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Oceanography 1

LECTURE

Spring 2021 Workbook



Oceanography 1 Workbook
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Cover image from *Saddlebag Lake Area, High Sierra, Hoover Wilderness*

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CLASS INTRODUCTION

What is Science? Activity

Some of the content within has been borrowed and modified from the University of California's Museum of Paleontology UNDERSTANDING SCIENCE WEBSITE: http://undsci.berkeley.edu/article/coreofscience_01.

- Science is a way of learning about the **natural world** – what is in it, how it works, and how it formed.
- Science relies on testing ideas by making **observations** to find out whether expectations hold true.
- Accepted scientific ideas are subjected to rigorous testing. As new evidence is acquired and new perspectives emerge these ideas are revised.
- Science is a community endeavor with checks and balances for greater accuracy and understanding.

Scientific Inquiry

CURIOSITY – A question arises about an event or situation: why and how does this happen?

OBSERVATIONS, MEASUREMENTS – We observe and measure: What is happening? Under what circumstances? Does there appear to be a dependable cause-and-effect relationship at work?

HYPOTHESES – We make educated guesses about what is causing what we are seeing. A good hypothesis can predict future occurrences under similar circumstances. Creativity plays a BIG role here, as we often have to think outside the box. It also helps greatly if we can bring our understandings in a diverse range of scientific disciplines.

EXPERIMENTS – We plan controlled experiments to prove or disprove potential cause-and-effect relationships. These tests can happen in nature or the lab and permit manipulating and controlling the conditions under which we make future observations.

BEYOND THE HYPOTHESIS – Patterns emerge. If one or more of the relationships hold and acceptance is widespread, the hypothesis becomes a theory or principle.



Cartoon: © Gustrafó – used with permission.

BEYOND THE SIMPLIFIED:

- **Scientists engage in many different activities in many different sequences.** Scientific investigations often involve repeating the same steps many times to account for new information and ideas.
- **Science depends on interactions within the scientific community.** Different parts of the process of science may be carried out by different people at different times. Society influences greatly the questions that are researched, and many of the results of scientific investigations become a highly influential part of human culture and civilization.
- **Science relies on creative people thinking outside the box!**
- **Scientific conclusions are always revisable if warranted by the evidence.** Scientific investigations are often ongoing, raising new questions even as old ones are answered.
- **The process of science is iterative.** Science circles back on itself so that useful ideas are built upon and used to learn even more about the natural world. This often means that successive investigations of a topic lead back to the same question, but at deeper and deeper levels.
- **The process of science is not predetermined.** Any point in the process leads to many possible next steps, and where that next step leads could be a surprise.
- **There are many routes into the process.** Research problems and answers come from a variety of inspirations: serendipity (such as being hit on the head by the proverbial apple), concern over a practical problem (such as finding a new treatment for diabetes), a technological development (such as the launch of a more advanced telescope), or plain old poking around: tinkering, brainstorming, making new observations, chatting with colleagues about an idea, or reading.
- **Scientific testing is at the heart of the process.** All ideas are tested with evidence from the natural world — even if that means giving up a favorite hypothesis.
- **Ideas at the cutting edge of research may change rapidly.** In researching new medical procedures or therapies or researching the development of life on earth — making living cells from inorganic materials — scientists test out many possible explanations trying to find the most accurate.
- **The scientific community helps ensure science's accuracy.** Members of the scientific community (such as researchers, technicians, educators, and students) are especially important in generating ideas, scrutinizing ideas, and weighing the evidence for and against them. Through the action of this community, science self-corrects. Note: Authority is NOT a criterion. Just because a scientist has titles or degrees does not mean we must accept their ideas. We apply a healthy dose of skepticism to all.

From Hypotheses to Theories and Principles

The process of science works at multiple levels — from the small scale (such as a comparison of the genes of three closely related North American butterfly species) to the large scale (such as half-century-long series of investigations of the idea that geographic isolation of a population can trigger speciation).

HYPOTHESES are proposed explanations for a fairly narrow set of phenomena. These reasoned explanations are not guesses. When scientists formulate new hypotheses, they are usually based on prior experience, scientific background knowledge, preliminary observations, and logic. *Example hypothesis: a particular butterfly evolved a particular trait to deal with its changing environment.*

LAWS OR SCIENTIFIC PRINCIPLES explain events in nature that occur with unvarying uniformity under identical conditions. These principles are arrived at by fact gathering and experimentation. They may have exceptions, and, like other scientific knowledge, may be modified or rejected based on new evidence and perspectives. *Example principle: Geology's principle of superposition, which states that in an undeformed sequence of rock layers, each laid down through natural processes, the oldest layer is at the bottom.*

THEORIES are broad explanations for a wide range of phenomena. They are concise (generally don't have a long list of exceptions and special rules), coherent, systematic, predictive, and broadly applicable. Theories often integrate and generalize many hypotheses and usually are more involved and complicated than a law or principle, with many more areas of doubt and refinement possible. *For example, the theory of natural selection broadly applies to all populations with some form of inheritance, variation, and differential reproductive success — whether that population is composed of alpine butterflies, fruit flies on a tropical island, a new form of life discovered on Mars, or even bits in a computer's memory. This theory helps us understand a wide range of observations (from the rise of antibiotic-*

resistant bacteria to the physical match between pollinators and their preferred flowers), makes predictions in new situations and has proven itself time and time again in thousands of experiments and observational studies.

In common usage, the word theory means just a hunch, but in science, a theory is a powerful explanation for a broad set of observations. To be accepted by the scientific community, a theory must be strongly supported by many different lines of evidence. Biological evolution is a theory (it is a well-supported, widely accepted, and powerful explanation for the diversity of life on Earth).

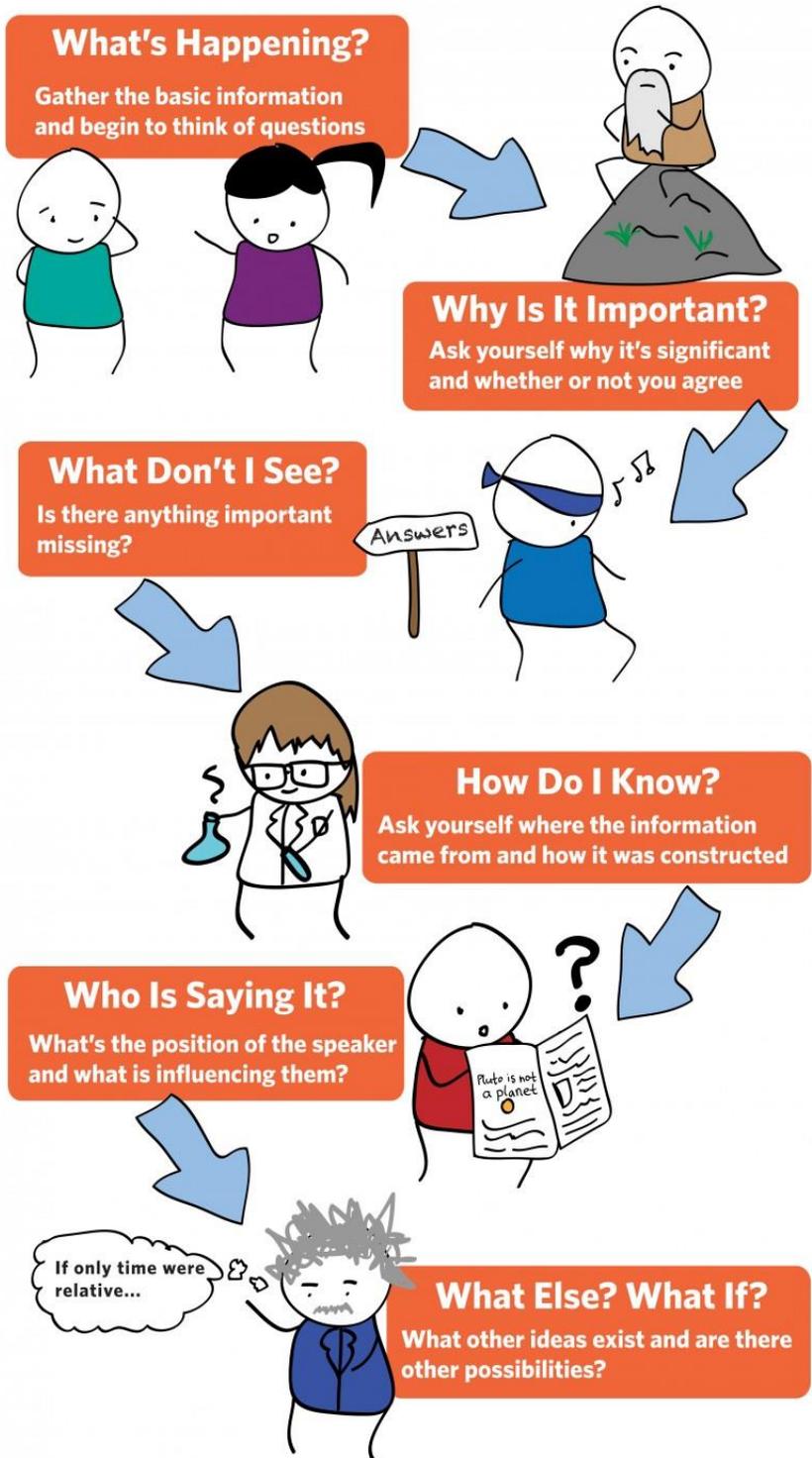
OVER-ARCHING THEORIES are particularly important and reflect broad understandings of a particular part of the natural world. Evolutionary theory, atomic theory, gravity, quantum theory, and plate tectonics are examples of this sort of over-arching theory. These theories have been broadly supported by multiple lines of evidence and help frame our understanding of the world around us. These over-arching theories encompass many subordinate theories and hypotheses. Changes to those smaller theories and hypotheses reflect a refinement (not an overthrow) of the over-arching theory. *Example over-arching theory: as we learn more about the dynamics of subducting plates in real subduction zones like Japan and Costa Rica, we refine the over-arching theory of Plate Tectonics to reflect that understanding.*

Applying Critical Thinking

There are many places in our daily lives when we apply critical thinking and scientific inquiry to our decision making:

- Something we use stops working, and we try to figure out why so we can fix it.
- We plan a major purchase, and we shop around, check reviews, and test it out first.
- Someone tells us some potentially life-changing news item about our environment or our health or other important societal issue, and we research it and test it and reconsider it continually instead of relying on faith in our story teller.

Questions a Critical Thinker Asks



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Gathering Data: Observation versus Evaluation

An important skill for scientists is to be able to distinguish between observations and evaluations. Scientists combine many and continuous observations of natural processes to come up with explanations for how these processes work.

Observations clearly state “Just the facts!” Evaluation, in contrast, includes some kind of judgment or explanation of facts.

Examples: *It’s hot outside. (Evaluation)* -- *It’s 81°F outside. (Fact)*
It’s 81°F outside, and this is hotter than the average daily temperature for San Francisco. (Fact)
It’s 81°F outside, and this heat is caused by a combination of it being summer season and there being no clouds in the sky. (Evaluation)

Exercise: For each of the following statements, indicate whether it’s an observation or an evaluation.

If an evaluation, rewrite the sentence in such a way that it would be a true observation.

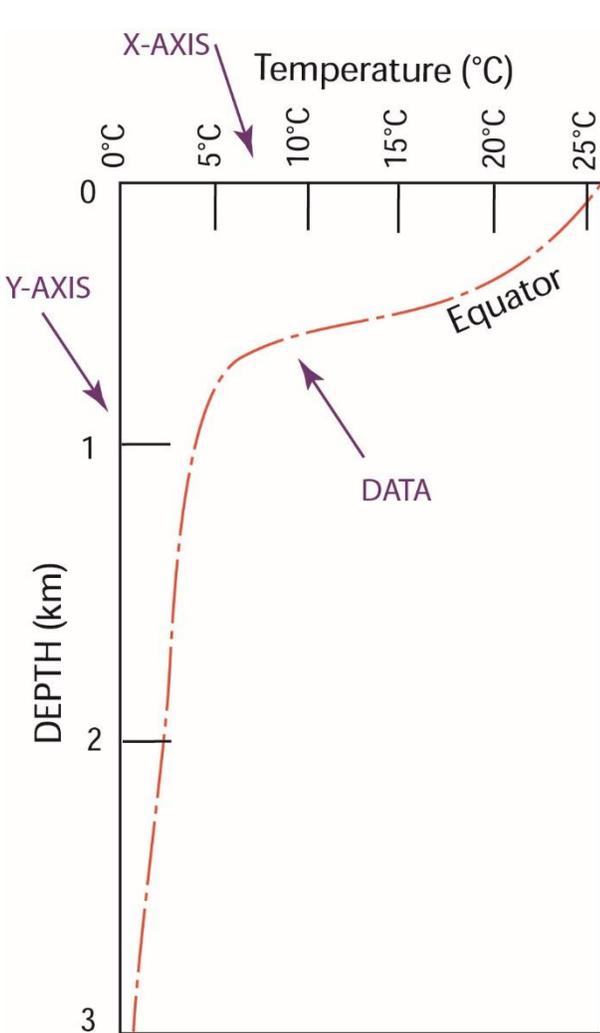
1. The Arctic Ocean is shallow. Rewrite?	CIRCLE: Observation Evaluation
2. Tuna are the fastest fish in the world, swimming at sustained speeds of 70 km/hr. Rewrite?	CIRCLE: Observation Evaluation
3. The oceans impact world weather. Rewrite?	CIRCLE: Observation Evaluation
4. The Dead Sea water tastes saltier than Pacific Ocean seawater. Rewrite?	CIRCLE: Observation Evaluation
5. Debris from the Japanese tsunami has been found on beaches across the northern Pacific Ocean. Rewrite?	CIRCLE: Observation Evaluation
6. The water around Antarctica is cold. Rewrite?	CIRCLE: Observation Evaluation
7. The sand at Ocean Beach is produced from cliff erosion. Rewrite?	CIRCLE: Observation Evaluation

When scientists gather data, they have to define a clear method/process and document that process as well as the data. Only when data are gathered in a consistent way over long periods of time (or again, and again, and again), can we rely on the results. Some measurements must be taken directly. Others can be taken remotely. For example, satellites can accurately measure sea surface height. Some measurements happen by stationing an instrument in a single location – it doesn’t move, but it measures the changing environment around it. Other instruments in the oceans are designed to move through the water (remotely operated vehicles or submarines or autonomous underwater vehicles) – measuring changing environments they travel through. Still other instruments are designed to drift with the water (drift buoys) – measuring through GPS the transit paths of the water.

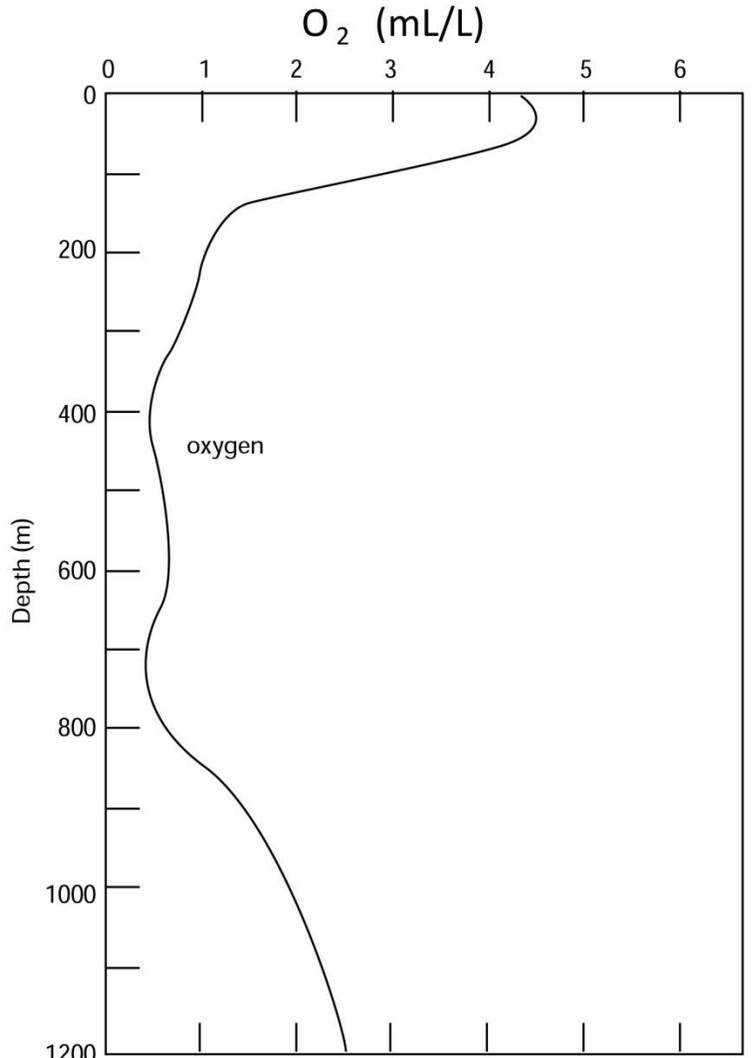
Example ways data are collected in the sciences:	Measurement type (circle)
8. Measuring sea level as centimeters above a wharf piling mark (set as our 0 level)	Stationary instrument (permanent or hand held) Drifting instrument Self- or remotely directed moving instrument
9. Measuring salinity of water with depth by lowering a water bottle and take samples every meter	Stationary instrument (permanent or hand held) Drifting instrument Self- or remotely directed moving instrument
10. Measuring air temperature at the top of Twin Peaks every minute over a few years	Stationary instrument (permanent or hand held) Drifting instrument Self- or remotely directed moving instrument
11. Measuring speed and direction of ocean currents from a floating instrument not attached to seafloor.	Stationary instrument (permanent or hand held) Drifting instrument Self- or remotely directed moving instrument
12. Taking pictures of beach slopes and profiles at a single location daily for years	Stationary instrument (permanent or hand held) Drifting instrument Self- or remotely directed moving instrument
13. Towing a plankton net behind a boat.	Stationary instrument (permanent or hand held) Drifting instrument Self- or remotely directed moving instrument

Evaluating or Analyzing Data & Formulating and Modifying Hypotheses

Once we have gathered data of any kind – observational or remotely measured – we start thinking about what it means. What does it tell us about the underlying truths of natural process and our human experience? We often find ways to display our data so that it makes those truths easier to see, including graphs, tables, lists, and illustrations. After we begin to formulate a hypothesis, what do we do next? We test it. We design experiments or projects that allow us to gather more data. As new data are evaluated, we confirm or modify our hypothesis as needed.



Generalized depth profile for temperature at the equator (averaged over world's oceans) with main graph components labelled (axes and data line)



General variations of the concentrations of oxygen with depth in the world's oceans at midlatitudes.

