isolated column of resistant rock formed by the erosion and collapse of a headland.
- ✓ **Stump:** The eroded remnant (base) of a stack, left behind after the rock has been eroded away.

Key points

- On discordant coastlines, headlands and bays develop.
- Retreating cliffs form a wave-cut platform.
- Cliffs are the boundary between the sea and the land; some are tall and steep, others are low and slump towards the sea.
- Geos and caves can develop through headlands to create an arch. The arch can collapse to form a stack. When the stack topples, a stump develops.
- All of the forms of coastal erosion and weathering combine to form distinctive coastal landscapes.



Headlands and bays

- Headlands are prominent features that extend outwards into the sea.
- They often form on discordant coastlines where harder rock either side are eroded more slowly.
- Material is deposited in the bays between the headlands.
- Wave refraction is a factor in the formation of headlands, concentrating wave power and helping to erode the headlands.

Shore (wave-cut) platform

- As cliffs retreat, and the resulting material is transported away, a shallow-sloping sheet of rock develops.
- They slope towards the sea.
- Some are smooth, while others are worn down by abrasion.
- Others are covered in pebbles or are filled with rock pools.



E.g.

Syme Regis, Glamorgan Heritage Coast (South Wales).



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Cliffs

Cliffs often form the boundary between the land and the sea. They are influenced by geology and the energy of the coastline.

- Resistant rock types often form steep cliffs.
- Soft and unconsolidated material may gently slope towards the sea.
- Unconsolidated rocks will erode fastest, even in a relatively low-energy coastline.
- Hydraulic action and corrasion can form a notch at the base of the cliff – the overhang may collapse.
- On some softer coasts, even with a low fetch, mass movement will create a barrier helping to protect them.



E.g.

Rapidly eroding coastlines: Norfolk – Happisburgh is shown in the photo. Tall, hard cliffs: Conachair, St Kilda – up to 426 metres!

Headland → Geo → Cave → Arch → Stack → Stump

Here's the Old Harry Rocks. This probably isn't the first time you've seen them!



So, how did they form, and how will they evolve?

1. This sequence started with a chalk headland. Wave action focuses energy on a weak point.
2. Hydraulic action, for example, exploited a weakness in the rock to form a crack.
3. Further erosion opened up the crack into a larger **cave**. A blowhole might develop. As vertical erosion continues, it may reach the surface.
4. If a cave on the other side opens up, or the single cave extends all the way through, an **arch** is formed.
5. Eventually the arch collapses to form a pillar of rock called a **stack**.
6. The stack is eroded through corrasion and hydraulic action at its base. Eventually it will collapse.
7. Abrasion will erode down the remaining rock to form a **stump**.
8. Eventually the remains will become part of a **wave-cut platform**.

The rock is also being affected by sub-aerial weathering, which reduces its height.

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An example of a high-energy coastline

The Olympic Peninsula is located in northern Washington, with Canada lying just across the Strait of Juan de Fuca.

The coastline is rocky – high-energy because of its long fetch across the Pacific Ocean. Winter storms with high waves are frequent, and contribute greatly to the erosive action of the waves – hydraulic action, corrosion and attrition all contribute.

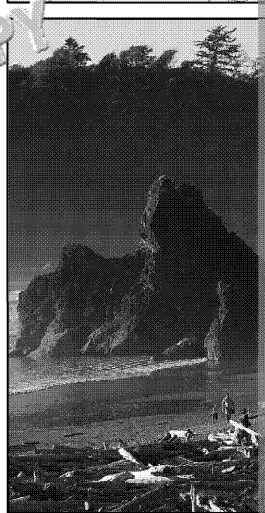
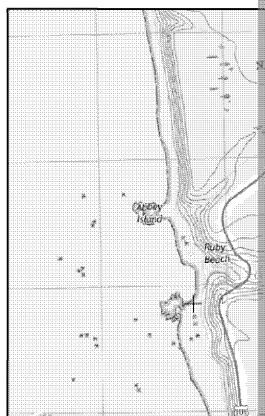
Ruby Beach is particularly famous for its erosional features. Tall cliffs tower over the beaches, and stacks, islands and caves are found here.

Around Ruby Beach, the geology is concordant – erosion has worn away the softer sandstone, while harder igneous rock lies to the north – shown by changes on the geology map. North of Ruby Beach, between La Push and Oil City, the geology is concordant (not shown on the map). Wide coves are located where the sea has eroded through the harder band of rock.

There is little evidence of depositional features such as spits. Aerial photos show the waves breaking at a slightly oblique angle to the coast, suggesting that longshore drift can occur. Inland, glacial landforms provide a source of sediment.

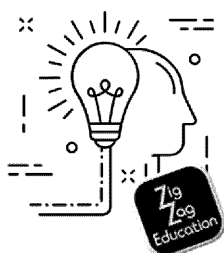
In the future, continuing erosion and rising sea levels will cause some cliffs to topple, and cliff retreat as notches are cut at the bases. The more material that is eroded, the greater the transport of material and potential for processes such as longshore drift.

While the overall landscape will change very slowly, mass movements such as rockfalls and the toppling of the stacks are instantaneous.



