

**2016 specification**  
first exams in 2018 (2017 for AS)

# AS and A Level Edexcel Revision Booklet

Topic 5: The Water Cycle and Water Insecurity

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**POD  
9992**

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## Teacher's Introduction

The revision booklets in this series are designed to support your students as they study AS Edexcel Geography (8GE0) and A Level Edexcel Geography (9GE0). These revision summaries match the Edexcel specification perfectly. **This particular set supports Topic 5: The Water Cycle and Water Insecurity, examined in Paper 1.**

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 provided in both A4 and A5 formats for easy photocopying and reference for students, right up to the moment they walk into the examination hall.

Since revision should be ongoing throughout one's study, it is recommended that you issue students with the relevant revision booklet as they progress through the course, rather than 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 and relatively detailed coverage of the specification content – probably far more than a standard revision summary.

Each topic follows a clear structure of:

- **Key words:** lots of key words are clearly defined, and by covering up the definitions 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 yet comprehensive, they provide a solid bank of notes to support students' knowledge, understanding and recall.
- **Core content:** the main content of the specification in bullet points, boxes and tables. Suggested examples allow students to name-drop examples in their exam, or to use in their own work.
- **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 test understanding. Some points have been retained.
- **Take it further:** offers suggestions to support the option of extending learning beyond the specification.
- **Student checks:** useful checklist to help students monitor their own learning.

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

By using this resource, teachers will know that all students have the key points for all topics in written format. It saves time in class for teachers and decreases the amount of preparation time for students.

This resource also helps achieve greater equality among students of differing abilities. Students make the least helpful notes from which to study and revise outside class. Revision summary notes help to overcome this problem and promote greater equality.

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

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

### Free Updates!

Register your email address to receive any future free updates made to this resource or other Geography resources you have purchased, and details of any promotions for your subscription.

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

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# Students' Introduction

## What's the topic?

This revision booklet is for Topic 5: The Water Cycle and Water Insecurity. You will find it in Paper 1, Section C.

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 probably saw these before. They're designed to see how you cope with unfamiliar sources – how you analyse them. You might have heard the term 'AO2'. AO2 marks require you to show that you understand what it means.
  - You may be asked to use the figure(s) and your knowledge to answer the question.
  - These might be medium-length questions, worth around 6 marks.
- Finally, you'll get a longer, essay-based question – maybe worth 20 marks. 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 here! And no, we don't recommend you get out a satsuma for evidence.

## 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 have time.

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 are confident that you know a topic, or you last looked at this six months ago, then take another look!

Topic	When did I read this? <i>Write the date in here – preferably today's</i>	I know this
What is the Hydrological Cycle, and Why is It Important?		
The Drainage Basin as an Open System		
Influences on the Hydrological Cycle at the Local Scale		
The Causes and Effects of Drought		
The Causes and Effects of Floods		
Climate Change – Changes and Effects to the Hydrological Cycle		
Physical and Human Causes of Water Insecurity		
The Problems of Water Insecurity		
Managing a Sustainable Water Supply		

## Exam tips

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

### Command words

In each question there are 'command words'. These are essentially the instructions to answer the question, and 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.

Edexcel has created a list of command words for you to refer to. They have also said which of them will occur and given the number of marks for each. They might not always be the same, but you can be concerned if questions are slightly different in your exam. [zzed.uk/9992-command-words](http://zzed.uk/9992-command-words)

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

- ✓ **SUGGEST:** Give a reason or cause, explaining if asked.
- ✓ **COMPLETE, DRAW or PLOT:** Use data provided to complete missing values or draw a graph.
- ✓ **CALCULATE:** E.g. statistical analysis. You will be given marks for showing your working.
- ✓ **ANALYSE:** Identify the pros and cons or processes of EVERY view or opinion. You must present arguments or processes in a logical order, showing the relationships between them.
- ✓ **EXPLAIN:** Set out causes of the issue, event and/or factors influencing its formation. For a deeper understanding and discussion of processes, may also require a graphical representation.
- ✓ **Assess:** Set out for and against or a relationship, and come to a conclusion. You must present arguments between sides but pick out which is the most significant factor.

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- ✓ **EVALUATE:** Consider several options or arguments and come to a conclusion on their success or worth.

## Assessment objectives

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

Here's a quick summary:

	What you need to do	
<b>AO1</b>	Show your knowledge and understanding of geographical concepts and issues.	✓ Collecting evidence ✓ Putting it together
<b>AO2</b>	Manipulate and draw conclusions from geographical information, both familiar and new.	✓ Use of maps ✓ ICT skills: using data ✓ Analysis, presentation
<b>AO3</b>	Investigate questions and reach conclusions through many geographical skills and techniques.	✓ Concluding answers ✓ 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 questions (most of those in the NEA (fieldwork investigation)).

For every question, Edexcel will have decided which AOs they are targeting. Before you start your 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. The examiner wants you to answer the questions.

## Level marking

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

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

An example of level marking criteria can be found overleaf.

Up to 3 marks can be awarded for AO1. A further 9 marks can be awarded for AO2. If only AO1 content is provided, allow 1 mark for Level 1 answers, 2 marks for Level 2 answers, 3 marks for Level 3 answers.

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Mark	Descriptor
1–4 marks	AO1: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The student shows basic comprehension and only limited facts. Some details may be incorrect and not in line with the context of the question.</li> </ul>
	AO2: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The student addresses a narrow range of ideas, and details are limited, with few inferences and links made.</li> <li>Limited explanation is present.</li> <li>Ideas are poorly supported, and may be one-sided. Discussion may be difficult to follow.</li> <li>No judgement and/or concluding remarks.</li> </ul>
5–8 marks	AO1: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The student shows comprehension and some factual recall. Details are often correct and generally in line with the context of the question.</li> </ul>
	AO2: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The student addresses a range of ideas, to a reasonable level of detail, with inferences and links made.</li> <li>Some explanation is present.</li> <li>Ideas are supported, but may still be one-sided. Discussion may be easier to follow.</li> <li>Some judgement and/or concluding remarks.</li> </ul>
9–12 marks	AO1: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The student shows good comprehension and factual recall. Details are mostly correct and tailored to the context of the question.</li> </ul>
	AO2: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The student addresses a wide range of detailed ideas, with well-reasoned inferences and links made.</li> <li>Good explanation is present.</li> <li>Ideas are often supported, with both sides supported. Discussion is easy to follow.</li> <li>Good judgement and/or concluding remarks.</li> </ul>

# What is the Hydrological Cycle?

## Why is It Important?

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### Key words

- ✓ **System:** Simplified model of the real world, where a process occurs. There are inputs and stores within the system.
- ✓ **Open system:** A cycle or process where inputs and outputs can add or remove matter from the system.
- ✓ **Closed system:** Linked processes where there are no inputs or outputs of matter from the system.
- ✓ **Input:** Addition to a system.
- ✓ **Output:** Loss from a system.
- ✓ **Store:** A sink where water, for example, is retained for a period of time, e.g. in lakes, rivers, groundwater and stored as ice.
- ✓ **Biosphere:** Areas which support living things upon Earth.
- ✓ **Atmosphere:** The gaseous layer above Earth.
- ✓ **Lithosphere:** Rock environments – can act as a store of water.
- ✓ **Hydrosphere:** The store of water on Earth's surface.
- ✓ **Cryosphere:** The ice which exists upon Earth.
- ✓ **Atmosphere:** Water is stored as gas (vapour) within the air, or is condensed as clouds.
- ✓ **Precipitation:** Collective term for all forms of water which fall from the sky – rain, snow, etc.
- ✓ **Fresh water:** All forms of water that do not contain dissolved salts (saline water is found in oceans, lakes, rivers, groundwater and stored as ice).
- ✓ **Saline water:** Water with dissolved salts – such as the oceans, and contained in groundwater.
- ✓ **Surface water:** Water located above ground, for example in lakes, streams and rivers.
- ✓ **Soil water:** Liquid located just below Earth's surface in loose, unconsolidated soil.
- ✓ **Groundwater:** Water located below Earth's surface, stored in the pores of rocks and soil.
- ✓ **Surface water:** Water located above ground; for example, in lakes, streams and rivers.
- ✓ **Permafrost:** Ground which is permanently frozen for at least two years in a row.
- ✓ **Residence time:** The average period of time that water molecules stay in a specific lake) before they flow away, or evaporate.
- ✓ **Fossil water:** Water that has remained underground as groundwater for millions of years.

### Key points

- We simplify the world into systems. Energy and matter can flow in and out of systems.
- Systems contain stores, have inputs and outputs and processes operate within the system.
- Systems can be open or closed.
- The hydrological cycle is driven by the Sun and gravity. Water is transferred between the four spheres.
- Most of our water is in the oceans – 97%. Most of the fresh water is locked up in ice sheets and glaciers. There is very little surface water on Earth!
- Water is found in all four 'spheres' – the lithosphere, hydrosphere, cryosphere and biosphere. Water is also found within plants and animals – biological water.
- Soil water is located in the soil, and groundwater within rock. Some of that is frozen in permafrost.
- Most water in the atmosphere is invisible – water vapour.
- Water exists on Earth in all three states – liquid, solid and gas.
- Water is transferred between the three states.
- Inputs include energy and precipitation, and outputs include run-off and evaporation.
- Stores and processes can occur naturally – such as through ice ages. Humans can also influence the cycle as a result of human-caused climate change.

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## Key points (continued)

- Water is a very precious resource – very little of Earth's water is actually accessible to us. Earth's water is also unevenly distributed.
- The length of time that water remains in a store is called its residence time.
- Some sources of water are non-renewable – for example, they have been stored for millions of years below the ground. We are exploiting some of these sources – which causes the ground to drop, and the land's surface to subside.

## An introduction to systems

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

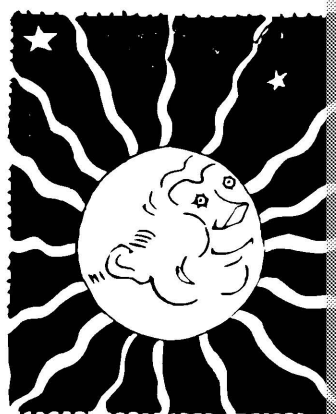
Systems include many different parts which are all related. They occur because of the interactions between the parts behind them.

The driver is usually the sun.

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

The parts of a system include:

- Stores (components)
- Inputs and outputs
- Processes – mediums for change



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

They are:



Atmosphere



Hydrosphere



Lithosphere



Biosphere

There are two main types of system, based on whether energy and matter can be transferred in and out of the system.

### Closed system

- ☒ Transfers energy
- ☒ No matter is transferred

- e.g. Earth



- ☒ Transfers energy
- ☒ Transfers matter

- e.g. the atmosphere

## The hydrological cycle as a closed system

- We're not gaining or losing any water – so there's no transfer of matter.
- But energy flows in and out.
- Therefore, globally, the hydrological cycle is a closed system.
- But on a local scale, drainage basins are open systems (because they have inputs and outputs).

There are two drivers of the hydrological cycle:

- \* the Sun (solar energy)
- \* gravitational potential energy

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## The distribution of Earth's water

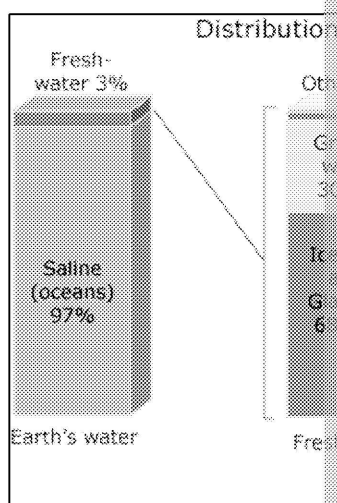
Unsurprisingly, most of Earth's water is in the oceans – estimated at around 1,338,000,000 km<sup>3</sup>.

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

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

The diagram on the right shows the stores.

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



The lithosphere:  
Water within soil and rocks.

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



E.g.

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

The hydrosphere:  
This is the liquid water on the surface. The main is **oceanic** water – the discussed above. Also surface water on land – wetlands.



E.g.

All of the world's rivers include the Yangtze. The Victoria and

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

- Ice caps, ice sheets, ice shelves, sea ice and glaciers.
- **Permafrost** – ground frozen for two or more years.



E.g.

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

The atmosphere:  
Water within the atmosphere

- Gaseous water vapour
- Clouds (water droplets)



E.g.

Everywhere! around us, and temperature usually see it

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

Biological water is found in living things, the sap of plants and trees, and in humans. Humans are about 60% water! Other organisms contain even more water – including some of the fish which are about 96% water when it's fresh.

Here's the full breakdown in a table.

Water source	Volume (km <sup>3</sup> )
Oceans, seas and bays	1,338,000,000
Ice caps, glaciers and permanent snow	24,064,000
Groundwater	23,400,000
Fresh	10,530,000
Saline	12,870,000
Soil moisture	16,500
Ground ice and permafrost	300,000
Lakes	176,400
Fresh	91,000
Saline	85,400
Atmosphere	12,900
Swamp water	11,470
Rivers	2,120
Biological water	1,120

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

Note that water occurs in all states on Earth – solid, liquid and gas (vapour). With the exception of ice, there is a continuous exchange between all three states.



**Inputs include:**  
 → energy from the Sun  
 → precipitation



Outputs include:  
 evapotranspiration

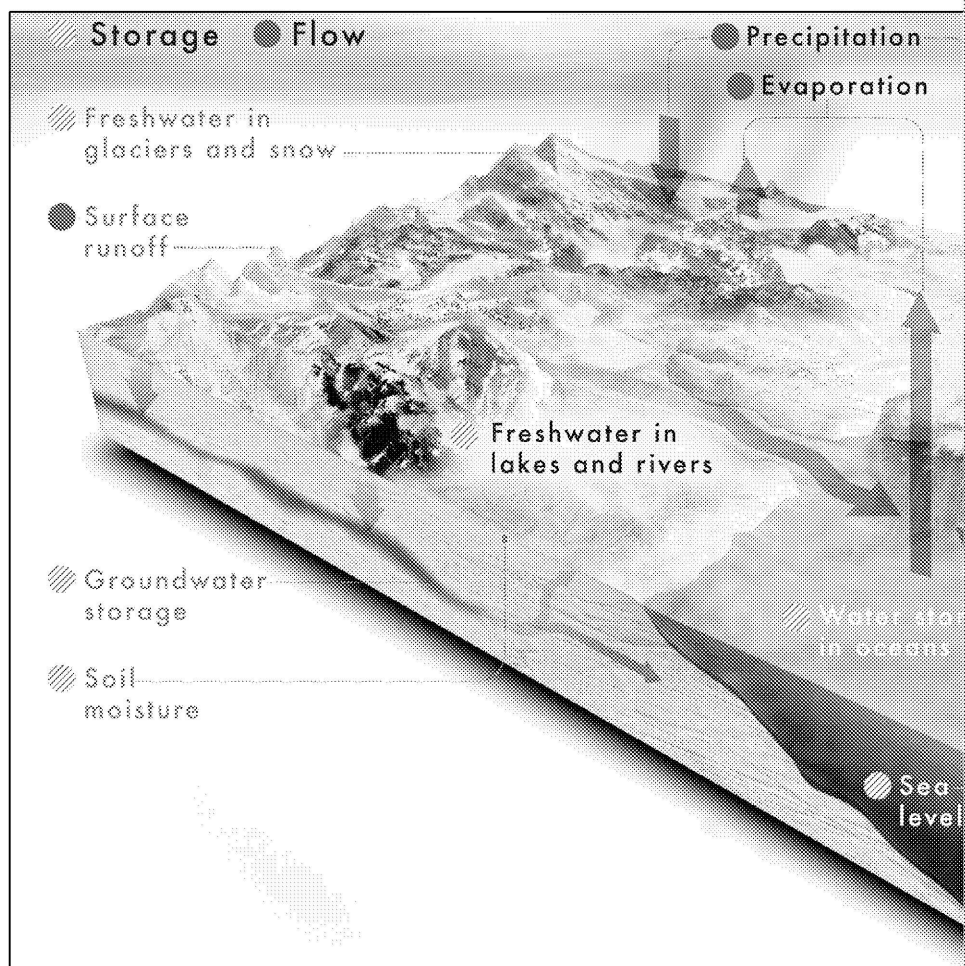
**Inputs and outputs (drainage basin level)**

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## The stores and fluxes within the cycle

In the diagram below, we clearly see the stores and fluxes (flows) within the cycle



### Stores

- Biological water
- Water vapour within the atmosphere

### Fluxes

- Transpiration

Rivers are both a store and flow!

