



AS and A Level OCR Revision Booklet

Topic 3.5: Hazardous Earth

zigzageducation.co.uk

**POD
9989a**

Publish your own work... Write to a brief...
Register at publishmenow.co.uk

Follow us on Twitter [@ZigZagGeography](https://twitter.com/ZigZagGeography)

Contents

Thank You for Choosing ZigZag Education.....	iii
Teacher Feedback Opportunity.....	iv
Terms and Conditions of Use	v
Teacher’s Introduction.....	1
Students’ Introduction.....	2
Plates, Movement, Earth’s Structure and Plate Boundaries.....	6
Activities.....	11
Volcanoes – Causes, Features and Eruption Hazards	12
Activities.....	16
Earthquakes – Causes, Features and Hazards	18
Activities.....	23
Why Do People Live in Hazardous Areas?	25
Activities.....	29
Protecting Ourselves from Hazards.....	31
Activities.....	38
Case Studies (blank).....	40
Case Studies (indicative content).....	42
Exam Advice.....	44
Answers to Consolidation Questions	47

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 OCR specification perfectly. **This particular set supports Topic 3.5: Hazardous Earth, examined in Paper 3.**

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.

October 2019

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)

Students' Introduction

What's the topic?

If you're reading this, your teacher has chosen to teach you the optional module. Nothing on Earth is static – not even the ground under your feet. The tectonic plates, volcanoes and earthquakes. Millions of people around the world are exposed to them the best we can.

You will be learning about this topic in Paper 3. You will answer questions on it but you will also use ONE of the 33-mark hazard questions on in section C.

Here's a quick overview of the things you might find in the exam. However, sometimes exam boards can throw in a curve ball – a different type of question structure – but don't be too alarmed. Just read the questions carefully and be prepared.

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'll need to interpret these before. They're designed to see how you cope with unfamiliar sources and interpret and analyse them.
 - You may be asked to use the figure(s) and your knowledge to answer a 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. PEE or, even better, PEEL. And no, we don't recommend you get out a sat nav together.

If you're studying this at **AS**, the exam questions are in Paper 2.

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 – and even outside the exam hall if you need it.

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

Date of my exam: _____

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Checklist

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

Topic	When did I read this? <i>Write the date, or preferably today's</i>	I know this
Plates, Movement, Earth's Structure and Plate Boundaries		
Volcanoes – Causes, Features and Hazards		
Earthquakes – Causes, Features and Hazards		
Why Do People Live in Hazardous Areas?		
Protecting Ourselves from Hazards		
Case studies: Volcanic eruptions and earthquakes		

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.

Remember that the Section B questions are contextual. You will need to link to course content within your answers.

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 encountered 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 such as a statistical test.
- ✓ **EXPLAIN:** Set out causes of the issue, present and/or factors influencing its development.
- ✓ **OUTLINE:** Provide a brief account of relevant information.
- ✓ **DISCUSS:** Present arguments for and against of an argument, and come to a conclusion based on the evidence.
- ✓ **HOW FAR / TO WHAT / ASSESS THE EXTENT:** Express opinion on merit or value of a topic, examining evidence and/or different sides of argument.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



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	Resources
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 ✓ ICT skills: using data ✓ Analysis, presentation
AO3	Investigating questions and reaching conclusions through many geographical skills and techniques	✓ Concluding and evaluating ✓ Use of maps ✓ Statistics ✓ ICT skills: using data ✓ Analysis, presentation

In your Paper 3 exam, you'll mostly be assessed on AO1 and AO2. There will be very few AO3 questions. Most of those in the NEA (fieldwork investigation).

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. Push through.

You might find it useful to have a look at a couple of past papers to see what schemes for the topic each AO marks are achievable.

Level marking

Now that you've got a handle on how the command words work and what the assessment objectives are, you need to know how they will mark your answers.

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

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



An example of level marking criteria can be found below (for a 33-mark question and AO2).

AO1 (9 marks)

Level	Mark	Descriptor
Level 1	(1–2 marks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student shows only basic comprehension and insufficient detail; details may be incorrect and may not be in line with the context of the question.
Level 2	(3–4 marks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student shows some comprehension and some factual recall, but lacks detail and generalisation with the context of the question.
Level 3	(5–6 marks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student shows good comprehension and factual recall, but lacks detail and generalisation with the context of the question.
Level 4	(7–9 marks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student shows excellent comprehension and factual recall, with detail and generalisation with the context of the question.

AO2 (24 marks)

Level	Mark	Descriptor
Level 1	(1–6 marks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student addresses a narrow range of ideas, and does not make inferences and links made. Insufficient explanation is present. Ideas are poorly supported, and may be one-sided. Discussion is limited. No judgement and/or concluding remarks.
Level 2	(7–12 marks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student addresses a range of ideas, to a reasonable extent. Some explanation is present. Ideas are supported, but may be one-sided. Discussion is limited. Some judgement and/or concluding remarks.
Level 3	(13–18 marks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student addresses a wide range of detailed ideas, with some inferences and links made. Good explanation is present. Ideas are often supported, with both sides supported. Discussion is limited.
Level 4	(19–24 marks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The student addresses a wide range of detailed ideas, with articulated inferences, and many links are made. Clear explanation is present. Ideas are well supported, with both sides supported. Discussion is limited.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



INSPECTION COPY



Plates, Movement, Earth Structure and Plate Boundaries

INSPECTION COPY

Key words

- ✓ **Lithosphere:** The section of Earth's mantle which includes the crust and upper mantle.
- ✓ **Asthenosphere:** The uppermost part of the mantle roughly 80–200 km beneath the surface. This is the layer in which tectonic plates rest and move.
- ✓ **Plate tectonics:** Theory that the crust is divided up into smaller sections called plates which move.
- ✓ **Sea-floor spreading:** Process by which oceanic plates split apart and new crust is formed from basaltic magma.
- ✓ **Convection currents:** Material in the mantle rises up and down. Hot material rises upwards. As it cools, density increases and it sinks once again.
- ✓ **Gravitational sliding:** Secondary form of plate movement, caused by the heat of the crust at ocean trenches.
- ✓ **Slab pull:** Process by which dense and old oceanic crust is pulled down under other plates at subduction zones.
- ✓ **Convergent boundary:** Land is destroyed as two plates collide. The denser plate is pushed (subducted) below the lighter plate and melted in the mantle.
- ✓ **Divergent boundary:** Two plates pull apart creating new land – ocean ridges.
- ✓ **Conservative boundary:** Plates move past each other, but no land is destroyed or created. Sudden release of energy, often as powerful earthquakes.
- ✓ **Magma plume:** Upward flow of hotter magma than the surrounding mantle.
- ✓ **(Young) fold mountains:** Mountains made of thick accumulations of sedimentary rocks at the edges of continents where two plates collide, e.g. the Himalayas.
- ✓ **Rift valley:** Narrow depression between an upland area on each side, sometimes at divergent boundaries, as the two plates pull apart.
- ✓ **Ocean ridge:** Area of raised seabed, where two tectonic plates are spread apart at a divergent boundary.
- ✓ **Deep-sea trench:** Deep depression found along the seaward edge of convergent boundaries.
- ✓ **Island arc:** Often crescent-shaped line of volcanoes protruding from the ocean at convergent boundaries.

Key points

- The main layers of Earth are the crust, mantle and core (inner and outer core).
- The crust is divided into two types – continental and oceanic. The oceanic crust is younger and denser than the continental crust.
- Earth is hot because of residual heat from its creation, and radioactive decay.
- The crust is broken up into plates which move. We know this due to magnetic anomalies and there's lots of rock and fossil evidence.
- New crust is formed at divergent boundaries, and old crust is destroyed at convergent boundaries. Crust is neither created nor destroyed at conservative boundaries.
- Plates move due to a combination of convection currents, gravitational sliding and slab pull at convergent boundaries.
- The type of boundary controls the types of features that you'll find. You'll always find new crust at divergent boundaries, but you'll find volcanoes at conservative boundaries. Sometimes seismic activity occurs from plate boundaries.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Earth's Structure

Earth is divided into layers:

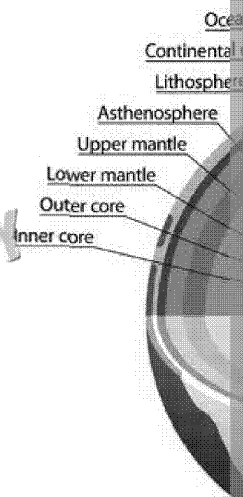
1. **Crust** – oceanic (below the oceans) and continental (below the land).

Continental crust (older) – lower density, thicker – average 35–40 km thick, high mountains on km.

Oceanic crust (younger) – higher density, thinner – average 7–10 km thick.

The lithosphere = crust + highest mantle.

Asthenosphere = upper mantle.



2. **Mantle** – largest part – hot! Mostly solid or plastic-like, with superheated $^{\circ}\text{C}$ near the core.

3. The **core**.

- a. Outer core – very hot – liquid iron and nickel – at 2,700 to over 5,000 $^{\circ}\text{C}$.
- b. Inner core – incredibly hot – solid nickel and iron – maybe 6,000 $^{\circ}\text{C}$.

Earth gets its heat from two sources.

- **Primordial** heat (left over from when Earth was formed).
- **Radioactive decay** of elements.