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If you only remember these three things



- 1 Headlands and bays form on discordant coastlines where the harder rock has been eroded slowly. Headlands stick out into the sea. The bays are the more sheltered place.
- 2 The coast is lined by cliffs, which can either be tall and steep or low and gentle. When cliffs retreat, wave-cut platforms are formed.
- 3 Headlands can start the sequence of development of a bay.

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Activities

Consolidation questions

1. Which type of material erodes fastest?

.....

2. Which type of coast is **less** likely to develop headlands?

.....

3. Give an example of a cliff collapse.

.....

.....

4. Why is material deposited in bays?

.....

.....

5. Which is missing in this sequence?

Cave, _____, stack, stump

.....

Take it further

Take a look at this interactive geography resource and see how the rock types and sequence shape the coastline:

www.bbc.co.uk/1/learningzone/9987



Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea ☹️	Nearly 😐	Sure 😊	
Landscapes of erosion	Headlands and bays				
	Shore (wave-cut) platforms				
	Sequence from a headland to a stump				

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Landscapes of Deposition

Key words

- ✓ **Littoral zone:** Coastal area submerged by tides and the sea near to the coast.
- ✓ **Offshore:** The zone furthest from the shore. Waves have a larger impact on the seabed.
- ✓ **Inshore:** Submerged area between the shore and the offshore area.
- ✓ **Foreshore:** Area of the shore between the high- and low-tide marks – the area exposed at low tide.
- ✓ **Backshore:** The zone further from the sea, entirely landward of the high-water conditions. Only affected by waves under storm conditions.
- ✓ **Berm:** The circular beach created by waves.
- ✓ **Cusp:** A circular feature on the beach.
- ✓ **Ripple:** A pattern seen on the beach at low tide caused by the action of waves.
- ✓ **Storm beach:** Deposit of the coarsest material thrown to the back of the beach.
- ✓ **Spit:** Strip of deposited material connected to the land and out to sea, caused by longshore drift. It may block a bay or enter an estuary, but transport continues in the same direction.
- ✓ **Tomolo:** A spit that joins the mainland to a previously offshore island.
- ✓ **Onshore bar:** Ridge of deposited material out at sea. Sometimes exposed at high tide in front of the shore. There may be a lagoon, too.
- ✓ **Barrier beach:** Usually permanently exposed sand ridge out at sea, protecting a bay or lagoon that connected with land again.
- ✓ **Pioneer species:** The first life to colonise a bare surface, such as algae on a rock.
- ✓ **Succession:** The process where different species take over an area of land over time, starting with pioneer species, and ending with the climatic climax vegetation.
- ✓ **Climatic climax vegetation:** The final stage of succession, e.g. broadleaved forest. A salt marsh develops into dry land.
- ✓ **Mudflat:** Area of fine silt, often exposed at low tide and with very little surface vegetation.
- ✓ **Salt marsh:** Estuarine ecosystem formed of salt-tolerant plants which cause mud to build up. Eventually become dry land.
- ✓ **Halophyte:** A plant which can grow in very salty conditions, such as on a salt marsh. It may be a portion of the dune is subject to salt spray, such as growing on a cliff.

Key points

- Beaches are large deposits of sand, shingle or pebbles. They form in low-energy areas and are built up by constructive waves in the summer. Waves sort the material by size, with the largest at the back – sometimes a ridge of pebbles called a storm beach.
- Spits are ridges of deposits out to sea and occur where the coastline changes, such as at the mouth of an estuary, but the flow of sediment continues downstream. Spits can be straight or hooked. Spits have several hooks.
- Onshore bars are ridges of material across a bay (that might be submerged) or a lagoon, like spits, or are glacial deposits pushed towards the shore.
- Tomolos are ridges of deposits that link an island to the mainland.
- Mudflats are large expanses of river sediment at the river's mouth, exposed at low tide. They have very little vegetation growth.
- Mudflats can eventually support plants, another stage of succession. As the ecosystem develops, the marsh rises and becomes drier. Salt-tolerant plants and shrubs and trees eventually form a climax vegetation.

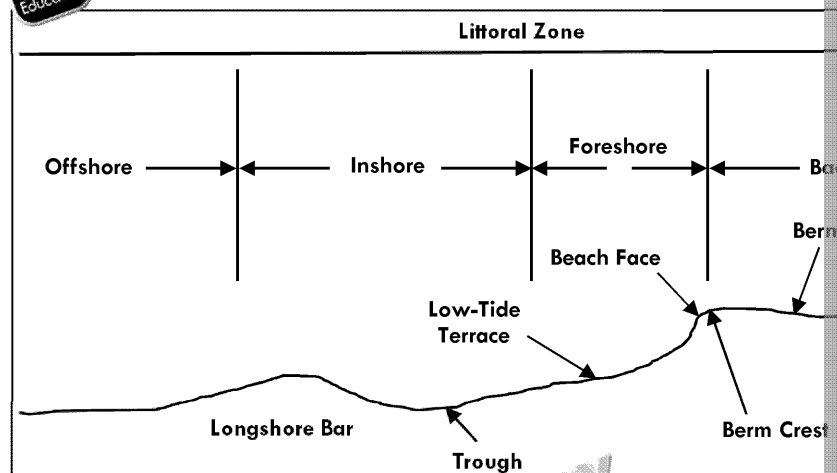
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Beaches

- Beaches are large gently-sloping deposits of material (sand, shingle and coral) formed where there is an ample supply of material, and by constructive waves.
- Beaches can rapidly change – a storm can erode and change the shape.
- They're made of sand, shingle and pebbles, often a combination.
- At the landward **backshore**, storms hurl the largest rocks into a ridge called a **drift**.
- Beaches are stratified – the smallest material is exposed at low tide.
- The profile changes during the year, too – they're often steeper in summer due to constructive waves.
- Beaches are said to be 'drift-aligned', or 'drift-aligned', depending on whether they're front-on, or at an angle to the drift.
- While they might seem simple, there's plenty of smaller features.