## An introduction to the water budget and the concept of time

- Later on, you'll read about the water budget – which is the difference between water in a drainage basin.
- The water budget helps determine how much water is available to us.
- Water is a very precious resource because only 3% of global water is fresh and accessible.
- There is also great disparity in the distribution of Earth's water.

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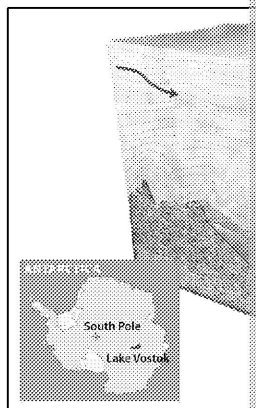
## Storage length

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

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

## Non-renewable stores

- We call these stores 'fossil water'. They are stores of groundwater that are being replenished very slowly – they accumulated thousands or sometimes millions of years ago – for example, when the climate was different. This is why there are sometimes plentiful supplies of groundwater below deserts.
- They are not being replenished quickly – making them non-renewable resources.
- We are pumping fossil water from aquifers that can't be replaced, for example for irrigation water.
- Pumping leads to ground subsidence and a lowered water table.
- Fossil water can also be found in subglacial lakes (lakes of fresh water below an ice sheet), and some ice sheets themselves.
- Some ice sheets developed during past ice ages – they're currently melting and accumulating.



Lake Vostok in Antarctica  
The lake may be 35 million years old



The Nubian Sandstone Aquifer (below the Sahara Desert) and the Ogallala Aquifer (in the United States)

## If you only remember these three things



- Systems include stores and components, and can be seen as a whole. The whole is a closed system because there are no outputs. On a smaller scale, drainage basins are open systems.
- 97% of Earth's water is saline sea water. Only a small amount of remaining fresh water is actually located on the surface. Most of the remaining fresh water is stored in ice sheets and glaciers. Water exists in three states, as it flows between the stores within a system.
- Water can remain in the stores for thousands of years. Some stores only have a few days or weeks. Sometimes water can remain in the stores for thousands of years. If it's not being replenished, it becomes fossil water.

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## Activities

### Consolidation questions

1. Which type of system is the overall hydrological cycle?  
.....
2. What are the drivers within the hydrological cycle?  
.....  
.....
3. How much of Earth's fresh water is locked up as ice?  
.....
4. Which is the largest component of atmospheric water?  
.....
5. Give two examples of stores in the hydrological cycle.  
.....  
.....
6. Which part of the cycle is both a store and a flow?  
.....
7. Which stores have the shortest and the longest residence time?  
.....  
.....
8. Why is fossil water a non-renewable resource?  
.....  
.....

### Take it further

An introduction to the hydrological cycle from NASA:  
[zzed.uk/9992-nasa-earth](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-nasa-earth)

A news article about fossil water in northern Africa:  
[zzed.uk/9992-fossil-water](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-fossil-water)

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## Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
<b>What is the Hydrological Cycle, and Why is It Important?</b>	Systems / the hydrological cycle as a closed system				
	The distribution of Earth's water (including the four spheres)				
	Inputs and outputs				
	Stores and flows within the cycle				
	Residence times and storage length				
	Non-renewable stores (fossil water)				

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# The Drainage Basin as a System

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## Key words

- ✓ **Precipitation:** Collective term for all forms of water which fall from the sky.
- ✓ **Transpiration:** The flow of water from the soil to the atmosphere via plants.
- ✓ **Interception:** Water is temporarily stored and delayed from entering channels on objects such as vegetation.
- ✓ **Infiltration:** The process where water enters the soil from the surface of the ground.
- ✓ **Percolation:** The movement of water from soil into the rock below.
- ✓ **Throughflow:** Flow of water through the soil.
- ✓ **Groundwater flow:** The movement of water through the bedrock, towards a watercourse.
- ✓ **Stemflow:** Surface water movement through streams and rivers.
- ✓ **Infiltration excess overland flow:** Rainfall is too intense for the water to infiltrate the soil fast enough. Therefore, water will pool and run across the surface. **Saturated overland flow:** Water travels over the land's surface because all pore spaces (voids) within the soil are filled with water.
- ✓ **Run-off:** Movement of water over the land's surface.
- ✓ **Channel flow:** Surface water movement through streams and rivers.
- ✓ **Evaporation:** State change of water from a liquid to a gas.
- ✓ **Condensation:** Change in state from a gas to a liquid – e.g. water vapour to liquid.
- ✓ **Sublimation:** A direct change in state from solid (ice) to gas (water vapour) – e.g. snow to water vapour.
- ✓ **Ablation:** Melting of a glacier, which occurs especially during the warmer summer months.
- ✓ **Drainage basin:** The area of land drained by a river and the river's tributaries.
- ✓ **Watershed:** The boundary between two drainage basins.
- ✓ **Monsoon rain:** Intense summer rainfall in areas such as India, East Asia and Australia. Monsoon rainfall occurs in a very short time period.
- ✓ **Potential evaporation:** The amount of evaporation that could occur if there was unlimited water available.
- ✓ **Antecedent conditions:** Precipitation that has already occurred – increasing rainfall when the soil is already saturated.

## Key points

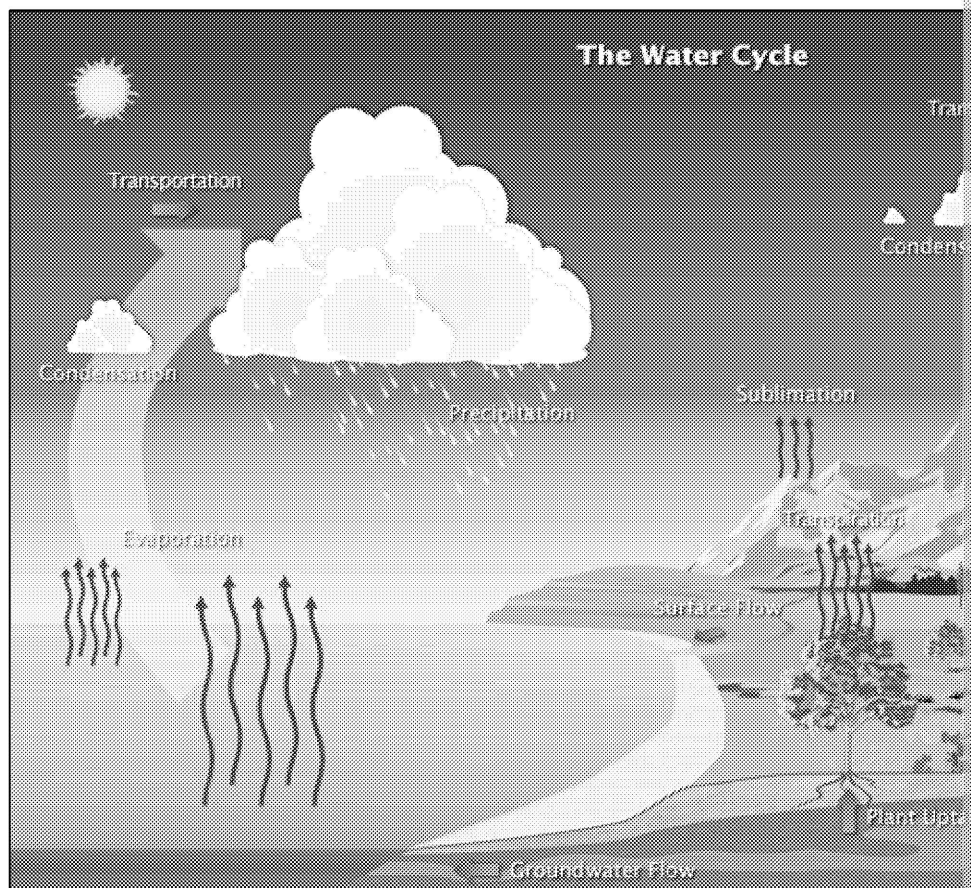
- There are many components and processes within the hydrological cycle including evaporation, transpiration, condensation and precipitation. The water flows through the cycle in different ways – such as across the surface, within rivers, through the soil and even through the ground.
- Inputs into the hydrological cycle are energy from the sun and precipitation, and outputs are evaporation and evapotranspiration.
- Water can change states – such as from liquid to a gas (evaporation) – the reverse is called condensation and can go directly from solid to gas (sublimation). Solid to liquid is called melting and liquid to solid is called freezing.
- There are several reasons why clouds form – such as at weather fronts, areas of low pressure and convection. Different types of clouds and correspondingly different types of precipitation are caused by different causes of formation.
- Land is divided up into drainage basins, which contain a river and its tributaries.
- We apply the well-known hydrological cycle to the drainage basins.
- There are various physical components of the drainage basin that affect the cycle, for example the climate, soils, vegetation, geology and relief.
- Humans change the stores and flows within a drainage basin through farming, deforestation, changing land use (cutting down trees and building cities), building dams, and urbanisation.

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## Inputs, outputs and processes within the hydrological cycle

Below is a common representation of the hydrological cycle. There are several flows of water within the cycle. Within the cycle, there are many different processes that are joined together to form the cycle.



### Inputs

One of the inputs of the hydrological cycle is precipitation. Precipitation is a broad term for water falling as ice and liquid water.

There are lots of reasons why clouds form, allowing for the precipitation.

**Clouds** form when warm air rises and cools to its dew point – often forming around a nucleus. Cloud formation can occur due to heating of the ground, orographic uplift, at weather fronts, etc. This leads to larger water drops.

- The type of cloud varies depending on fronts, convection, etc.
- There are several causes of rainfall – because there are different causes of water being forced upwards by mountains (orographic or relief rainfall), and when ‘fronts’ meet. At both warm and cold fronts, air is forced upwards. Air rises rapidly at cold fronts, leading to heavy precipitation. At warm fronts, the air rises slower, and precipitation is gentle.
- Sometimes warm air quickly rises (convection) such as on a hot summer’s day. Thunderstorms develop – they can be thundery and can deposit large hailstones.

### Flows

- At height, the water vapour **condenses** into clouds and falls back to Earth as precipitation.
- The water is stored and transmitted in several ways:
  - Some of the water is **intercepted** by vegetation. It flows to the ground through the leaves and twigs. Some of the water will also evaporate from the vegetation. This interception as a temporary store with transport away through several processes.

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For water that reaches the ground:

- Some of the water **infiltrates** into the soil, where its flow is called **throughflow** (reaches) the water table, it moves as **groundwater flow**. Some of the water moves through the soil (soil water).
- If the precipitation is intense and/or there is little interception, or the soil is saturated, it can't infiltrate and **overland flow (surface flow)** occurs. When the soil is saturated, it causes overland flow, rather than infiltration excess overland flow. This is called **run-off**.
- Overland flow and groundwater (base flow) contribute to river flow. Rivers generally flow into the oceans.
- Rivers may flow in and out of lakes.
- On high ground, or towards the poles, the water will fall as ice and could form an ice cap.

## Outputs

- Water **evaporates** from the oceans and the land surface (driven by the Sun). Water evaporates via vegetation, to become part of the atmosphere.
- Plants take in water from the soil using their roots. Some of the water is used for photosynthesis. Some is used to transport minerals. To keep the water flowing through the plant, they have to evaporate. This is called **transpiration**.
- We call the flow in rivers '**channel flow**'.

## Processes

The processes within the cycle include:

- **Evaporation** of liquid water (liquid → water vapour gas) because of heat from the Sun.
- There are various determinates such as temperature (the warmer the air, the more water it can hold – the relative humidity), the availability of water, and the amount of water vapour already in the air (is it already saturated? – if so, it can't hold any more).
  - Evaporation is fast in windy conditions.
- **Condensation** – water vapour back into liquid water (cloud formation).
  - **Dew** forms in the evening as the ground surface temperature drops and reaches its dew point. Radiation fog forms when the ground cools at night, meaning the air closest to the ground cools to its dew point.
- **Sublimation** (below freezing).
  - Glacier ice directly to water vapour.
  - Frost direct from water vapour to ice.
  - Melting and freezing.
  - On cold winter nights, puddles and lakes freeze, and the surface soil also freezes.
  - When the weather warms up, or the sun comes up in the morning, the ice melts.
- **Ablation** (above freezing).
  - Glacier ice melts to liquid water. Snow may settle in winter, and melt again in summer. The amount of glacier-fed streams varies by month, and time of day – melting during the day. The highest flow is in the late afternoon.
  - Sudden warming (melt events) can cause flooding.
  - Glacial processes also involve calving of icebergs (from glaciers and ice shelves) and into oceans).

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## Physical determinants within drainage basins

The overall hydrological cycle can be represented in the smaller scale **drainage basins**. This is the area drained by a river and its tributaries, and they are open systems.

Drainage basins can be small, separated by ridges of high ground called **watersheds**. Some drainage basins, such as the Amazon, span several countries.

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

There are physical determinants that affect the inputs and outputs, processes, flows and stores covered above.



### Climate

- Determines the amount, type and seasonality of rainfall, e.g. deserts vs rainforests, heavy convectional rainfall vs light rainfall at weather fronts, winter snowfall vs heavy **monsoon rain** or intense and (flash)flooding vs year-round precipitation.
- Determines the temperature, and therefore **potential evaporation**.
- Determines vegetation type and therefore processes such as interception, surface run-off and transpiration rates.
- Determines the saturation of the soil and influences **antecedent** events.