Why Plates Move

There are three mechanisms for plate movement. Plates move because of a combination of:

1. **Convection currents** – plumes of hotter material in the mantle rise to the surface, spread out, and sink, exerting pressure on the plates, forcing them apart.
2. **Gravitational sliding (ridge push)** – material built up at ocean ridges is pushed downwards under gravity.
3. **Slab pull** – at convergent boundaries, the oceanic plates are subducted, and the rest of the plate is pulled along.



! The Cocos and Nazca plates move the fastest because they're relatively small.

NB You may also see 'boundaries' referred to elsewhere as plate boundaries.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Continental Drift and Evidence

All of the continents were once lumped together as a supercontinent called Pangea, which later separated. This was hypothesised by Alfred Wegener in 1912, but the theory was not widely accepted at the time. He couldn't explain how the continents moved.

Evidence for the movement included:

- The way they looked like they fitted together.
- Geological evidence – rocks, mountains, glacial moraine and other deposits.
- Fossil evidence.

It turned out that the crust is divided into **tectonic plates** – the boundaries between them are shown on the map below.

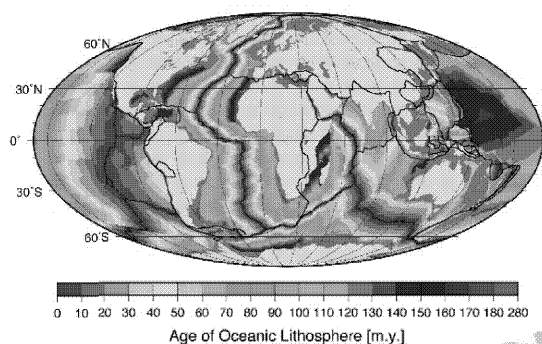


The evidence: **sea floor spreading** at the Mid-Atlantic Ridge – detected by magnetic striping. The plates move apart and magma wells up to fill the gap, forming tall ridges of pillow lava.

What is magnetic striping?
When lava cools, iron crystals align with the Earth's magnetic field.

The polarity reverses – it's recorded in the magnetic striping. This happens every few million years.

So we can measure the age of the sea floor by looking at the magnetic striping. There are matching stripes on either side of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge.



The age of rocks can also be estimated. The oceanic crust is older than the continental crust – produced at convergent boundaries and destroyed at divergent boundaries. The youngest oceanic crust is found at the divergent boundaries, such as the Mid-Atlantic Ridge.

The Tectonic Plates

- Earth's crust is divided into oceanic and continental plates. There are around 15 major plates and several hundred smaller ones. The arrows on the map below show the direction of movement. Longer arrows indicate faster movement.



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The Types of Plate Boundary

Boundaries are the edges of the plates. There are three main types, classified based on how they move.

Divergent

↔ ↔

- Two plates move apart.
- Usually oceanic plates.
- Forms new land.
- Rift valleys on land.

E.g. Mid-Atlantic Ridge

Convergent

→ ←

- Two plates push together.
- Often continental and oceanic plates meet (but can be two oceanic plates).
- The thinner, denser oceanic plate is forced downwards where it melts. This is called subduction.

E.g. South America, Pacific Ring of Fire

Collision boundaries

There is another type of boundary called a **collision boundary**. This is where two continental plates meet. There's little subduction as they have the same density, but the material is forced upwards instead. e.g. to make the Himalayas!

Features at Plate Boundaries

We can see the boundaries of plates because of:

- Earthquake activity
- Landforms

Here's a rundown of the different types of landform at each type of plate boundary.

Divergent boundaries

Ocean ridges

Upwelling of magma at divergent boundaries forms a ridge.

E.g. Mid-Atlantic Ridge

Divergent boundaries push the surface as the plates fall downwards.

E.g. East African Rift

Convergent boundaries

Island arcs

Volcanoes occur at convergent boundaries as the increased pressure from the melting crust rises to the surface. When the volcano reaches above sea, an island is formed.

E.g. Philippine islands, Japan

Deep sea trenches

Occur at convergent boundaries where one plate is forced under another.

E.g. Mariana Trench

Fold mountains

Sediment on top of the plates is scraped off and pushed together to form mountains.

E.g. Andes

Hot spots

Occur where magma rises from the mantle through the crust to form volcanoes.

E.g. Hawaiian Islands

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Conservative boundaries

Land is neither created nor destroyed at conservative boundaries – there are no new mountains. Sometimes the fault lines and the folding of rocks are visible.



E.g. San Andreas Fault, California

Collision boundaries

Young fold mountains

Still forming where two continental plates meet, pushing the mountains upwards.



E.g. Andes, Alps and Himalayas

- We find volcanoes at divergent and convergent boundaries.
- Earthquakes occur at all types of plate boundary.

Volcanoes

There are two main types:

Shield volcanoes – divergent boundaries. Low volcanoes formed from magma that flows easily (non-violent (**effusive**)) as the lava is runny and gases easily escape and lava flows far.



E.g. Mauna Loa

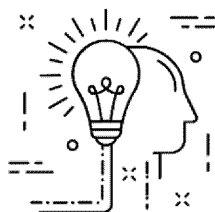
Composite volcanoes – convergent boundaries. Tall volcanoes made of lava and ash because the magma is sticky (made from older crust) and trapped steam and gas build up.



E.g. Mount Etna, Mount Pinatubo, Mount Fuji



If you only remember these three things



- 1 Earth is divided into different layers, from the crust to the core. The crust is divided into a series of tectonic plates.
- 2 The tectonic plates move through convection currents in the mantle. They can move apart, together or in opposite directions – some boundaries destroy land, others create land, and some neither create nor destroy land.
- 3 We get earthquakes at plate boundaries, and volcanoes at convergent boundaries. A number of characteristic features are seen at each type of boundary.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Activities

Consolidation questions

- Which layer of Earth is liquid?
.....
- When was the theory of plate tectonics developed?
.....
.....
- Why are the Nazca and Cocos plates moving the fastest?
.....
.....
- Why is Earth not getting any larger if there are divergent boundaries?
.....
.....
- Which feature would you find in East Africa, where the African Plate is splitting (into the Nubian and Somali Plates)?
.....

Take it further

Take a journey through Earth's layers. There are a few interesting facts and figures. Watch out for the slide change at the bottom of the screen.
www.bbc.com/1/learning-zone/primary/50800000
www.bbc.com/1/learning-zone/primary/50800000



Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹	Nearly ☺	Sure 😊	
Plates, Movement, Earth's Structure and Plate Boundaries	Earth's structure				
	Why plates move				
	Continental drift and evidence				
	Tectonic plates				
	Types of plate boundary				
	Features at plate boundaries				
	Types of volcano				

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Volcanoes – Causes, Features and Eruption Hazard

INSPECTION COPY

Key words

- ✓ **Plate boundary:** The boundary between two tectonic plates.
- ✓ **Hotspot:** Site of a volcano created at a plate boundary as hot magma rises through the crust.
- ✓ **Shield volcano:** A volcano with a central vent and gently sloping sides, built up from fluid lava flows. e.g. Mauna Loa, Hawaii.
- ✓ **Composite volcano:** Steep-sided, pyramid-shaped landform built up from alternating layers of lava flows, e.g. Mount Vesuvius, Italy.
- ✓ **High-viscosity magma:** Underground material that is very sticky and silica-rich, often formed from melted crust at convergent boundaries.
- ✓ **Low-viscosity magma:** Underground material that flows relatively freely, with low viscosity (e.g. basaltic), often formed of mantle material, not melted crust.
- ✓ **Effusive eruption:** Low-magnitude volcanic ejection, such as runny basaltic lava flows from a central vent – little height of ejecta is maintained.
- ✓ **Explosive eruption:** Violent ejection of volcanic material due to a great build-up of gases and viscous magma often at a convergent plate boundary.
- ✓ **Supervolcano:** Volcano capable of the largest type of eruption – 1,000 km³ (or more) of magma.
- ✓ **Volcanic Explosivity Index (VEI):** Classification of volcanoes based on the volume of material ejected, eruption height and the duration of the eruption.
- ✓ **Pyroclastic flow:** A mixture of volcanic rock, ash and gases, heated to up to 700°C, that flows rapidly downslope, sometimes at 700 kph.
- ✓ **Lahar:** Volcanic mudflow composed of pyroclastic material and water which flows down a river channel.
- ✓ **Tephra:** Generic name for material ejected from a volcano; can be subdivided into volcanic bombs, to smallest ash.
- ✓ **Volcanic gases:** Gases such as sulphur dioxide and carbon dioxide, among others, ejected from a volcano.
- ✓ **Jökullhlaup:** A sudden outburst flood caused by a heating or a volcanic eruption melting a glacier or an ice field.
- ✓ **Tsunami:** A high wave at the shore with potentially devastating consequences. Earthquakes, volcanoes and landslides are triggers.

Key points

- Volcanoes occur at convergent and divergent boundaries as well as at hotspots and conservative boundaries.
- The most dangerous volcanoes occur at convergent boundaries, e.g. the Pacific Ring of Fire. Lava is very different to that at divergent boundaries – much stickier and explosive.
- Shield volcanoes usually occur at divergent boundaries, while composite volcanoes occur at convergent boundaries.
- We can measure the magnitude of an eruption on the Volcanic Explosivity Index (VEI).
- Primary effects include ash fall, pyroclastic flows, gas emissions, while secondary effects include tsunamis, and many effects to humans, animals and the environment destroyed or damaged.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Where Do We Find Volcanoes?