14. Review figures above and record below observations about the data (patterns, values, and more). *HINT: start with captions, review axes (labels and direction of increase), then describe line/curve (using x-axis/y-axis terms).

Left Figure	Right Figure

15. What questions, thoughts, hypotheses do you have after reviewing and thinking about these data?

Left Figure

Right Figure

16. What are the limitations of these data? Are there more data you'd like to collect?

Left Figure

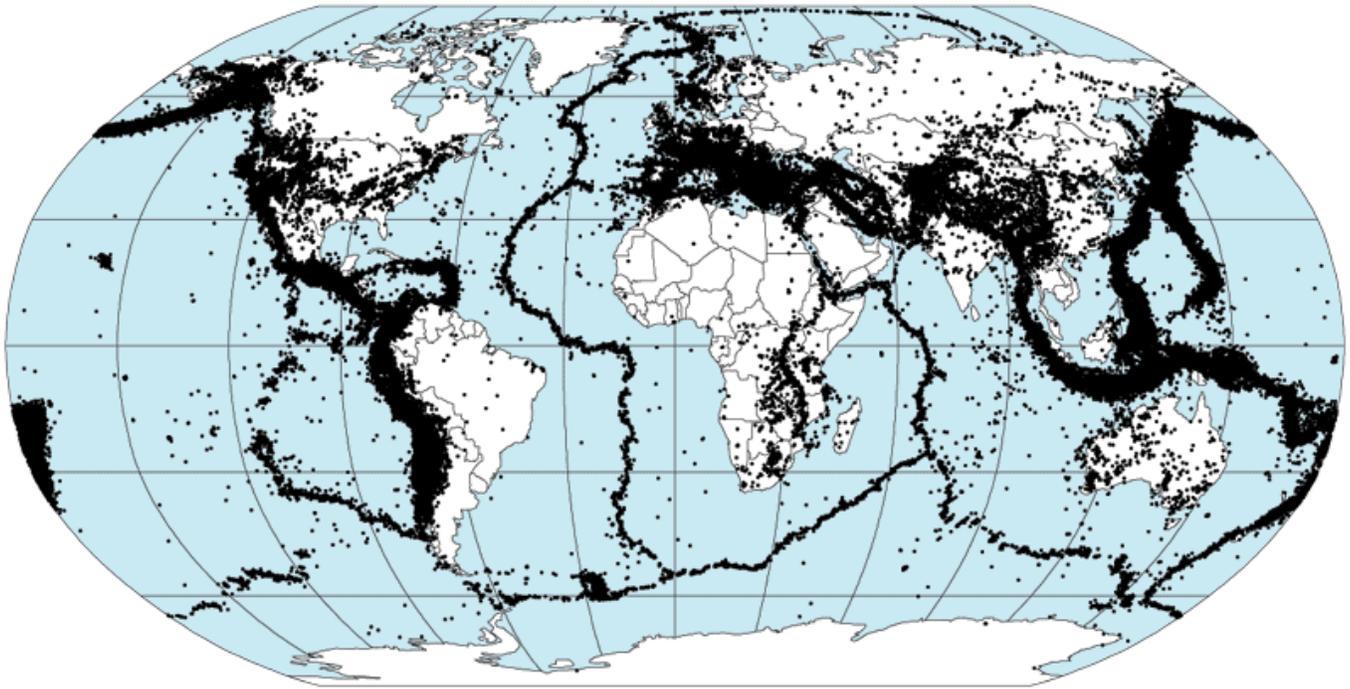
Right Figure

17. Notice there are some data in the two previous graphs that correlate – meaning the trend of one line in the first graph (specifically the top of the trend) varies in the same direction over the same depth as data from the second graph. Locate and describe that correlation. (NOTE: 1000 m = 1 km)?

18. It's extremely important to notice correlation because it means there *might* be a relationship between the two characteristics. It might be that one causes the other, or it might mean that the cause of one is also the cause of the other. Example: there is an overall correlation worldwide between surface water temperature and water pH (acidity). Warmer waters are less acidic. Colder waters are more acidic. Just because these correlate, doesn't mean one causes the other. We cannot draw the conclusion that water temperature creates its acidity. What is actually happening in this case is that acidity in the oceans is caused by how much carbon dioxide gas is held in the water. Warmer waters are less viscous and can't hold as much gas as cold waters.

CORRELATION ≠ CAUSATION

Look at the correlation described in the images above and indicate below what hypotheses you have about its causation. It's okay NOT to know – just guess, and be creative.



Global earthquake epicenters from 1963 to 1998. NASA, DTAM project team - <http://denali.gsfc.nasa.gov/dtam/seismic/>

19. Review figure above and record below observations about the data – patterns you see.

20. What questions, thoughts, hypotheses do you have after reviewing and thinking about these data?

21. What are the limitations of these data? Are there more data you'd like to collect?

Weekly Reflection

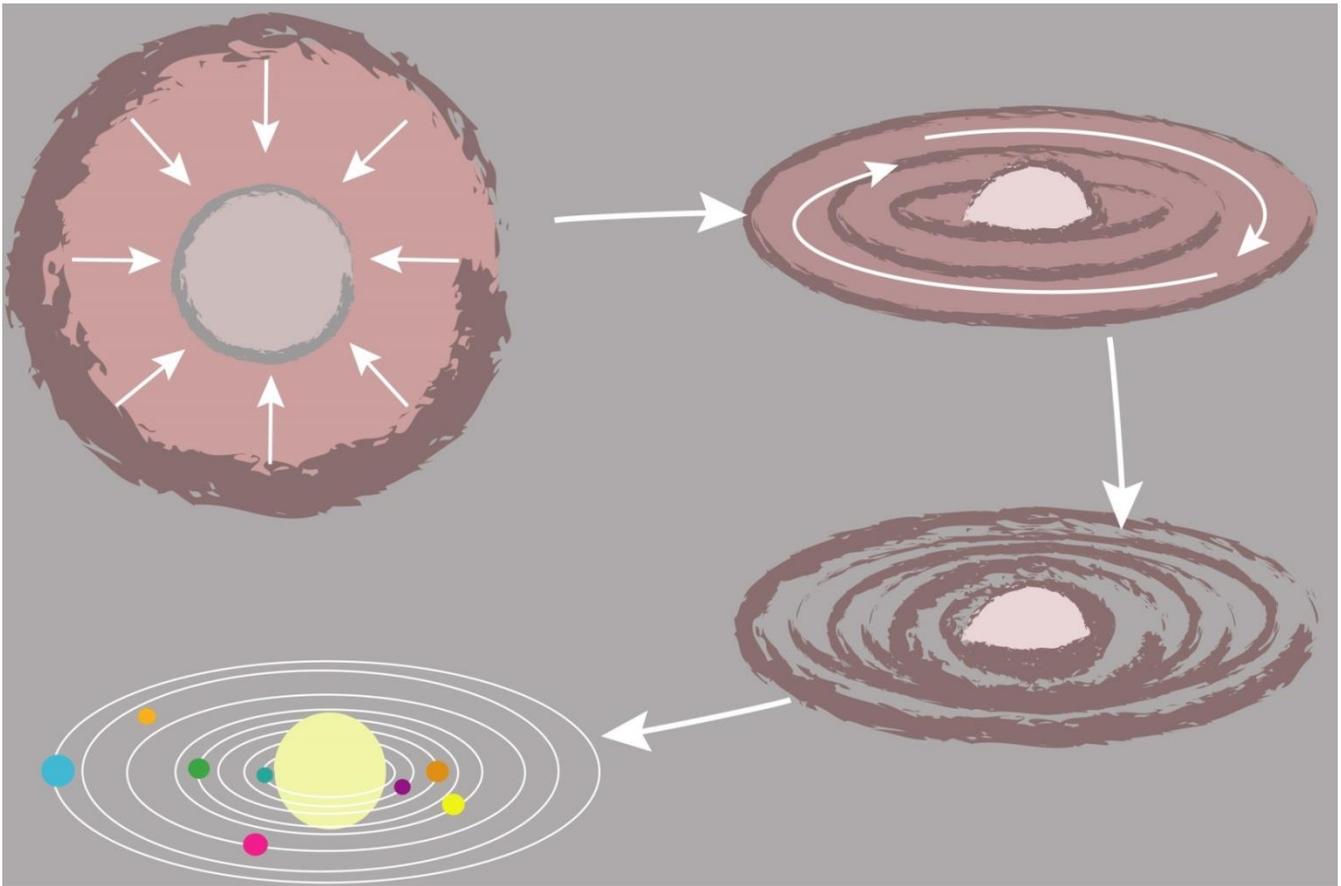
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week's objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Successfully accessing and navigating the course content and resources including the course workbook and textbook, CANVAS, and website.	A B C D F	
Identifying multiple methods by which you can communicate with your fellow students and instructor.	A B C D F	
Ensuring you have the right technology and sufficient time to complete class requirements.	A B C D F	
Comparing and contrasting the basic elements and tools of scientific inquiry, especially observation vs. evaluation.	A B C D F	
Describing and evaluating patterns in data and graphs and maps.	A B C D F	

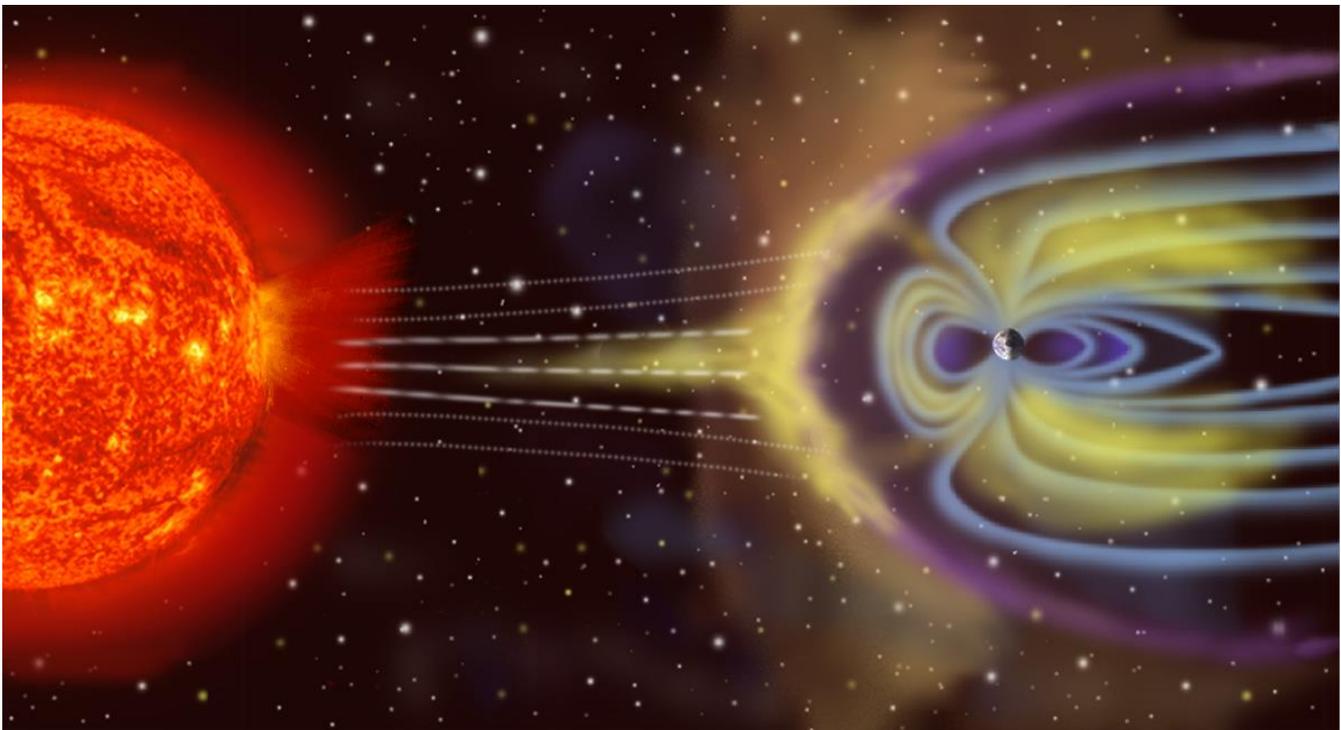
AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you've always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

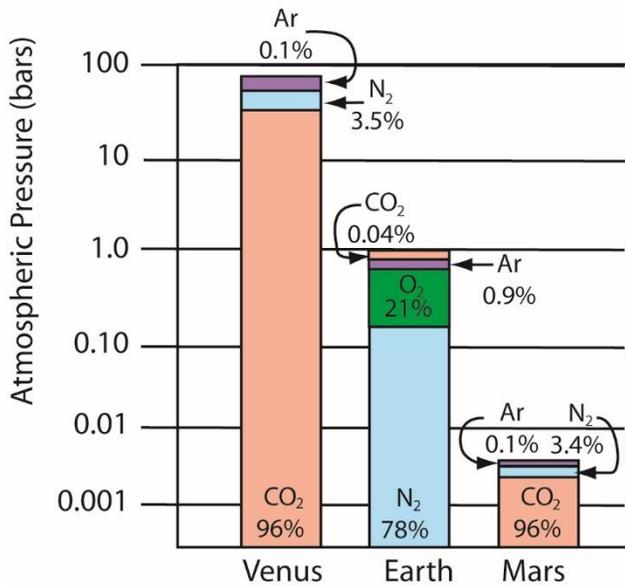
WATER PLANET



Time-progressive image of the Solar System formation through condensation from a nebula, increasing rotation into a disk, and planetary accretion from debris orbiting the sun.



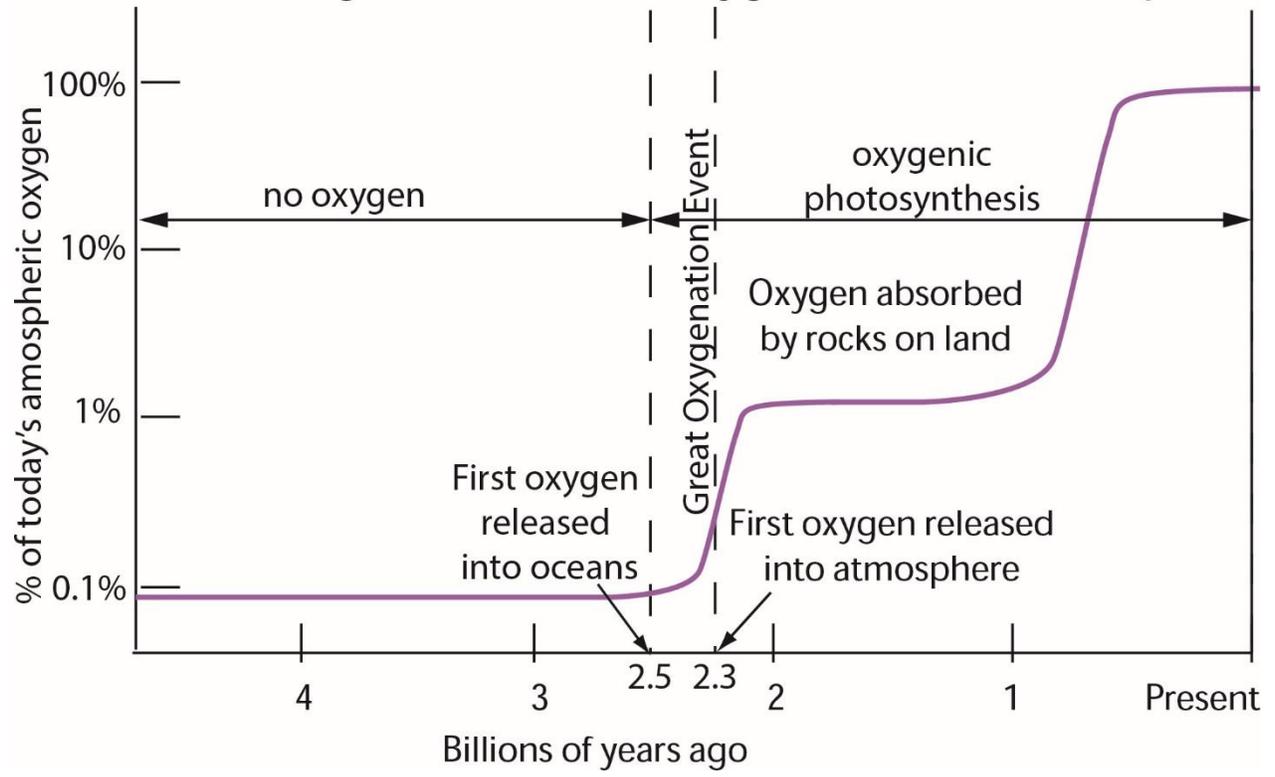
Solar winds blowing towards Earth and deflected by Earth's Magnetic Field. (NASA)



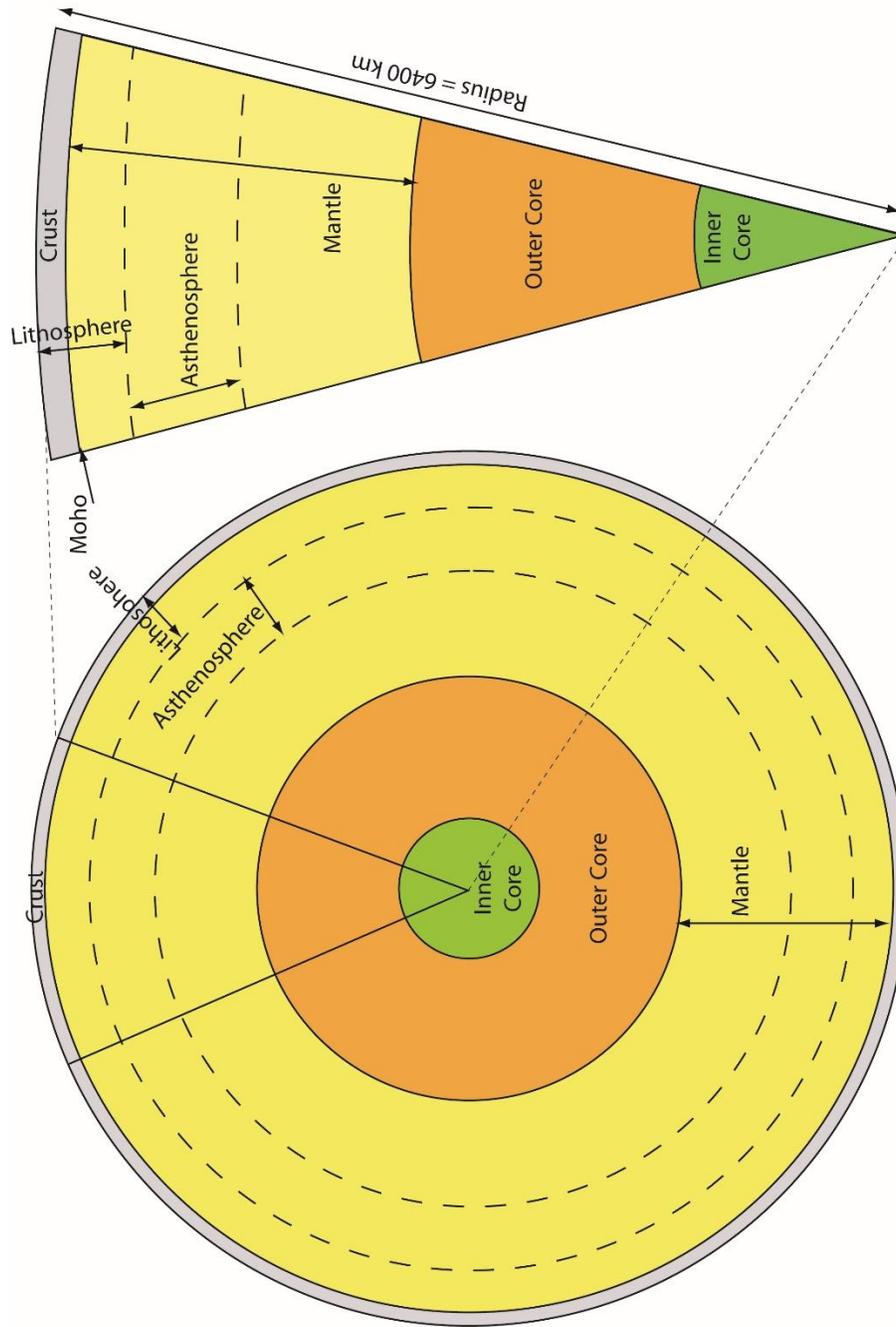
Composition of Earth's early atmosphere:	Composition of Earth's current atmosphere:
In decreasing abundance	MAJOR
CO ₂ (carbon dioxide)	78% N ₂ (nitrogen)
N ₂ (nitrogen)	21% O ₂ (oxygen)
H ₂ O (water vapor)	MINOR
CH ₄ (methane)	0-4% H ₂ O (water)
NH ₃ (ammonia)	0.9% Ar (Argon)
CO (carbon monoxide)	0.04% CO ₂ (carbon dioxide)
SO ₂ (sulfur dioxide)	
H ₂ S (hydrogen sulfide)	
HCN (hydrogen cyanide)	

Graphical comparison of the major gas components of the atmospheres of Earth and its neighboring planets, showing CO₂ as the dominant gas on Mars and Venus, while only a minor component on Earth.