- Berms** are ridges built up by each low tide. The range decreases towards the sea.
- Cusps** are erosional circular depressions in the beach face.
- Near the low-water mark, **cusps** occur from currents and waves.

Spits



- Spits** are protrusions of material that are deposited when the coastline changes direction, such as at the mouth of an estuary.
- The material is transported downstream via longshore drift, and continues out into the deeper water, before deposition occurs due to increased turbulence.
- In an estuary, river flow stops the spit from growing across the whole channel.
- Spits can have a curved end, when the wind changes direction out to sea, or due to wave refraction.
- Behind the spit, where water is sheltered, deposition occurs and marshes can develop.
- There are two types of spit – simple and compound.

Simple spits
Straight with a hook.
E.g. **Spurn Head, Sandbanks in Poole**

Compound spits
Have several hooks – where the spit continued to grow after developing its hook.
E.g. **Miho no Matsubara, Japan**

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Onshore bars

Bars are ridges of material that extend across a bay (not an estuary), creating a lagoon.

They are thought to be made in two ways:

1. Resulting from longshore drift – like a spit.
2. Accumulated glacial till transported towards the shore from the oceans (rising sea level after the last ice age).

Offshore bars may be (partially) submerged, and protect the coast from the waves.



E.g.



Newton Ley, Devon (in the photo)
the lagoon is on the left.



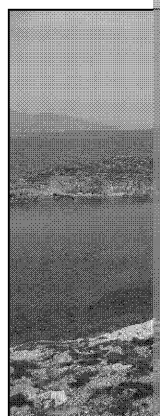
Tomboles

A ridge of deposited strip of material that connects an island with the mainland. The waves have less energy due to the shelter of the island, and being closer to the shore. This allows material to be deposited.



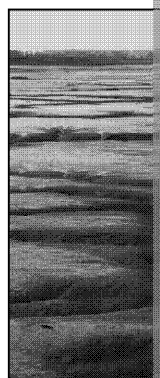
E.g.

St Ninian's Isle, Scotland, Howth Head, Ireland,
Crummock Water – an inland lake!



Mudflats to salt marshes

- Mudflats are expanses of bare mud, which are underwater at high tide. They are found at the mouths of rivers – estuaries.
- There is little to no vegetation growing on mud flats, but many birds rely on the abundant source of shellfish and worms that live within the mud.
- In the summer, algae can grow on the mud.



- A series of succession can develop a mudflat into a salt marsh.
- Salt marshes are also found in the lee of spits.
- Plants that live on salt marshes have to cope with the salt. They're called '**halophytes**'.
- The pioneer species might be eelgrass; later, spartina and glasswort colonise the marsh.
- These species trap more sediment, and the marsh rises.
- This means that they are submerged for shorter periods each day.
- A meadow of plants can then take hold.
- The climate may be woody shrubs and eventually trees.



E.g.

Newtown, Isle of Wight (pictured), Crymlyn Burrows (South Wales)



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An example of a low-energy coastline

The Hel Peninsula is a 36 km spit which lies in the Baltic Sea – a relatively sheltered body of water. The peninsula is part of Poland. The Baltic Sea is famous for its long depositional features.

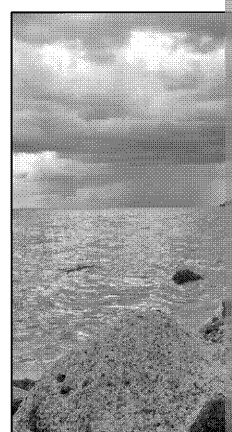
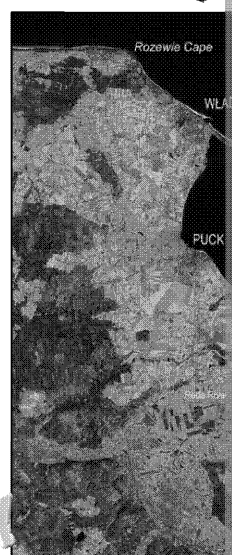
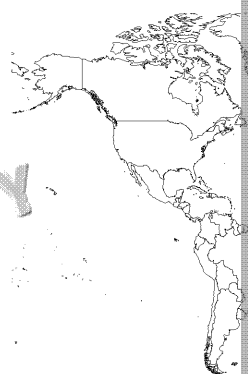
The spit is made of sand and gravel, formed from material eroded from the upstream coast. Material is moved by longshore drift as erosion is moving along to the tip of the spit. Tides in the area is very low – just a few centimetres.

On the side of the spit which meets the Baltic Sea, sand dunes have formed. Behind the spit is the Bay of Puck – it's a very shallow lagoon (the water is only two metres deep). The lagoon may have been formed by glacial erosion, and some of the sediment is of glacial origin, but sedimentation is likely to have occurred because of the shelter of the spit. The shallowest parts can be seen on the aerial image. Narrow marshes occur where the sea meets the land.