- Nearly all volcanoes are found at plate boundaries – 80% at convergent, and 15% at divergent. The other 5% are intraplate.
- The Pacific Ring of Fire can be clearly seen on the map of volcanoes overleaf.

Volcanoes are found in the following locations:

Divergent boundaries

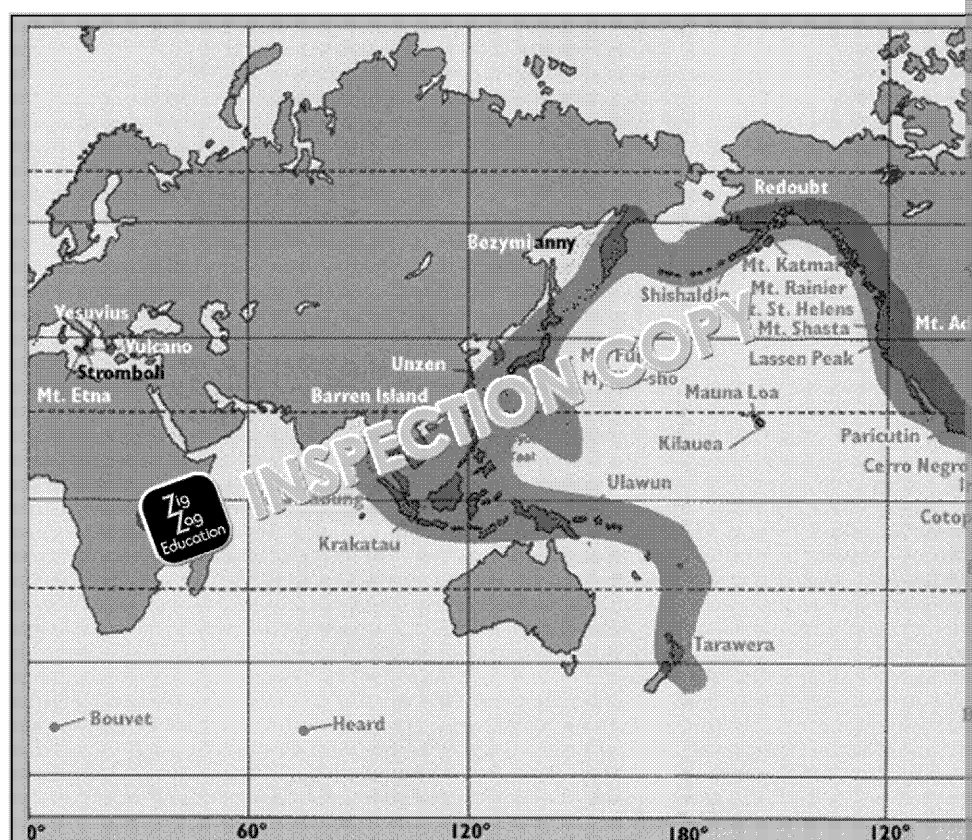
As the sea floor spreads, magma rises to fill the gap. This is usually very hot and very runny.

Also at rift valleys because the crust thins, allowing magma to work through.

Convergent boundaries

The subducting plate melts, meaning that the increase in magma moves to the surface.

Eruptions are powerful – the magma is very viscous.



Hotspots and Rift Valleys



E.g.

The Hawaiian Islands are formed by a hot spot. These are volcanoes in the centre of plates.

The plume of magma goes through the crust, forming the island. As the plate moves, new islands are formed, meaning that volcanic activity stops at the older islands.

Where the crust thins in rift valleys, magma can also rise and break through the crust.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Eruptions, Volcano Size and Shape

There are two main types of volcano. They produce different types of lava, erupt and change their shape.

Shield volcanoes

- Divergent boundaries.
- Low, gently sloping flows of lava.
- Hot, runny 'basaltic' lava, low silica.
- Flows from the mantle.
- Eruptions are **effusive**.
- Can produce large shield volcanoes. Cooled lava (lava flows) can be very thick.



Composite volcanoes

- Convergent boundaries.
- Steep-sided, layers of ash and lava.
- Cooler, sticky 'andesitic' lava with high silica content.
- Magma from melted crust.
- Lava cools and plugs the vent.
- Eruptions are **explosive**.
- Eruptions can mean that the volcano can erupt again.

- The largest volcanoes are capable of being classified as 'supervolcanoes'. They can erupt thousands of kilometres of material or more.
- They occur very infrequently – but have the potential for major global disruption.



E.g.

Yellowstone has erupted in the past possibly on the scale of a supervolcano. It could erupt in the same way again.

Measuring the Scale of Eruptions – the Volcanic Explosivity Index

We measure volcanic eruptions on a logarithmic scale called the **Volcanic Explosivity Index**. It uses the three following indicators:

- volume of material ejected
- eruption height into the atmosphere
- and the duration of the eruption.

The magnitude is the volume of material ejected. The intensity is the duration (speed).

Primary Hazards

- Primary hazards occur as the volcano is erupting, e.g. lava and pyroclastic flows.

Lava flows

Runny lava at divergent boundaries flows down the sides of volcanoes. Burns everything in its path, but usually escapable.



E.g. Hawaii

Pyroclastic flows

Hot gases and ash (up to 1,000 °C) race down the volcano at around 100 kmph, burning everything.



E.g. Mayon Volcano, Philippines

Gases in acid rain

Release of CO₂ and SO₂ from surrounding villages and areas. Sulfur dioxide forms acid rain.



E.g. Lake Nyos, and Mount Nyiragongo



Lava or magma?

Magma is the molten rock below Earth's surface. Lava is the magma that has reached the surface.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Secondary Hazards

- Secondary hazards occur after the volcano has erupted. They are often a result of lahars, famine and other human effects.

Mudflows (lahars)

Ash mixes with rainwater or melted ice caps – resulting in a concrete-like flow of mud.



E.g. Mount Merapi, Indonesia

Flooding (Jökulhlaup)

Glacial outburst flood caused by the melting of ice due to volcanic heating or a volcanic eruption below ice, releasing a subglacial lake.



E.g. Vatnajökull, Iceland

Tsunami

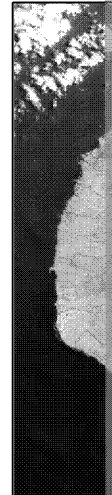
- Tsunami (usually associated with earthquakes) are a secondary hazard. They are caused by volcanic eruptions, especially where large pieces of the volcano collapse or are blasted into the sea by a lateral eruption.



E.g.

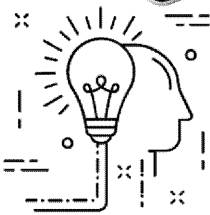
The eruption of Krakatoa (Indonesia) in 1883 caused a major tsunami.

The photo shows Pico do Fogo in Cape Verde. An eruption caused a tsunami 73,000 years ago.



INSPECTION COPY

If you only remember these three things...



- Nearly all volcanoes are found at convergent and divergent boundaries. Volcanoes are also located at hotspots and rift volcanoes.
- Volcanoes at convergent boundaries are very powerful. Those at divergent boundaries are less dangerous.
- There are many volcanic hazards – primary hazards as well as secondary hazards, which are sometimes measured by the scale of eruptions on the VEI scale.



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



INSPECTION COPY

Activities

Consolidation questions

1. Hawaii is located on a hotspot. Would you expect eruptions to be explosive?

.....

.....

2. Would you expect eruptions within the Pacific Ring of Fire to be explosive or effusive?

.....

.....

3. Why are volcanoes located at rift valleys?

.....

.....

4. Are the eruptions of supervolcanoes such as Yellowstone likely?

.....

.....

5. Which is more dangerous, a pyroclastic flow or a lava flow?

.....

.....

6. Give an example of a secondary volcanic hazard.

.....

.....

Take it further

Take a look at this video:

Volcanoes 101 – National Geographic (2:28)

[zzed.uk/9989-natgeo-volcano](https://www.zzed.uk/9989-natgeo-volcano)

Note sensitivity warning at 1:59 of skeletons at Pompeii

Take a look at a few seconds from this clip:

[zzed.uk/9989-erta-ale](https://www.zzed.uk/9989-erta-ale)

The volcano is located at a rift valley. Can you suggest why the volcano is erupting?




INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
Volcanoes – Causes, Features and Hazards	Where do we find volcanoes?				
	Hotspots and rift valleys				
	Eruptions, volcano size and shape				
	Eruption scale – VEI				
	Primary hazards				
	Secondary hazards				
	Tsunami				

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Earthquakes – Causes, Effects and Hazards

INSPECTION COPY

Key words

- ✓ **Focus:** The point within Earth's crust from which a sudden pressure release occurs.
- ✓ **Epicentre:** The point on Earth's surface above the focus where an earthquake occurs.
- ✓ **Benioff zone:** Part of a subduction zone where the descending oceanic crust causes earthquakes. The increased friction at this region create a zone of earthquake hypocentres.
- ✓ **Seismic wave:** Pressure oscillation propagating through the ground, as energy is released.
- ✓ **Shallow-focus:** Earthquake with focus close to the surface (0–70 km).
- ✓ **Intermediate-focus:** Earthquake with focus depth of 70–300 km.
- ✓ **Deep-focus:** Earthquake with focus depth of between 300 and 700 km.
- ✓ **Magnitude:** The amount of energy, for example, delivered by a seismic event.
- ✓ **Seismometer:** Device used to measure earthquakes – the movement of the ground.
- ✓ **Moment magnitude scale:** Scale of the amount of energy derived from an earthquake, replacing the Richter scale.
- ✓ **Modified Mercalli scale:** A 12-point scale which measures the impact of an earthquake (detected by instruments but not felt by people) to Level XII (total destruction and significant modification of natural landscapes).
- ✓ **Rift valley:** Narrow depression between an upland area on each side, sometimes at plate boundaries, as the two plates pull apart.
- ✓ **Escarpment:** Differential land height along a fault line caused by horizontal movement, a high ridge remaining after an adjacent downward fall.
- ✓ **Primary hazard:** Damage and danger caused by the direct shaking of the ground.
- ✓ **Secondary hazard:** Damage caused after the earthquake as a result of the ground shaking.
- ✓ **Ground-shaking:** Movement of Earth's surface due to a seismic event.
- ✓ **Liquefaction:** Saturated or partially saturated sediments (such as soil) lose contact during an earthquake and act like a fluid.
- ✓ **Avalanche:** Rapid downhill movement of snow, can be caused by an earthquake.
- ✓ **Landslide:** Downward flow of soil and unconsolidated material, can be triggered by an earthquake.
- ✓ **Tsunami:** A high wave at the shore with potentially devastating consequences. Earthquakes, volcanoes and landslides are triggers.

Key points

- Earthquakes are the shaking of the ground and mostly occur at plate boundaries, causing a shockwave as pressure is released. There are four types of plate boundaries. The earthquakes located at the different boundaries have different characteristics.
- Earthquakes can be classified based on depth, and their power can be measured either based on the energy, or their effects.
- Earthquakes can modify the ground. They result from movement of the plates, mountain-building and folding of rock. They can cause the ground to rise and form valleys.
- Primary effects include ground shaking and liquefaction, causing damage to buildings and the environment. Secondary effects include tsunamis, landslides and tsunamis, and economic effects.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



What are Earthquakes?

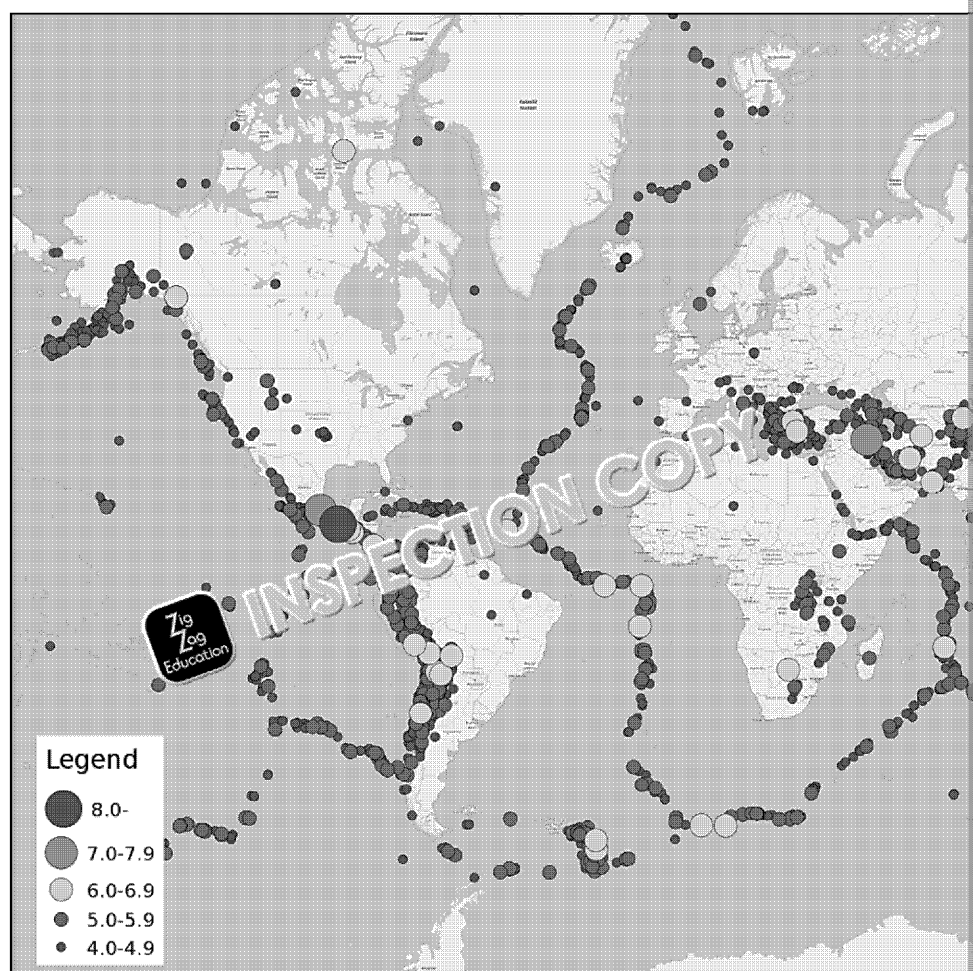
Earthquakes are the shaking of the ground. They are caused by shockwaves as rocks release built-up stress.

Focus: The area below ground where the rock fractures and the shockwaves are released.
Epicentre: The ground surface directly above the focus, where the most damage occurs.

Where and Why Do Earthquakes Occur?

Most earthquakes occur at plate boundaries.

- They occur at all types of boundaries.
- They can be caused by volcanic eruptions.
- They can occur far away from boundaries, along old fault lines.



This map shows the larger earthquakes recorded in 2017. The outline of the plates is shown.

<p>Divergent Occur as the plate cracks apart and tension is released, often at oceanic ridges.</p>	<p>Convergent Occur at the boundary where one oceanic plate subducts. The plates lock together, pressure is released.</p>	<p>Conservative The plates moving at different directions or speeds lock, and suddenly move.</p>
---	--	---

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Seismic Waves

Earthquakes have four types of shockwave.

The first waves are primary waves (P waves) – compressions and expansions.

Then come the secondary waves (S waves) – they move up and down.

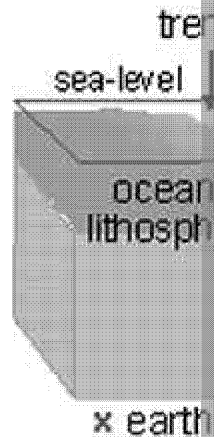
Surface waves (or Love waves) shake from side to side.

Rayleigh waves roll like ocean waves.

Each type of wave travels differently through Earth's crust – some can't travel through

Types of Earthquake

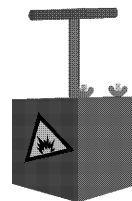
- The depth of the focus can help determine how much energy reaches the surface. Most of the world's earthquakes are shallow-focus. Powerful shallow-focus earthquakes cause a lot of damage because the shockwaves travel through less rock – so they have more energy.
- Earthquakes are said to be 'deep-focus', 'intermediate-focus', and 'shallow-focus'.
- Earthquakes associated with divergent boundaries tend to be shallow-focus.
- Conservative margins can produce powerful, shallow-focus earthquakes as the locked plates suddenly move, releasing the built-up tension.
- At convergent margins, one plate is subducted. The two plates can be continental and oceanic, or both oceanic. This wide area where the two plates collide is called the **subduction zone**. We call the area which produces the earthquake foci the **Benioff zone**.
- Convergent margins tend to lead to earthquakes at all depths, but they can produce intermediate-focus and deep-focus earthquakes.
- Convergent margin earthquakes can be very powerful because of the great tension that can build up.
- At collision margins there is **no** subduction, so earthquakes are fairly shallow.



Measuring the Scale of Earthquakes

We can class earthquakes based on:

- The energy released.
- The physical effects.



The energy

E.g. the **Richter** and **moment magnitude scales**.

They are logarithmic.

They are measured using seismometers.

*! Nowadays we usually use the **moment magnitude scale**!*

The

E.g. the **modified Mercalli**

We use measure earthquake was felt

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

Impacts on the Landscape

- Features created through tectonic movement (which are associated with earthquakes) are found throughout the world – such as the folding of rocks and the building of fold mountains.
- The results of earthquakes can be seen in some areas of the world – as plates pull apart and areas are raised and lowered.
- An example is rift valleys, where **escarpments** (steep faults) are formed, shown by the slumping blocks in the diagram.



Primary Hazards

- Primary hazards occur during the earthquake, i.e. ground shaking and cracks opening, and ground displacement.
- Ground shaking causes buildings to sway and collapse (especially horizontal movement), and damage to infrastructure such as roads and railway lines, pipelines and cabling.

Secondary Hazards

- Secondary hazards occur after the earthquake. They are often a result of the primary hazards, e.g. **liquefaction, avalanches and landslides**, and human effects caused by the destruction of buildings and important infrastructure, and things like the outbreak of fires from broken gas pipes and upturned stoves.
- Liquefaction is where the saturated unconsolidated material such as soil acts as a fluid. The loss of strength causes buildings to tip over, and river banks to collapse. Water can pool on the surface, causing flooding. The photo shows flooding caused by liquefaction.