Timeline showing the creation of oxygen in Earth's atmosphere



Oxygen likely first began being produced through photosynthesis, about 2.5 Ga. It either combined with dissolved iron to produce iron oxide minerals (rust) that settled to the seafloor and were buried OR it bubbled out into the atmosphere and was immediately used up in oxidizing the atmospheric gases. By 2.3 Ga, most of the dissolved iron in the oceans had been removed, and oxygen was starting to accumulate at levels of 1% of today's Oxygen levels in the atmosphere. We call this the Great Oxygenation Event. Oxygen in the atmosphere allowed for the first iron oxide minerals to form in surface rocks (above sea level). By about 700 Ma, the atmospheric gases were sufficiently oxidized, and oxygen began to accumulate in larger amounts in the atmosphere, bringing it to current day levels and allowing an ozone layer to form in the stratosphere.



Cross-section of Earth showing its layers (to scale, except for greatly exaggerated crust)
 Note: the MOHO is the name given to the boundary between the crust and the mantle.

Layers	Thickness	Composition	Density/State
Crust: Oceanic	3-10 km	Si, O, Fe, Mg, Al = Basalt	2.9 g/cc SOLID
Crust: Continental	30-50 km	Si, O, Al = Granite	2.7 g/cc SOLID
Mantle	2900 km	Mg, Fe, Si, O	4.5 g/cc SOLID
Outer core	2200 km	Fe, Ni (S, Si)	11 g/cc LIQUID
Inner core	1300 km	Fe, Ni (S, Si)	16 g/cc SOLID

Overlaid layers:

Lithosphere	100-200 km	100% Crust + Upper Mantle	Rigid, solid, brittle: breaks into pieces: plates
Asthenosphere	100-350 km	Portion of mantle	Plastic (flows), but solid

Brief History of Earth

Notice that all these events are listed in reverse chronological order – oldest at bottom of table, youngest at top.

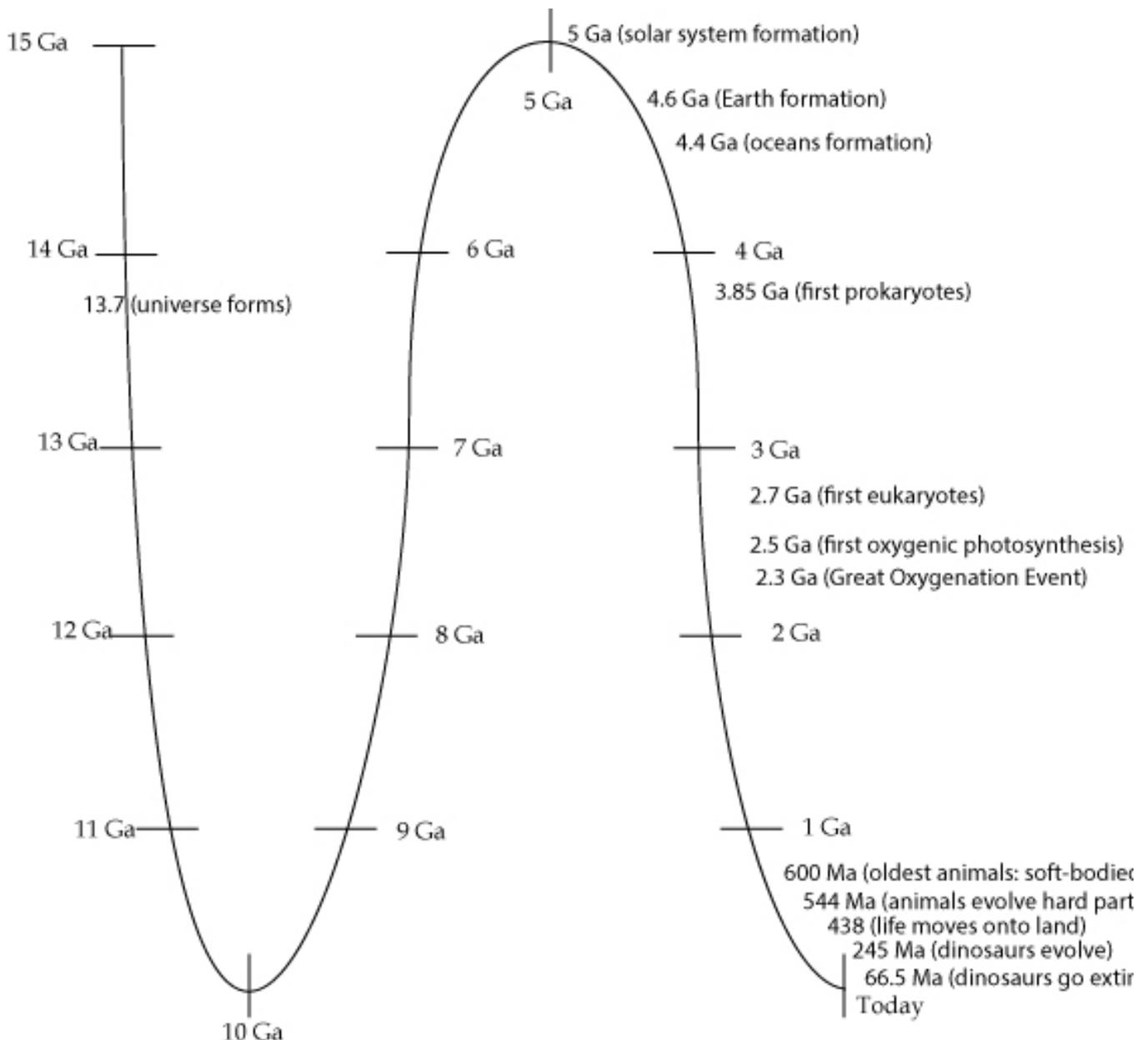
10-25 Ka	Wisconsin ice age (most recent one; land bridges form and humans migrate from Asia into North America)
100-300 Ka	Homo Sapiens first appear.
400 Ka	San Francisco Bay forms.
1.6 Ma	Period of frequent ice ages begins and continues to today.
2-4 Ma	Ancient Hominids first appear.
50-25 Ma	San Andreas Fault forms as North American margin stops subducting.
63 Ma	Primates evolve.
65 Ma	Dinosaurs and other organisms go extinct making the way for the Age of Mammals.
145 Ma	First mammals, including platypus, shrews, and opossums.
152 Ma	First birds evolve from small, fast-running dinosaurs.
230 Ma	First dinosaurs, reptiles that distinguished themselves by standing upright on two legs.
240 Ma	First vertebrates to fly – the Pterosaurs, dinosaur cousins.
245 Ma	The largest mass extinction in Earth's history. Over 75% of all marine groups eliminated, making way for the Age of Dinosaurs
~300 to 200 Ma	Pangaea , the most recent supercontinent, completes its formation around 300 Ma (possible 335 Ma), and then begins to break up around 200 (or 175 Ma) into two halves: Gondwanaland (Australia, India, Africa, S. American, and Antarctica) and Laurasia (N. America, Greenland, Europe, and Asia).
350-290 Ma	Giant Swamp Forests thrived in lowlands at the edges of rivers and seas (like today's Louisiana bayous). Tropical climates encouraged dense growth of ferns, tree ferns, and club-mosses. The buried material from these forests eventually became much of the world's current coal resources.
400 Ma	First lungs.
430 Ma	First jawed fish.
438 Ma	First plants move onto land, followed within 10 million years by animals (aquatic scorpions and other arthropods).
480 Ma	Large continent known as Gondwanaland forms from the collision of Australia, India, Africa, South America, and Antarctica. Pacific Plate subducts under North America's western margin. The western margin grows through accretion of oceanic rocks and islands (terranes).
520 Ma	First vertebrates (cartilaginous fish with tails and fins).
570 Ma	First organisms with hard parts. Beginning of the Age of Trilobites. Also existing early on were brachiopods and ammonites.
670 Ma	First multicelled animals evolve: Ediacaran fauna, soft-bodied marine animals that get their food primarily from small algae.
700 Ma	Rodinia breaks up into pieces.
1 Ga	Sexual reproduction begins leading to an increase in the rate of evolution. Red Beds stop forming in large amounts and free oxygen begins to accumulate in the atmosphere. The atmosphere begins to evolve to one closer to today's: 80% Nitrogen, 20% Oxygen. Eventually enough oxygen accumulates in the atmosphere that UV radiation interacted with it in the upper atmosphere to produce ozone , a gas that then acts as a UV shield, protecting life on Earth's surface.
1.2 Ga	Rodinia , the oldest known supercontinent, forms through collision of Earth's plates. Plate Tectonics has likely been active for billions of years.
2.3 Ga	Great Oxygenation Event: Red Beds form on land. These beds are land-based rust piles that take the place of the oceanic banded iron formations as free oxygen now leaves the oceans and enters the atmosphere. The Red Beds absorb most of the available oxygen.
2.5 Ga	Oxygenic photosynthesis. $6\text{H}_2\text{O} + 6\text{CO}_2 + \text{sunlight} = \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$ (sugar) $+6\text{O}_2$. Ocean and atmospheric chemistry begins to change as O_2 is added and CO_2 removed. Largest deposit of Banded Iron Formations (BIFs) . Earth's oceans would have had a lot of dissolved iron, due to the accumulation of hundreds of millions of years of rock weathering and underwater volcanic eruptions. Oxygenic photosynthesis produced sufficient oxygen gas to readily and quickly combine with the iron to form large deposits of rust.
2.7 Ga	Eukaryotes evolve: organisms with a nucleus.

3.7 Ga	Earliest evidence of stromatolites: layered rock mounds formed in shallow oceans as mats of cyanobacteria dome upward to capture energy from sunlight to produce sugar through anoxygenic photosynthesis. Live in mucous layers to avoid UV-radiation damage to the sun.
3.85 Ga	Earliest evidence of microbial activity (carbon isotope ratios). This early life likely lived in the oceans where they were hidden from the sun's ultraviolet rays (no ozone layer yet, because no oxygen in the atmosphere). These early bacteria were known as prokaryotes : single celled organisms with no nucleus, otherwise known as bacteria. These early life forms were likely chemosynthetic , making food from energy derived from gases emitted at hydrothermal vents on the bottom of the seafloor.
4.4 Ga	Earth's surface cools enough for a solid crust to form. Earth's atmosphere (accumulated gases from volcanic outgassing and comets) contains (in decreasing order) carbon dioxide, nitrogen, water vapor, methane, ammonia, carbon monoxide, sulfur dioxide, hydrogen sulfide, and hydrogen cyanide. Because of the solid cooler surface conditions, much of the atmospheric water now rains down and fills in basins to form the first oceans.
4.5 Ga	A Mars-sized object crashes into Earth creating debris that ends up in orbit around the Earth, eventually coalescing through accretion to form the Moon .
4.6 Ga	As the solar disk cools down, orbiting material collides and clumps to form larger objects (accretion). Continued accretion led to larger bodies with higher gravity that swept up more material within their orbits and ultimately became planets . Not all the material got swept up in this process. A large belt of leftover rocky debris – asteroids – exists between Mars and Jupiter. A belt of leftover icy debris – comets – orbits in the outer solar system. At this point, the interior of the Earth is mostly molten from the heat of accretion. Density stratification occurs: dense material, like iron, sinks to form the core while less dense material rises to form the crust ; the remainder becomes the mantle layer. All planets are hot from the accretion process. Volcanic activity and continual meteorite collisions dominate the surface. Gases from volcanoes and comets form an early, hot, toxic, atmosphere.
5 Ga	Debris from past supernovas is perturbed, likely by nearby star activity, and starts to clump together to form a new star – a single hot, spinning mass of gas – our proto Sun. The gas giants (Jupiter, Saturn, Neptune, and Uranus) began forming soon after the Sun started coalescing, through similar processes. Large clumps of H and He separately coalesced and contracted, increasing in density and attracting material to become gas giant protoplanets. They are not stars because they never grew big enough and hot enough for fusion to occur in their cores. Eventually the material in the proto Sun completely condenses, fusion starts, and our Sun forms. As the Sun spins, the surrounding matter flattens into a rotating disk and begins to condense into solids, liquids, and gases – all very hot! It was too hot near the Sun for ices and many gases (like water, ammonia, and methane) to be stable, so condensates near the Sun consisted of iron oxides, aluminum oxides, and silicates – high-density minerals stable at high temperatures. In the cooler outer solar system, all materials were stable and condensed alongside each other. Hence, the inner rocky planets formed from the accretion of rocky material, whereas the moons, comets, and gas giants of the outer solar system formed (or completed their formation) from the accretion of all materials.
12.7-5 Ga	Throughout most of the life of a star, deep in their cores, H nuclei are fused to produce He and energy. Stars “shine” because they are radiating the energy produced from this nuclear fusion. High-mass stars burn the hydrogen fuel in their core rapidly and are short lived—the largest lasting only 10 million years. Low-mass stars burn their fuel slowly—the smallest lasting hundreds of billions of years. (Note: our Sun is medium sized and will last 10 billion years.) Once the H is nearly used up, He atoms begin to fuse, and the core temperature of the star rises dramatically. As temperatures rise higher, elements of successively higher mass—like carbon, nitrogen, and oxygen—are produced through fusion. Stars that are ten times more massive than the Sun can create elements as heavy as iron. Eventually the energy produced can't be shed fast enough; a high-mass star explodes in a supernova event, ejecting much, if not all of its matter, and producing a supernova remnant . Elements up to uranium can form in the supernova's blast waves. New stars eventually form from supernova remnants. Through repeated generations of star birth and death by supernova, these remnants can be enriched enough in heavy elements to form planets. <i>(Based on the abundance of heavy elements in our solar system, our Sun is likely a third- or fourth-generation star.)</i>

12.7 Ga	The universe is no longer smooth and uniform. High-density regions of H and He gas generate gravitational fields – the more mass, the more gravity. The more gravity, the more mass from surrounding areas is pulled in. Eventually localized regions condense under their own weight. Gravitational energy is converted into heat – temperature rises. Once the size of this dense spinning sphere of gas is great enough, and its core temperature rises above 10^6 K, nuclear fusion begins – primarily the fusion of H to produce He and energy. As this newly created energy radiates outward, a shining star is born. When billions of stars orbit a shared center of gravity, we call them a galaxy . There are hundreds of billions of galaxies in the observable Universe.
13.7 Ga	Big Bang: the universe is born in an instant in time and expands outwards from one infinitesimally small point. Original material = very high energy (hot) subatomic particles. Universe inflates and cools until protons, neutrons, and electrons form, and matter is governed by the laws of physics as we know them. 380 m.y. later, the universe is 75% Hydrogen (H) and 25% Helium (He) gas.