### Soils

Soil type and texture (e.g. particle size and porosity) influence infiltration rate (and throughflow, etc).

### Vegetation

Type of vegetation and the percentage coverage of the land affect interception, flow, evapotranspiration, etc. Bare earth obviously has the greatest run-off potential. Forests have much greater interception ability than grasslands. And these change throughout the year – a deciduous forest in summer (with leaves) has much greater interception capacity than when the trees are bare in winter.

### Geology

The type of geology affects the storage and transmission of water. Porous rocks that transmit water are called aquifers. However, rocks that can't store water will not and flooding is more likely.

### Relief

Relief is the steepness of the land – steeper slopes mean that water runs off quickly meaning there is less infiltration, more overland flow, and greater flood risk.

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# Human changes within the drainage basin

## Changes to the land

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

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



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

### Population growth and urbanisation

- Urbanisation seals the land, meaning that water cannot infiltrate.
- Storm drains quickly channel water into local rivers.
- This increases the local flood risk, making rivers more responsive to rainfall events.
- Flood risk can be reduced by installing new drainage systems which allow the water to soak away.
- Settlements are often located on floodplains – river engineering works are often used for protection.



### Forestry

- Planting trees (especially conifers) means that much of the precipitation is intercepted, of which much is evaporated straight back to the atmosphere.
- Trees also transpire large quantities of water, releasing soil water to the atmosphere.



### Land-use change

- Deforestation reduces evapotranspiration at scale, decreasing the overall porosity of rivers.
- Water flows faster after deforestation has been felt.

- Harvesting can be protected by riparian interception. This can occur, and decreasing in soil.
- Ploughing can cause downslope ploughing towards stream.
- Soil and water runs into ditch.
- Irrigation water abstracted from underground.

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

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## Reservoir construction

We create artificial lakes called reservoirs by either building a dam across a valley or building a raised bank and pumping water in.

Building dams creates a store of water in the cycle, reducing overall channel flow downstream. We release water from the dam to keep rivers flowing, but the rapid changes in flow from rainfall events are no longer seen. Dams can reduce flooding.

## Water abstraction

We abstract water from surface supplies (lake and rivers) and from the ground. Removing water from surface supplies reduces run-off, and concentrates pollutants. Removing groundwater can lower the water table, reduce the base flow of streams, cause vegetation die-off, and in coastal areas can cause saline seawater to intrude into the aquifer.

### If you only remember these three things



- 1 There are lots of different processes operating within the drainage basin which cause the movement of water between the atmosphere, land and water, and outputs.
- 2 Within the drainage basin, there are many physical processes, inputs, outputs and flows, such as the climate, soils, vegetation, etc. They all affect the run-off and interception, etc.
- 3 Humans are constantly increasing their impacts on the environment through land-use change, deforestation, urbanisation, etc. This leads to abstracting more water from the environment – both from surface and groundwater stores.

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## Activities

### Consolidation questions

1. When air rises and cools, the water vapour condenses. Give two reasons why

.....

.....

2. Why doesn't all rainfall reach the ground?

.....

.....

3. What is the difference between groundwater flow and throughflow?

.....

.....

4. Why might water flow across the surface (that is, not in rivers)?

.....

.....

5. What are the outputs of a drainage basin?

.....

.....

6. On what scales are drainage basins?

.....

.....

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

.....

.....

8. How does climate affect the processes within a drainage basin?

.....

.....

9. Give two consequences of human population growth on the drainage basin

.....

.....

10. Give an example of how humans modify the drainage basin by abstracting

.....

.....

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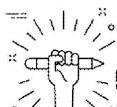
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## Take it further

A quick recap on the hydrological cycle:  
[zzed.uk/9992-water-cycles](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-water-cycles)

Why does it rain? This short web page and video from the Met Office explains:  
[zzed.uk/9992-met-office-rain](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-met-office-rain)



## Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea ☹️	Nearly 😐	sure 😊	
<b>The Drainage Basin as an Open System</b>	The water cycle: Inputs				
	The water cycle: Flows				
	The water cycle: Outputs				
	The water cycle: Processes				
	Physical determinants within drainage basins				
	Human changes within the drainage basin – land				
	Human changes within the drainage basin – reservoir construction and water abstraction				

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# Influences on the Hydrological Cycle at the Local Scale

## (Water Budgets, River Regimes and Storm Hydrographs)

### Key words

- ✓ **Water budget (balance):** Equation relating to the inputs and outputs of water as precipitation, flows and stores.
- ✓ **Potential evaporation:** The maximum evaporation that could occur with an unlimited water supply.
- ✓ **River regime:** The trends in flow throughout the year, based on climate, and the drainage basin.
- ✓ **Storm hydrograph:** Graphical representation of a river's response following a precipitation event.
- ✓ **Rising limb:** The line on the hydrograph which represents the increasing discharge following a precipitation event, until peak flow is reached.
- ✓ **Receding limb:** The line on the hydrograph which represents the decreasing discharge following a precipitation event, after peak flow has been reached.
- ✓ **Lag time:** The period displayed on a hydrograph between peak precipitation and peak discharge.
- ✓ **Peak precipitation:** The highest precipitation intensity during a storm.
- ✓ **Peak discharge:** The maximum channel flow which occurs after a precipitation event.
- ✓ **Base flow:** Channel flow derived from the soil water and groundwater that is not directly related to precipitation events.

### Key points

- We can model the inputs and outputs of a drainage basin using the water budget (although we generally use this model for soil). The inputs and outputs change throughout the year due to the seasons – precipitation and temperature, and therefore the balance. Groundwater is therefore recharged or used.
- Budgets are most affected by the climate – the budget can be calculated by comparing precipitation and evaporation.
- Positive budgets are when the precipitation is greater than the evaporation, near the equator, but negative in deserts.
- A river's flow at a set point is called the **regime** – we record how the flow changes throughout the year.
- The regime is affected by the climate and other physical factors of the catchment.
- The regime is also affected by factors such as spring snowmelt, summer glacial melt.
- We represent how a river responds to precipitation by plotting the data on a hydrograph.
- If the lag time is short, and the peak flow is high, then we call it a flashy hydrograph.
- There are natural and human factors which make the hydrograph flashy.

### Water budgets (balance)



#### The water budget (balance)

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

We can apply the budget across larger areas, regions and the world.

We use the equation:

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

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

The water balance is often used to measure soil water.

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In the UK, for example:

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

If there is more precipitation than evaporation, then the balance is positive (stores are replenished)  
If there is more evaporation than precipitation, then the balance is negative (stores are depleted)

## Examples

The water budget and therefore water availability are determined by climate.

Areas at and close to the equator have the highest rainfall and run-off. They have a high temperature and the air is very humid. Precipitation exceeds evaporation and the balance is positive.

This is the opposite for desert regions – hot, dry air means that there is very high potential evaporation. Little rainfall means that the budget is strongly negative.

At the poles, there is very little precipitation, but it still exceeds the evaporation (which is very low) – the balance is positive, meaning that water stores are possible – e.g. within permafrost and ice sheets.

## River regimes

The flow in a river changes throughout the year as the seasons change. Climate is the main factor, to include temperature (**potential evaporation**) and weather patterns. Other factors of the catchment, and other physical factors such as geology, as well as human activities, can affect flow and response to precipitation events.

This is called the **regime**.

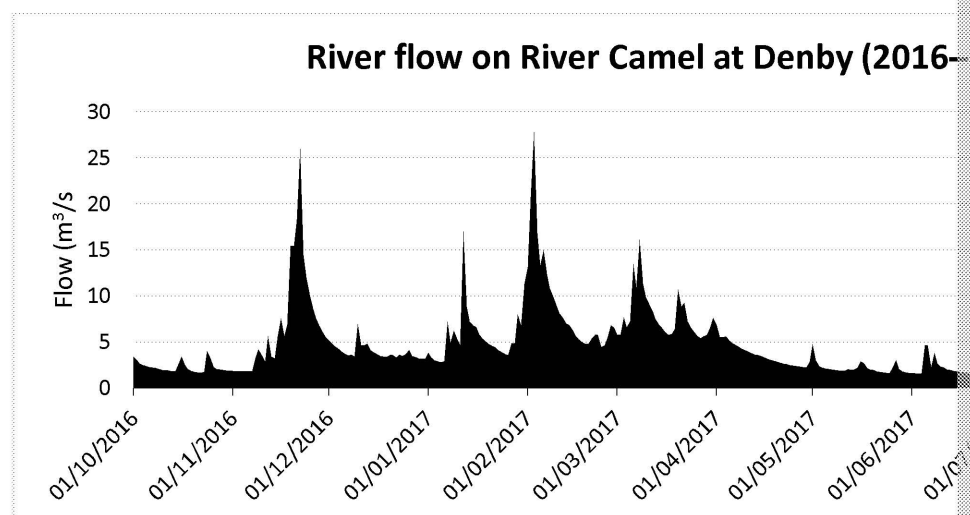
Some rivers may dry up completely in the summer – that's why some villages are called 'Bourne' in their name.

Other rivers may have their highest flow during the summer if they are fed by snowmelt. Some have a peak in the spring as a snowpack melts, or have a sudden peak if they are fed by glaciers.

The river regime can be measured at set points along a river at gauging stations. The flow rate and timing of flood and thaw events can be seen, but most rivers flow throughout the year – this is the **regime**.

## Example

Below is a river regime on the River Camel in Cornwall based on daily flow data.



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Why not start the graph in January? The water year starts on October 1<sup>st</sup> and

This is because recharge of stores usually begins in the autumn.

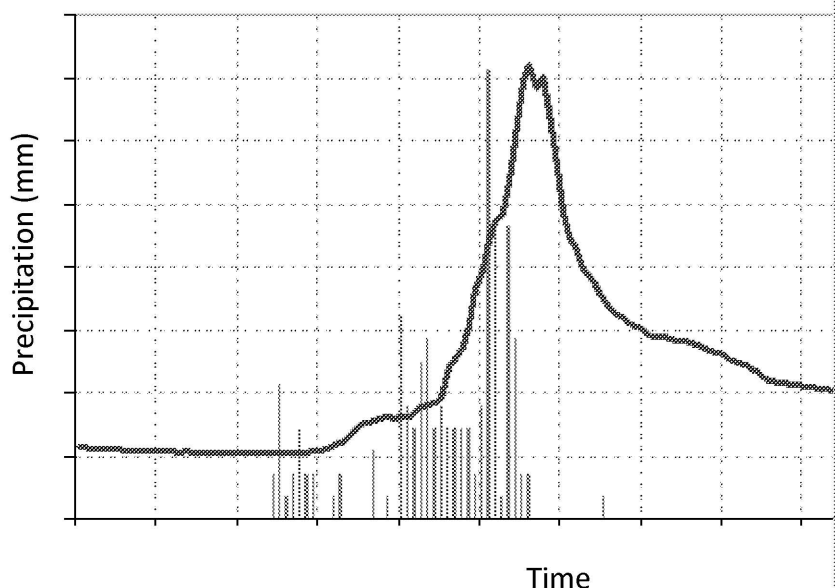
This catchment includes Bodmin Moor. The land use is moorland and agriculture. The geology includes granite (an impermeable rock). Human influences include a reservoir (abstraction and controlled release of water) and release of treated sewage water.

So what does this graph show us?

- There were several periods of very high flow in November and January, which were caused by storm events.
- Storms during the summer and early autumn can be seen from the short-term peaks in the discharge.
- The peaks from storms are high because of the impermeable geology and the high rainfall.
- Average flow was high in February and March. This was probably due to antecedent moisture of soil/groundwater, increasing the chance of saturated overland flow.
- The downward curves after each peak show the river returning towards its base flow.

## The storm hydrograph

We can represent precipitation and river flow on a graph. This allows us to see the relationship between precipitation and river flow. Planners can use these to plan river engineering projects.



This is a classic **hydrograph**.

The precipitation is shown by the vertical bars and measured on the left axis. The discharge – usually measured in cumecs ( $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$ ) – is shown by the continuous line and measured on the right axis.

They are usually applied to an individual storm, and measure several days of flow.

The graph clearly shows the **rising** and **receding limbs** as the water rises and then falls. The **lag time** is the duration between peak precipitation and peak discharge. Before the precipitation is the **base flow** (from ground and soil water).

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## Influences on the storm hydrograph

Flashy?

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

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

### Impermeable rock or soil

Overland flow occurs as water cannot infiltrate soil or percolate into bedrock easily.

### Deforestation

Reduced interception and transpiration – especially if downslope.

### Agriculture

Compacted soil, bare soil in winter fields, downslope ploughing all increase overland flow.

### Lots of streams

Water reaches the river from many tributaries.

### Sudden temperature change in winter (melting snow)

Rapid snowmelt will quickly increase river flow.

### Urbanisation

Most urban surfaces don't absorb water and storm drains quickly transport the water into rivers.

River engineering can also increase downstream flood risk.

### Lack of vegetation

Reduced interception and transpiration cause overland flow.

### Circular basin

Water flows to the river from all parts of the basin quickly.

Human influences are in the black boxes – we looked at those in detail in the previous section.

Because we build on floodplains, planners need to ensure that flood risk is mitigated. One of the techniques they can employ to reduce risk, such as changing the land cover, but also managing the floodplain based on risk.

## If you only remember these three things



- ❶ We can model the inputs and outputs of a drainage basin using the water balance equation – the stores change because of the seasons.
- ❷ A river's flow throughout the year is called the regime. The controlling factor, physical and human factors affect the regime.
- ❸ We measure the flow of water in a river on a hydrograph. Human factors combine to affect the shape of the hydrograph. We can increase or decrease the peak flow.

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## Activities

### Consolidation questions

1. What is the equation for the water budget?  
.....
2. At what time of year is potential evaporation the greatest?  
.....
3. Which area(s) have a negative water budget?  
.....
4. What is a river's regime?  
.....  
.....
5. Give two seasonal factors that affect a river's regime.  
.....  
.....
6. What does a hydrograph show?  
.....  
.....
7. What is the lag time?  
.....  
.....
8. Why does deforestation result in a 'flashy' hydrograph?  
.....  
.....
9. How does deforestation change the catchment?  
.....  
.....
10. Does urbanisation increase or decrease the lag time?  
.....

### Take it further

Use this website to make a regime graph for your nearest river.  
**[zzed.uk/9992-river-data-search](http://zzed.uk/9992-river-data-search)**

Can you explain the annual variation?