E.g.

Christchurch, 2011; Kobe, 1995

- Landslides are dangerous because debris can block roads – blocking the progress of rescue workers.
- People skiing and climbers, can become trapped in sudden avalanches.



E.g.

Avalanche, Mount Everest base camp, 2015

Tsunami

- **Tsunami** are a secondary hazard.

What is a tsunami?

- Tsunami mainly occur in the Pacific Ocean as a result of underwater earthquakes.
- They are caused by uplift of the seabed and underwater landslides.
- They are waves which gain height as they reach the shore.
- They travel for several kilometres inland, causing widespread flooding and destruction.

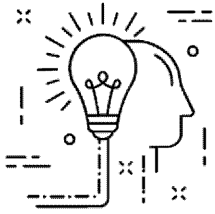


E.g.

Indian Ocean, 2004; Japan, 2011; Indonesia, 2018

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

If you only remember these three th



- 1 Earthquakes are the shaking of the ground as rock waves propagate away from the focus. The depth of the effects and energy at the surface.
- 2 Earthquakes are part of the mountain-building process on the ground, resulting, for example, in escarpments and plateaus.
- 3 Hazards can be either primary or secondary. Primary hazards include volcanic eruptions, and secondary hazards include landslides, liquefaction and tsunamis, result from the primary hazards which affect humans.



INSPECTION COPY



INSPECTION COPY

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Activities

Consolidation questions

1. What is the epicentre of an earthquake?

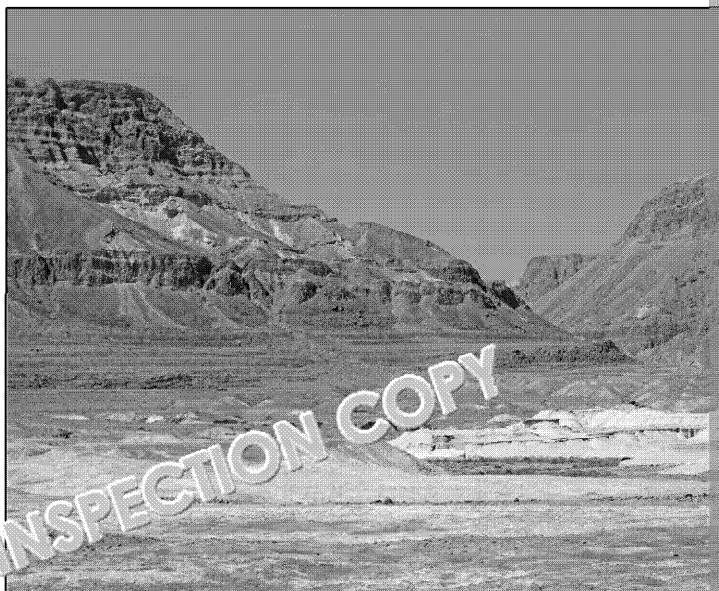
.....

.....

2. Which type of earthquakes occur at convergent boundaries, that is not for

.....

3. Identify the landform in the image below. Note that erosion and mass move
feature since its creation.



.....

4. Why can buildings collapse during earthquakes?

.....

.....

5. Why are fires a secondary effect of earthquakes?

.....

.....

Take it further

Why are tsunamis so dangerous?
<https://www.bbc.com/news/health-55555555>








INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
Earthquake Causes, Features and Hazards	What are earthquakes and why do they occur?				
	 Seismic waves				
	Types of earthquake				
	Earthquake scales				
	Impacts on the landscape				
	 Primary hazards				
	Secondary hazards				
	Tsunami				

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Why Do People Live in Hazardous Areas?

INSPECTION COPY

Key words

- ✓ **Natural hazard:** A danger to life caused by the influence of humans; for volcanoes and earthquakes
- ✓ **Disaster:** Result of such hazards including and sometimes life-threatening events.
- ✓ **Perception:** The way that a person sees hazard risk – dependant on personal beliefs
- ✓ **Fatalism:** Beliefs that hazards and events are beyond a person's control and cannot be avoided
- ✓ **Vulnerability:** The degree to which a population is liable to be affected by a hazard and unable to resist the disaster.
- ✓ **Active volcano:** Either a volcano that is currently erupting, one that scientists think will erupt in the next 10,000 years.
- ✓ **Dormant volcano:** A volcano that has not erupted for thousands of years, but is still considered to be active.

Key points

- People perceive hazards differently depending on their personal experience and beliefs such as fatalism.
- Each country can cope with hazards in different ways based on their financial resources.
- People choose to live in tectonically active regions – for the fertile farmland and tourism. Others stay for the friends and family connections to the area. Some stay because the benefits outweigh the perceived risk. Globally, relatively few volcanoes, and many don't erupt very often. Some people choose to live on land with high population density.
- Volcanoes can bring economic benefits to the country – tourism, mineral wealth. Different story if they are not active.
- Earthquakes can be caused by volcanoes, or on their own. Cities developed in areas before modern understanding of plate tectonics. The threat of earthquakes is a well-accepted risk, especially by those moving to tectonically active regions such as Japan. The fact that people rebuild after earthquakes in exactly the same place shows that they value the area where they live.
- The challenges faced and reasons for living in active countries vary depending on the country.

Hazard Perception

People across the world view hazards differently. There are two main areas.

Economic

- Volcanoes can provide employment – mining, farming and tourism.
- Hazardous places can be nice places to live – e.g. California.
- Cost-benefit analysis.
- Might (not) be able to afford to move.

- Religious beliefs (e.g. will)).
- Friends and family connections.
- Fear and anxiety.

Also:

- People in different countries will perceive their risk (**vulnerability**) differently – based on age, gender, health, family (e.g. parents vs single people) and level of education.
- Personal experiences – based on past events.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



- Country wealth – the more advanced the country, the more choice citizens have of reducing losses / reducing fear through **mitigation, planning** and they might be able to **predict** hazards with more success than others.
- No two hazards are the same – it's difficult to compare two events – the inter-related physical factors are so complicated.

Why Do People Live in Volcanically Active Regions?

- People choose to live on volcanic islands because of the economic opportunities
 - fertile soils and multiple harvests per year
 - jobs in mining (but it's dangerous and in poor conditions)
 - jobs in tourism (tour guides, hotel workers and other support services)



E.g. Volcanic islands include Indonesia, the Philippines, Japan, Hawaii.



E.g. Farming and tourism in Hawaii, dangerous sulfur mining on Mount St. Helens.

- They may not want to live in the area where they were born, having friends and family who can help them find jobs and better living conditions.
- Some people may want to move, but can't afford to.

Impacts on people

- Unlike earthquakes, the source of volcanic hazards is immediately obvious.
- Hazard management is getting better – meaning that risk is being reduced.
- Residents grow up living near volcanoes – the presence is always there, and some may believe in fatalism. While some volcanoes erupt without warning, there are often signs leading up to an eruption, giving time for people to prepare and evacuate.
- Many volcanoes erupt infrequently and are said to be **dormant**. Many volcanoes, though, have erupted in living memory.
- Volcanic eruptions affect relatively few people each year. However, they can still be deadly. Lives, land and property can all be lost from lava and pyroclastic flows, lahars and floods.

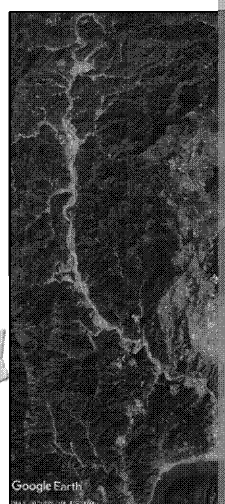


Image courtesy of Google Earth Association.



E.g. Aerial photo shows settlements surrounding Mount Fuji, Japan. Last erupted in 1707.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Impacts on the country

- Economic prosperity from farming, mining, and also cheap and clean geothermal emissions! The plentiful food supplies can support large, dense populations
- However, large eruptions can devastate a local area – displacing citizens and reduced tourist income, or cash crops, etc.
- Volcanic eruptions, such as lava, pyroclastic flows and ash fall can cause wide ecosystems surrounding the volcano – however, devastation is short-lived – as plants recolonise the new surface.
- Politically, some countries may require financial assistance from other, wealthier countries.

Why Do People Live in Earthquake-prone Regions?

- Earthquakes also occur where there are volcanoes at divergent and convergent boundaries. There are many benefits created through volcanic activity.
- But what about boundaries where there is no volcanism – conservative boundaries. The San Andreas Fault in California? In cases such as this:
 - Large historic towns and cities were built before the understanding of important physical factors such as rivers, flat land and ports. The houses are all in place.
 - The area is a beautiful place to live – people enjoy living there and are not moving (through cost-benefit analysis).
- Of course, development and beliefs are the same as for volcanic eruptions – information is available. Many people accept the risk – they perceive the chances of being killed or injured are low and many areas have different types of hazards.
 - For example, some people may move to California from areas where there are hurricanes, or other weather hazards. They perceive the threat of earthquakes to be lower.
- Similarly, there are issues of friend and family ties, and financial capability to move.



E.g.



San Francisco was built in exactly the same location after a devastating earthquake in 1906. The next largest quake was in 1989.