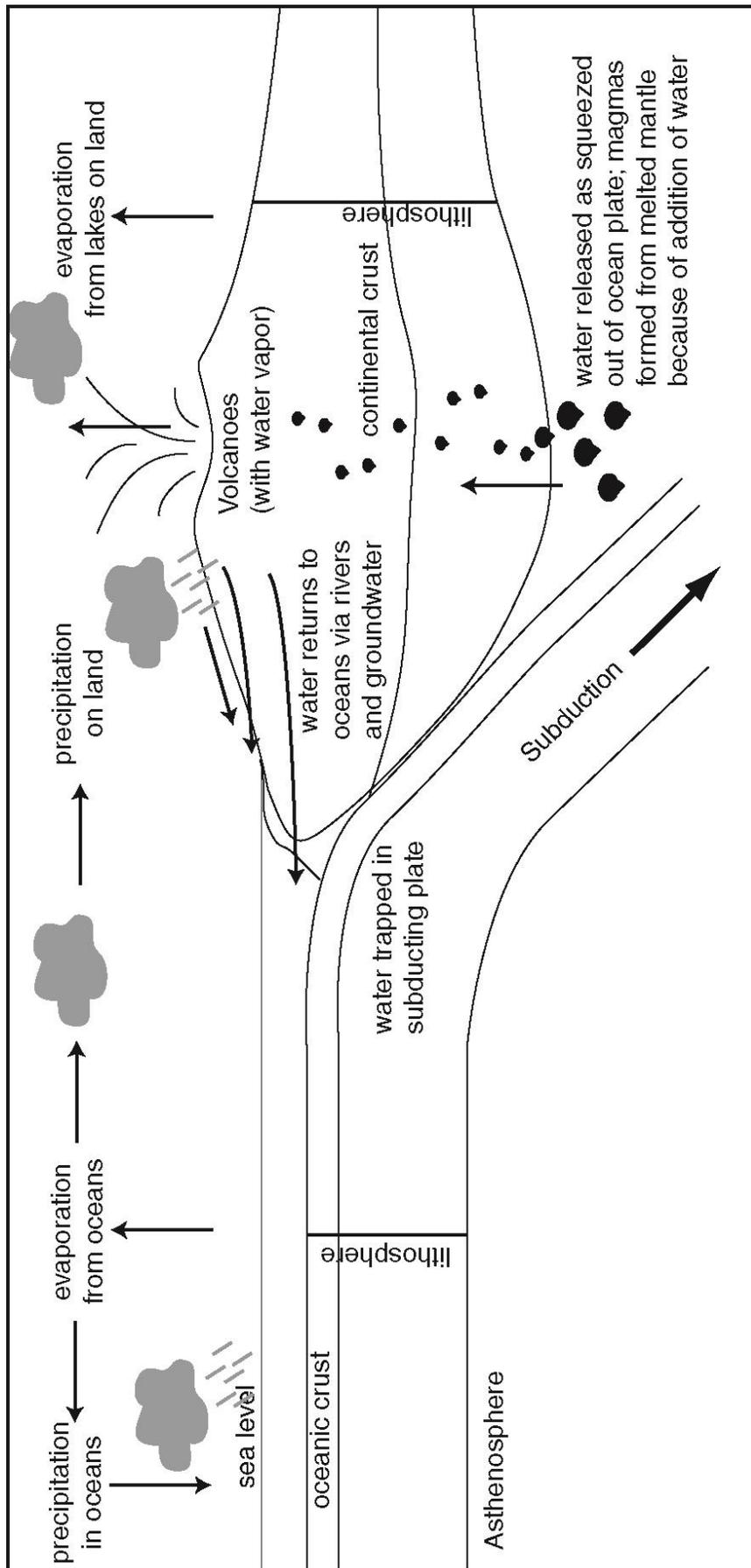
*Age is when division begins: Ka = thousands of years old; Ma = millions of years old; Ga = billions of years old.

You can find this timeline laid out in a walk along the four floors of the CCSF, Ocean Campus Science Building. It is supported by panels, posters, fossils, murals, and models. You can also find the entire exhibit transcribed and photographed online at <http://www.ccsf.edu/TimeLife>.

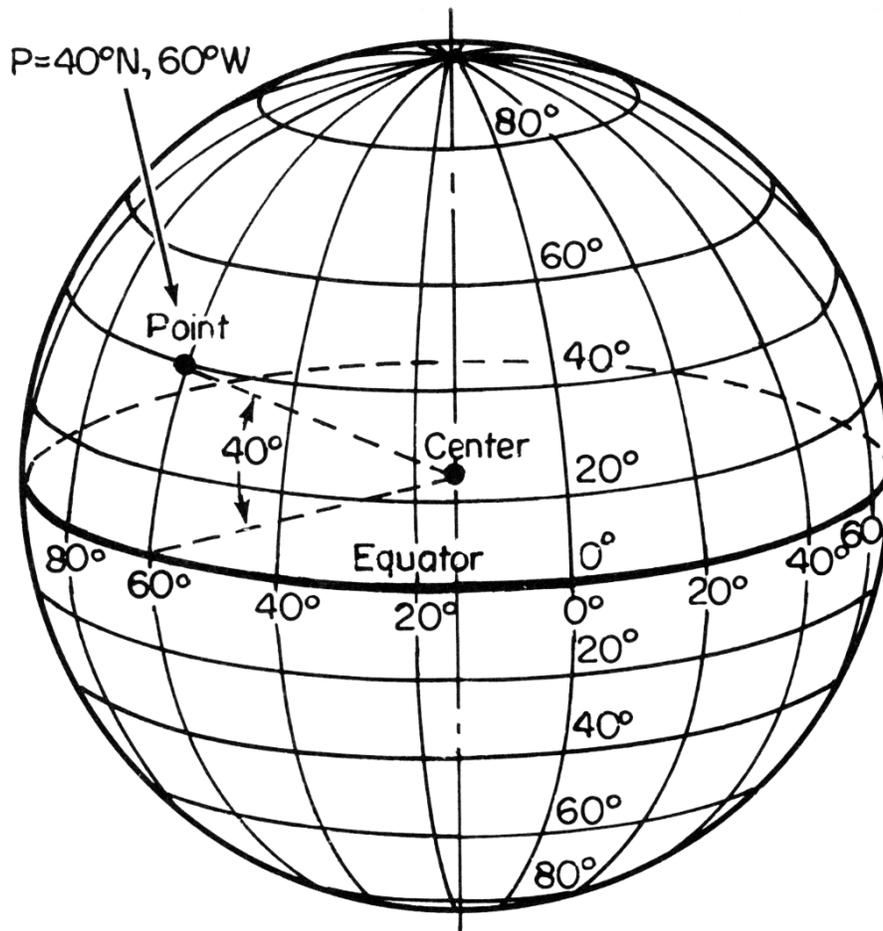


Scaled timeline of the history of the Universe from 13.7 Ga to today.

** Ma = millions of years old; Ga = billions of years old.*



Cross section through the top layers of Earth, including the atmosphere, showing movement of water through various reservoirs as part of Earth's Hydrologic Cycle.



Transparent globe cut by latitude and longitude. Image from National Oceanographic Partnerships Program – NOPP Drifters – (after Charton, 1988)

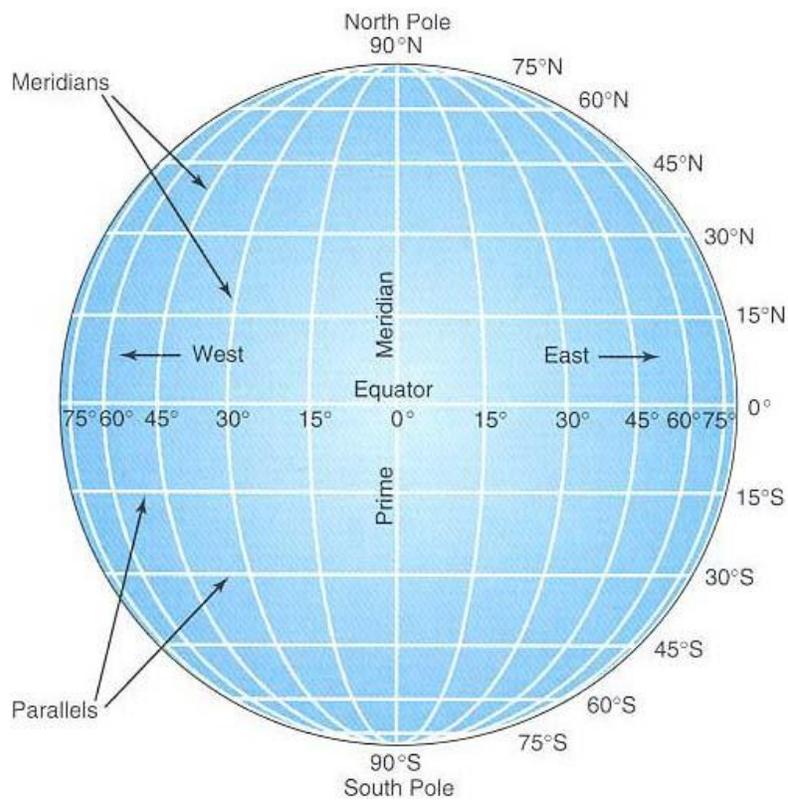


Image Source Unknown

Water Planet Chapter Worksheet

1. The term used to describe the formation of the Universe from a single point is:	2. Age of Universe?
3. How do we know the age of the Universe?	
4. Earth's formation: CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY: <u>Processes/Characteristics:</u> Accretion Collisions Gravity pulled Hot <u>Materials:</u> Gas Comets Asteroids	5. Age of Earth?
6. How do we know when Earth formed?	
7. Define density . Explain how objects of different density behave with each other when free to move in a liquid or gas.	
8. What behavior do all liquid or plastic solids near a heat source exhibit?	9. What drives the behavior?
10. What major process formed Earth's layers? (Describe) When?	
11. Which ONE layer within the Earth is liquid ?	12. What does this liquid layer produce or lead to globally?
13. Which ONE layer within the Earth is plastic ?	14. What does this plastic layer produce or lead to globally?
15. Sources of water to the early atmosphere of Earth: CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY: original nebula comets asteroids volcanoes)	
16. When did these sources of water and other gases start collecting in the atmosphere (first atmosphere)?	
17. When did first oceans form? (time when planet cooled enough and water in atmosphere finally precipitated):	18. When did life evolve on Earth?
19. Which type of organism can turn energy into sugar? CIRCLE: AUTOTROPH HETEROTROPH BOTH	
20. Which type of organism can perform photosynthesis ? CIRCLE: AUTOTROPH HETEROTROPH BOTH	
21. Which type of organism performs respiration ? CIRCLE: AUTOTROPH HETEROTROPH BOTH	
22. What types of organisms first evolved that were able to perform photosynthesis?	
23. What's the evidence for the evolution of oxygenic photosynthesis?	
24. When did the first oxygenic photosynthesizers evolve?	25. When did early life first leave the oceans and move onto land?

26. Review table of planetary atmospheres in preceding figure pages. Compare Earth's early and current atmospheric compositions. What major changes occurred? What's different? (<i>What appeared? What disappeared?</i>)		Why? For every appearance, explain why. For every disappearance, explain why.

27. What % of the Earth's surface is covered by oceans?

28. In the image to the right, label each ocean: Arctic | Atlantic | Indian | Pacific

29. Which is the **biggest** ocean?
CIRCLE: Arctic | Atlantic | Indian | Pacific

30. Which is the **smallest** ocean?
CIRCLE: Arctic | Atlantic | Indian | Pacific



World Physical Map (CIA/Public Domain)

31. Which is greater in magnitude? (CIRCLE) VALUES IN METERS: NAME:	Deepest spot on planet	Tallest spot on planet
32. Which is greater in magnitude? (CIRCLE) VALUES IN METERS:	Average elevation of continental crust	Average depth of ocean crust

33. Which is the **shallowest** ocean? CIRCLE: Arctic | Atlantic | Indian | Pacific

34. Which is the **deepest** ocean? CIRCLE: Arctic | Atlantic | Indian | Pacific

35. What % of Earth's water is held in the oceans?

36. What is the term used to describe the process whereby liquid water from the oceans turns into vapor that is transported into the atmosphere?

37. What is the term used to describe the process whereby water vapor from the atmosphere turns back into liquid water that drops into the ocean?

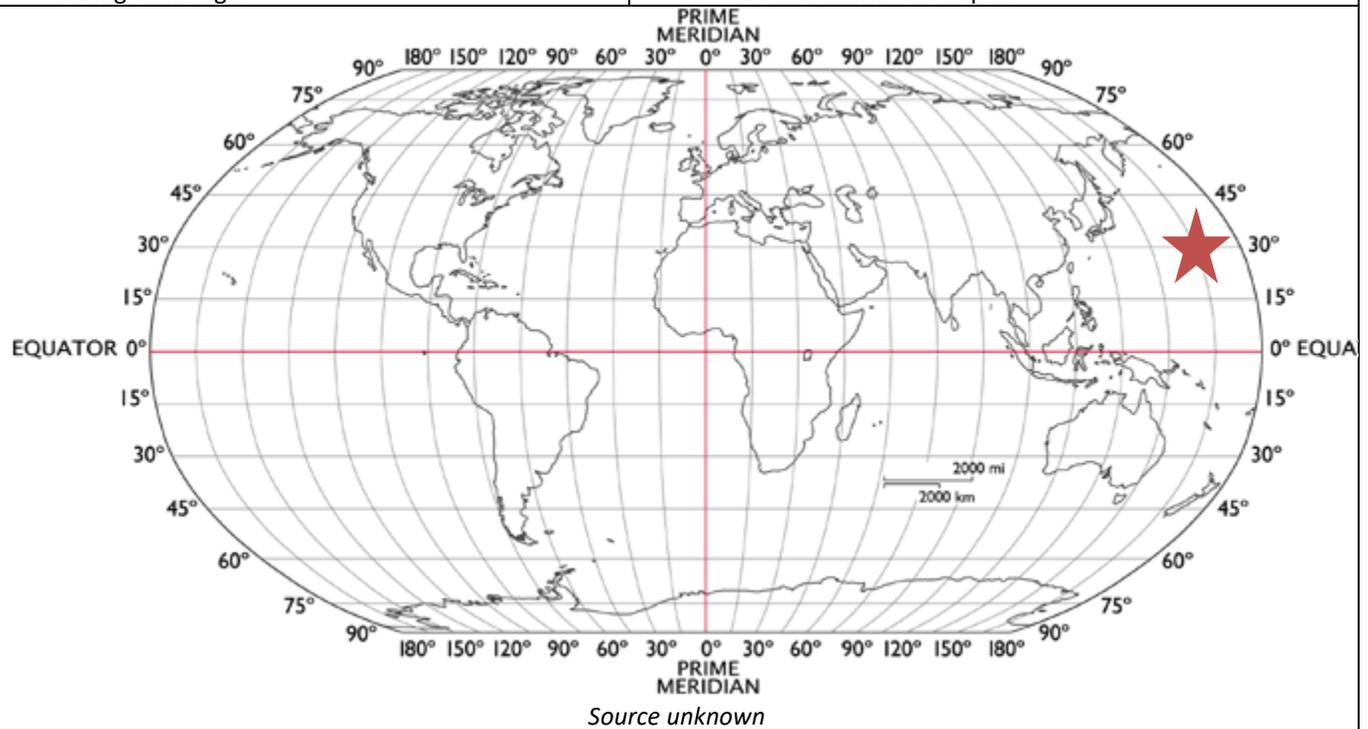
38. What major energy source drives the above transport?	39. What is the residence time of an Ocan 1 student in this class?
--	--

40. Where does water go when it leaves the oceans (SINKS)? CIRCLE: atmosphere | subduction zones | rivers | glaciers | sea ice | groundwater | ocean crust cracks | volcanoes

41. Where does the water in the oceans come from? (SOURCES) CIRCLE: atmosphere | subduction zones | rivers | glaciers | sea ice | groundwater | ocean crust cracks | volcanoes

42. How deep does sea level drop during an ice age?

43. What is the name of the feature that marks this depth?



44. What is the latitude and longitude of the southern tip of Greenland relative to the equator and prime meridian?

45. What is the latitude and longitude of southern tip of Africa relative to the equator and prime meridian?

46. What is the latitude and longitude of the STAR relative to the equator and prime meridian?

47. 45 W = Latitude | Longitude (Circle correct one)

48. 15 S = Latitude | Longitude (Circle correct one)

49. Place an X on the map at above coordinates (45W and 15S).

50. How does the **International Date Line** relate to the prime meridian?

51. What is a **nautical mile** and how does it relate to a statute mile? (A **knot**?)

52. What's wrong with these values?
100N and 300E

53. 1 degree of longitude at 60 North is the (circle: same | more | less) than 1 degree of longitude at the equator

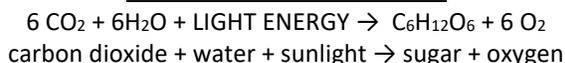
Photosynthesis, Chemosynthesis, Respiration, and Decomposition Activity

All living organisms on our planet can be classified as **autotrophs** (organisms that make their own food/stored energy) or **heterotrophs** (organisms that must eat/ingest other organisms to meet their food/energy needs). Autotrophs make food (sugar, which is stored energy) through two different processes. The primary method (most efficient and prevalent) is **photosynthesis**. All photosynthetic organisms contain a pigment called chlorophyll. This pigment absorbs sunlight (the color is green, so all colors of sunlight are absorbed except green, which is reflected and is what we see). The chlorophyll absorbs the sunlight so that it can be present as an energy source during photosynthesis. For **oxygenic photosynthesis**, water and carbon dioxide molecules are combined using energy from the sunlight. A sugar molecule is produced from this combination, along with a waste gas, oxygen, which is released to the environment. **Nonoxygenic photosynthesis** uses light energy to combine molecules available in the environment to produce a sugar molecule, depositing minerals such as iron oxides or sulfides as byproducts (no oxygen gas). **Chemosynthesis** happens when there is no sunlight. Instead of using solar energy, these unique autotrophs capture the energy of gases, such as methane and hydrogen sulfide. This energy is used to combine molecules available in the environment to produce a sugar molecule, with byproducts such as sulfuric acid (no oxygen gas).

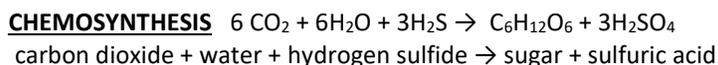
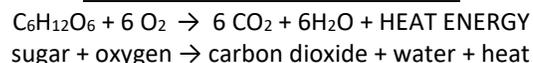
Heterotrophs can't make their own food. They ingest other organisms and take the sugars in those organisms and burn them for energy. (Note: autotrophs must also burn their sugars to produce energy when they need it for growth, reproduction, and motion.) The burning of sugar to release its stored energy is called **respiration**. All organisms perform respiration when they need energy. During respiration, sugar is burned in the presence of oxygen, and water, carbon dioxide, and heat energy are produced.

Dead organisms and organic matter (like fecal pellets and discarded exoskeletons) will, over time, decompose thanks to the efforts of bacteria and other organisms. This **decomposition** is effectively the same process as respiration in that the sugar in the organic material is ingested by the bacteria and broken down in the presence of oxygen to release its original components.

OXYGENIC PHOTOSYNTHESIS



RESPIRATION or DECOMPOSITION



Each of these processes uses up some ingredients and produces others. When an ingredient is used up or removed from the environment in order to make the process move forward, the process is called a **SINK** for the ingredient. Example: *chemosynthesis is a SINK for hydrogen sulfide*. When an ingredient is produced at the end of the process, the process is called a **SOURCE** for that ingredient. Example: *chemosynthesis is a SOURCE for sulfuric acid*.