However, the area still has a fair amount of energy. Strong winds in the autumn and winter are exerted from the north, causing the erosion of material to form the spit and cause the waves for longshore drift. The storms and associated storm surges can also damage the spit.

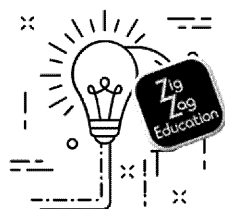
Most of the spit lies within a few metres of the sea. To help resist erosion, the height of the spit has been artificially increased, and coastal defences such as groynes and sea walls have been employed.

Without intervention, rising sea level and strong winter storms could quickly alter the shape of the spit as erosion occurs. Over time, the spit could become a series of islands as parts are eroded, and the hook on the end become more pronounced.



If you only remember these three things

- 1 Beaches are probably the most well-known depositional features. They are formed by the deposition of large quantities of sand and shingle during the summer. There are many smaller features of deposition, such as spits, tombolos and bars.
- 2 The formation of spits, tombolos and bars is similar – they are formed by the deposition of material out to sea, between the mainland and an island respectively.
- 3 Salt marshes show the process of vegetation succession. They are colonised by pioneer species. Each successive plant colonises the area by trapping more material, and creating conditions for the future species, until the climatic conditions are suitable for the next species.



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Activities

Consolidation questions

- Which is missing from this sequence?
Offshore, _____, foreshore, backshore
.....
- Some beaches are 'drift-aligned'. What is the other type of beach?
.....
- Give **two** features necessary for a spit to develop.
.....
.....
- What does a tombolo connect to the mainland?
.....
- What ecosystem can a mudflat develop into?
.....

Take it further

Take a look at the documents here: [zzedu.com/37-coastal-explorer](#) which follows the coastline where Spurn Head is located. How might the spit be affected by erosion?



Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea ☹️	Nearly 😐	Sure 😊	
Landscapes of deposition	Beaches				
	Spits				
	Onshore bars				
	Tombolos				
	Mudflats and salt marshes				

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The Effects of Past, Present and Future Climate Change on Coastal Systems

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Key words

- ✓ **Ice age:** Sustained period of reduced global temperatures during which ice melted and sea levels fell to lower altitudes.
- ✓ **Sea-level rise:** Addition of water to the oceans, causing the water's height to rise, inundating land and increasing flood risk to low-lying areas.
- ✓ **Eustatic change:** A type of change in sea level that affects the whole planet, due to changes in the volume of water stored in the oceans.
- ✓ **Raised beach (marine terrace):** A deposit of sand which formed when the sea level was lower, but is now above the current sea level.
- ✓ **Relic features:** Landforms that were formed in the past – such as cliffs and beaches – but are now affected by their original processes, but rather subaerial processes.
- ✓ **Abandoned cliffs:** Cliffs that are located above current sea level. They are now affected by subaerial processes instead.
- ✓ **Ria:** A river valley, or a system of river valleys, that is flooded during sea-level rise.
- ✓ **Fjord:** A glacial valley that has been flooded by sea-level rise. Glacial troughs are formed during ice ages, when sea levels were lower.
- ✓ **Shingle beach:** Ridges of gravel which were either deposited on the land by waves pushing material onto the shore as sea level rose after an ice age.
- ✓ **Thermal expansion:** If the atmosphere warms, heat energy is transferred to the oceans, causing them to expand, increasing in volume. This causes sea level to rise.

Key points

- Sea level is related to climate based on the amount of ice on the land – during ice ages, sea level falls and it rises again once the ice melts.
- Eustatic changes are rises or falls in sea level.
- If the sea level falls, or the land level rises, then current beaches and features are left behind the sea. They form raised beaches and relic features.
- If sea level rises, then features are flooded – fjords are flooded glacial trough valleys.
- Sea level is rising due to human activity – rising global temperature is melting glaciers and ice sheets, which accumulates in the oceans. As ocean water warms, it expands – taking up more space.
- The effects of rising sea level will be devastating to our coastal communities, especially in low-lying areas. There are also other effects, such as water quality issues and loss of farmland.
- Humans therefore need to limit CO₂ emissions to stop the greatest rises in sea level. It is estimated that sea level may rise by two metres or more!

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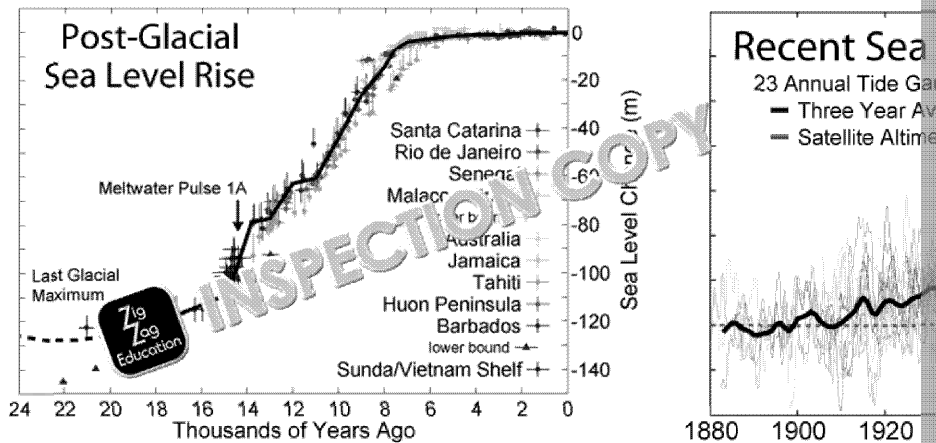
How has sea level changed in the past?