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## Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
<b>Influences on the Hydrological Cycle at the Local Scale</b>	Water budgets				
	River regimes				
	Storm hydrographs				
	Human influences on storm hydrographs				

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# The Causes and Effects of Drought

## Key words

- ✓ **Drought:** Below-average precipitation in an area, can cause water deficits and consequences if prolonged.
- ✓ **Meteorological drought:** Drought associated with decreased precipitation in the atmosphere.
- ✓ **Hydrological drought:** Drought associated with a reduction of water in the hydrological cycle – the surface and ground supplies.
- ✓ **ENSO cycles:** Changes in the sea temperature (surface) and wind patterns in the equatorial Pacific which have large-scale effects on weather.
- ✓ **El Niño:** Part of the ENSO cycle with a weakening or reversal of trade winds, warming of ocean water and changes to global weather.
- ✓ **La Niña:** The other part of the ENSO cycle, increasing upwelling of cold water and increasing drought risk elsewhere.
- ✓ **Teleconnections:** Disruption to weather because of ENSO cycles up to thousands of kilometres across the Pacific.
- ✓ **Desertification:** The long-term process of creating new desert land, leading to the loss of, or reducing or destroying the biological potential of an area.
- ✓ **Resilience:** The ability of an ecosystem to resist change.
- ✓ **Ecosystem goods and services:** Materials and services provided by natural ecosystems (goods) and water and climate regulation (services).

## Key points

- Droughts occur when rainfall is significantly reduced for a period of time.
- Meteorological droughts are reductions in precipitation and occur because of changes in weather – such as high pressure anticyclonic weather conditions, and ENSO cycles.
- Hydrological droughts are a lack of water within the hydrological cycle – the hydrological cycle, the streamflow and surface supplies, and reduced groundwater.
- Agricultural droughts occur when crop growth is impacted, and socio-economic impacts can be severe.
- ENSO cycles occur in the equatorial Pacific Ocean. They consist of two parts: El Niño and La Niña, which are driven by changes to the trade winds and the upwelling of cold ocean water from the bottom of the sea surface.
- Both cause droughts and floods in different parts of the world – but can affect the same area through teleconnections.
- Humans can also affect the risk of drought, by abstracting water from the environment, changing land use (e.g. deforestation), and decreasing the resilience of ecosystems.
- Droughts affect the functioning of natural ecosystems, which are often adapted to their environment. Droughts can cause deaths of the ecosystems and different ecosystems have different functions to provide ecosystem goods and services.
- Ecosystems that are particularly affected are wetlands – which are major stores of carbon. Similarly some forests.

## What is drought?

- Drought is difficult to define, and the definition varies from place to place.
- The broadest definition is a period with less precipitation than the average – lasting from a few weeks to several years or even decades.
- Droughts can have severe socio-economic and environmental impacts – including major famine events.
- They can also occur slowly over many years, and are influenced by climate change.



- There are two basic classifications:
  - meteorological drought – reduced precipitation (e.g. rainfall and snow)
  - hydrological drought – reduced river flow and groundwater
  - There are further definitions, such as agricultural drought – a decrease in soil moisture
  - socio-economic drought – which is a consequence of all three types above

## The physical causes of drought

### Meteorological – short-term and long-term

In the UK, we sometimes experience meteorological droughts in the summer. These are associated with hot, dry, sunny weather. They are caused by blocking high pressure systems called summer anticyclones. The hot conditions mean that evaporation potential is high.

You might associate droughts with yellow grass, news stories about low water levels in rivers and occasionally hosepipe bans.



The UK – summer 2018 (short-term)

There are also longer-term trends such as the Californian drought which started in 2012. It is unlikely to be playing a role – instead, internal variation such as ENSO cycles is a more likely cause.

### ENSO cycles

**ENSO** cycles occur in the Pacific Ocean – but their effects are wide-reaching, changing weather patterns around the world, such as floods and droughts, and extremes in temperature (very hot or very cold).

ENSO stands for El Niño Southern Oscillation. There are two parts – **El Niño** and **La Niña**.

They are caused by changes in the temperature of the sea surface, caused by the trade winds.

We are focusing on the area around the equator between South America, especially the **Pacific** – Australia and Indonesia.

El Niño years happen on a regular basis (every 2–7 years). They are often followed by La Niña years.

El Niño can increase global temperature!

ENSO cycles are tricky to learn. The easiest way is to watch videos. There are plenty of these two from the Met Office.

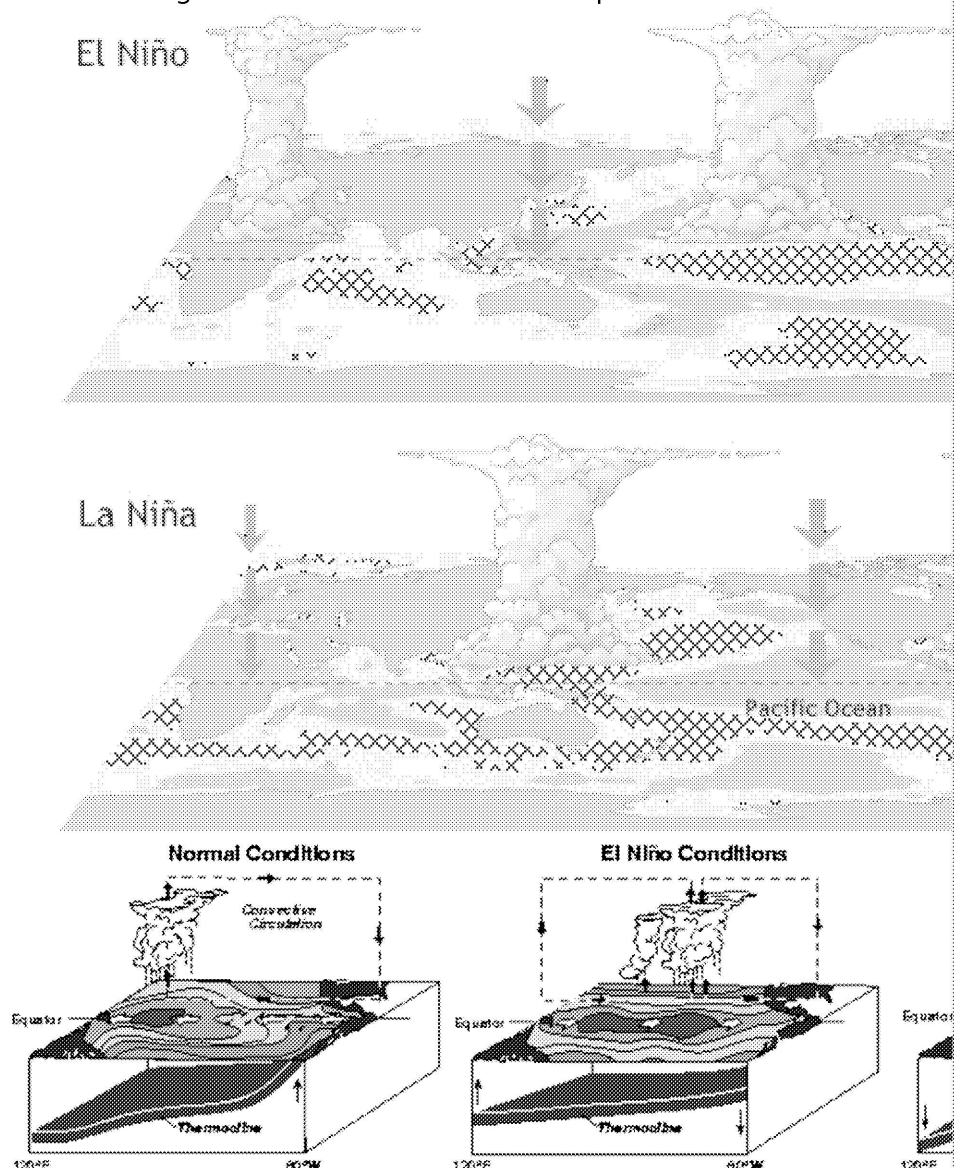
El Niño [zzed.uk/9992-el-nino-video](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-el-nino-video)

La Niña [zzed.uk/9992-la-nina-video](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-la-nina-video)

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Look at the diagrams below and follow the descriptions.



## Normal year:

- Trade winds at the surface blow from east to west (from Peru towards Western Australia).
- Warm surface ocean water is pushed to the west.
- This warm water heats the air above the Western Pacific causing it to rise (convection).
- In the east, cold water from the deep ocean upwells to the surface, replacing the warm water that has been blown westwards.
- This creates a temperature difference across the ocean.
- At altitude, air travels back east and sinks – atmospheric circulation.

## El Niño (WARM) year:

Changes in the atmosphere or surrounding ocean change the normal circulation of the trade winds from east-to-west.

- The weakened trade winds mean that less warm ocean surface water is pushed to the west, and cold water upwells in the east.
- The water in the east is warmer than normal, and the temperature difference is reduced.
- Rising air and clouds are now over the centre of the ocean, rather than in the west.
- The air therefore sinks over both Peru AND now over the Western Pacific.
- This changes weather patterns, locally and around the world.
  - e.g. droughts in Indonesia and India (seen by the sinking cold air in the east)

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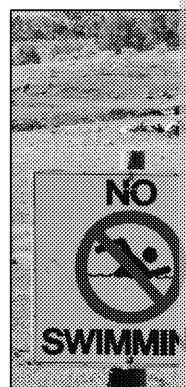
**La Niña (COLD) year:**

- Trade winds are stronger than normal, so the warm surface water is pushed water upwells in the east and towards the centre of the ocean.
- There is more rainfall and flooding in Indonesia because the rainclouds are more flooding in South America. The southern United States may experience cold air, and warmer air than normal increases the risk of hurricanes in the

**Hydrological causes**

After periods of low rainfall, hydrological drought becomes an issue. This is when streamflow decreases because of reduced run-off; lakes, ponds and wetlands all begin to dry up. Groundwater supplies are diminished, lowering the water table – so base flow is also reduced.

These droughts have implications to the environment, e.g. habitat loss in wetlands, vegetation shrivels, food and water for animals become scarce, and the risk of forest fires increases.



Our water supplies are also reduced – meaning that we have to change our lifestyle and domestic water use. Some industries that use lots of water are also affected, including electricity production.

**Human influences on drought risk**

- Humans are increasing the risk of drought through:
  - abstracting groundwater (e.g. for irrigation) (lowered water table and
  - abstracting surface supplies (from rivers and lakes, building reservoirs)
  - deforestation (e.g. decreased transpiration and rapid run-off in defore
- This means that the environment is more stressed before there is a change increasing the drought's impacts.
- Deforestation and overgrazing, in addition to natural cycles, can cause **desertification**. Don't mistake desertification for drought – they are very different.
- Climate change will inevitably play more of a future role in shifting weather



Sahelian drought – exacerbated by human activity which causes desertification, leading to famine, with further health conditions caused by high temperatures.



Australian drought – caused by El Niño – concern for future changes in rainfall patterns, irrigation supplies requiring major infrastructure and water transfer.

**The effects of drought on natural ecosystems**

The distribution of the world's ecosystems has been formed because of climate. Living in the ecosystem are adapted to the climatic conditions. In ecosystems plants and animals have developed coping mechanisms.

However, in areas where droughts are rare, or plentiful water is required for the ecosystem to have serious impacts such as mass die-offs of trees. The ecosystem's **resilience** (to change) is also reduced, along with the ability to provide its range of **ecosystem services**.

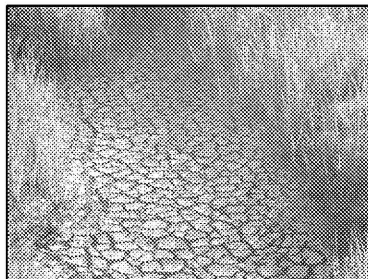
**Wetlands**

Water is important to wetlands, as the name suggests! There are many different types of wetlands and swamps, some with ponds and open water. They are usually at or near water.

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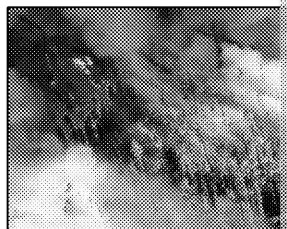
When they dry out, the ecosystem is significantly affected. They lose their ability to recycle, purify water. They are also vast stores and sinks of carbon (the carbon doesn't decompose because of the water) – but this can be released into the atmosphere. This means the risk of climate change. Dried-out wetlands can also catch

## Forests

Forests are vital to both the hydrological and carbon cycles. In hot and dry conditions, they become far more vulnerable to pests and diseases. Forest fires, caused by lightning strikes, and also through human activity, are more likely to occur – and can be more intense.

Large, hot fires release more CO<sub>2</sub> into the environment, and affect the local hydrological cycle – increasing run-off into streams.

However, remember that some forests are adapted to fire, and even need fire for their survival – to remove undergrowth and open cones for seed germination.



## If you only remember these three things...



- ❶ Drought is the reduction of precipitation in an area over a long period of time, leading to a lack of overall water, and serious effects on people and the environment.
- ❷ Drought can be naturally caused by weather systems (like El Niño and La Niña). Humans are increasing the risk of drought through deforestation, abstraction and land-use change.
- ❸ Droughts can significantly affect ecosystems – the loss of wetlands, for example, has wide-reaching consequences to weather and climate.

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## Activities

### Consolidation questions

1. Why is drought hard to define?

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2. What's the difference between meteorological and hydrological drought?

.....

.....

3. Where do ENSO cycles occur?

.....

.....

4. Why do ENSO cycles affect precipitation?

.....

.....

5. How do humans increase the risk of drought?

.....

.....

6. Name an area which is currently in drought conditions.

.....

.....

7. How can drought in wetlands release stored carbon into the atmosphere?

.....

.....

8. What are the effects of droughts in forests?

.....

.....

### Take it further

How bad is Australia's drought?

[zzed.uk/9992-drought-australia](https://www.bbc.com/news/health-55888888)

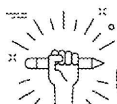
For a much longer video (from a farming view):

[zzed.uk/9992-drought-aus-long](https://www.bbc.com/news/health-55888888)




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## Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
<b>The Causes and Effects of Drought</b>	What is drought?				
	Meteorological drought				
	ENSO cycles				
	Hydrological drought				
	Human influences on drought risk				
	The effects on wetlands and forests				

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# The Causes and Effects of Flooding

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## Key words

- ✓ **Flooding:** Inundation of water on to the land as a channel overtops its banks or a high flow.
- ✓ **Flash flood:** Rapid onset inundation of the land, for example a storm after a dry spell.
- ✓ **Depressions (cyclones):** Low-pressure weather system associated with strong winds.
- ✓ **Jet stream:** Narrow band of high winds, 5 to 7 miles above the surface, which moves across each hemisphere.
- ✓ **Storm surge:** An offshore rise in sea level – low-pressure weather systems can cause flooding, e.g. from hurricanes or funnelling.
- ✓ **Monsoon:** Intense summer rainfall in areas such as India, East Asia and Africa. In some areas, rainfall occurs in just a few months.
- ✓ **Hard engineering:** Physical modification of a river channel, for example to increase the speed of flow.
- ✓ **Soil erosion:** Degradation or removal of Earth's surface layer, for example by wind or water.
- ✓ **Socio-economic impact:** Monetary losses and effects on people following a flood.