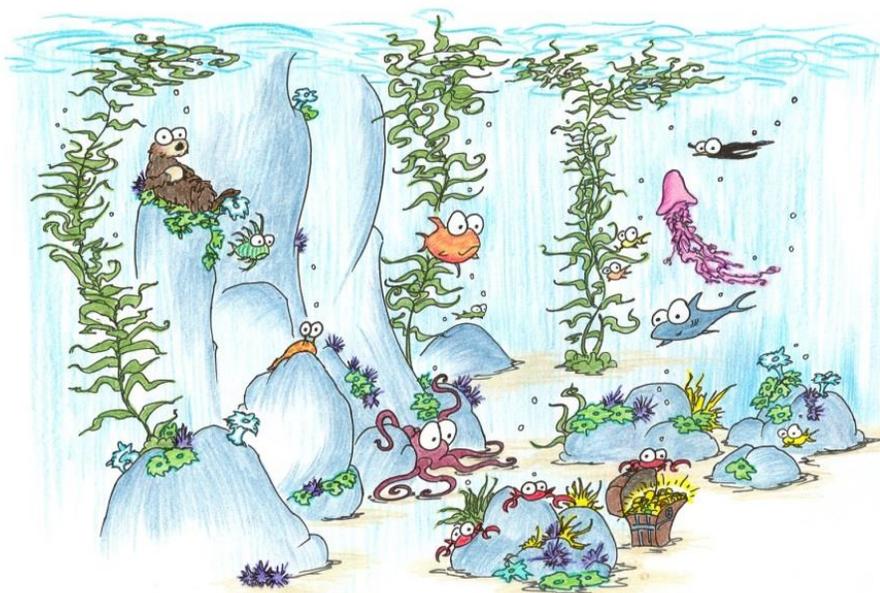
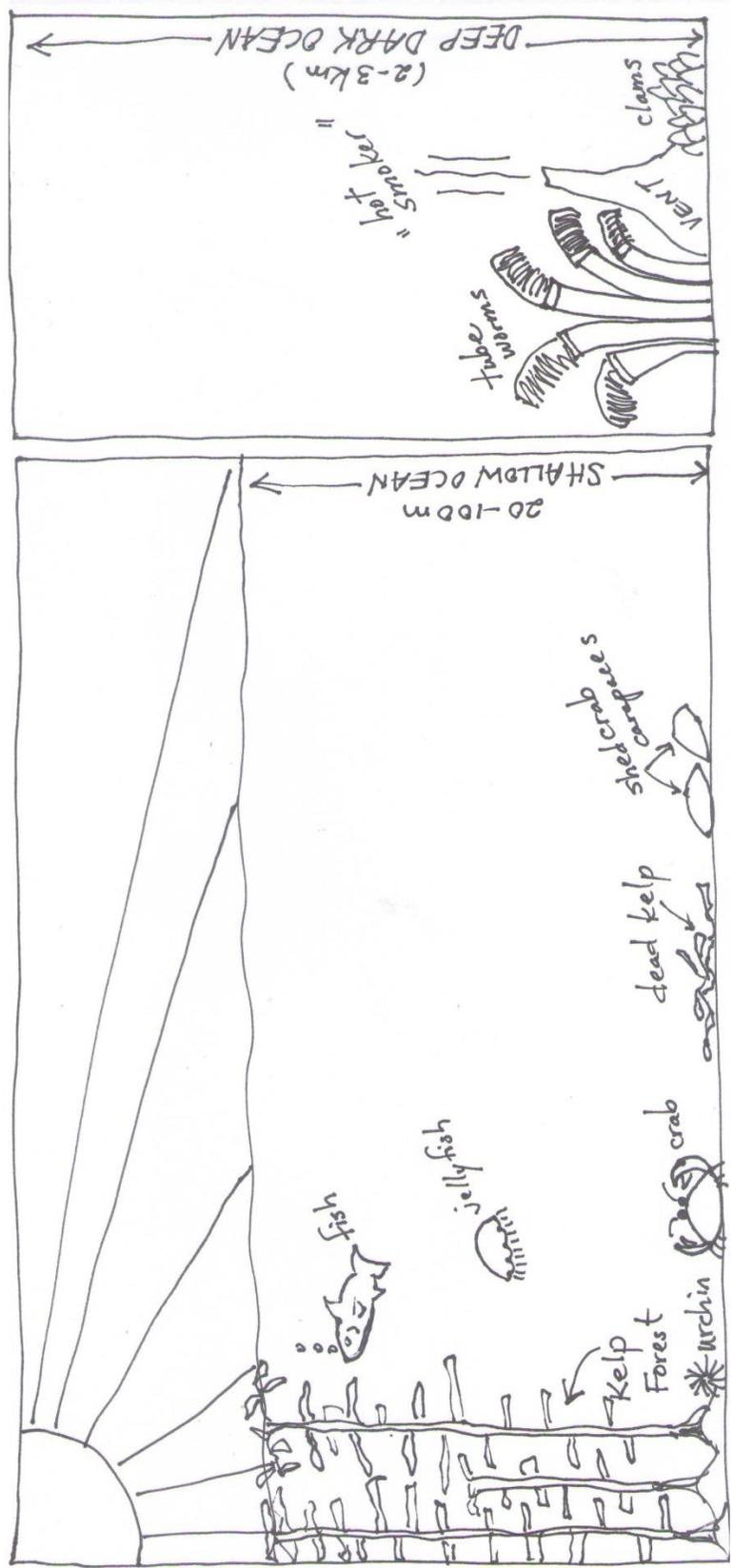


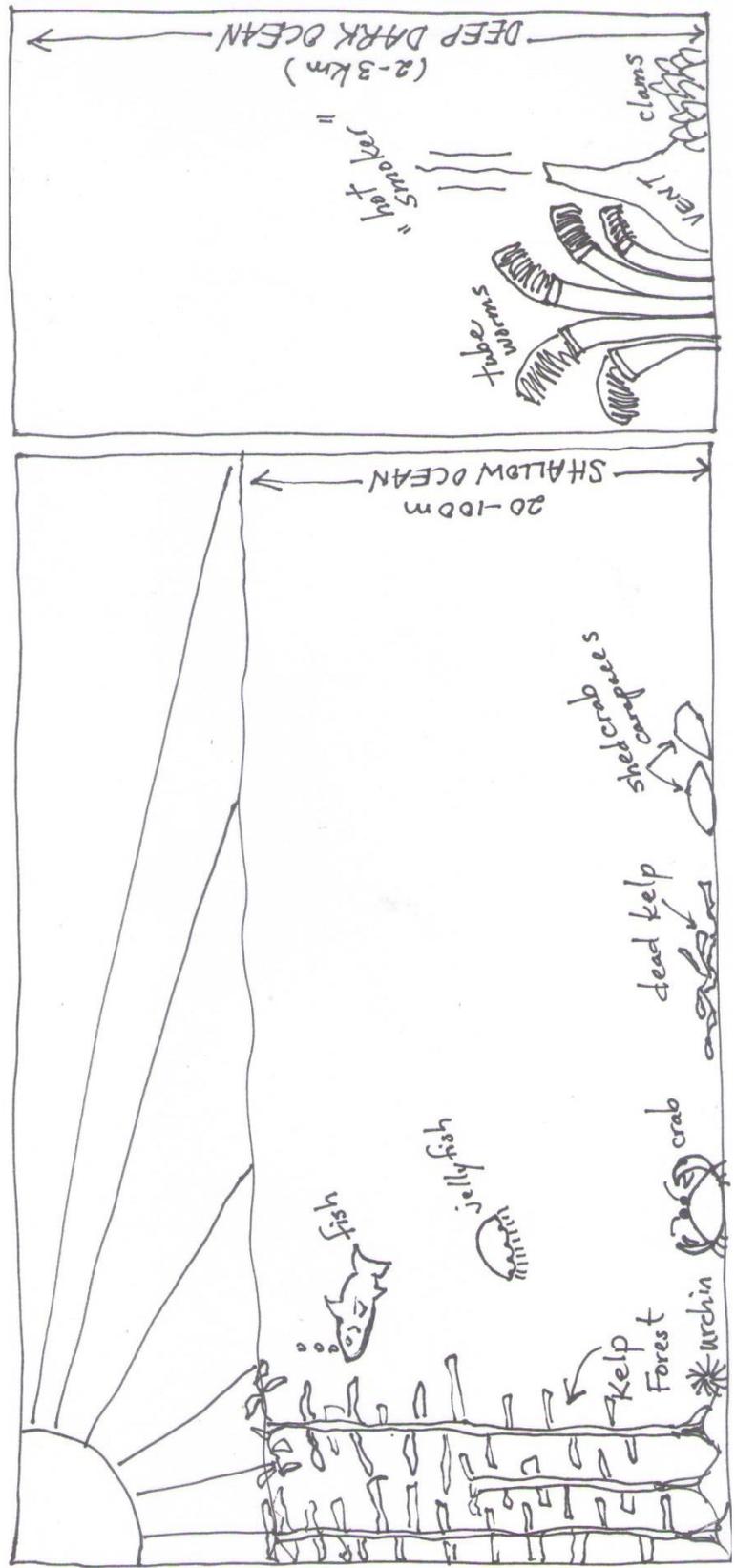
Image used with permission: © hayes roberts 2016

1. Which process is a SOURCE for oxygen in the environment? CIRCLE: Atmospheric Diffusion Chemosynthesis Decomposition Oxygenic Photosynthesis Respiration
2. Which process is a SOURCE for carbon dioxide in the environment? CIRCLE: Atmospheric Diffusion Chemosynthesis Decomposition Oxygenic Photosynthesis Respiration
3. Which process is a SINK for oxygen in the environment? CIRCLE: Atmospheric Diffusion Chemosynthesis Decomposition Oxygenic Photosynthesis Respiration
4. Which process is a SINK for carbon dioxide in the environment? CIRCLE: Atmospheric Diffusion Chemosynthesis Decomposition Oxygenic Photosynthesis Respiration
5. Which organisms perform photosynthesis ? Circle: autotrophs heterotrophs
6. Why?
7. Where does this process mostly occur in the oceans and why?
8. Which organisms perform chemosynthesis ? Circle: autotrophs heterotrophs
9. Why?
10. Where does this process mostly occur in the oceans and why?
11. Which organisms perform respiration ? Circle: autotrophs heterotrophs
12. Why?
13. Where does this process mostly occur in the oceans and why?
14. Where does decomposition mostly occur in the oceans? How and why?
15. Which process is used by organisms to convert environmentally available chemical energy (from energy gasses like CH ₄ or H ₂ S) to combine water and gases and produce sugar for storage? CIRCLE: Chemosynthesis Decomposition Photosynthesis Respiration
16. Which process sucks up energy (takes energy away from an environment)? CIRCLE: Chemosynthesis Decomposition Photosynthesis Respiration
17. Which process releases energy into the organisms or environment? CIRCLE: Chemosynthesis Decomposition Photosynthesis Respiration

18. Turn the following image into a concept sketch/map that shows where all four processes (chemosynthesis, decomposition, photosynthesis, and respiration) are found in the oceans and how they relate. Use arrows to show the direction of flow of carbon dioxide (arrows point out of **sources** and into **sinks**).

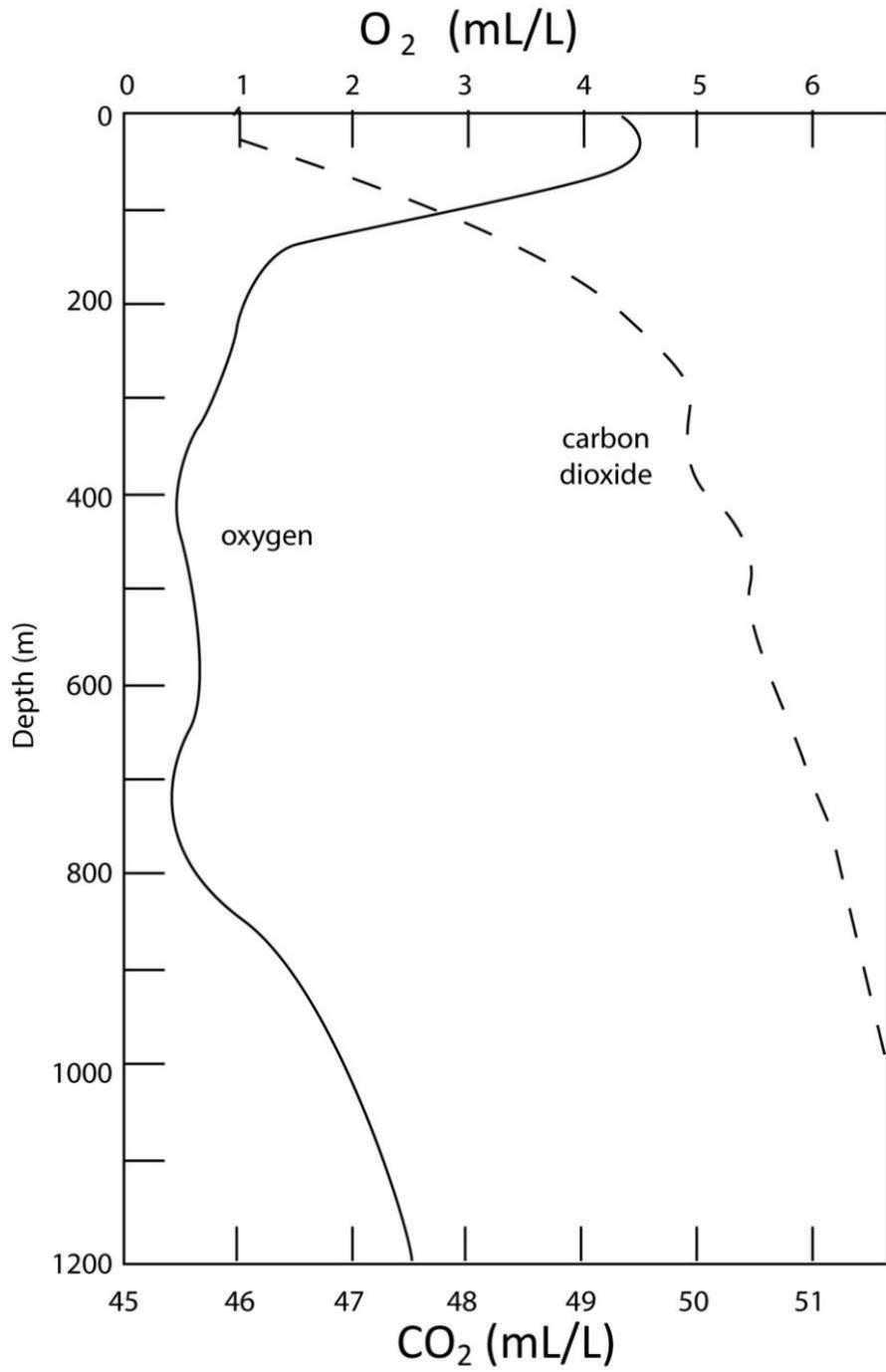


19. Turn the following image into a concept sketch/map that shows all four processes (chemosynthesis, decomposition, photosynthesis, and respiration) and how they contribute to the oxygen cycle. Use arrows to show the direction of flow of oxygen (arrows point out of **sources** and into **sinks**).



20. Now look at the Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide depth profiles shown to the right. Referencing the sources and sinks listed below, provide an explanation for what you see. Use text and arrows and circles, whatever you need!

- Atmospheric Diffusion
- Decomposition
- Oxygenic Photosynthesis
- Respiration



General variations of the concentrations of carbon dioxide and oxygen with depth in the world's oceans.

Weekly Reflection

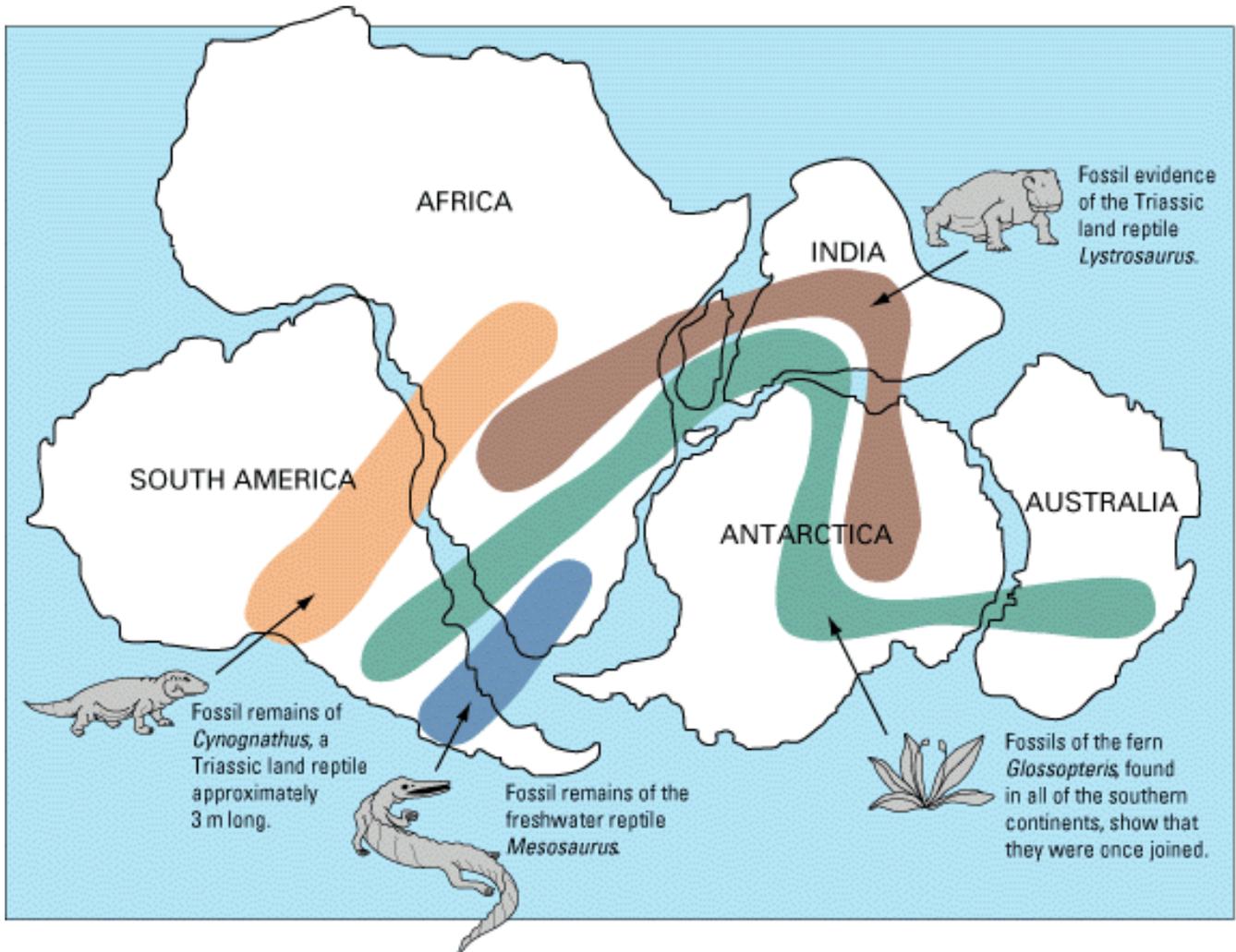
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week's objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Describe how Earth's oceans formed and evaluating the evidence that supports it.	A B C D F	
Evaluate the role the oceans have played in the evolution of Earth's atmosphere and life.	A B C D F	
Identify basic ocean geography and landforms and interpreting their formation.	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast the various elements of the Hydrologic Cycle .	A B C D F	
Use latitude and longitude to identify location on Earth's surface.	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast scales for time .	A B C D F	