Sea level changes with the climate

- During ice ages, water is stored on the land as ice – it falls on the land as snow and glaciers, and when they melt, the water runs into the oceans.
- Therefore, when the ice melts, the water runs into the oceans and sea level rises.
- Global sea level falls – during the last ice age, sea level might have been as much as 120 metres lower than today.
- Once the ice age ends, sea level rises again as the ice melts. This occurs rapidly – as shown on the graph overleaf.



- The second graph shows the smaller changes in sea level since 1880. Note the centimetres rather than metres.



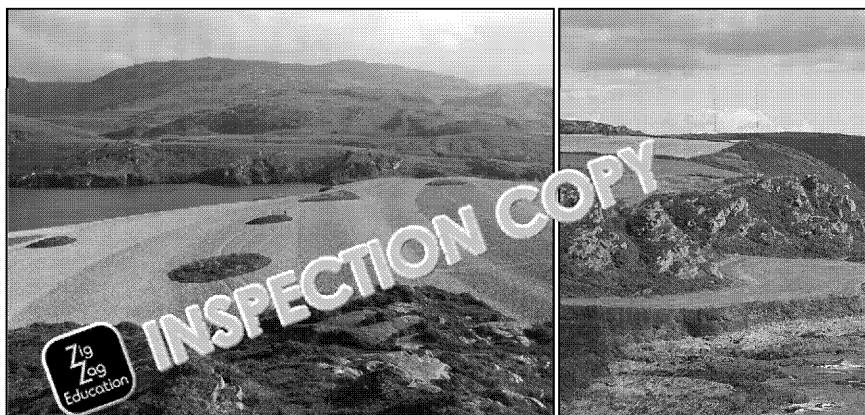
We call this eustatic change

- Ice ages cause sea level to rise and fall, depending on the amount of ice on land.
- Cooling also causes the water in the sea to shrink – the opposite effect to the warming.
- In the past, changes were due to coinciding natural factors such as orbital and solar activity. Solar activity is likely to have influenced ice ages.
- Humans are warming the planet through greenhouse gas emissions. This may cause sea level to rise, as more land ice melts.
- Sea level has been higher in the distant past than today.
- When sea level rises, valleys and glacial troughs (that were formed when sea level was lower) are now under water.

Emergent features (raised beaches (marine platforms)

- When the land rises faster than sea level, or if sea levels fall, the current beach is no longer affected by the sea. They are called 'relic features'.
- Instead, they are affected by sub-aerial processes such as weathering.
- Examples include raised beaches and marine terraces (wave-cut platforms), evidence of wave action, and other landforms such as stacks.
- Sometimes a series of terraces develops if the sea level drops several times.
- The features may become overgrown by vegetation.
- If sea level rises again, then the features will once again be impacted by the sea.

What are the relic features shown in the photos below?



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Isles of Jura and Arran, but also in Cornwall and New Zealand

Submergent features (rias and fjords)

- When sea level rises, features that were created on land below current sea level after ice ages – as seen on the graphs overleaf.
- In areas where there were glaciers, these are often glacial troughs.
- In areas without glaciers, these can be river valleys.

Rias

Flooded river valleys and their tributaries. Unlike the straight fjords, rias branch and are often narrower (deepest at the mouth).



E.g.



Dr. and Cornwall, Sydney – Australia,
Chesapeake Bay – United States.



Fjords

Fjords are flooded U-shaped glacial troughs. They are narrow, very deep (deepest inland), and have steep walls.



E.g.

Norway, Canada, Alaska, New Zealand, Greenland
and Chile.



Shingle beaches

Shingle beaches are ridges of gravel which were either deposited on the land, or deposited by waves pushing material onto the shore as sea level increased after



E.g.

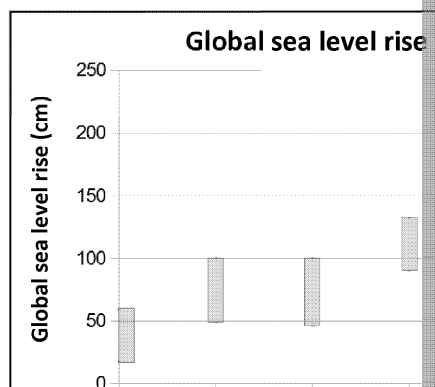
Possibly Chesil Beach, Wiltshire and Oregon in the United States

Predicting sea level rise

Sea level rise in two ways:

- Melted land ice adds volume of water to the oceans.
- **Thermal expansion** as water warms increases the volume.

We're not certain how much sea level will rise by – partially how ice sheets will respond to climate change, and it's also down to us – how much CO₂ that we will emit. The more we emit, the more warming that might occur.



The graph shows some projected ranges of sea level rise between 2000 and 2100. It could be two metres. This would have catastrophic results to those living in coastal areas.