## Key points

- Flooding is a surplus of water in the hydrological cycle. Either the soil can't absorb water fast enough, or rivers burst their banks.
- There are many causes of floods – such as intense or prolonged rainfall from tropical storms) and cyclones, annual monsoons and rapid snowmelt. Storm surges can also cause flooding.
- Physical and human activity increase the flood risk – these are the same factors that affect the hydrograph.
- Changing land use such as deforestation, farming and urbanisation increases the risk of flooding. Water is channelled quickly into sewers and storm drains.
- We have built settlements on many floodplains across the world – we try to reduce the risk with engineering schemes – but these can make the issue worse elsewhere. This is called the 'sponge effect'.
- Natural environments have adapted to flooding – some ecosystems rely on it. However, humans have changed the risk to the natural environment, for example by building storm drains.
- Social impacts include the loss of property, deaths and injuries.
- Economic effects include damage to commercial buildings and infrastructure.
- Combined, these are the socio-economic effects.
- Some of these effects are harder to detect and quantify in monetary terms.
- The effects of flooding vary throughout the world and from flood to flood, depending on the level of development and the characteristics of the flood, such as the area affected.

## Meteorological causes of flooding

- **Flooding** is a surplus of water within the hydrological cycle, meaning that the land's surface is submerged.
- Sometimes rivers burst their banks on to their floodplains. At other times, heavy rainfall is the cause.
- Humans can increase flood risk through urbanisation and land-use change.
- Natural factors also increase the risk of flooding. Remember the hydrograph from one of the previous chapters? The natural factors that cause a flashy hydrograph also increase flooding – the faster water can flow to a river, the greater the flood risk.
- There are several causes of flooding, including:



Ex-hurricane Stan in 2017. You might not be able to see the red from dust in the air.

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## Storms and flash flooding

In the UK, we experience storms – they are periods of wet and windy weather that can lead to **cyclones**.

They often occur in the autumn and start of the winter, but we still see a few in the summer because of the **jet stream**.

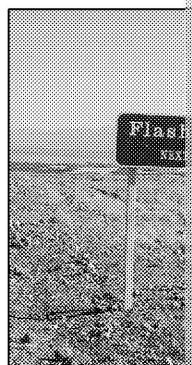
Very intense precipitation can cause sudden floods called **flash flooding** – these often occur in arid environments where the soil is very dry. Other physical factors can cause flash flooding, such as steep catchments where the water is channelled through a stream.

- In coastal areas, strong onshore winds and low pressure, coinciding with high tides, can lead to inundation of the coast with seawater (a **storm surge**).
- In the tropics, tropical revolving storms (e.g. hurricanes) lead to flooding and also cause storm surges at the coast.



E.g.

Boscastle, summer 2004; UK, summer 2007



A sign in

## Heavy and prolonged rainfall

The ability of the soil to absorb water is affected by the intensity of the rainfall and the amount of water already in the soil.

- Intense rainfall can't infiltrate the soil fast enough (infiltration excess overland flow).
- If it's rained a lot recently, such as a succession of storms where the jet stream is close to the coast, there is little air space left in the soil for new water (saturated overland flow).



E.g.

Somerset Levels, 2014; Cumbria, December 2015; Lincolnshire, June 2012

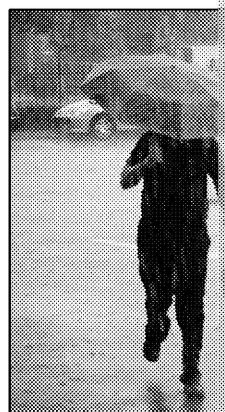
## Monsoon rains

Monsoons occur every year in some parts of the world including regions of Asia and Africa. They are caused when winds change direction and blow moist air from the oceans over the land. Intense rainfall for around three months drops most of the year's rainfall on the region. While the monsoon floods are expected and local people are prepared for their arrival, they can be particularly severe in some years. This is when monsoons negatively affect people.



E.g.

South Asia (India, Bangladesh and Nepal), 2017



## Snowmelt

In regions where winter precipitation falls as snow, a thaw begins each spring. If it thaws quickly, a large surge of water reaches the rivers, causing them to burst their banks.



E.g.

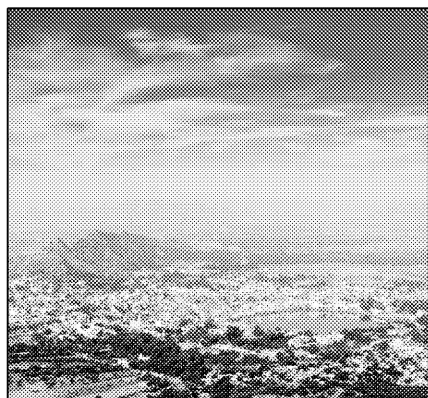
Ohio, 2015

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## Human causes of flooding

- Again, we looked at human factors that cause a flashy hydrograph – these factors in the catchment also increase the flood risk.



### Changing land use

Urbanisation means that natural land uses are replaced by impermeable surfaces such as concrete and asphalt. These surfaces have been designed to direct rainfall into surrounding areas as much as possible – every roof, road, pavement, and so on. This water then flows into the sewer network where the water is treated, which lead directly to rivers.

Deforestation and conversion of land to agriculture also increase interception, speeding up the flow of water down the river. This creates channels for water flow, and heavy rain can lead to increasing overland flow.

As population grows, so does our demand for housing and food.

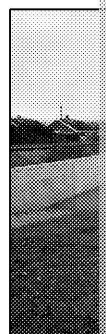
### Mismanagement (and hard engineering)

We have built many of our towns and cities on floodplains because of the flat, fertile land and access to rivers for navigation and water supplies.

But there's a problem with building on a floodplain. Hint, it's in the name! In order to prevent flooding, areas are managed. Natural meandering channels have been straightened – in order to speed up the flow of water downstream. Some rivers flow through concrete channels, others have been dredged, and some have been straightened. These are examples of **hard engineering**.

These measures are all designed to speed up the flow of water downstream. Downstream flooding may result. Conversely, the pillars of bridges in the water hold up the flow.

In order to mitigate this, management can help restore natural meanders and build stores for the extra water. There are also ways of managing the catchment in order to increase interception (e.g. afforestation), and slow down entry of water into the rivers.



### Environmental effects of flooding

- Floods occur naturally. They are important to the functioning of some ecosystems, as they increase fertility by transporting nutrients downstream and on to the surrounding land.
- However, heavy rainfall and increased streamflow can cause **soil erosion** (the loss of topsoil) and increase the chance of mass-movement events such as landslides.
- Human activity has increased the damage of flooding to the environment, as urban areas and drains can contain high levels of pollutants.

### Socio-economic effects of flooding

- There are many effects of floods on people (social) and on the economy.
- Factors such as the amount of land flooded and the length of the flood affect the severity of the effects.
- Some of the effects are obvious – such as the direct physical damage to property and infrastructure – and harder to quantify – e.g. indirect health issues and disruption to the economy.
- Some floods (such as the monsoons) occur annually, while some areas flood only once in a century.
- The level of development plays a role – floods in developed countries may cause less damage than in the developing world; however, the economic costs tend to be much higher.
- Age is also a factor – the young and elderly are most likely to be affected.

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So what are the main socio-economic effects of flooding?



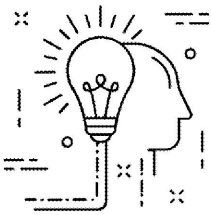
Direct effects include:

- loss of homes and property
- deaths and injuries
- loss of buildings and infrastructure
- damage to farmland, loss of crops

Indirect effects include:

- stress and mental health issues
- displacement
- financial difficulties and loss of income

### If you only remember these three things



- 1 Flooding is a surplus in the water cycle – water flows out of its banks. There are many different causes including heavy rain, monsoons and snowmelt.
- 2 Floods occur naturally, but humans are increasing the risk through increasing urbanisation and land-use change, and through human mismanagement of catchments.
- 3 The effects of flooding on the environment are often temporary as ecosystems have adapted to it – however, humans suffer economically through the loss of life and property.

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## Activities

### Consolidation questions

1. Why do storms cause flooding?

.....

.....

2. Name an area that is affected by monsoons.

.....

.....

3. Why does urbanisation increase flood risk?

.....

.....

4. Give an example of river mismanagement.

.....

.....

5. Why are some of the effects of flooding difficult to quantify?

.....

.....

### Take it further

Here are several news articles about flooding in the UK.

An example of summer flash flooding (2014) [zzed.uk/9992-summer-flooding](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-summer-flooding)

An example of a winter storm (Storm Desmond) [zzed.uk/9992-storm-desmond](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-storm-desmond)  
and its socio-economic costs [zzed.uk/9992-desmond-costs](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-desmond-costs)




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## Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
<b>The Causes and Effects of Floods</b>	Meteorological causes of flooding (including storms, flash flooding, heavy and prolonged rainfall, monsoons and snowmelt)				
	Human causes of flooding (including changing land use, mismanagement / hard engineering)				
	Environmental effects of flooding				
	Socio-economic effects of flooding				

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# Climate Change – Changes to the Hydrological Cycle

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## Key words

- ✓ **Little Ice Age:** Cooler climate between 1300 and 1850 resulted in crop failure, abandonment and glacial advance.
- ✓ **Permafrost:** Ground which is permanently frozen for at least two years in a row.
- ✓ **Desalination:** The removal of salt from saline or brackish water to provide drinking water through thermal processes or filtering (reverse osmosis).
- ✓ **Water security:** Maintenance of a constant and sufficient supply of water, for domestic, industrial and agricultural use, could be difficult in the future.

## Key points

- Climate change is causing Earth's atmosphere and oceans to warm, increasing evapotranspiration.
- There will be changes to the water cycle – changes to the stores and flows, changes in rainfall, increasing extreme events, floods and droughts, storm and hurricane frequency. Climate change will affect areas differently.
- Climate change could also affect the severity of La Niña effects.
- Snow cover, sea ice, glacier ice and permafrost will all decrease across the globe.
- In some areas, surface and groundwater stores will decrease, except in the Arctic.
- There is still some uncertainty over how climate change will alter weather and climate. Models are still imperfect, as is the data that they use. There may be feedback cycles which nullify positive feedback.
- Water suppliers have a difficult task in supplying our future water demands while coping with decreases in rainfall, variation and extreme events in order to maintain water security.

## Changes to precipitation and evaporation

Precipitation and evaporation are the inputs and outputs in the hydrological cycle. Climate change will change these.

- Climate change will cause warming of Earth's atmosphere and oceans.
- Higher temperature means that potential evapotranspiration rates increase. Higher temperatures will increase the evaporation.
- A warmer atmosphere can hold more water vapour. A warmer, unstable atmosphere could lead to more intense precipitation events, stronger tropical storms (cyclones) and a greater number of extreme events.
- In other areas, droughts, coupled with heatwaves, may become more common. Droughts could occur due to changes in ENSO cycles and increased evapotranspiration rates, higher surface temperature and associated weather patterns.
- However, the amount of warming and the effects of climate change differ around the world. Some areas will get wetter, others will get drier. The timing and intensity of precipitation will also change.

## Changes to stores and flows

Climate change could affect each of the stores and flows in the following ways. Climate change could speed up or strengthen parts of the hydrological cycle – decreasing the stores and increasing the fluxes between the stores.

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## Snow and glacier mass

- Decreased snowfall, shorter snow seasons (less snow storage).
- Reduced sea ice (e.g. thinner, smaller area, later formation and early thaw) and increased winter navigation of the Northwest Passage.
- Most glaciers currently have a negative mass balance – ice stores are decreasing (after they expanded during the **Little Ice Age**), glaciers retreat and thin.



## Permafrost

**Permafrost** is ground that is frozen for at least two years. As the Arctic warms (and the world), the permafrost is melting. While the active layer forms each year, the run-off in the area.

## Reservoirs and lakes

In areas where streamflow decreases, surface water supplies will decrease. The oceans become wetter.

## Soil moisture

Decreased precipitation and increased potential evaporation are likely to dry out the soil. Groundwater is also likely to fall.

This is especially true where forests transpire large amounts of water. Forest die-off and fires will cause positive feedback loops.

## Run-off and streamflow

With drier soils (reduced infiltration rate) and intense rainfall events, surface runoff increases and flood risk.

Reduced precipitation, coupled with decreased groundwater and soil water levels, will lead to reduced river flow in some areas.

Increased streamflow in ice-fed rivers.

## Short-term climate change (ENSO)

- The links between climate change and an intensification of El Niño are not fully understood, but some models suggest that over the next century, the chance of 'extreme El Niño' events could double in frequency, occurring every decade (e.g. causing large-scale droughts).
- Other models suggest that El Niño events could be weaker, having less effect.
- We don't have long, detailed records of El Niño events, and their effects vary – each El Niño is unique.
- Changes to La Niña may also be affecting the ocean temperature.

## Climate change uncertainty

We are uncertain about the exact changes to the hydrological cycle from climate change because:

- We may not fully understand the complex interactions between parts of the cycle.
- Unknown unknowns – our models may miss out key components that we don't know about.
- Imperfect or incomplete data and weather observations to input into models with short-term observed data.

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- Human impacts on the climate can be difficult to distinguish from natural variations, ENSO cycles and their teleconnections, or natural changes to the climate system and other natural factors.
- Negative feedback cycles could occur – such as increased plant growth reducing warming, or an increase in cloudiness reducing evaporation rate.

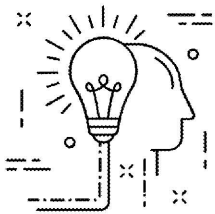
## Future water supply projections and uncertainty

- As a result of climate change, some areas will become drier, rains will become more intense in certain seasons, and affect inputs from snowmelt. This is combined with rising demand in places, fuelled by rising population, demand for food, and rising standards of living.
- This is causing issues for water planners, who have to forecast demand, must attempt to meet that demand, and build additional storage capacity in the face of climate change uncertainty. This helps increase **water security**.
- Other challenges include the depletion of aquifers (use of fossil water), and the increase in evaporation (including from reservoirs).
- As a result, water suppliers may need to build extra storage (reservoirs), or **desalinate** sea water.



This Ker  
riverbed

## If you only remember these three things



- 1 Climate change will change the stores and flows of the hydrological cycle. Some areas will become wetter, some drier, and there will be more extreme events.
- 2 Within ENSO cycles, there could be more extreme events. ENSO cycles and teleconnections (internal variations) make it difficult to distinguish between climate change and the effects of ENSO.
- 3 Climate change uncertainty and predicting future climate is a major challenge for water planners in order to maintain water security.

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# Activities

## Consolidation questions

1. Will climate change affect the whole planet in the same way?

.....

.....

2. How will water stores change?

.....

.....

3. How might ENSO cycles / El Niño change?

.....

.....

4. Give a reason why El Niño might make the effects of climate change difficult

.....

.....