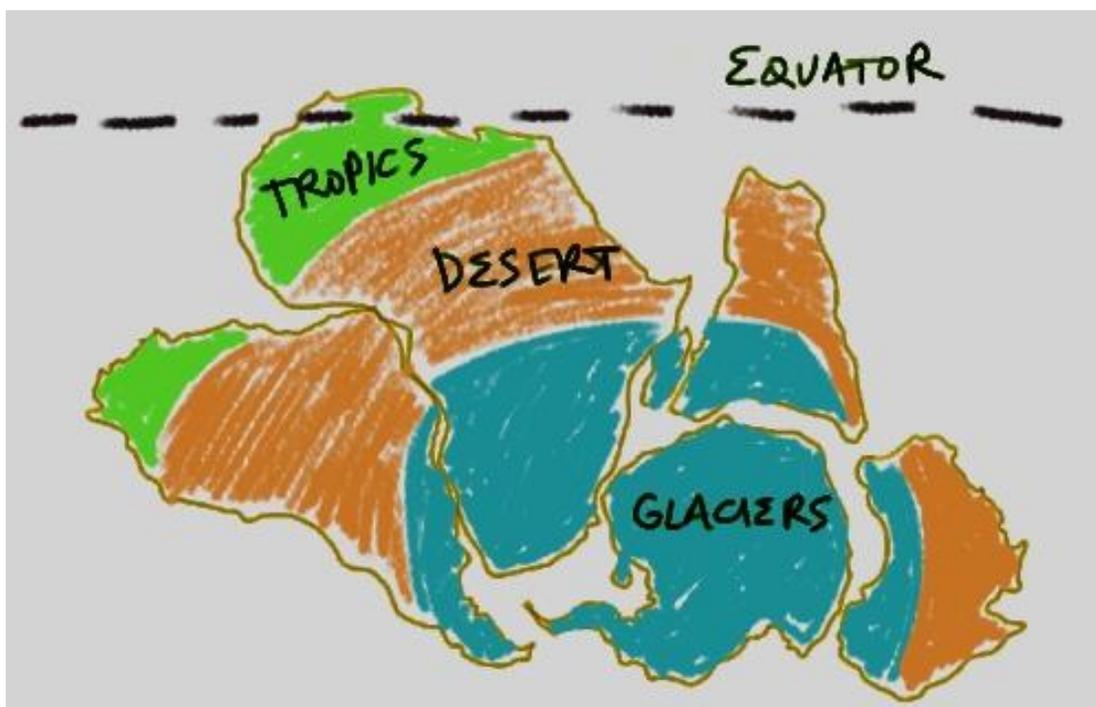
AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you've always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

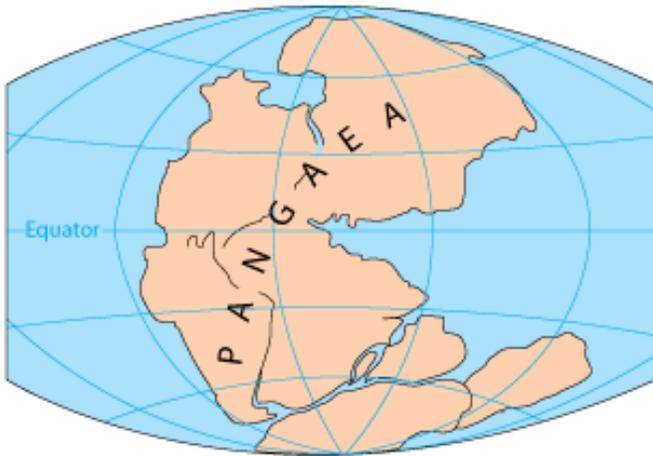
PLATE TECTONICS



Fossil evidence for continental drift since the time of during the time of Pangaea, about 250 Ma. USGS.



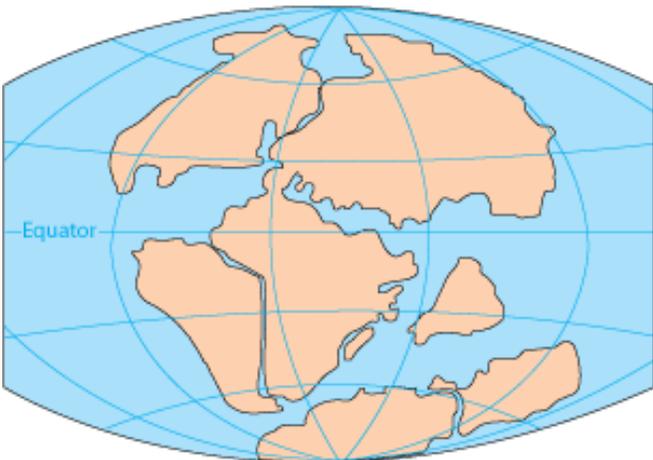
Fossil and rock evidence of single polar ice cap during the time of Pangaea, about 250 Ma.
Eliza Richardson Creative Commons BY-SA-NC-3.0.



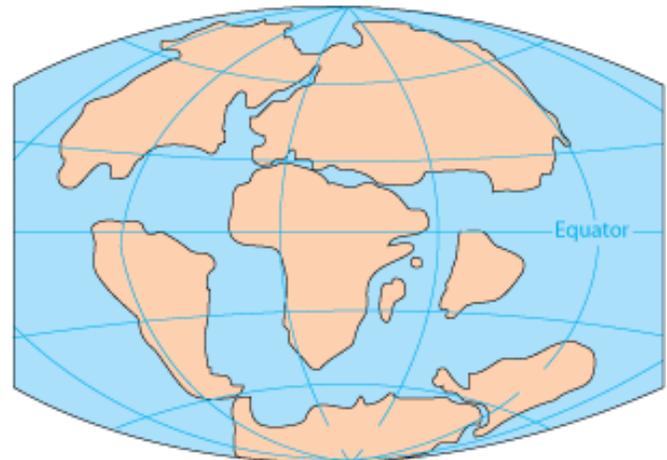
PERMIAN
250 million years ago



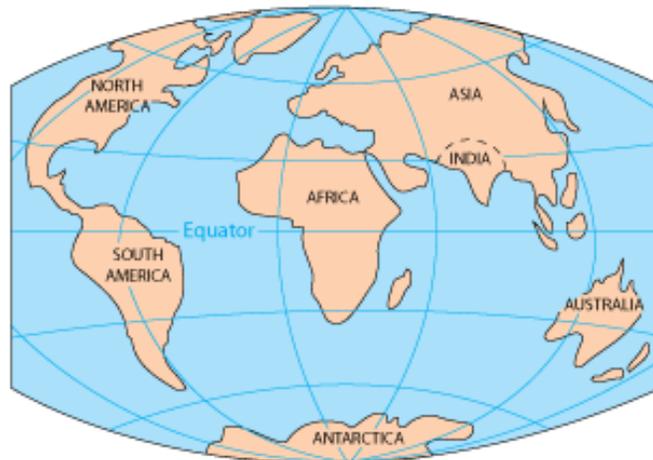
TRIASSIC
200 million years ago



JURASSIC
145 million years ago

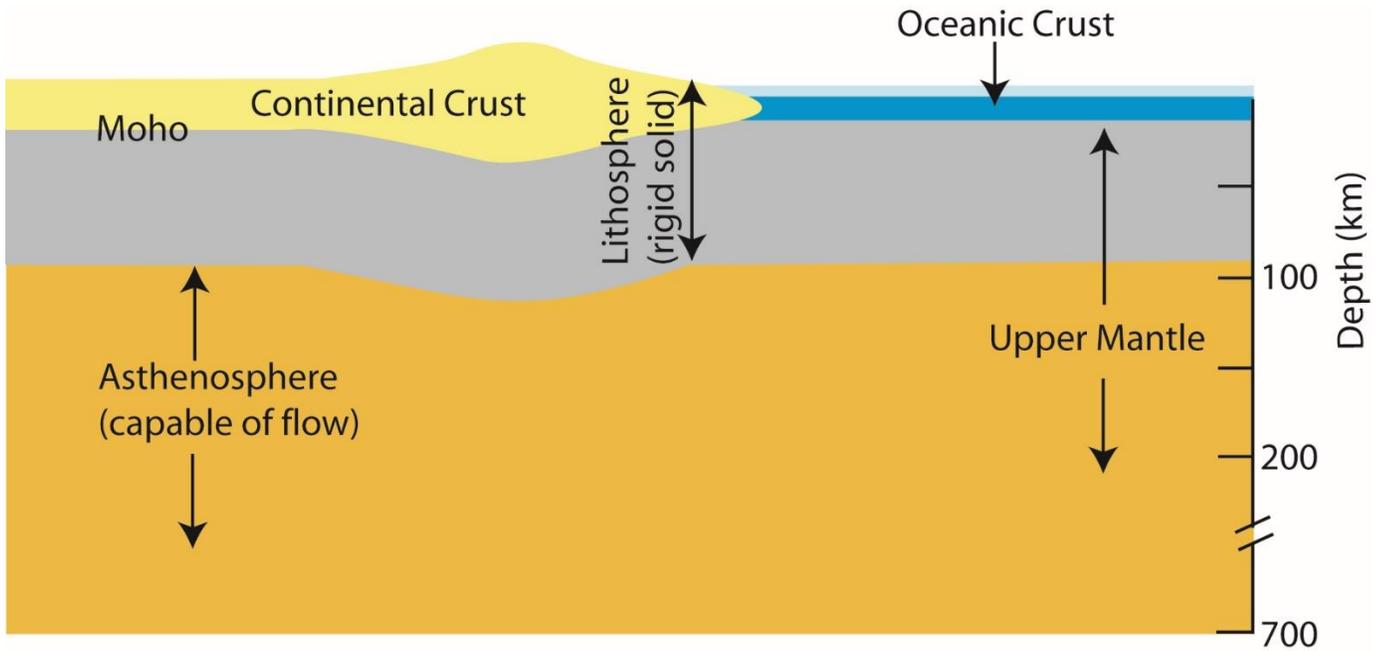


CRETACEOUS
65 million years ago

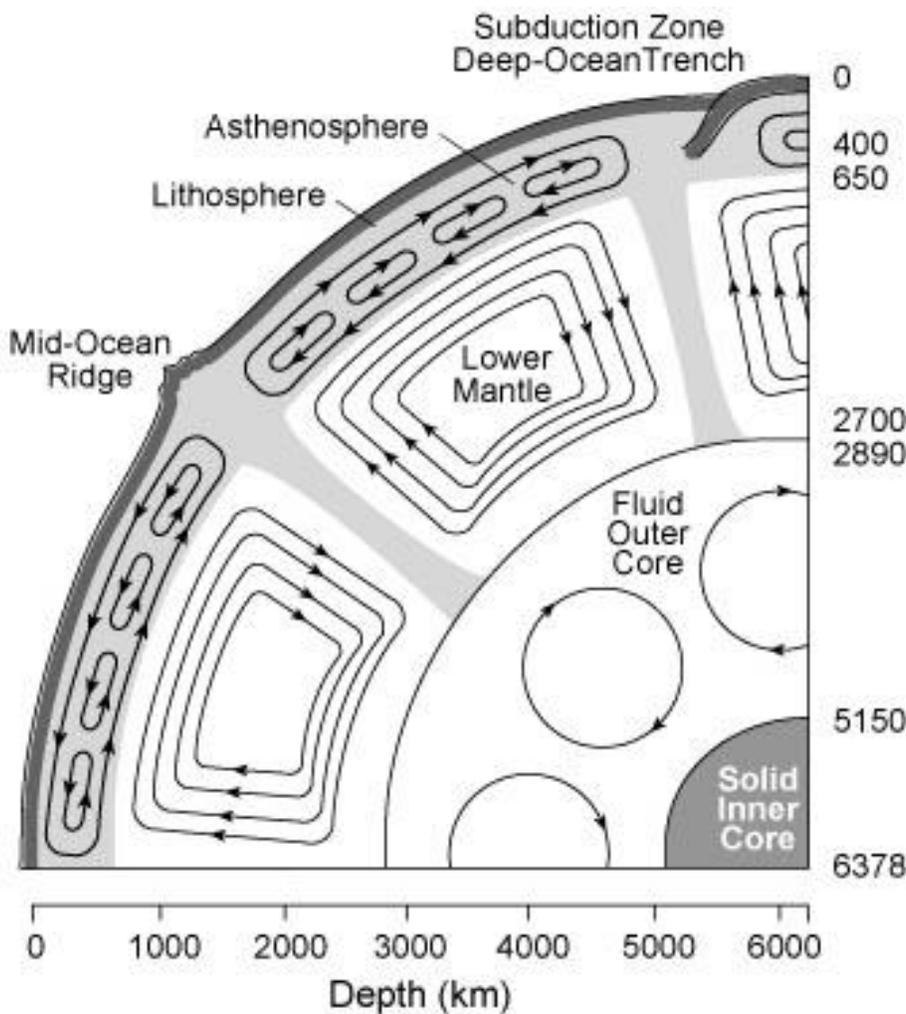


PRESENT DAY

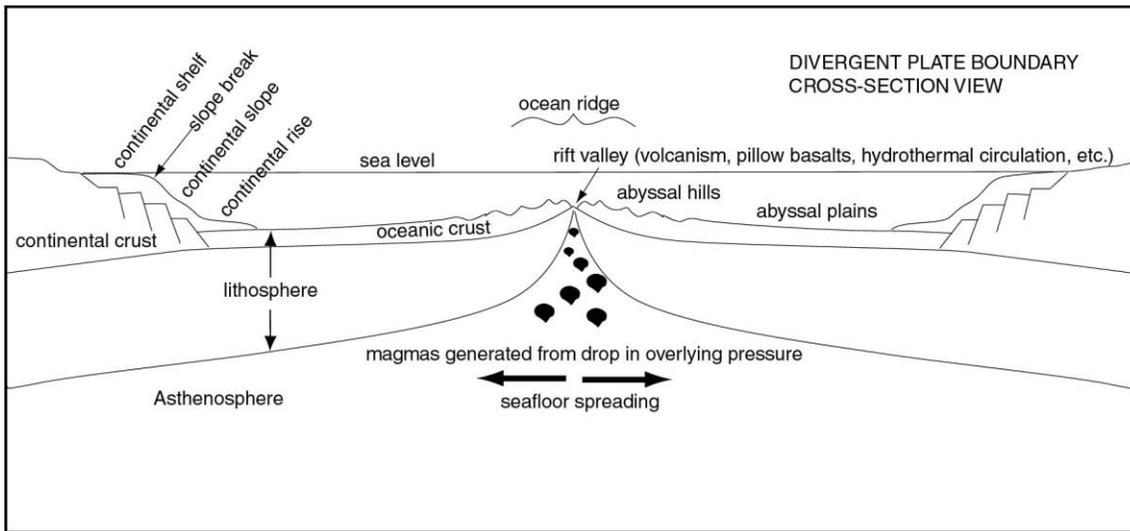
Pangaea breakup. USGS.



Close-up view of the Earth layers involved in plate tectonics. The lithosphere contains ALL the crust plus the uppermost portion of the mantle; it is solid and breaks into pieces called plates, which then move around atop the underlying plastic mantle layer known as the asthenosphere. Convection of the hot plastic asthenosphere directs the motion of the plates above. The MOHO is the boundary between the crust and the mantle underneath. NOTE: The grey layer above has no name.



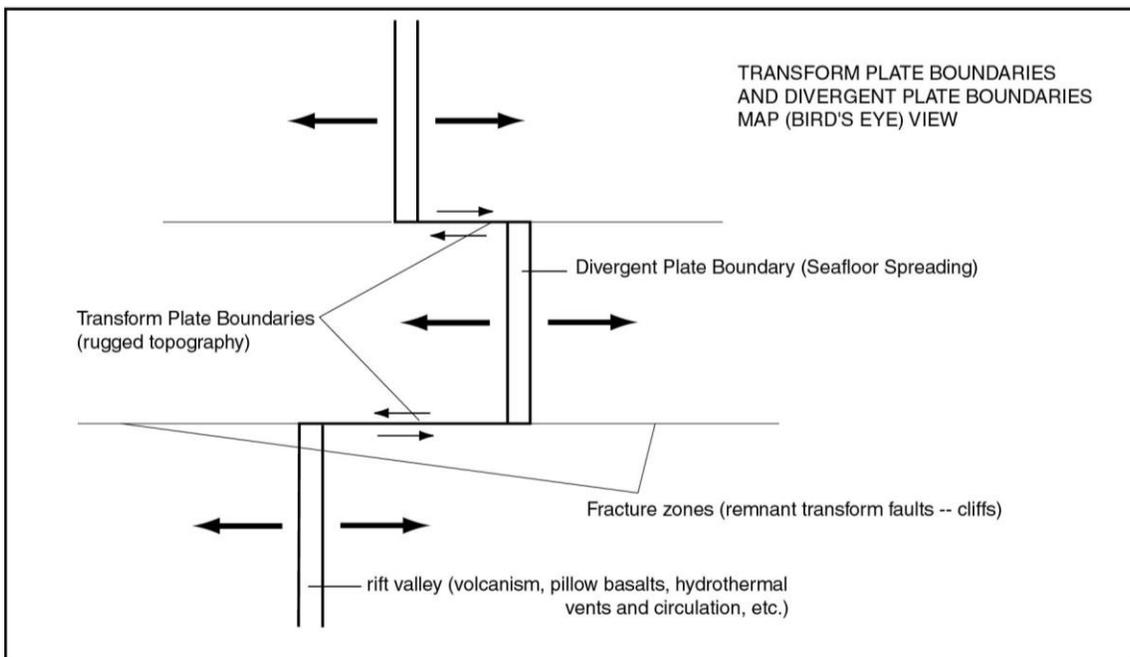
Convection of Earth's mantle, in asthenosphere and lower mantle. Also note the convection of the outer iron core. Note: the convection shown in the lower mantle is different from the rest because the material there is considered solid. The arrows represent the fact that lithospheric plates in subduction zones can descend all the way to the core-mantle boundary and that hotspot plumes can rise up from the core to the crust. Image from Kenneth R. Lang's book *The Cambridge Guide to the Solar System, Second Edition 2011*.



DIVERGENT MOTION: Apart

FEATURES: Oceanic ridges. Seafloor spreading. Melted mantle rock due to reduced overlying pressure. Rift valleys with volcanism, pillow basalts, hydrothermal vents, and hydrothermal circulation. Serpentinites form at depth in mantle rocks that are undergoing hydrothermal alteration. Transform faults (associated with transform plate boundaries) break up divergent boundaries into small sections offset from one another.