The speed at which sea level is rising is increasing each year – it's currently



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The future effects of sea-level rise

- As sea level rises, the water level in rias and fjords will increase. A greater area is exposed to coastal erosion rather than subaerial weathering and mass movement. Other features like rias and fjords have greater influence and erosion by the sea, especially as climate change is predicted to increase sea level rise.

Other implications of coastal erosion and flooding include:

- Greater threat of storm surges.
- Increased area exposed to coastal erosion – increased coastal retreat.
- Habitats will also be lost.
- The need for coastal defences – depending to protect cities, populations and infrastructure.



If you only remember these three things



- During ice ages, sea level falls because the water is locked up in ice sheets. When the ice melts, the water returns to the sea during the interglacial period. This is why we have raised beach features.
- If sea level drops, we get emergent features such as raised beaches. If sea level rises, we get submergent features such as rias (river mouths) and shingle beaches.
- Sea level is rising due to climate change – land ice is melting and sea ice is increasing through thermal expansion. Landforms will be eroded and sea level increases.



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Activities

Consolidation questions

- How much did sea level fall during the last ice age?
.....
- How has sea level changed over the past 10,000 years?
.....
- Give two features resulting in a rise in sea level.
.....
- How are relic features eroded?
.....
- Why is there uncertainty over how much sea level will rise in the future?
.....
.....
.....

Take it further

Here's an interactive map showing the areas flooded due to climate change. Use it to determine the temperature rise you can pan the map to show different parts of the world.
www.bbc.com/news/1/health/2014/09/140914_uk_sea_level_rise

Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea ☹	Nearly ☺	Sure 😊	
Past, present and future climate change	Past climate change				
	Eustatic changes				
	Emergent features				
	Submergent features				
	Predicted sea-level rise				
	The effects of sea-level rise				

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Coastal Management

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Key words

- ✓ **Coastal management:** Technique of controlling the rate of coastal erosion and protection.
- ✓ **Hard engineering:** The construction of large scale construction schemes to disrupt processes, in order to defend an area from flooding or coastal erosion.
- ✓ **Soft engineering:** The use of natural environment and materials that work with the processes to provide defence against flooding or coastal erosion.
- ✓ **Sustainable management:** Policies which promote long-lasting, beneficial and sustainable coastal management.



Key points

- We use coastal engineering to protect areas of the coast from erosion, and from flooding.
- In the past, areas of the coast were protected by hard engineering projects which were effective, but having the ability to damage the environment, including downstream.
- Nowadays, sustainable management and soft engineering are preferred. These ensure that coasts are protected for future generations.

Why do we manage the coast?

Coastlines are very important to us – many of us live near the coast, and we use the coast for shipping, agricultural land and tourism.

Coasts are under threat from human activity, both directly and indirectly – such as sea level resulting from anthropogenic climate change.

We therefore manage the coast for two reasons:



Reduce erosion

Some communities are very valuable – especially around large towns and cities. In these cases, we want to stop coastal retreat.

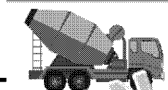
Reduce flooding

Sometimes we want to reduce the risk of surges, made worse by climate change, to build up the coastline.

We can build structures to help protect the coast, or manage the physical environment in different ways:

Hard engineering

Often older schemes, but still make up 'hold-the-line' aspects of coastal engineering.



Soft engineering
(including managed realignment)
Often newer schemes





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Hard engineering

- Hard engineering involves pouring concrete, or using rocks and timber – they're expensive projects, can damage the environment and can be visually obtrusive.
- It is said to work **against** nature.

Here's a rundown of some common types.

Name of scheme	How it works	Advantages
Sea wall	 are concrete barrier to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • stop erosion • raise the height • deflect the energy back out to sea – they are sometimes curved for this reason 	If they are well maintained, they can last a long time, and are effective at protecting large settlements and important installations.
Gabions	Cages filled with rocks – form a barrier to the land and absorb wave impact.	Cheaper and quicker to install than sea walls.
Riprap (rock armour)	Piles of boulders to absorb wave impact.	Large, hard rocks last a very long time, with low maintenance costs.
Revetment	 Wooden or rock structures to decrease wave action.	Fairly cheap and quick to build.
Groynes	Wooden structures run across the beach, designed to trap sand and shingle transported by longshore drift.	Allow for the development of beaches for tourist use.

There are other forms of sea engineering, such as offshore reefs and barrages.


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Soft engineering

- Soft engineering involves enhancing natural processes and ecosystems in order to protect the coastline. It can create new and important ecosystems such as dunes and marshes.
- It is said to work **with** nature.

Here's a rundown of some common types.

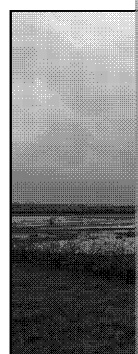
Name of scheme	How it works	Advantages
Dune regeneration 	New dunes are created, or existing dunes are fixed. Sometimes they are fenced off, or even old Christmas trees can be used to trap the sand.	Create or enhance a valuable habitat. Cheap to implement – nature does most of the work for us!
Beach nourishment and reprofiling	The level of the beach is built up with imported sand to absorb wave energy. With reprofiling, the slope of the beach is altered.	Creates a valuable and pleasant tourist attraction.
Creation of marshes or mudflats	Natural marsh habitats are created to build up the surface and absorb the impact of the waves.	Highly beneficial ecosystems are created that are great for birds.