5. Suggest why water planners face a difficult job in the future.

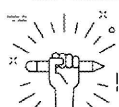
.....

.....

## Take it further

Take a look at some of the articles about climate change linked here:  
**zzed.uk/9992-climate-articles**

NASA has a page dedicated to the water cycle, including predicted alterations to  
climate: **zzed.uk/9992-nasa-water-cycle**



## Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea ☹️	Nearly 😐	Sure 😊	
<b>Climate Change – Changes and Effects to the Hydrological Cycle</b>	Changes to precipitation and evaporation				
	Changes to stores and flows				
	Short-term change (ENSO)				
	Climate change uncertainty				
	Future water supply projections and uncertainty				

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# Physical and Human Causes of Water Insecurity

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## Key words

- ✓ **Per capita:** by each person – e.g. the amount of water used by each person
- ✓ **Virtual (embedded) water:** Water associated with the growing or manufacturing of a product but isn't contained within the end product. When goods are transported around the world, so too is the virtual water.
- ✓ **Water stress:** Water availability in a defined area is less than 1,700 m<sup>3</sup> per person per year.
- ✓ **Water scarcity:** Water availability in a defined area is less than 1,000 m<sup>3</sup> per person per year.
- ✓ **Water abstraction:** The removal of water from a source, such as a stream, lake or reservoir, to provide us with a water supply.
- ✓ **Surface water:** Water located above ground, for example in lakes, streams and rivers.
- ✓ **Groundwater:** Water located below Earth's surface, stored in the pores of rocks and soil.
- ✓ **Water security:** Maintenance of a constant and sufficient supply of water, for all people, on a global scale, could be difficult in the future.
- ✓ **Physical insecurity:** Water supply is limited and cannot meet demand because of natural factors (e.g. arid regions), or there is too much abstracted.
- ✓ **Climate variability:** Periods of drought may occur because of temporary climate change.
- ✓ **Salt water encroachment:** Due to groundwater abstraction in coastal areas, salt water seeps into aquifers, polluting drinking water.
- ✓ **Water contamination:** Agriculture can pollute water supplies through nutrients and pesticides.
- ✓ **Increasing population:** As birth rates rise, and death rates fall, there are more people to supply.
- ✓ **Improving living standards:** As a person or country develops, water use increases as more domestic goods are sought after, and lifestyles become more water intensive.

## Key points

- The distribution of Earth's water is not equal around the world – down to climate (tropical rain belts), past climate (fossil water), geology (determines aquifers and surface water).
- Human population (and therefore demand) is not equal either – and the high demand for water in areas of high availability and high population don't always tally. There is a mismatch between demand and supply.
- We classify having limited water as water stress and water scarcity depending on how much water a region is available per person.
- Physical insecurity is when there isn't enough water, or supplies are degraded by natural factors. Geology plays a role.
- Climate change, internal climate variation, floods and droughts all affect water availability. Droughts can cause aquifers to become polluted with salt water.
- Humans also abstract water from surface and groundwater supplies – affecting the natural hydrological cycle, and the quality of water in rivers. Some of the abstraction is for irrigation, increasing flood risk.
- Humans diminish supply through pollution from agricultural run-off, and from mining.
- We're increasing demand for water, putting pressure on finite resources through population growth and increasing per-capita and virtual consumption through industrialisation and development.

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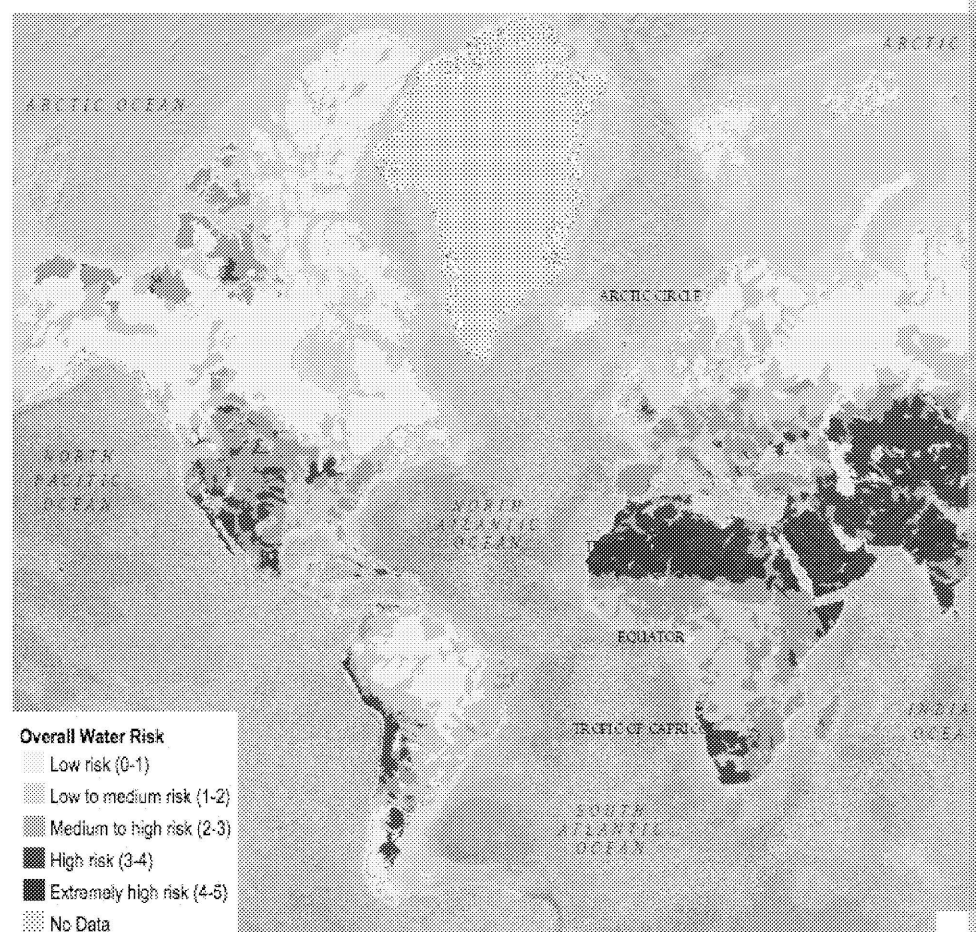
## Supply vs demand – water stress and water scarcity

- The distribution of the world's water is not equal. Precipitation is linked to the equator (low pressure) and lowest in the deserts and at the poles (high pressure).
- There are also regional differences of precipitation within countries – e.g. the west is wetter than the east.
- In some places, there are groundwater deposits from when the climate was wetter.
- Population is not evenly distributed around the world, or even within countries. Demand for water is not equal throughout the world. Population is concentrated into small areas.
- There are also differences in demand for water based on economic development (e.g. developed countries need more water **per capita** (per person)).
- Water availability and demand don't always match up!
- When there is not enough water for sustainable use, the supply is said to be **water stressed**.
- Remember that the goods that we buy include **virtual (embedded) water**. The cotton in your jeans, or the food that you ate for dinner needed lots of water to be grown.
- There are two definitions that are important, based on the amount of water available per person each year.

Water stress	Water scarcity
Less than 1,700 m <sup>3</sup> of water available per person each year.	Less than 1,000 m <sup>3</sup> of water available per person each year.

Below is a map of water security.

Water security is having a sufficiently clean and safe, sustainable water supply, to meet the demands of the population.



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## Physical causes of water insecurity

Physical water insecurity is where there's not enough water for both people and

- Covers both surface and ground supplies.
- Causes include factors such as climate (arid regions), and depleted and degraded
- Annual distribution of rainfall is also a factor (e.g. areas affected by a monsoon in some parts of the year where water availability is limited).
- Relief alters water supply through orographic (relief) rainfall, but run-off is not
- Geology determines run-off and water storage – e.g. impermeable geology stores water in aquifers, while surface supplies are more likely.

### Climate variability

- Long-term effects of climate change (decreased precipitation in some areas)
- Internal variation (ENSO cycles).
- Droughts and floods (remember floods can pollute water supplies with sewage)

### Coastal aquifer saline intrusion

- In coastal areas, groundwater can be polluted by the salty ocean water entering the aquifer, making the water unsuitable for drinking, unless the salt is removed.

## Human causes of water insecurity

- Last time you turned on the tap, your water might have come from a river or underground. If you live in London, some of that water might have been desalinated. Water is used in our homes, in industry and for irrigating crops.
- We're abstracting water from many sources around the world. As you know, water is a finite resource, notably groundwater.
- Below are several ways in which we're reducing water supply through use and

### Overabstraction (surface supplies)

- Abstracting river water reduces streamflow, and reduces the water quality.
- Building dams and reservoirs floods land and streamflow below the dam is reduced.
- Reduced flow also affects aquatic life – lower dissolved oxygen and pollutant dispersion).
- Lower flooding risk.

### Overabstraction (groundwater supplies)

- Pumping out groundwater lowers the water table. In coastal areas, saline seawater enters the aquifer.
- Base flow of rivers is also reduced.
- Reduced water table also causes ecosystem damage such as vegetation dieback.

Therefore, the Environment Agency regulates water abstraction in the UK to ensure sustainable use.

### Agricultural contamination

As the biggest user of global water, agriculture can also cause contamination through

- run-off of pesticide and fertiliser use
- **eutrophication** and therefore low oxygen dissolved in the water
- intrusion into groundwater – nitrate pollution is a growing problem in the UK, especially since 1945 when agricultural intensification occurred. The material can have a long residence time, and causes health effects – therefore we have to stop using the most contaminated boreholes, and increase the cost of water purification.



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## Water pollution (industrial)

- Affects surface water (e.g. rivers where sewage is discharged) and can contaminate groundwater with heavy metals.
- Poorly regulated release of sewage in some parts of the world (e.g. China) e.g. heavy metals from factories.
- Heavy metals from mining (including acid mine drainage).
- Causes health conditions, and even poisoning cases.

## Increasing pressure on finite resources

- As you have already seen, only a fraction of a percent of Earth's water is fresh AND available to us!
- Many of the groundwater supplies that we have are fossil water that is being used and is being recharged.
- There are many reasons for increased demand, including:

### Population growth

- More people to directly consume water for basic sanitation, including drinking, flushing the toilet, for cooking with, doing the laundry and dishes, etc. There may be 2 billion more people by 2050. That's over 2 billion people more than we currently have.
- But a larger population also requires more water for:
  - agriculture
  - manufacturing goods
  - generating electricity

### Better living standards and industrialisation

As a country develops, its population uses more water per person. Reasons include:

- Greater access to piped water in the home – and more water using goods – toilets, washing machines and dishwashers.
- If you spend hours a day collecting and carrying water (which is heavy!), you treat it a lot more carefully than if it's available by just turning on a tap. We use a lot of water without even getting our hands wet – think of a dishwasher – the plates and dishes go in and come out dry. And if you've got a washer-dryer combo, so do your clothes!
- Greater consumption and import of goods (and therefore virtual water).

### Increased agriculture

Greater demand for food (both from rising population and increased affluence) increases demand for irrigation water.

As countries develop, their meat consumption also increases. Meat production uses more water than growing crops.

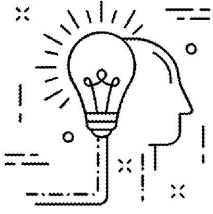
### Their impact on water insecurity risk

Increased demand and decreased supply increase water scarcity, and increase the risk that demand cannot be met.

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## If you only remember these three things



- 1 The supply of water and the demand for water are determined by physical and human reasons. Depending on the availability, there can be either water stress, or water scarcity.
- 2 **Physical** factors lead to water insecurity – based on natural factors, geology, climate variability (including droughts), and coastal aquifer intrusion of saline water. Human factors include the overabstraction of water and contamination of water by agriculture and improper disposal of industrial waste.
- 3 The world's demand for water is growing as the population increases, the need for personal use, for growing food), combined with higher living standards, increasing the per-capita demand.

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# Activities

## Consolidation questions

1. What is the main factor that determines water availability?  
.....
2. What's the difference between water stress and water scarcity?  
.....  
.....
3. How does human abstraction affect water supply?  
.....  
.....
4. Explain how humans are decreasing the available water through pollution.  
.....  
.....
5. Why does development increase the demand for water?  
.....  
.....

## Take it further

Water shortages – 5 billion affected by 2050?  
[zzed.uk/9992-water-shortages](https://www.bbc.com/news/health-51992-water-shortages)

For a longer read, you can have a look at the executive summary of this UK report  
[zzed.uk/9992-unesco-report](https://www.bbc.com/news/health-51992-unesco-report)



## Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea ☹️	Nearly 😊	Sure 😄	
<b>Physical and Human Causes of Water Insecurity</b>	Supply and demand – water stress and scarcity				
	Physical causes of water insecurity				
	Human causes of water insecurity				
	Increasing the pressure on finite resources (population growth and rising living standards)				

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# The Problems of Water I

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## Key words

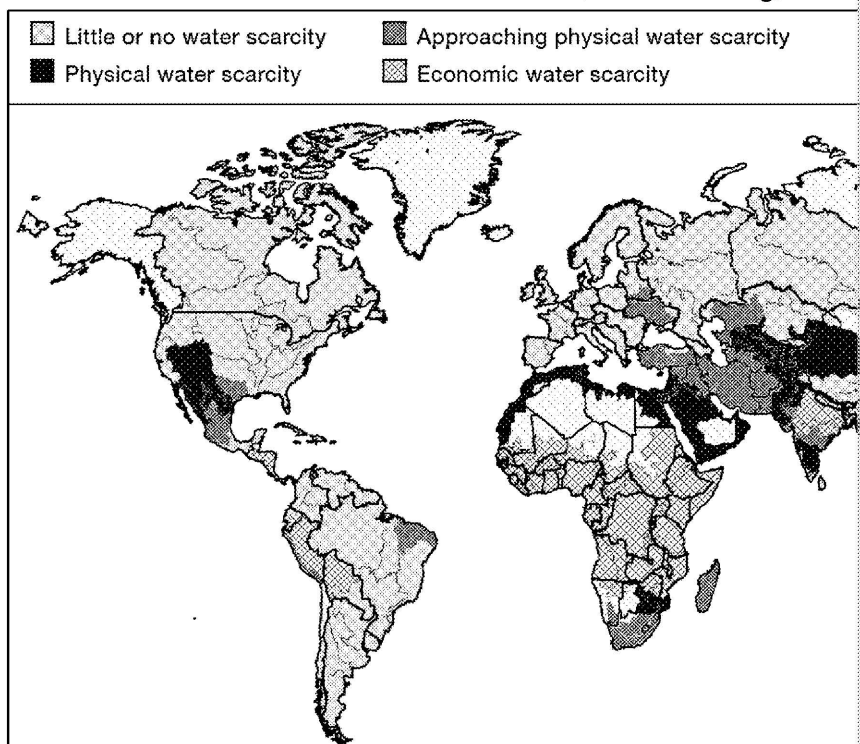
- ✓ **Economic scarcity:** People cannot afford to purchase water, or investment in infrastructure is lacking due to financial constraints on suppliers.
- ✓ **Conflict:** Disputes, for example over water supplies where one country is faced with shortages, sometimes caused by upstream abstraction in neighbouring countries.
- ✓ **Geopolitics:** A branch of politics looking specifically at how geographical issues affect international relations.
- ✓ **Transboundary:** Conflicts (or sometimes cooperation) over water supplies which involve more than one country.
- ✓ **Local-boundary:** Pressures over water within a country, for example, where different regions have different needs.