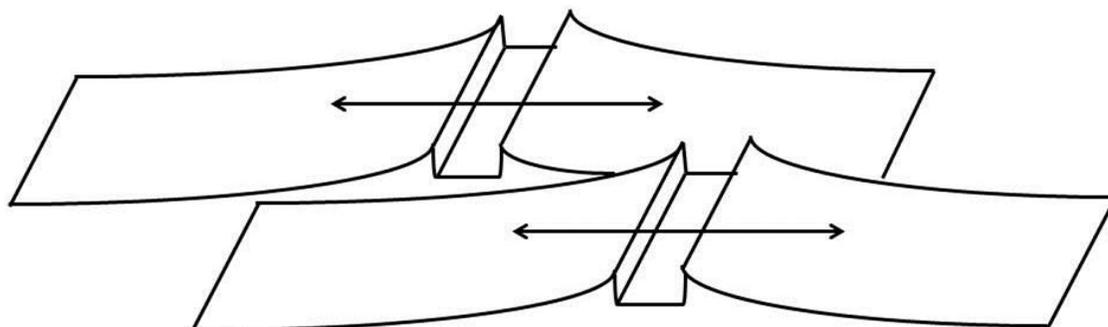
WORLD EXAMPLES: Mid-Atlantic Ridge, Iceland.



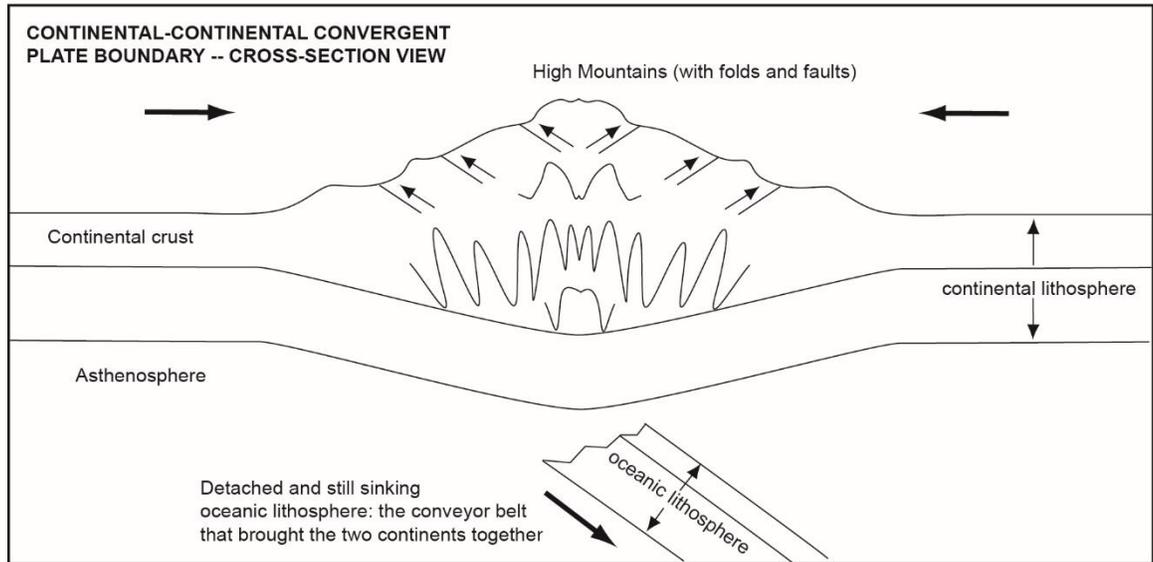
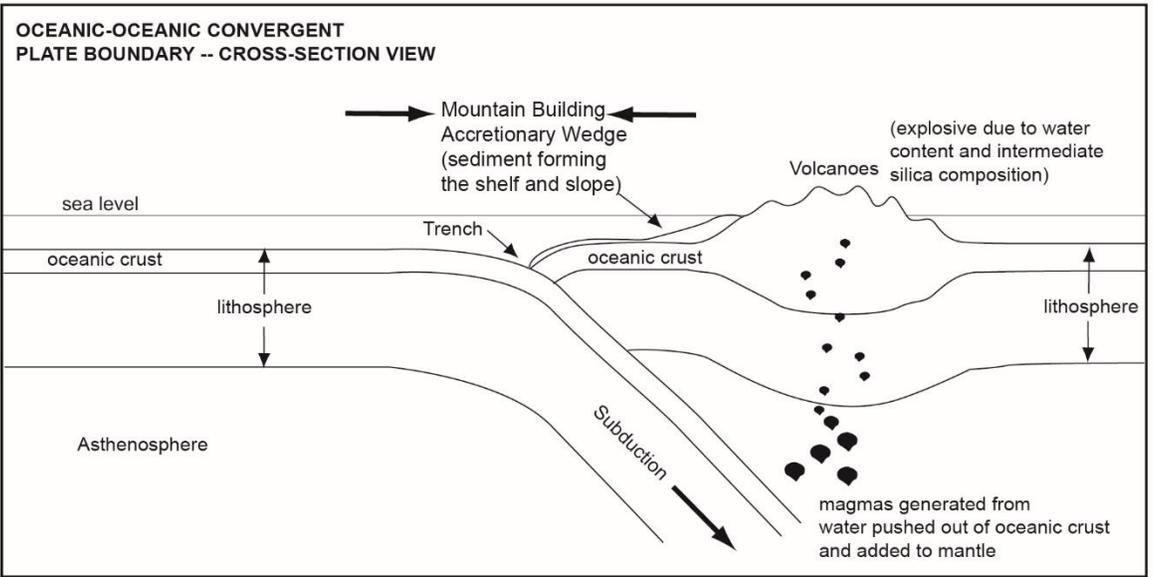
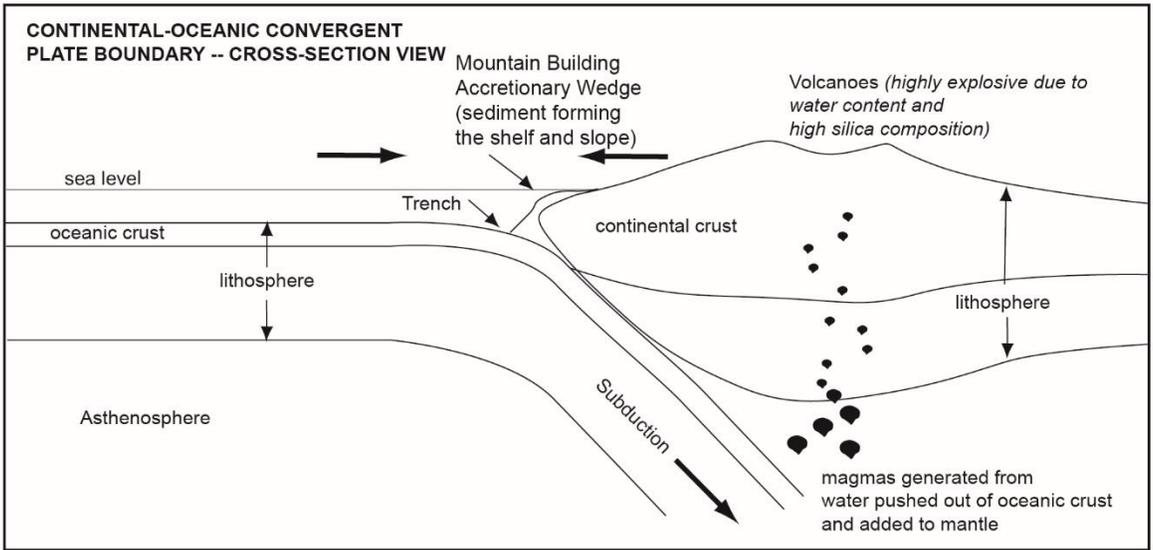
TRANSFORM MOTION: side by side

FEATURES: Fracture zones (old transform faults, no longer active, because lithosphere on both sides are part of the same plate). Rough topography (cliffs where ridges offset. Oceanic ridges and spreading centers on both sides).

WORLD EXAMPLES: California, Iceland



Oblique view of seafloor spreading centers and transform boundaries.



CONVERGENT

MOTION:

Towards each other

FEATURES:

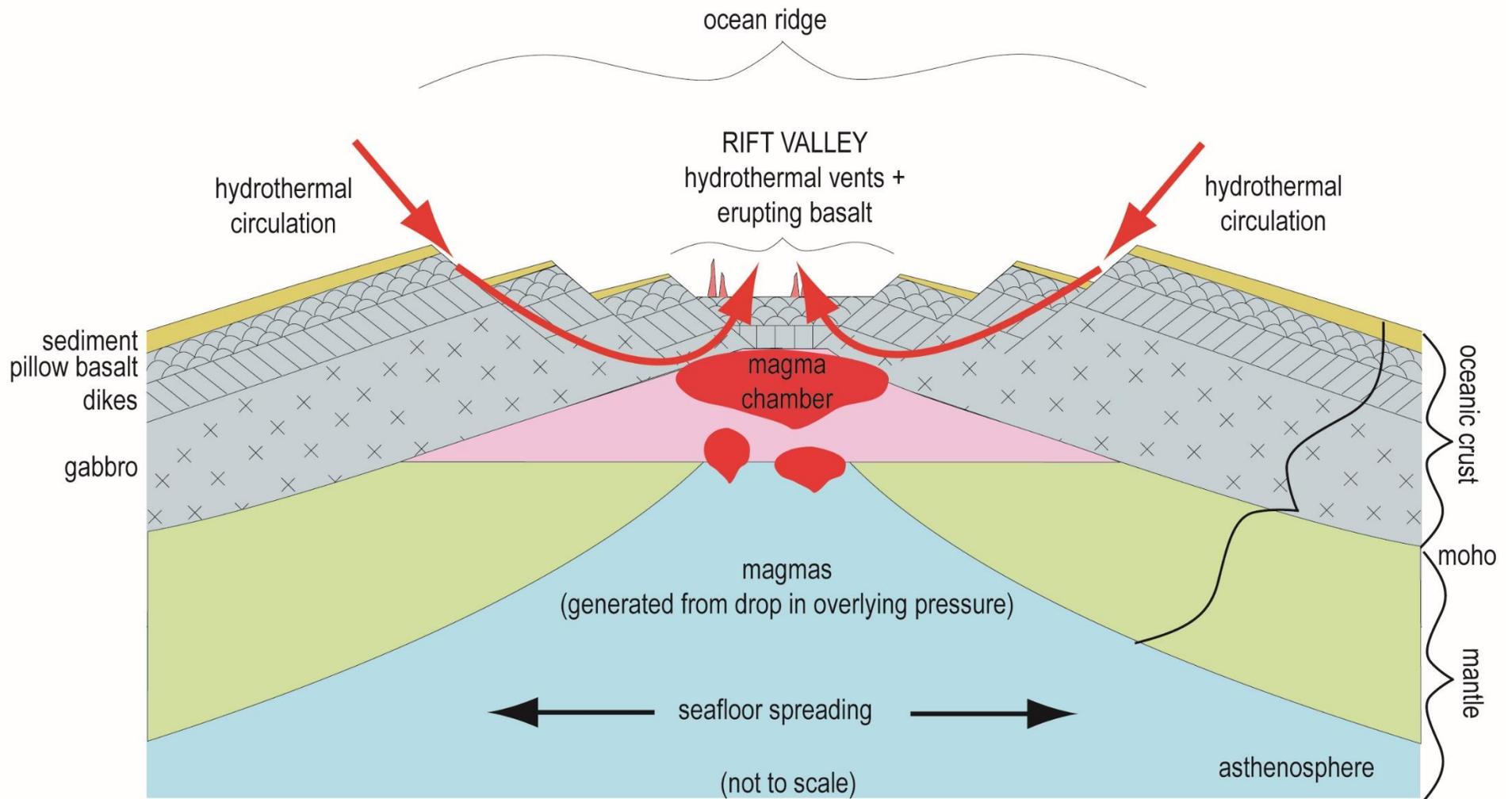
Continent-Ocean
Subduction zones (ocean crust sinks back into mantle). Melted mantle rock due to addition of water, which drops the melting point of the underlying mantle. Volcanoes above subduction zone. Trenches on ocean floor where ocean crust begins subducting. Accretionary wedge mountains (made up of terranes: sediments, islands, crustal blocks)
WORLD EXAMPLES:
W. coast S. America
Pacific Northwest

Ocean-Ocean

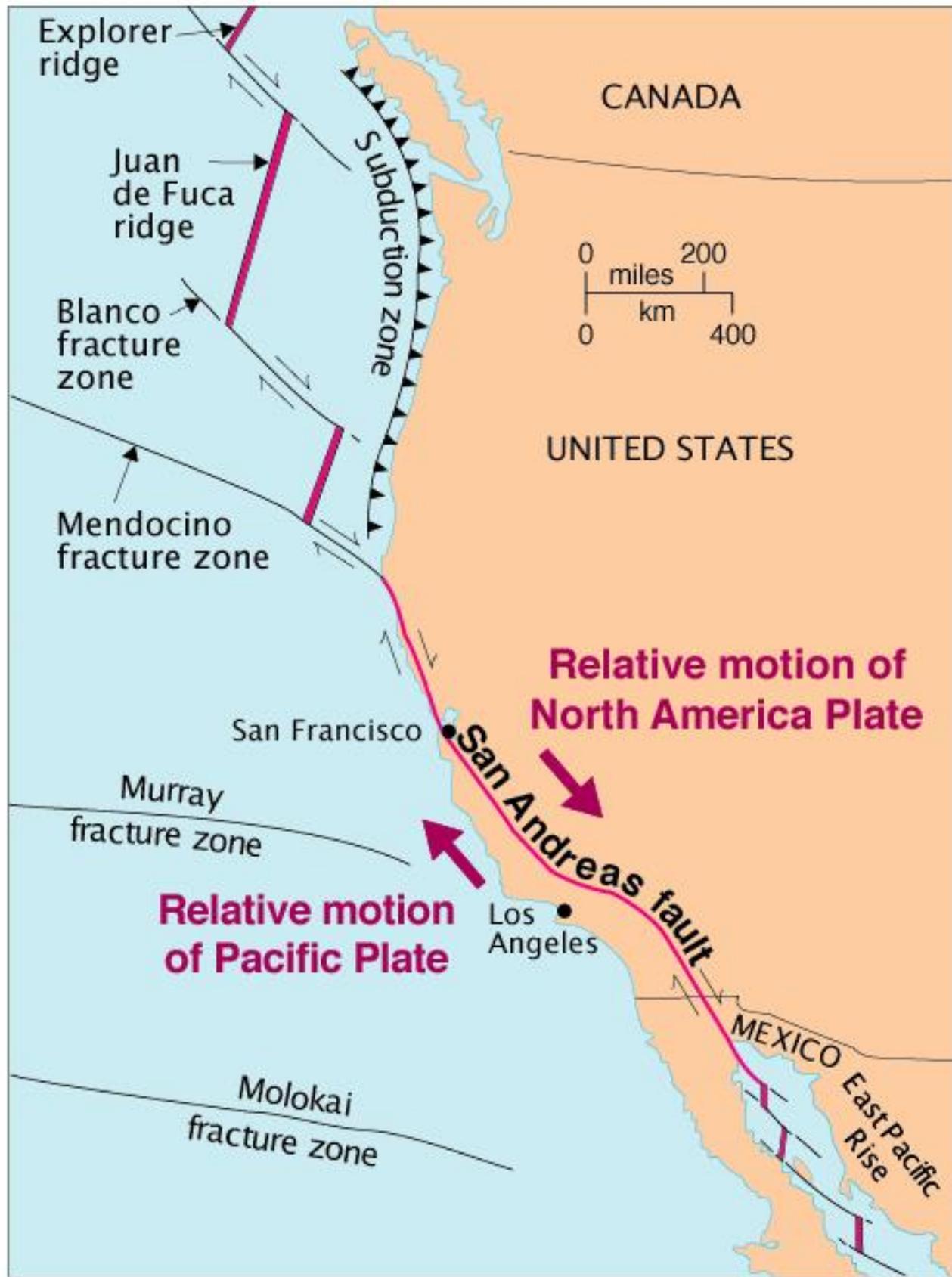
Subduction zones (ocean crust sinks back into mantle). Melted mantle rock due to addition of water, which drops the melting point of the underlying mantle. Volcanoes above subduction zone. Trenches on ocean floor where ocean crust begins subducting. Accretionary wedge mountains (made up of terranes: sediments, islands, crustal blocks)
WORLD EXAMPLES:
Japan, Philippines, Aleutian Islands

Continent-Continent

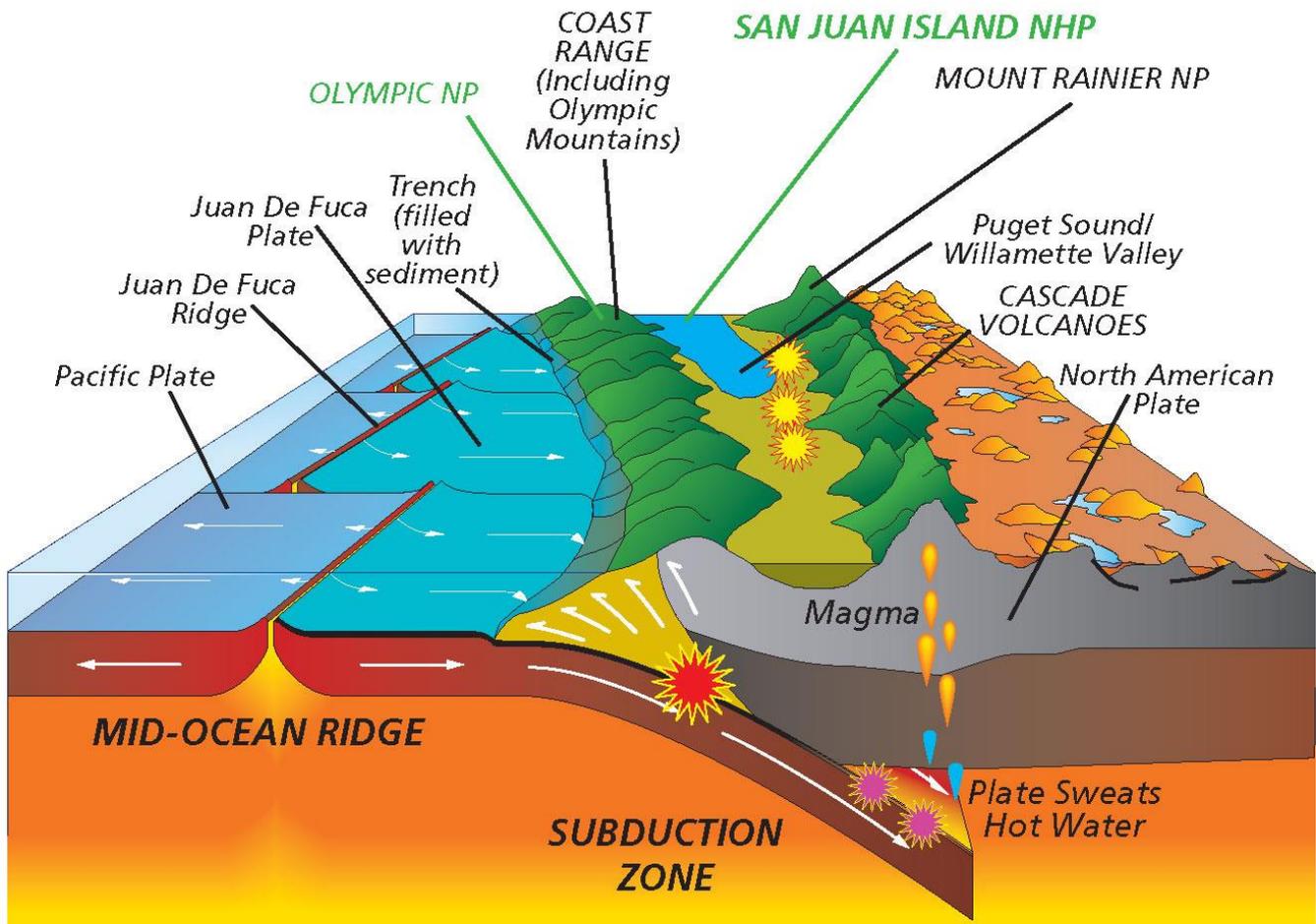
Fold and thrust mountains, thickened lithosphere.
WORLD EXAMPLES:
Himalayas (India)
Alps (Europe)



At seafloor spreading centers, magmas form as mantle melts under the thinned crust (a drop in pressure causes melting). Magmas rise to the surface and erupt under water as pillow basalts. The vertical cracks that formed between the top of the magma chamber and the bottom of the seafloor to allow the basalt through will then solidify under the pillows and form basalt dikes. Both of these are spread aside to make room for the next series of pillow basalts and dikes, and as they spread away from the rift valley, they collect sediment on their top and beneath, the edges of the magma chambers cool slowly underground to form gabbro. Seawater will descend through the cracks formed from spreading, leach elements from the ocean crust, get heated by the magma chamber and rise back up in the center of the rift valleys producing hydrothermal vents made of chimneys of metal sulfides precipitated from the hot fluids as they exit the ground and enter the cold ocean (much like mineral deposits that form on the inside of plumbing pipes).