Sustainable management

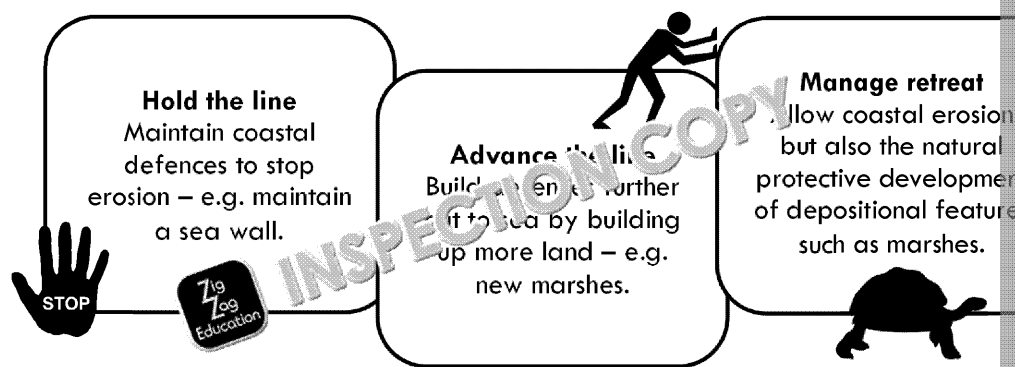
Recently, there has been an increase in various forms of management. Sustainable management decreases our impact on the coast, so it's there for future generations to use and enjoy.

For example, we decide which parts of the coast are worth protecting, and which parts we allow to be eroded to provide a source of sediment for downstream processes.

The land in this photo has been flooded by the sea – the increased salt content of the soil may have caused this tree to die.



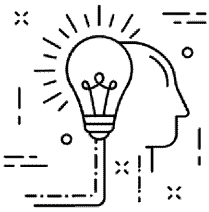
There are several ways that we can manage a particular stretch of coastline:



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If you only remember these three th



- 1 We manage our coasts to reduce erosion and coastal defences – stopping erosion in one place can have big impacts on the coastline.
 - 2 We used to use hard engineering – building lots of sea walls for example. Coastal defences still use hard engineering which is important for safety – but we now try to use sustainable management techniques.
- With pressures on the coast increasing with population growth and sea-level rise, sustainable management is key to protecting coastal areas for future generations.



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Activities

Consolidation questions

1. One of the main reasons for coastal management is to reduce coastal erosion. What is the main reason?

.....

2. Why do hard forms of management 'work against nature'?

.....

3. What type of coastal management is taking place in the photo?



.....

4. Which coastal management allows land to be lost to the sea?

.....

Take it further

See whether your nearest stretch of coast is being managed (mainly England): [zzed.co.uk/coastal-erosion-map](https://www.zzed.co.uk/coastal-erosion-map)

You can view the types of management – e.g. hold the line and no active intervention – and how land use affects the style of management.

You can also see how coastal flooding affects culture – here's an example from Louisiana experiencing rapid flooding in the coastal ecosystem: [zzed.uk/9987-cajun-culture](https://www.zzed.co.uk/9987-cajun-culture)


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Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea ☹️	Nearly 😊	Sure 😄	
 Coastal management	Reasons for managing the coast				
	Hard engineering				
	Soft engineering				
	Sustainable management				

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Case Studies

Part 1: Coastal management

Location:	e.g. Jurassic Coast – Devon and Dorset
Why is coastal management important to the area (e.g. land use, rate of erosion, threat of coastal flooding)?	The following answers will relate to the town of Lyme Regis. The town has a population of just over 3,700, and is a coastal town with a large area of coastline surrounding the town and the local economy.
Has human activity in the region caused issues (e.g. dredging or groynes elsewhere – sediment starvation)?	Shingle has been locally dredged, sand imported from Norway and groynes installed. These are issues that were not an issue before the development and therefore engineering works. However, there could be negative impacts at locations dredged.
What type(s) of management is implemented in the area?	A £56 million, four-phase scheme was implemented between 1995 and 2015. The scheme balanced hard and soft engineering. Hard engineering included sea walls, rock armour, extending existing sea walls. Soft engineering strategies included beach nourishment, dune management, and a 'do nothing' approach in other areas.
How is the management sustainable? Is it sustainable?	Within the scheme, there are a lot of hard engineering – however, the schemes also include soft engineering such as beach nourishment, and areas where a 'do nothing' approach is used. Students may also discuss economic sustainability opportunities. Students may, however, question the sustainability of the scheme, and rocks from Norway.
What are the consequences of the management on the landscape and landforms?	There are relatively few landforms on the immediate coastline. The nearby area comprises cliffs showing evidence of sea level rise. Further east are headlands and bays, and even further east is Chesil beach. The hard engineering schemes at Lyme Regis have created sea walls – trapping sediment, stopping erosion, and therefore increasing erosion elsewhere. Students may argue that the area protected by hard engineering is fairly small, and will therefore have relatively little impact on either side of the town would be more than capable of supplying to allow longshore drift to continue.