Impacts on people

- People still migrate to earthquake-prone regions – for jobs and to raise families. The threat of earthquakes is always there, but people adapt – for example, by learning how to survive and prepare for them.
- Many people who experience earthquakes find their first few scary – but they get used to the quakes and their aftershocks.
- When earthquakes do occur, the effects and loss of life can be severe. This is especially true in areas where tsunami have occurred.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



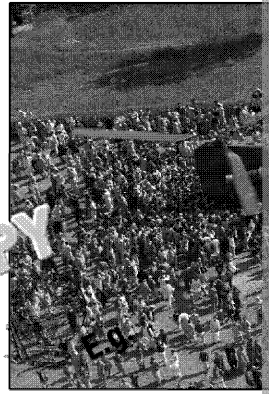
Impacts on the country

- Monitoring equipment can be expensive. So too is the building of shelters, and the planning and training of personnel to respond to earthquakes.
- Rebuilding after earthquakes and tsunamis can be very, very expensive. Some countries may be able to rebuild using internal finances – others may not. Earthquakes can cause big political issues.



E.g.

The photo shows aid being delivered by helicopter to Haiti. It is classed as a developing/emerging country, and has had to accept aid from the United States. All of those seen as food, seen from the way they are descending on the helicopter.



If you only remember these three things



- ① Each person perceives risk differently, depending on personal experiences and circumstances. People of different risk levels, especially those actively migrating, may be unable to move because of their finances.
- ② There are many benefits that volcanoes can bring, such as economic income, and unlimited sources of geothermal energy. However, they affect a very small percentage of people on a global scale.
- ③ Earthquakes either occur together with volcanoes, or depending on the type of plate boundary. Major tectonic plate boundaries are regions before the understanding of plate tectonics. There are many people who still move to tectonically active regions for opportunities and otherwise pleasantness of the location.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Activities

Consolidation questions

1. Why might a person's perception of hazards change over their lifetime?

.....

.....

2. What types of jobs can volcanoes provide?

.....

.....

3. Why might people be forced to live in tectonically active areas?

.....

.....

4. Why did settlements develop in hazardous areas?

.....

.....

5. Give an example of how we know that people are happily living in areas prone to hazards.

.....

.....

Take it further

Here's an article about living in Japan with the threat of hazards:
[bbc.com/news/health-47444444](https://www.bbc.com/news/health-47444444)




INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
Living in Hazardous Areas	Hazard perception				
	Why people live in volcanically active regions				
	Impact on people				
	Impact on the country				
	Why people live in earthquake-prone regions				
	Impact on people				
	Impact on the country				

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Protecting Ourselves from

INSPECTION COPY

Key words

- ✓ **Mitigation:** Reducing the effects of a disaster – such as building strong, earthquake-resistant buildings or zoning land use based on hazard risk.
- ✓ **Adaptation:** Coping with the effects of a particular hazard and changing the way we live to reduce the risk.
- ✓ **Planning:** Preparation for an event by having responses to immediately spring into action when a disaster occurs in order to deal with the event as quickly as possible.
- ✓ **Short-term response:** Immediate actions provided immediately after an event to ensure that the most vulnerable are looked after.
- ✓ **Long-term response:** Aid and rebuilding that takes place up to years after a disaster to return the quality of life to a normal level.
- ✓ **Perception:** The way that we see risk – and, therefore, how we react to it.
- ✓ **Effects:** The results of a hazard to people, the economy and the environment.
- ✓ **Hazard management:** Taking steps to reduce the impact of a disaster – for example, through preparation, land-use zoning.
- ✓ **Community preparedness:** The temporary movement of people away from hazardous areas as part of preparation for a disaster.
- ✓ **Prediction:** An estimation of when an event (such as an earthquake or volcanic eruption) might occur, based on past and current knowledge.
- ✓ **Hazard mapping/zoning:** Classifying areas based on risk to inform management and planning.
- ✓ **Evacuation plan:** Plan to temporarily move people from a hazardous area to a safe place, quickly undertaken before or as a disaster happens.
- ✓ **Insurance:** A premium is paid each year so that after a disaster, damage can be repaired and losses rectified at a cost not borne by an individual.
- ✓ **Compensation:** Money provided (e.g. by a government) in order to cover losses suffered by businesses and property.
- ✓ **Hazard:** Threat of an earthquake or volcanic eruption.
- ✓ **Disaster:** When the event occurs and the hazard is realised.
- ✓ **Magnitude:** The size of an event.
- ✓ **Intensity:** The level of damage caused by the event – e.g. a volcano that erupts for a short time but with great intensity.
- ✓ **Spatial distribution:** The pattern that events occur in.
- ✓ **Frequency:** How often a hazard of a particular size will occur.
- ✓ **Hazard risk equation:** Risk = hazard likelihood x level of vulnerability.
- ✓ **Park model:** Graph displaying the speed and magnitude at which quality of life returns to normal and the speed and level of recovery afterwards.

Key points

- We do our best to predict when and where disasters might occur – the process is often uncertain. Therefore we need to prepare – by adapting to life with hazards to cope with them and to lessen their effects. But they're also hard to mitigate – and we certainly can't prevent them.
- Perception and vulnerability can be strongly linked to the level of development.
- Hazards can affect countries differently – again, this may be linked to the level of development.
- To deal with hazards we try to reduce the severity of the event, reduce our vulnerability and recover from losses.
- Responses to events are either short-term (immediate), or long-term, sometime after the event.
- People are prepared by the state, their community, and their own actions.
- Some responses to volcanic eruptions and earthquakes are the same. For example, evacuation.
- For volcanic eruptions we **mitigate** by using barriers to deflect lava and lahars, and by monitoring, training, planning and building shelters, and reduce the **loss** through insurance and compensation.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

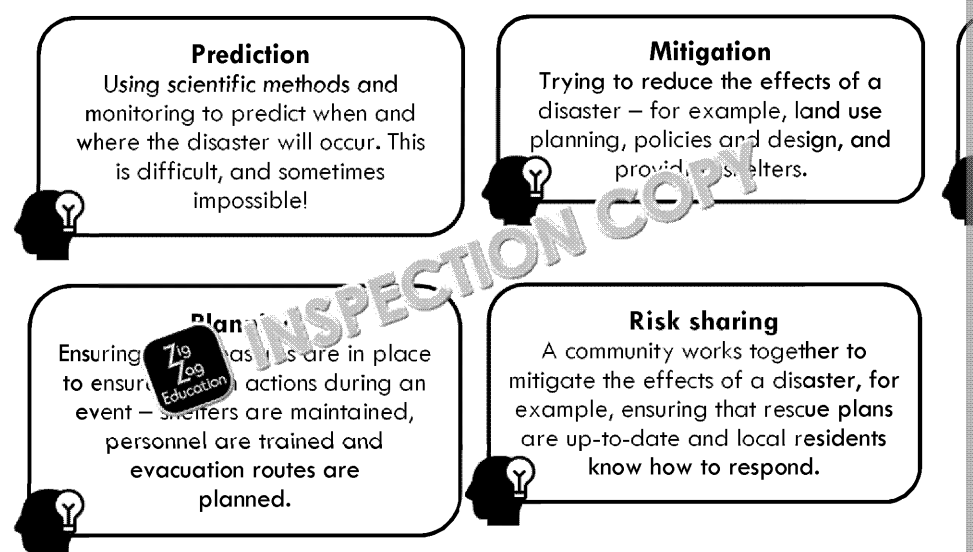


Key points (continued)

- For earthquakes we **mitigate** by zoning the land based on risk and hazards, **vulnerability** by monitoring, planning and building shelters, and practising emergency drills, making buildings earthquake-resistant, and reduce the **loss** through emergency aid, insurance and compensation.
- Hazards and disasters are different. Hazards become disasters when an event such as an earthquake or volcanic eruption occurs.
- While we cause some earthquakes, we don't have any control over volcanic eruptions. The number of such events is fairly constant, but human factors are increasing the risk of hazards as population increases and more people live in hazardous areas. There is also an increase in the frequency of major events such as tsunamis. Overall, the number of people affected by hazards are included – as a result of climate change.
- There are many factors that affect the scale of a disaster, such as when and where hazards occur in an area.
- The hazard risk equation assesses the risk of a hazard to a particular group of people.
- The Park Model can be used to show how quality of life is affected by a hazard. The speed/amount that a country can recover is linked to the level of economic development.

Reducing the Risk

There are many ways that we can reduce the effects from hazards, including:



Sometimes, a country might not be able to cope with a disaster on their own. They can then turn to the international community for support – other governments and charities.

These can be divided into three broad categories, which are:

1. reduce the severity of the event
2. reduce the vulnerability to the event
3. reduce the loss from the event

Some of the methods in these categories are applicable to both volcanic and earthquake hazards, while others are specific to the type of event.

- For example, educating the public on how to respond to events is applicable to both, while deflection of lava flows is only applicable at a conservative boundary.

The scale and success are related to the level of economic development of the area.

We'll look at all three in the context of both volcanic eruptions and earthquakes.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Can We Prepare for Volcanic Eruptions?

Yes, there are lots of ways that we can prepare (see below). These include planning the effects (reducing their effects) and adapting (changing lifestyles).

When eruptions occur, there are two types of responses.