## Key points

- There are areas of the world where water is plentiful – but people can't afford it because the infrastructure is not in place. This is economic water scarcity. This tends to be found in developing and emerging countries.
- The price of water varies around the world, based on ease of abstraction, pollution, and affordability.
- Water is essential to economic development, for agriculture, industry and energy.
- We also need water every day for sanitation, preventing the spread of disease.
- Limited supplies and continued abstraction affect the environment through low agricultural output and economic development.
- Building water resources can cause tension both within a country, and between countries where water is shared.
- While wars over water might be rare, shared supplies may be one of many issues that can be used to control another country.

In the previous chapter, we mainly looked at **physical water scarcity**, which is based on the fact that water is largely related to the climate. In this chapter, we'll look at the **economic** water scarcity.

The map below shows areas of the world where water is, or is becoming, scarce.



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The map is broken down as follows:

**Little or no water scarcity** – our use is sustainable. We use less than 25% of river flow.

**Physical water scarcity** – our use is not sustainable. We use 75% or more of river flow.

**Approaching physical water scarcity** – will soon become scarce, 60% or more of river flow is used.

**Economic water scarcity** – less than 25% of flow is used, but people can't afford the investment in supply. People are malnourished.

## The cause and pattern of physical water scarcity

- Looking at the map, the areas where there is physical water scarcity include
  - parts of the United States and Mexico – arid regions, affected by drought
  - Northern Africa and the Middle East – arid regions
  - Central Asia – arid regions
- Overall, scarcity is when demand for water can't be supplied.

## The cause and pattern of economic water scarcity

- Again, looking at the map, we see economic scarcity in Peru and Bolivia, many countries such as India, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Cambodia and Vietnam.
- Economic scarcity occurs when people can't afford the water, or there is lack of infrastructure. The physical supply is not a problem!
- This explains why the countries affected by economic scarcity are all developing.

## Why does the cost of water vary throughout the world?

There are many reasons why the price of water varies around the world. However, the main factors are production costs, and the price at which the water is sold to the consumer.

Here are several factors that determine the price:

- The cost of production – the difficulty in abstracting water, the need to build pumping stations, and the cost of purifying and distributing the water. The more polluted the water, the higher the purifying costs, and the further the distance travelled, the more expensive the pipeline, etc.
- How much the end user can pay – if the price is too high, the water is unaffordable.
- Whether the water is provided by a private company (including investment in the developing world), and how much local authorities or governments agree to pay.
- Whether the company intends to make a profit (traditional), or grants are used. In the user only pays for the maintenance and purification costs. Sometimes private schemes are developed by Chinese companies.
- Development of water in rural vs urban areas (may be cheaper in rural areas as water from a well or carried by bucket is much cheaper than piped water).
- The way that water is metered – e.g. flat fee per day plus based on use, just pay for what you use.

## Water is important for economic development

Water is vital to countries' economies. The amount of water used in industry varies. In most countries, except Europe and Central Asia, water for agriculture dominates the withdrawal, around 20%.

Not only is water important for industry, it affects those in the developing world. Many people spend their day collecting and carrying water, i.e. if water was available on tap, then they would have more opportunity for paid employment.

### Industry

Water is used in primary and secondary industry (mining and manufacturing). It is used in some forms of mining, and in the production of materials, including paper, steel and chemical production. Water is used for dyeing clothes, and even in making electronics.

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Therefore, water is necessary to power the economies of emerging countries such as China and India to develop.

## Energy production

As countries develop, their energy demand increases.

Water is used in primary energy production – such as in fracking fluid to release production of oil.

Water is used in many types of electricity production, including:

- hydroelectric power
- to generate steam in thermal and nuclear power stations
- for cooling (either in cooling towers, or water is pumped from rivers or the sea to the waterbody (but it is warmer than before, so can't hold as much oxygen))

## Agriculture

Many countries rely on agriculture to feed themselves, and for the exports of cash crops. In fact, most of the world's water is used for agricultural irrigation.

## Water is important for human wellbeing

- We couldn't live without water on a daily basis. Not only do we need to drink water in our daily lives to wash, for cooking and to remove waste (sewage). Without water, diseases such as cholera can quickly spread.
- Even in the twenty-first century, up to 780 million people around the world lack access to a clean water source, which impacts on their health daily.
- People in rural areas are less likely to have access to clean water.
- Some deaths caused by poor sanitation are easily avoided, including by basic measures such as chlorination and filtration of supplies.

## Sanitation

- Up to 2.5 billion people worldwide don't have access to improved sanitation.
- Sanitation includes removal of sewage from homes.
- Rural areas are likely to have latrines which, rather than flushing the waste away, deposits it into the ground. Groundwater, and therefore drinking water, can become polluted.
- There may not be a reliable water source for washing hands, further spreading disease.

## Health

- Poor sanitation, untreated sewage and waste, and open sewers lead to the spread of disease.
- Diarrhoea is a major killer worldwide, including in young children – mostly due to lack of clean water supply and sanitation.
- Open and/or polluted water also spreads disease – such as malaria, dengue fever, and schistosomiasis (snails).

## Food preparation

- Water is essential in the cooking of foods if they are boiled.
- Water is essential to washing up utensils, crockery and cutlery, stopping the spread of disease.
- Water is also vital for washing hands after touching raw foods, especially meat.

## Environmental and economic problems caused by water insecurity

- We've already covered the environmental problems caused by overabstraction of water. The reduction of groundwater, lakes and rivers drying up and pollutants becoming more concentrated are major issues.

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- The economic consequences are also obvious, as are the limitations on economic growth – given that many industries rely on water, and water plays a major role in energy production, especially electricity. Droughts significantly affect the production of power, and can cause famine in countries where crops are largely rain-fed.
- Lack of water also hinders development because women spend so much time collecting it. In some parts of the world, women are more likely to miss school or workdays because of periods.

## The potential for conflict

- Often, water resources span international borders – both rivers and aquifers.
- Each country might be allocated a share of the water under an agreement, but they can take more than their allocation, build new dams or pump more groundwater to increase supply.
- Some people suggest that, in the light of climate change and increased population, tensions over water may lead to armed conflict.
- This may be the case, but others suggest that rising tension over water might lead to a conflict, such as in areas where there has been a long history of conflict or where water is scarce.
- Conflicts could occur during droughts, including those caused by El Niño events.

## Within a country

- Within countries, some parts are naturally wetter, or have greater supply. Water is often transported from wetter areas to drier areas. In the UK, we've dammed valleys in Wales and built cities including Birmingham, Manchester and Liverpool. We've also built a reservoir in Northumberland called Kielder Water. Such schemes cause tension because people and businesses are forced to move.

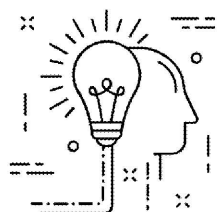
## International conflict (shared resources between countries)

- Countries upstream can control water downstream, reducing or stopping it from reaching downstream countries. In this way, water can be used as a weapon. Limiting water supply affects health and sanitation, as well as reducing industrial and agricultural output.
- The effects of surface water abstraction (e.g. rivers) are easy to measure because they are easily measurable at stages along the river.
- The result of building dams can be measured, and the effects are immediate.
- The effects of shared aquifers are difficult to measure. We don't fully know the amount of water stored, or the amount of water abstracted by each country, and it might take a long time to show.
- There are many different players in each country, such as governments and businesses, residents, energy suppliers and conservationists.



Rivers Nile (Africa) and Mekong (Asia); aquifers include Palestine and Iraq.

## If you only remember these three things



- 1 Economic water scarcity occurs when there is water but people cannot afford to use it, or there are limited water resources in developing and emerging countries.
- 2 Water is essential to economic growth because it's needed for every generation. It's also vital for human development in everyday life, and is important for sanitation and health.
- 3 When water resources are shared, e.g. rivers and aquifers, there is the potential for conflict or tension if one country abstracts more water than agreed, reducing the supply for others.

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## Activities

### Consolidation questions

1. Which parts of the world are likely to experience economic water scarcity?

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2. Is water more likely to be cheaper in rural or urban areas?

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3. Why is water important to energy production?

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4. Why is water for sanitation so important in reducing mortality rates?

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5. How likely is water to cause armed conflict?

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### Take it further

Take a look at the water resources shared between Israel and Palestine.  
[zzed.uk/9992-israel-control-water](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-israel-control-water)

Water as a weapon?  
[zzed.uk/9992-water-weapon](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-water-weapon)




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## Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
<b>The Problems of Water Insecurity</b>	Cause and pattern of water scarcity				
	The cost of water around the world				
	Importance of water for economic development				
	Importance of water for human well-being				
	Environmental and economic problems caused by limited water				
	The potential for conflict				

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# Managing a Sustainable Supply

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## Key words

- ✓ **Players:** Another name for 'stakeholders' – people with differing opinions about the use of a resource.
- ✓ **Techno-fix:** Form of hard engineering with emphasis on scientific advancement to solve problems faced by predicted future water supply deficiencies.
- ✓ **Hard engineering:** Built, physical structures used to increase the water supply.
- ✓ **Water transfer:** The movement of water from areas of surplus to areas of deficit, such as the north-south scheme.
- ✓ **Megadams:** Large-scale construction projects to store water for use during droughts.
- ✓ **Desalination plant:** Building where saline or brackish water is turned into fresh water through evaporation and condensation, or through reverse osmosis.
- ✓ **Brackish water:** Seawater mixed with fresh water, such as at the mouth of a river.
- ✓ **Sustainable schemes:** Water projects that meet current needs and will meet future needs without the resource won't be depleted.
- ✓ **Restoration:** Process of undoing problems caused in the past, which diminishes the natural environment.
- ✓ **Water conservation:** Reducing the demand for water through efficiency measures, such as showers and dishwashers.
- ✓ **Smart irrigation:** Equipment that only waters plants and crops when needed, using sensors to determine when the soil is dry enough to recommence watering.
- ✓ **Water recycling:** Reuse of water when clean water isn't needed; for example, using grey water to water your garden.
- ✓ **Hydroponics:** Way of growing plants without soil, by spraying water on to the plants.
- ✓ **Grey water:** Waste water from sinks, baths and domestic appliances that does not contain faecal matter.
- ✓ **Integrated drainage basin management:** Holistic approach to a catchment, involving all stakeholders and collaborations, including those between countries.
- ✓ **Water allocation:** Users in each section of a river are allowed to abstract a certain amount of water, allowing for fair use of the resource.
- ✓ **Drainage basin planning:** Overarching control and strategies which oversee the entire catchment, to prevent flooding, ensure that abstractions are sustainable, and to ensure a variety of uses for the water.
- ✓ **Water Sharing Treaty:** Written agreement between countries that use water, setting out abstraction limits/quotas, or allowing/permitting developments.
- ✓ **UNECE Water Convention:** Agreement between countries with shared water resources, promoting equitable and cooperative use.
- ✓ **Helsinki Treaty:** International (unenforceable) guidelines discussed in Finland in 1992, where the guidelines were pioneering in their transboundary nature.
- ✓ **Berlin Treaty:** 2004 replacement of the Helsinki Rules, to ensure no shortages of water resources occur, or that supply is not sabotaged.
- ✓ **Water Framework Directive:** European legislation signed in 2000 to improve the management of surface water by 2015.

## Key points

- The techno-fix uses technology such as dams, water transfers from wet to dry areas, and desalination of seawater in coastal areas to solve global water shortages. There are additional benefits, including reducing flooding.
- There are negative impacts on both people and the environment resulting from large-scale schemes because the extra use can reduce water availability in downstream areas, and from the natural environment. People are displaced from their homes, and forests are destroyed.
- Water sustainability is about ensuring that everyone has access to affordable water, which is important in the light of rising demand through industrialisation, population growth, and with a backdrop of climate change.

## Key points (continued)

- There are many ways of conserving and recycling water – such as improving techniques – more smart irrigation rather than flood irrigation.
- Because there are so many different water users within a drainage basin, and also needs considering, water use must be sustainable. Large-scale plans must cover the effects on the whole drainage basin. This is integrated drainage management implemented where water resources are shared between countries.
- Where water resources are shared, agreements between the different countries. These can be formed using the principles of international guidelines, initially the Helsinki, and later updated in Berlin in 2004. Such agreements consider all water users, countries and the environmental needs of the ecosystems within the drainage basin.
- Other water agreements and directives in Europe include the UNECE Water Framework Directive.
- There are many different players involved in creating and implementing such plans (governments, planners, environmentalists and the companies that supply the water (e.g. farmers and businesses) also play a part through water conservation.

## The techno-fix (technological fix)

- The **techno-fix** is a way of solving water shortages around the world.
- These fixes often require large-scale engineering projects and advanced technologies, pipelines, and **desalination** plants.
- These are **hard engineering** projects – they are expensive to build, and can have significant environmental implications.
- They involve many players, including political players and national governments, charities and NGOs, local residents, farmers and business owners, and also lobbyists.

## Water transfers (pros and cons)

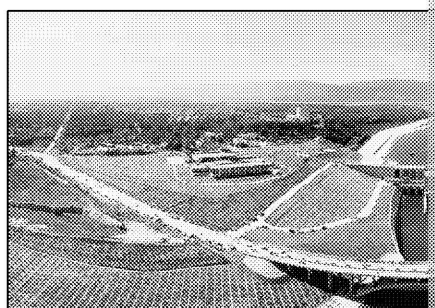
- Transfer water from areas of surplus to areas of water deficit.
- Schemes can cost millions (and sometimes billions) to build. They have huge environmental implications.
- While they can be very successful in increasing supply, the social and environmental costs can be very high.



The world's largest transfer scheme is the Chinese South–North Water Transfer Project. It consists of three major water transfers to meet demand in the north. An estimated 44.8 billion m<sup>3</sup> of water will be transferred annually from the Yangtze River to the Yellow River through purpose-built canals, and also through existing rivers.

The project won't be completed for several decades to come. Economic costs of this project have been and will be very high (much higher than anticipated). Social issues include the relocation of over 300,000 people from their homes, and could allow the spread of schistosomiasis to the north.

Environmental issues include changes to river flow, water quality and increased pollution. Issues could also occur in the receiving area, such as salinisation of the soil through increased irrigation.