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Part 2: Economic development

Location:	e.g. Great Barrier Reef, Australia
What is the economic development taking place (e.g. ports and trade, tourism)?	Tourism is a big business at \$5.4 billion annually, and employed in tourism. Two million visitors a year, mainly from overseas, come for a variety of reasons such as boating, fishing, etc. Many developments and coastal resorts have been built. Many visitors arrive by air in addition to the cruise ships.
How is the economic activity damaging to the area?	<p>Coral reefs are complex and fragile ecosystems, meaning that as the popularity increases, more tourists are visiting through visiting sites and the amenities they require, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • damage from ships, e.g. from anchor drops and the illegal dumping of oil and rubbish • discharge of sewage into the sea • dredging increases sediment on the coral • sun cream released into the water by swimmers • accidental damage from divers <p>In addition to the issues caused by tourism, parts of the reef are damaged because of climate change – ocean acidification and coral bleaching (and eventual coral death). A severe bleaching event occurred in a heatwave of 2016.</p>
What are the unintentional problems caused by the damage you identified above (e.g. material flows, sediment cells and balance)?	<p>Coral reefs are important in protecting coasts because they absorb energy and mitigate storm surges, reducing erosion. That worldwide, coral reefs provide an equivalent of \$100 billion of protection, protecting around 200 million people!</p> <p>The damage to coral would lead to changes in the sediment cells and currents could affect transport of material. With waves and currents, there is more transport potential for sediment material.</p>
Changes to landforms	The area of coast protected by the reef shows many features. Many rivers flow into the sea – deposits of sediment can clearly be seen on aerial photographs. Without protection, the beaches will become eroded.
Changes to the landscape (e.g. coastal retreat)	As noted above, it is possible to link coral death with coastal erosion. There have been few studies on the issue.
Any management to reduce the disruption?	Tourism is carefully managed to reduce the impact – the reef are protected. Management plans are in force to promote sustainability, permits are necessary for visitors.

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Case Studies

Part 1: Coastal management

Location:	e.g. Jurassic Coast – Devon and Dorset
Why is coastal management important to the area (e.g. land use, rate of erosion, threat of coastal flooding)?	
Has human activity in the region caused issues (e.g. dredging or groynes elsewhere – sediment starvation)?	
What type(s) of management is implemented in the area?	
How is the management sustainable?	
What are the consequences of the management on the landscape and landforms?	

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Part 2: Economic development

Location:	e.g. Great Barrier Reef, Australia
What is the economic development taking place (e.g. ports and trade, tourism)?	
How is the economic activity damaging to the area?	
What are the unintentional problems caused by the damage you identified above (e.g. material flows, sediment cells and balance)?	
Changes to landforms	
Changes to the landscape (e.g. coastal retreat)	
Any management to reduce the disruption?	

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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 because they don't read the question carefully.
- It might be useful to underline key words and command words to remind you 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 long the question is around you.
- 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 of the exam.
- 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 the ones you are sure of, as 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 ✓	Don't ✗
<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, etc.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.Use slang terms and abbreviations.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 geography. You don't need to explain every key term, but it's not necessary.

Ask your teacher for advice if you are unsure about your current 'tone', but don't worry about it too much. Your answers should be 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 legibility 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. Make sure your letters are an appropriate size. The final read-through of your answers before finishing is a good idea to check 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 is better to give a short and clear answer than a long answer stuffed with complex words that you are unsure of.



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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 to 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 to answer the question.
- 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 demographic. 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

Coastal systems

1. Allow any suitable suggestion, including from the wind (rivers, subaerial processes) out at sea, and from marine creatures.
2. Allow any suitable suggestion, including from the wind, waves, currents.
3. Coastal engineering changes to sediment availability from changes in land (sediment) and sea levels (e.g. dredging).
4. Smaller, narrower, eroded beach.
5. Change in equilibrium, many processes occurring at the same time, feedback loops.

Coastal processes, influences and sediment

1. Near to the shore, the water is shallower, meaning that the base of the rotational movement is closer to the shore.
2. The distance over the sea that the wind has blown.
3. Rip currents.
4. Neap tide.
5. Low energy.
6. Weathering is in-situ break-up of rock, erosion transports the rock away.
7. Creep.
8. Suspension.
9. Solution.
10. The wind or water has less velocity, meaning that it can't support as much sediment.

Landscapes of erosion

1. Unconsolidated material – e.g. sands, gravel and silt, clastic clay.
2. Concordant coasts.
3. Undercutting creates a notch, eventually the overburden collapses.
4. Bays are more sheltered, reducing the amount of energy for suspension, etc.
5. Arch.

Landscapes of deposition

1. Inshore.
2. Swash-aligned.
3. Supply of sediment being transported down the coast, and a change in coastal morphology at the mouth of an estuary.
4. An island.
5. A salt marsh.

The effects of past, present and future climate change

1. Around 120 metres.
2. Very little change until the last 140 or so years.
3. Two from: rias, fjords, shingle beaches.
4. Subaerial weathering and mass movement.
5. It's unknown how much CO₂ we will produce and therefore the amount of warming. Models and emissions scenarios. We don't know for certain how some warming – they could melt faster than predicted.

Coastal management

1. To reduce the threat of coastal flooding.
2. They disrupt natural processes – e.g. cause sediment starvation downstream, physically disrupt the environment.
3. Either beach nourishment or reprofiling.
4. Do nothing (no active intervention).

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