Short-term responses

Before and after the eruption.
Include evacuation, shelter, provision of emergency (medical, financial, aid, food and water, search and rescue, etc.

May be carried out by the affected country, sometimes the international community.



Long-term responses

Occur after the eruption.
On returning the area to normal, restoring services, rebuilding homes for future events.

May require assistance from the international community.

Mitigation against the severity of the event

- Build lahar, lava or pyroclastic flow barriers, dams, channels or deflectors, or flow – such as water-spraying to cool the lava.

Vulnerability and community preparedness

- Volcanoes can show signs of erupting. But we obviously can't predict exactly when a volcano will next erupt. We try to **monitor** signs of an eruption by measuring:
 - earth tremors
 - changes of shape
 - gas emissions
 - steam temperature
- Build and maintain shelters.
- Evacuate people from areas of lava, pyroclastic and mud flows and ash fallout.
- Stockpile supplies and ensure emergency personnel are on standby.
- Community preparedness can involve maintaining local shelters and equipment.

Adaptation

People can help to protect themselves by:

- learning their escape routes
- ensuring that they have supplies of food, water, medical aid, etc.
- following orders during evacuation



E.g.

The United States has a National Volcano Early Warning System managed by the United States Geological Survey (USGS).

Mitigation against losses

- Use the short-term responses listed above – e.g. shelters, search and rescue.
- Rebuild – the long-term responses.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



INSPECTION COPY



Can We Prepare for Earthquakes?

Yes! But we don't get much (if any) warning, so the years of planning and preparation must be done immediately.

Responding to earthquakes:

Short-term responses

These occur immediately after the ground has stopped shaking.

E.g. evacuation, sheltering, provision of emergency medical and financial aid, food and water, search and rescue from within collapsed buildings, burying dead bodies to prevent disease spread



Long-term responses

Occur after the initial response

Focus on returning to normality – restoring infrastructure, rebuilding housing, etc.

Include planning, zoning, etc.

If a country can't cope with the effects of an earthquake, it may call on the international community for help – governments, charities and NGOs.

Following the earthquake in 2010, Haiti relied on assistance from the international community.

Mitigation against the severity of the event

- There's no way of stopping earthquakes. The best way is to zone the land based on risk. Zoning and mapping allow us to stop building in the places that are most at risk, including on soft ground where liquefaction is likely to occur.

Vulnerability and building design

Vulnerability can be reduced by:

- Land-use zoning
- Drills in schools
- Training and equipment testing
- Setting up and maintaining emergency shelters



'Earthquake proofing' (making the city and its buildings as resistant as possible). Examples may include:

- Building codes
- Resistant new buildings and retrofitting existing ones (e.g. building materials, shape, structure, spacing, cross-bracing, counterweights, shock-absorbing foundations, location).
- Gas shut-off valves
- Tsunami walls and warning systems.
- Earthquakes are impossible to predict. Sometimes we can estimate the general area where an earthquake might occur, but we can't know when or of what magnitude.
- Sometimes there are smaller '**foreshocks**' related to a major event. And after the event, there are often smaller '**aftershocks**'.



E.g.



In the Japan earthquake on 11th March 2011, a 7.3 magnitude earthquake occurred on 9th March.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Mitigation against losses

- Again, the short-term responses are applicable here.
- Also includes the long-term rebuilding, which can be assisted by:
 - **Insurance** – a way of financial protection against a disaster. If an insured business, for example, is damaged by a natural hazard, the insurance company will pay for repairs (of course the business has to pay an amount called a premium). Some insurance don't cover natural hazards or may exclude some of the effects because of the high costs and risk of lots of people claiming at the same time. There are sometimes policies 'insurance' to cover natural hazards.
 - **Compensation** – including provided by governments to cover the loss

Adaptation

Residents can:

- Know what to do during an event (e.g. under desks instead of under trees)
- Know their nearest evacuation routes
- Secure their homes – e.g. board up windows, etc.
- Prepare a grab-bag (e.g. food, water, first aid).
- Download apps to receive warnings

And importantly, they need to be aware of the risks.

What are Hazards and How Do They Differ from Disasters?

- We don't have control over natural hazards.
- Hazards and disasters are not interchangeable.
- Hazards can damage or end human life, property, infrastructure and the environment. They have **socio-economic consequences**.
- They are often violent, and occur with little warning.
- They affect large areas of the world. In some areas, people have little choice and must live with the risk.

Luckily, the larger the event, the fewer there are and the less chance of them occurring.

Have the Risks from Hazards Changed over Time?

- Some earthquakes are caused by human activity such as fracking, mining and dam building. However, most earthquakes and volcanic eruptions are natural. We can't stop them from occurring.
- Therefore, the number of tectonic events is fairly constant.
- More people are affected by major disasters such as large-scale volcanic eruptions and tsunamis, meaning that the number of people affected varies each year – so the risk is changing.
- The number of people affected by tectonic events will further increase because more people are moving into areas at risk of hazards.
- When you include other hazards, such as climate and weather, the overall number of people affected is increasing because of human activity and climate change.

The Effects of a Disaster

- Disasters affect people (social), the environment, the economy and political systems.
- We can divide the effects into primary and secondary effects. Sometimes, the effects can be tertiary.

1



Primary

- Occur as event is still happening – limited to a very brief moment in time – these are the initial **effects**.



- Occur after the event has ended – days, weeks, months and hours after the event.
- Are the result of the primary effects.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



What are the Physical Factors Affecting a Disaster?

There are many physical reasons why hazards have different effects. Examples include:

- The **magnitude** (scale) of the event.
- The **intensity** (speed of onset on the area affected) of the event.
- The **spatial distribution** – where the event occurs – near to large cities or in remote areas.
- The **geology** of the region (in relation to earthquakes).
- The **time of day, day of the week, and time of year** – whether people are at school or work, or out in fields harvesting.
- The **frequency** – how often a disaster strikes an area.

The Hazard Risk Equation

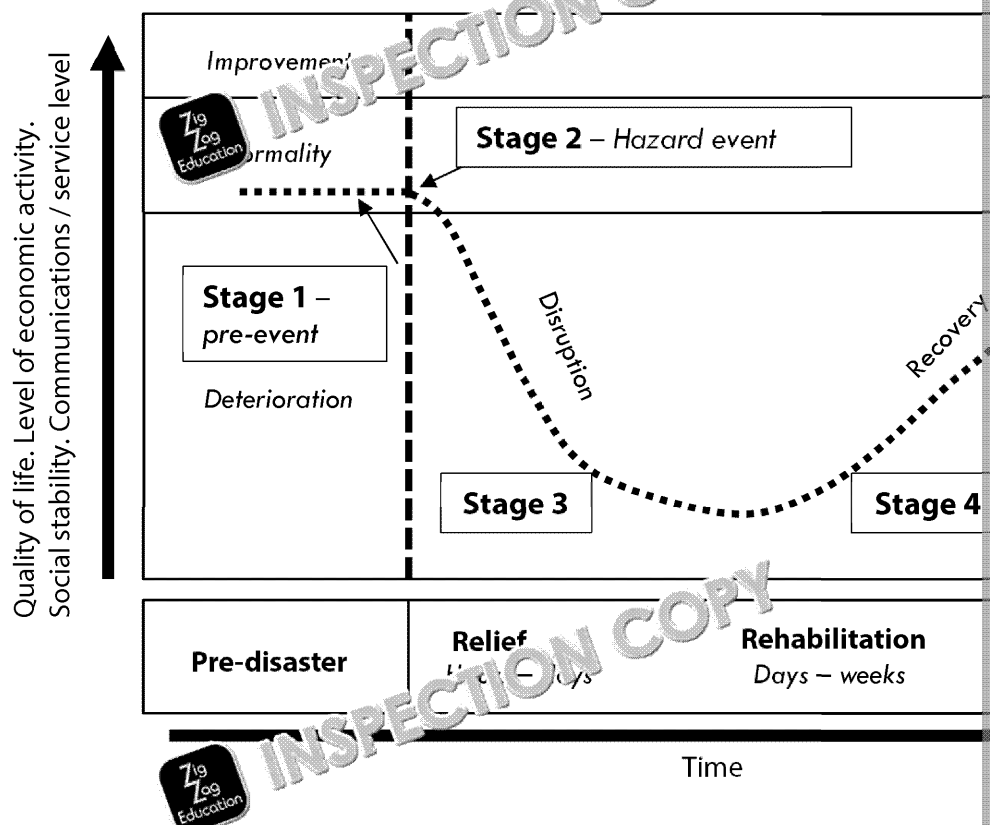
- One model to assess the risk of a hazard to a group of people is the hazard risk equation. There are different versions, for example:
 - $\text{risk} = \text{hazard likelihood} \times \text{level of vulnerability}$
 - $\text{risk} = \text{probability of the hazard} \times \text{loss (damage)}$
 - $\text{risk} = (\text{hazard} \times \text{vulnerability}) \div \text{capacity}$
- The model can be used to compare two different countries.

The Park Model

Shows how the quality of life changes after a disaster has occurred. There are five stages.

The model shows resilience – the ability for people, countries and communities to recover. Sometimes, countries can't reach pre-disaster levels, sometimes they return to the previous level, sometimes they improve.

The shape of the curve – the steepness and level varies depending on factors such as the type of hazard. A slower onset might mean a greater decrease and slower overall quality of life.