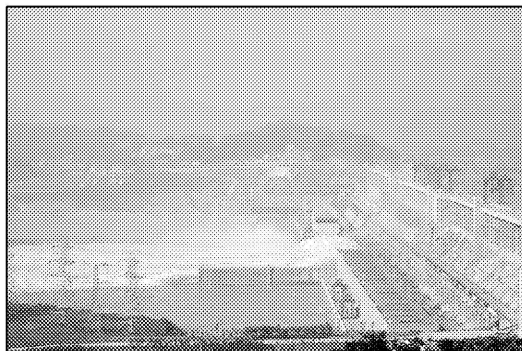
Part of China's South–North Water Transfer Project

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## Megadams (pros and cons)

The term 'megadam' is difficult to define. There's no universal definition. Do we look at height, volume of material, the size of the lake, the amount of hydroelectric power generated, or some combination?



The Three Gorges Dam

The larger the dam, the fewer there are. There are fewer dams than we used to. There are more dams in the world.

You're probably familiar with dams like the Aswan (India) and the Hoover Dam in the USA. The Hirakud Dam in India? The lake behind it has a volume of 5,896,000,000 m<sup>3</sup>!

China has the most dams per country. The Three Gorges Dam, and is also building dams through FDI.

Benefits of large dams include:

- water for irrigation (once the primary purpose)
- water for domestic and industrial use
- flood control
- hydroelectric power, often as a secondary function, reduces the amount of fossil fuel production

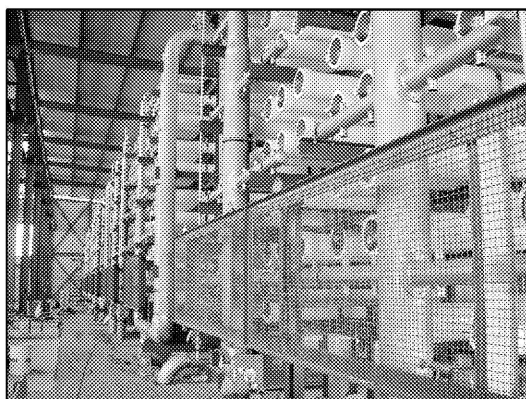
However, there are many social and environmental issues, such as:

- displacement of thousands of citizens, and agricultural land
- flooding of important cultural and archaeological sites (unless artefacts are moved)
- flooding of valuable habitats, some with endangered or threatened species
- decrease in river flow and regime, water quality (dissolved oxygen), silt deposition, and life such as fish migration can be stopped unless fish-passes are installed

## Desalination (pros and cons)

Desalination is where the salt is removed from saline or **brackish** water. The earliest method was by boiling the water to produce steam. This was highly energy-intensive and the cost was high (due to the fuels and generating CO<sub>2</sub>). More modern plants use a process called reverse osmosis and uses less energy.

The Middle East is a major user of desalinated water because of the lack of surface water. Some countries were also able to use their plentiful supply of oil as fuel.



A reverse osmosis plant

While there are many social and economic benefits, there are also largely environmental. Concentrating salt water from the sea, disrupting ecosystems including the Gulf is an example – the outlet is rich in salt content could build up in the ocean.

However, a cheap and efficient supply of water reduces overabstraction of aquifers. Desalination increases the cost and environmental impact as the population is increasing.

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## The value of sustainability

- Humans are using and diverting more and more water away from nature, and demand is increasing.
- Use of fossil water, for example, is unsustainable – meaning that the resource will eventually run out.
- Water use will continue to rise as population rises and countries industrialise.
- In order to allow a secure and affordable supply of clean water for future generations, water use must be more **sustainable**.
- There are several ways to increase the sustainability, including:

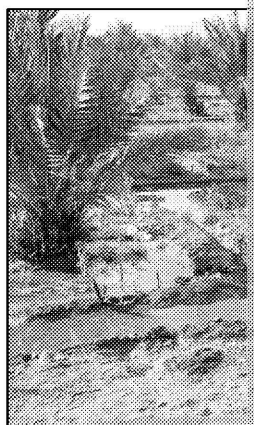
### Restoring supplies

Return catchments and rivers to their natural state – e.g. restoring wetlands and floodplains – increasing the natural storage in the system and creating natural land uses.

### Conserving water

Globally, we waste a lot of water. There are many ways that water consumption can be decreased, including:

- Agriculture (the greatest use) – one of the worst forms of irrigation is flood irrigation where, as the name suggests, the land is flooded. Up to half of the water is wasted – it either runs away or evaporates. There are many ways that irrigation losses can be reduced – for example, **drip** or **smart irrigation**, and recycling of irrigation water. **Hydroponics** are another option, and mulching reduces evaporation from the soil surface.
- Recycling of water is possible on all scales, such as in gardens and by farmers, e.g. using **grey water**. Grey water can also be stored to flush toilets.
- Capturing rainwater and use of green roofs are practical ways to cut down on water in the garden.



Singapore covers a tiny area at 721.5 km<sup>2</sup> and has a population of 5.5 million. It has no natural water resources, so has historically obtained its water from Malaysia. Now, in addition to desalination, it's starting to recycle its own sewage, producing a third of its supply.

## Reducing conflict through better management and sharing

- As we saw in the last chapter, shared water resources can be a source of tension. Integrated drainage basin management are tools to help diffuse that tension and share the water.

### Integrated drainage basin management

- Back to the concept of sustainability.
- Relatively new concept, developed in the late twentieth century.
- Manages water resources in the whole drainage basin, including land use, to ensure sufficient water without adversely affecting ecosystems.
- Manages the abstraction of groundwater and surface water supplies, including recycling of water, which is monitored using sensors.
- Challenging when the drainage basins are very large and cross international boundaries, but manageable when the drainage basins are smaller.

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## Water-sharing treaties

- Most countries that share water resources reach agreement without any form of armed conflict. Even countries at war for other reasons tend to adhere to agreements over water.
- Water-sharing agreements can be based on international guidelines, such as the **Helsinki Rules on the Uses of the Waters of International Rivers (1966)**, later succeeded by the **Berlin Rules on Water Resource (2004)**. Again, these focus on water supply to both people within each country and the environment, and where agreements are made, they factor in both natural and human characteristics within the catchment.
- **UNECE Water Convention** is another example, based in Europe with links to the EU.
- The EU also has its **Water Framework Directive**, aimed at improving the quality of water in the EU, based on pollution, oxygen and temperature, etc. In 2007, a workshop was held to develop legislation on hydropower which accounts for the effects on the environment and to reduce the impact of the generation of a renewable electricity supply.

There are many different players within large catchments, spanning countries and regions, each with different interests in water supply and land use.

The players include governments to set the guidelines, planners and environmental groups to monitor the methods and assess the environmental impact of the schemes, and the end users who pay for the water. They have the power to reduce their consumption. Water companies not only provide water but also have to help reduce demand, through leakage control, installing water meters to provide information to customers on how to conserve water.



E.g.

The Colorado River flows through the United States and into Mexico. The US has a fixed water abstraction quota of the river's water. Allocations of water were established by the Colorado River Compact of 1922 – but abstractions have been changed since then due to climate change. Population change is also increasing pressure on the river.

## If you only remember these three things



- 1 The techno-fix aims to solve global water shortages by large-scale engineering projects, including water desalinating sea water. They can have major social and environmental consequences.
- 2 We can reduce pressure on water resources by changing our behaviour – better irrigation practices and use of grey water.
- 3 There are various ways of reducing our impacts on the environment through integrated drainage basin management. Water sharing treaties are signed between countries over shared resources.

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# Activities

## Consolidation questions

1. Give an advantage and disadvantage of increasing water supply through the

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2. Why is the environmental effect of desalination smaller than in the past?

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3. Give an example of how farmers could decrease their use of water.

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4. Why does river basin planning need to occur on such a large scale?

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5. Why do countries sign water-sharing treaties?

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## Take it further

Take a look at water recycling in Singapore:

[zzed.uk/9992-singapore-water](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-singapore-water)

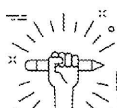
Research 'Minute 319', which is an amendment to the Colorado River Compact of 1922 that allows the US and Mexico to share resources in times of surplus and shortage. Here's a slightly older article from 2012. Has anything changed since?

[zzed.uk/9992-minute-319](https://www.zzed.uk/9992-minute-319)




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## Student checks

Topic	What do I know?	No idea 	Nearly 	Sure 	
<b>Managing a Sustainable Water Supply</b>	The techno-fix				
	Water transfers				
	Megadams				
	Desalination				
	Restoring supplies and water conservation				
	Integrated drainage basin management				
	Water-sharing treaties				

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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 and plan your answer.

### Reading 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 Edexcel order the questions for a reason, and earlier questions might help you answer later ones.

### Reading the questions

- Too often students rush and lose marks.
- It might be useful to underline 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 exam 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 much time as you need, but try to stick to the time limit. Don't be put off by how much time is around you.
- Any mistakes you make don't use correction fluid.
- If you get stuck, move on to another question and come back to it at the end.
- Adopt a formal style, but be clear and concise.
- 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 understanding and recommendation need to present different 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 all 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. Include them only when they are relevant and useful.

### Getting the tone right

As well as using key geographical terms in your answers, your writing should still have a professional tone. This helps your answers appear considered and professional.

Do ✓	Don't
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Write out abbreviations in full the first time you use them.</li> <li>Be clear when a statement is a personal opinion as opposed to fact.</li> <li>Use linking words: thus, therefore, etc.</li> <li>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.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Write in the first person.</li> <li>Use contractions.</li> <li>Use slang terms and informal language.</li> <li>Use rhetorical questions.</li> </ul>

It might help to think of yourself talking to your 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 you use if it's not necessary.

Ask your teacher 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 only important in that they help you to make your meaning clear and communicate your geographical knowledge and understanding. It is better to have a focused and clear answer than a waffled answer stuffed with content.

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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 haven't 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 understanding of the world.

As you are well aware, the world is a complicated place – cause and effect, and a lot of information to pull together, join up the dots, and work out why things happen in the first 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 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 perspectives

- 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 see 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 any way you like!

## 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

INSPECTION COPY

## What is the Hydrological Cycle, and Why is It Important?

1. Closed.
2. Energy from the Sun, and gravitational potential energy.
3. 68.7%
4. Water vapour.
5. Any two – such as ocean, atmospheric, ice sheets, lakes, groundwater and soil.
6. Rivers.
7. Shortest = atmosphere; longest = oceans.
8. Formed under different climate conditions than today – being used faster than they are replaced.

## The Drainage Basin as an Open System

1. Any two from: convection, relief (orographic) and fronts (warm and cold).
2. Intercepted by trees – either evaporated back into the air, or absorbed by the soil.
3. Groundwater is through rock, throughflow is through soil.
4. Intense precipitation can't infiltrate into the soil fast enough, or the soil is already saturated with a lot of water. No more water can infiltrate, or the rate is very low.
5. Run-off (channel flow), evaporation and transpiration (evapotranspiration).
6. It depends – some are small-scale, others are hundreds to thousands of square kilometres.
7. Soil = infiltration; rock = percolation.
8. Determines the amount, type and seasonality of precipitation, and the vegetation.
9. Any two suitable answers, such as land-use change / urbanisation, changes in climate, deforestation and afforestation.
10. Creation of reservoirs (changes to river flow, dampens the effect of precipitation extremes and alters water availability), abstraction of groundwater (reduces water table), dams, rivers, saline intrusion in coastal areas).

## Influences on the Hydrological Cycle at the Local Scale

1.  $P = Q + E \pm \Delta S$ .
2. During the summer.
3. Deserts.
4. The annual pattern of flow of a river at a gauging station.
5. Any two suitable suggestions, such as weather patterns such as rainfall, melting snow, groundwater recharge.
6. The response to how a river flow is temporarily changed by a precipitation event.
7. The duration between peak precipitation and peak discharge.
8. Reduced interception increases the overland flow, meaning that the water reaches the river faster.
9. Increased run-off / less interception and evapotranspiration, etc.
10. Decrease.

## The Causes and Effects of Drought

1. The definition varies from place to place – such as the duration the decrease in precipitation lasts.
2. Meteorological = reduction in precipitation; hydrological = reduction of water in the hydrological cycle.
3. In the Pacific Ocean, around the equator.
4. They affect where air rises (and forms rain) and cold air sinks (causing drought).
5. Abstracting surface and ground supplies, changing land use, and deforestation. Anthropogenic climate change is likely to have greater effect.
6. Allow any suitable suggestion, such as the Sahel, Australia, California.
7. Respiration of the carbon stored in peat, peat fires.
8. Direct tree die-off, increased susceptibility to pests and diseases, and increased soil erosion.

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## The Causes and Effects of Floods

1. Heavy/intense rainfall / antecedent conditions result in both infiltration excess and surface runoff.
2. Regions in Asia (including India and Bangladesh) and Africa.
3. Sealing of the ground with impermeable surfaces, very rapid run-off from roads and drains.
4. Development of hard engineering features that increase the flood risk downstream.
5. They are indirect effects, and social effects are often difficult to assign more than a small part of the blame.

## Climate Change – Changes and Effects to the Hydrological Cycle

1. No – some areas will become wetter and others drier – however, there will be a change in the distribution of rainfall.
2. Less ice, in some areas less groundwater and soil water, and surface water. The atmosphere will store more water vapour as it warms. Also, the ocean store will increase.
3. Possibly extreme El Niño years will become more frequent.
4. We may not be certain whether the changes are solely down to climate change or are associated with El Niño years.
5. Uncertainty in the overall rainfall level, its variability, and future demand for water.

## Physical and Human Causes of Water Insecurity

1. Climate (determines rainfall and aquifer recharge).
2. The amount of water available per person per year – 700 m<sup>3</sup> less for water stressed areas.
3. Depletes surface and ground stores and flows, capable of damaging the environment.
4. Diminish supply through pollution of surface and ground supplies – through agriculture. Water may still be there, but it's too polluted to use or would cost too much to treat.
5. Better living standards – more water use per person (water is available on tap). Increased import of consumer goods, increased food consumption (irrigation water) to produce food.

## The Problems of Water Insecurity

1. Developing and emerging countries, allow specific examples from South Africa.
2. Rural areas.
3. HEP and electrical generation, extraction of some fuels such as gas and oil.
4. Essential to stop the spread of diseases and diarrhoea.
5. There are areas where water is very scarce, and water resources are shared between countries. While unlikely to be the single cause, water could be one factor among many that lead to conflict as a weapon.

## Managing a Sustainable Water Supply

1. Any suitable advantage, e.g. increased water security and other benefits such as improved health. Disadvantages could include social (people forced to move) and environmental (loss of biodiversity, disease, removal of water from natural ecosystems).
2. Advances in technology – reverse osmosis requires far less energy than removing salt from seawater.
3. Reduction of flood irrigation – replace with smart irrigation, use of hydroponics, drip irrigation, use of grey water.
4. There are many users of water, all affect the wider drainage basin. Widespread pollution can occur for both humans and the environment.
5. To reduce the potential for conflict by allocating each country their fair share of water, considering the needs of the environment.

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