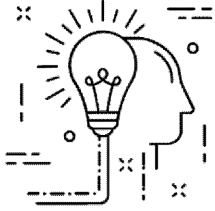


We can use the Park Model to compare hazards in different countries. The model shows how the level of development – for example, how much deterioration occurs, the time taken for recovery. Countries at lower levels of development might be expected to recover more slowly and not reach the previous quality of life.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



If you only remember these three th



- ① We do our best to prepare for disasters through order to reduce the severity, vulnerability and loss are short-term and long-term and vary between we are, the less likely the hazard will develop
- ② We have little control over where and when a volcanic eruption occurs. We can cause a few earthquakes but the frequency has stayed broadly the same, but the effect depending on whether there are major events. Human risk from hazards.
- ③ We can calculate risk, and also use the Park Model to see how the risk is affected by a disaster, and how the area is like



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Activities

Consolidation questions

1. What are the three categories that we can use to mitigate and adapt to hazards?

.....

.....

2. What's the difference between short-term and long-term responses to an event?

.....

.....

3. Give an example of how we can reduce the severity of a volcanic eruption.

.....

.....

4. Why is public education important in earthquake preparation?

.....

.....

5. What does the Park model show?

.....

.....

Take it further

Hazards and how to survive a volcanic eruption – BBC Earth Lab (5:24):
[zzed.uk/9989-bbc-survive-eruption](https://www.bbc.com/earth/9989-bbc-survive-eruption)

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Student checks

Topic	What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹	Nearly ☺	Sure 😊	
Protecting Ourselves from Hazards	Reducing the risk				
	Preparing for volcanic eruptions				
	Preparing for earthquakes				
	Hazards vs disasters				
	Changing risks over time				
	Primary and secondary effects				
	Factors affecting the risk				
	The hazard risk equation				
	The Park Model				

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

INSPECTION COPY



Case Studies (blank)

Volcanic Eruptions

	Developing/emerging country	Developed country
Location		
Magnitude of the event		
Describe the event (e.g. damage caused, socio-economic effects, cost of total damage)		
Mitigating against the event		
Mitigating against vulnerability		
Mitigating against losses		
Reasons why events are different		

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Earthquakes

	Developing/emerging country	D
Location		
Magnitude of the event		
Description of the event (e.g. damage, socio-economic effects, cost of total damage)		
Mitigating against the event		
Mitigating against vulnerability		
Mitigating against losses		
Reasons why the events were different		

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Case Studies (indicative)

Volcanic Eruptions

	Developing/emerging country	Developed country
Location	Mount Merapi (Indonesia), 2010	Eyjafjallajökull
Magnitude of the event	VEI: 4	VEI: Phase 1 –
Description of the event, damage, socio-economic effects, cost of total damage	<p>The summit collapsed and ash fall was 30 cm. Pyroclastic flows raced down the mountainsides, and lahars followed. Flights were cancelled and Mandala Airlines declared bankruptcy.</p> <p>Cost \$450 to \$650 million.</p>	<p>Volcanic ash was ejected into the atmosphere (the eruption took place in winter).</p> <p>107,000 flights were disrupted, the aviation industry £1.1 billion, and 100,000 people were disrupted supply.</p>
Mitigating against the event	Local people are drawn to the mountain because of its fertile farmland. Some locals perform rituals to prevent volcanic eruptions, believing that supernatural elements live at the summit – some even bury buffalo heads at the summit – but this is belief rather than a scientific method.	While not established, examples could be given of how to deal with lava, lahars and ash.
Mitigating against vulnerability	<p>Education is essential in allowing people to understand why they need to evacuate – for example, people have refused to evacuate because warning signs aren't obvious. In the future, leaders can be used to help persuade people to evacuate.</p> <p>In 2010, the government started evacuating people. Cows are the main source of income so people sometimes refuse to evacuate, or go back to feed their cows during an eruption. In 2010, the government bought the cows to stop people returning home.</p>	<p>The Department of Emergency Management, communication government, police, fire, and coastguard had no hazard meaning that it was essential. Other details on the event and agriculture.</p> <p>Websites were used to give advice and keep people informed.</p>
Mitigating against losses	<p>400,000 people were evacuated (saving up to 20,000 lives) but there were still around 379 deaths and 450–600 injured.</p> <p>114 refugee camps were established.</p> <p>Rescue teams were used, but some members were also killed by pyroclastic flows. NGOs were involved with emergency aid.</p>	<p>500 people were killed.</p> <p>The aircraft were grounded, which could have been avoided.</p> <p>Emergency plan for evacuation was implemented.</p>
Reasons why the events were different	<p>We can see the differences in culture between the two countries. In Indonesia, trust scientists and government is low – they are less likely to stay behind.</p> <p>The two events were very different, which is why it's difficult to draw any conclusions. Iceland saw major air travel disruption across the world, amounting to huge economic cost – the level of devastation was different on this.</p> <p>The low population density in Iceland could perhaps account for the low number of evacuated or the number of deaths – but generally the higher the population density, the more deaths and fatalities.</p>	

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Earthquakes

	Developing/emerging country	Developed country
Location	80 km north-west of Kathmandu (Nepal), April 2015	The Japan Trench, off the coast of Japan, March 2011
Magnitude of the event	7.8 Mw	9.0 Mw
Description of the event (e.g. damage caused, socio-economic effects, total damage)	50 seconds of shaking (plus frequent aftershocks) caused landslides and avalanches Cost of US \$5 billion	Six minutes of shaking because of the tsunami Cost of US \$3 billion
Mitigating against the event	The earthquake showed aid agencies the importance of Crowdsource and 'big data', such as Person Finder.	Japan has an early warning system
Mitigating against vulnerability	Many of the buildings in Nepal were old and vulnerable to the earthquake.	Special Zones established to speed reconstruction government encouraged citizens to provide aid Japan has strong earthquake-resistant buildings
Mitigating against loss of life	There were 8,969 deaths after both earthquakes, 17,866 people injured and 602,592 houses destroyed. Financial aid, rescuers, medical aid, supplies (tents, blankets, tarpaulins, etc.), food and water, and transport were provided. The army responded, and the international community responded to a call for aid.	100 deaths from the earthquake, 16,000 from the tsunami, 6,152 people destroyed. Food, water, fuel, etc. were provided, and military and medical aid from other countries were sent. The Red Cross donated blood.
Reasons why the events were different	The two events are difficult to compare – a traditional earthquake vs. a tsunami. Tsunami are incredibly damaging to the coastal communities, but they can travel far inland. Even similar magnitude events in two countries can have different effects based on timing, location, etc. However, there are general lessons to be made – such as a higher death toll (but lower financial cost) in Nepal due to greater reliance on the international community. In this case, the earthquake alone were small, compared to the deaths from the tsunami. In Japan, the earthquake alone were small, compared to the deaths from the tsunami. In Nepal, that Japan's earthquake-resistant design must be successful.	

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



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. You can go 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.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



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 if 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 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 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 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, so 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 communicate your meaning clear and communicate your geographical knowledge and understanding. It's better to have a focused and clear answer than a waffled answer stuffed with content.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



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 understanding the world.

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

Don't be afraid to draw on your own knowledge and other modules to help illustrate your points. 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 understand the issue in 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 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 a creative way.

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!!!)

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Answers to Consolidation Questions

Plates, Movement, Earth's Structure and Plate Boundaries

1. The outer core.
2. During the twentieth century – Alfred Wegener noticed the fit of continents, continental drifting, mid-ocean ridges and trenches were discovered later.
3. They are oceanic plates and are therefore subject to gravitational sliding and subduction.
4. The same amount of crust must be destroyed at convergent boundaries.
5. Rift valleys.

Volcanoes – Causes, Features and Eruption Hazards

1. Effusive – runny magma from the mantle, rather than from melted crust.
2. Explosive – thick, sticky magma at convergent boundaries, which explodes.
3. The crust is thinner, magma can break through.
4. No – the eruptions occur very infrequently.
5. A pyroclastic flow because of the speed.
6. Lahar or glacial outburst flood.

Earthquakes – Causes, Features and Hazards

1. The point on the surface directly above the focus.
2. Deep-focus earthquakes.
3. Rift valley.
4. Result of liquefaction, and horizontal ground movement, causing them to slide.
5. They occur after the ground has stopped shaking and result from the damage caused by the shaking – e.g. a fractured gas pipe, or a returned charcoal stove.

Why Do People Live in Hazardous Areas?

1. May have experienced hazards, personal circumstances change – e.g. want to live in a certain area.
2. Farming, mining and tourism (both direct and indirect).
3. Need jobs located in the area, may not be able to afford to move.
4. Developed before the understanding of plate tectonics – based on the natural beauty of the area.
5. People are still migrating to the area / people rebuild in exactly the same place. For them, the benefits outweigh the risk.

Protecting Ourselves from Hazards

1. Reducing the severity, vulnerability and loss from an event.
2. Timing and type of response – short-term are immediate and aimed at preventing further damage, while long-term focus on the rebuilding side.
3. Trying to deflect lava flows and lahars, etc. from major settlements, etc.
4. Ensure the public respond in the correct ways because they could otherwise put themselves in danger.
5. The change in quality of life after a disaster and how it returns to normality.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