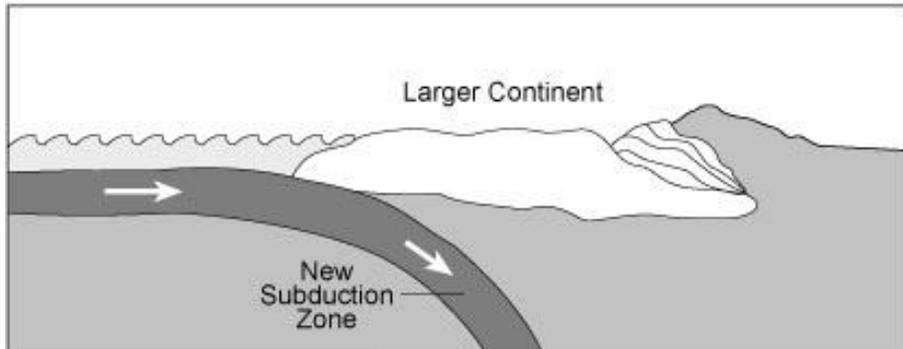
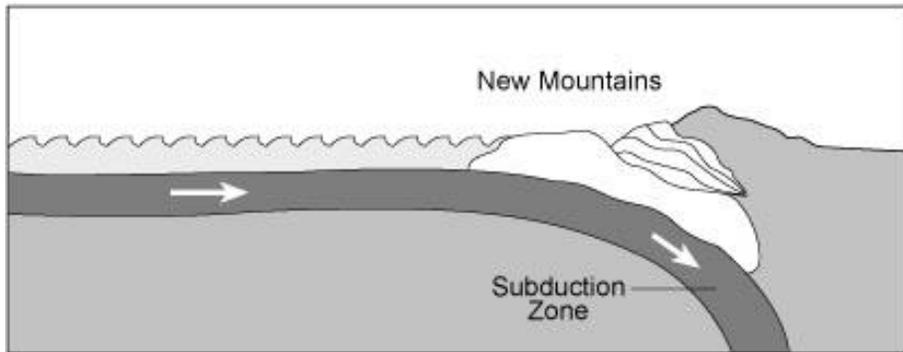
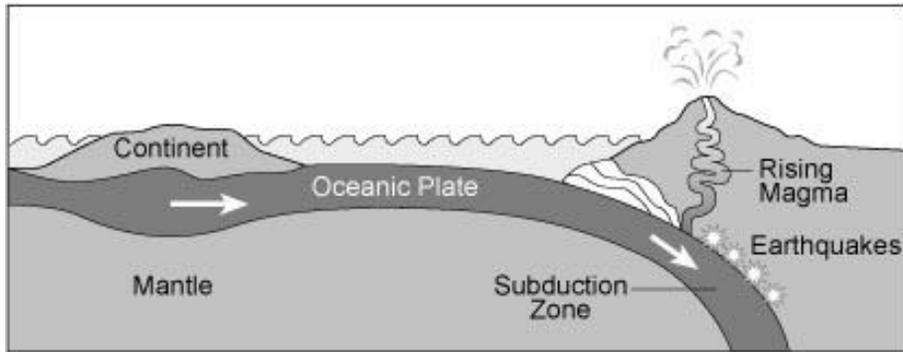
Map view showing plate boundaries along the western margin of North America, with subduction in northern California, Oregon, and Washington; seafloor spreading off the coast of this same area and in the Sea of Cortez; transform motion between northern California and Los Angeles. Image from USGS modified from *This Dynamic Earth* by Stoffer, 2006.



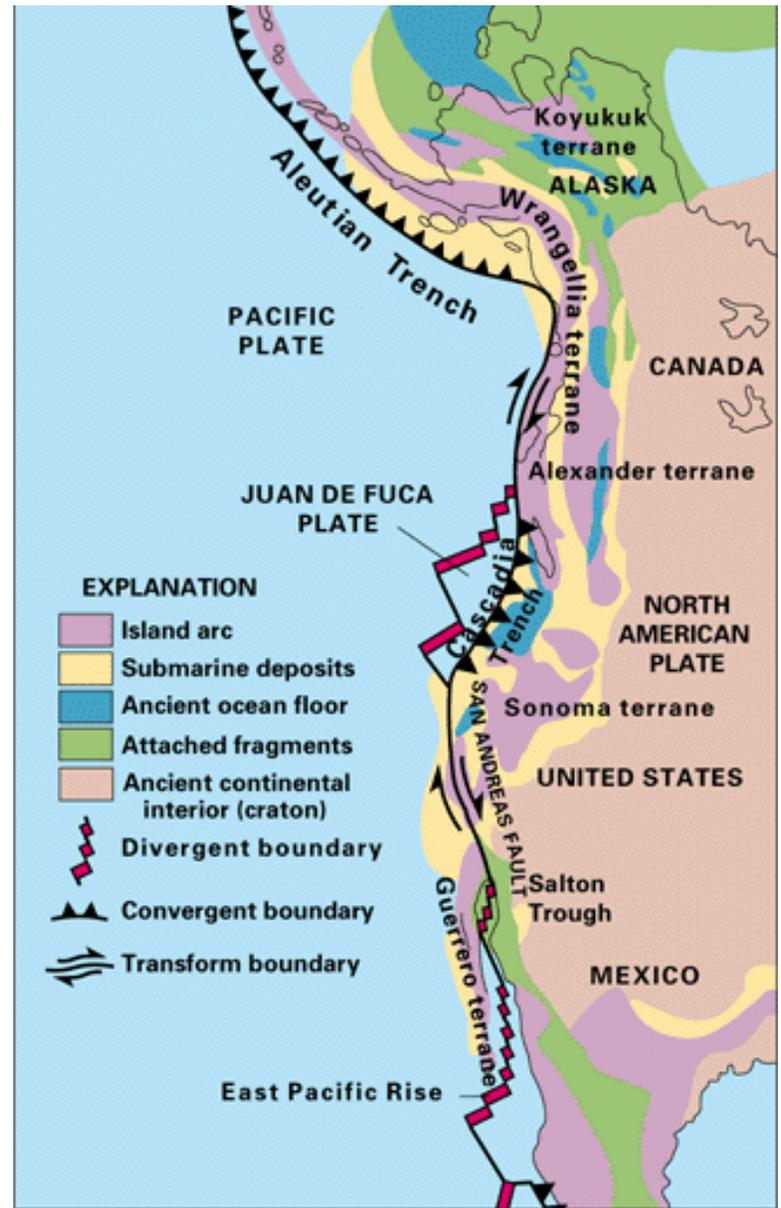
Cascadia earthquake sources

Source	Affected area	Max. size	Recurrence
 Subduction Zone	West. WA, OR, CA	M 9	500-600 years (1700)
 Deep Juan De Fuca Plate	West. WA, OR	M 7+	30-50 years (1949, 1965, 2001)
 Crustal faults	WA, OR, CA	M 7+	hundreds of years? (CE 900, 1872)

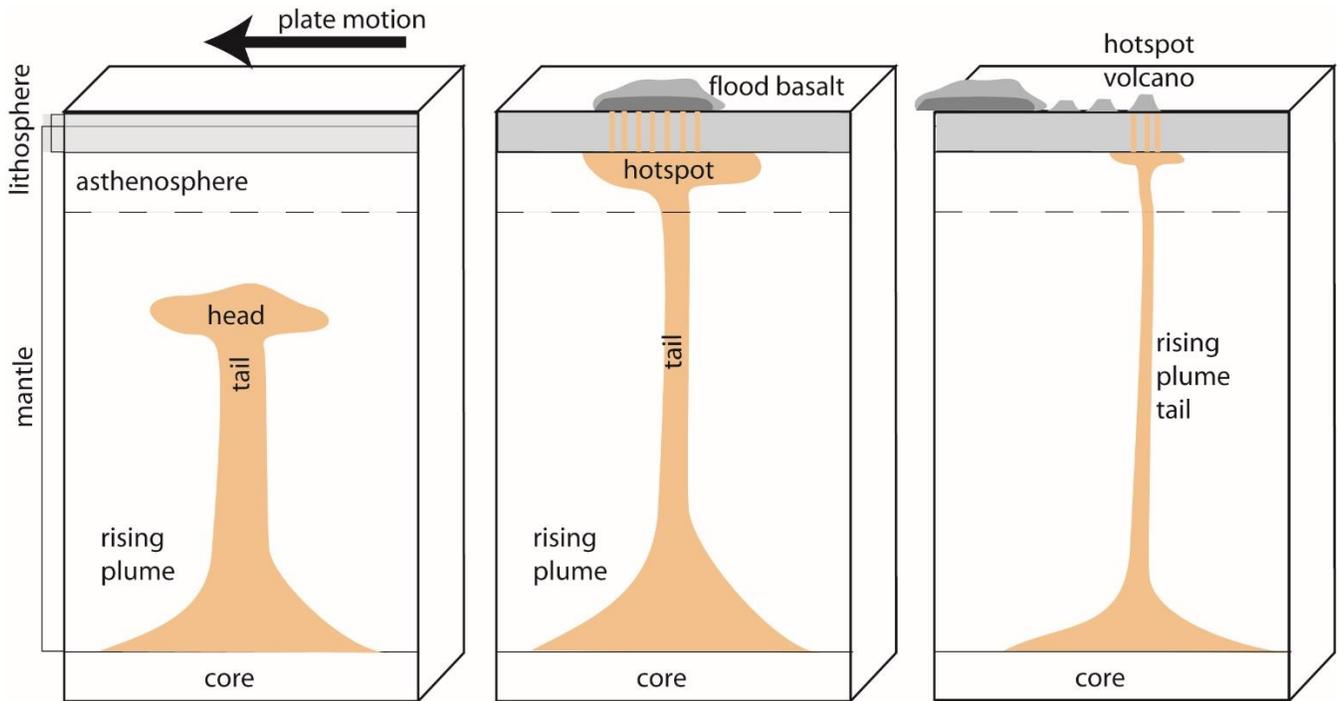
Cross-section through the western margin of North America in the region of the Pacific Northwest – Washington, Oregon, and Northern California. Image from National Park Service



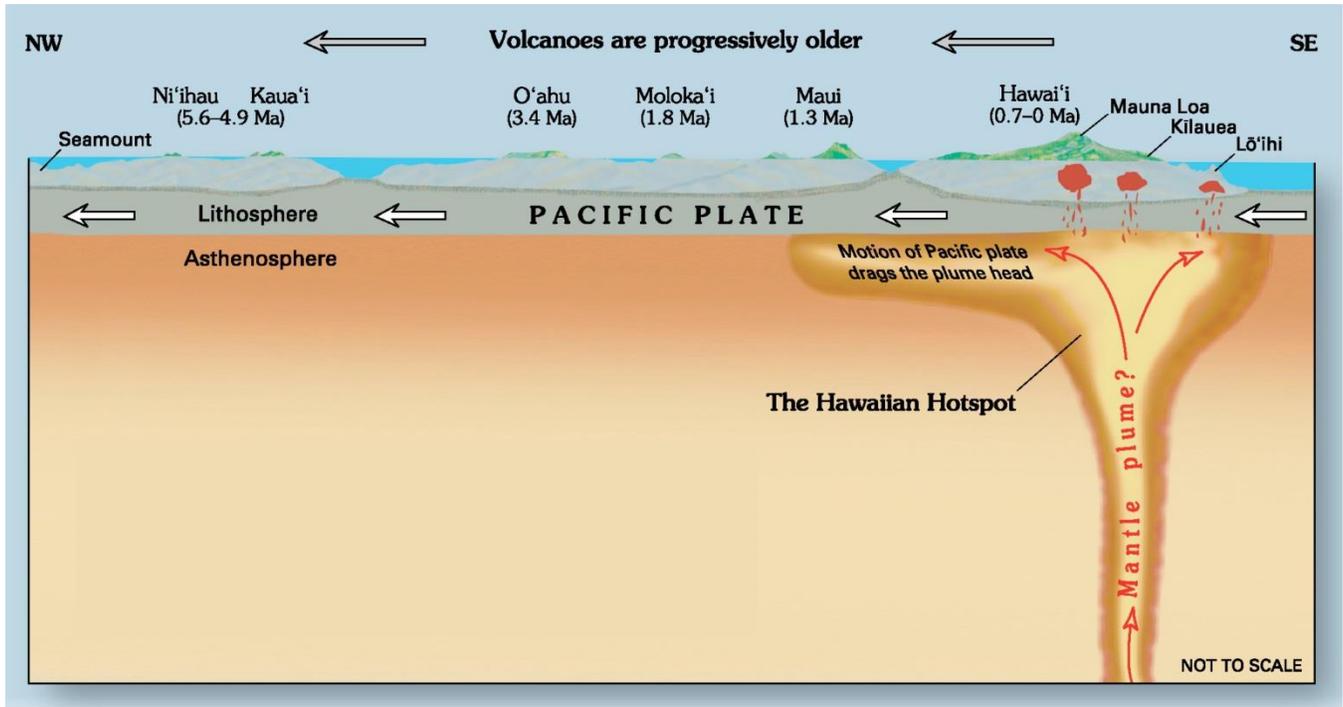
Terrane accretion. Image from Kenneth R. Lang's book *The Cambridge Guide to the Solar System, Second Edition 2011*.



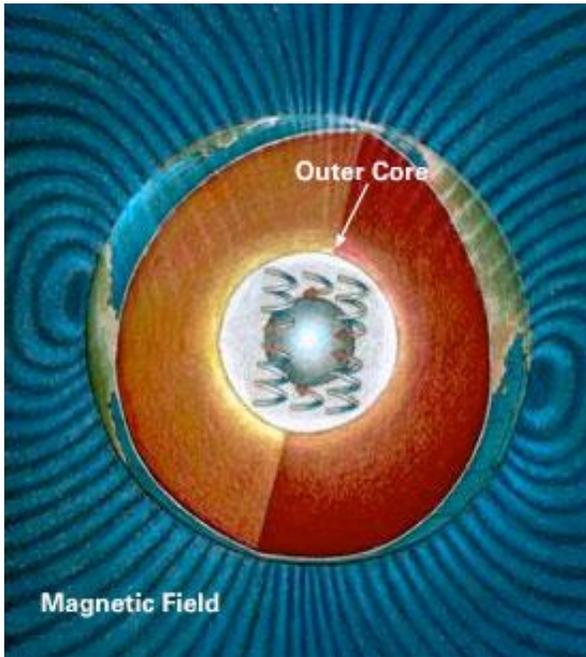
Terrane accretion along the western margin of North America. USGS.



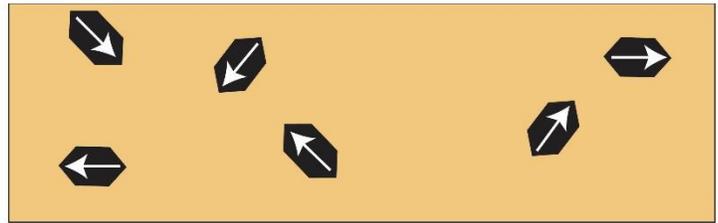
Depiction of the formation of a particular type of deeply formed hotspot, from when it first rises from the base of the mantle, to when it breaks through the lithosphere with a massive eruption of flood basalts, to its continued eruption over time as plate tectonics moves the older volcanic structures away and new volcanoes form .



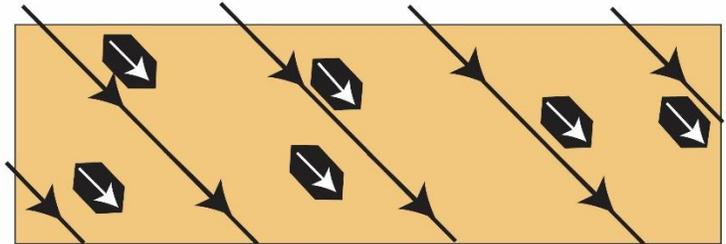
Cross-section through Hawaiian Hotspot – USGS.



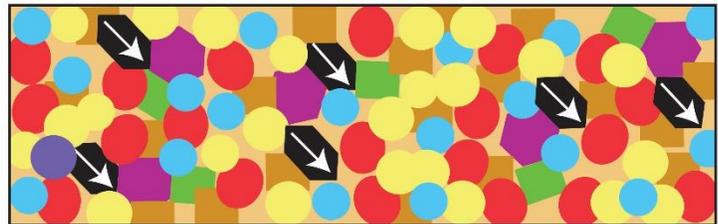
Earth's magnetic field and the proposed source: a magnetic dynamo created by convection of liquid iron in the outer core. This convecting iron acts like a current moving in a loop and creates a magnet. Image from Smithsonian National Museum of Natural History



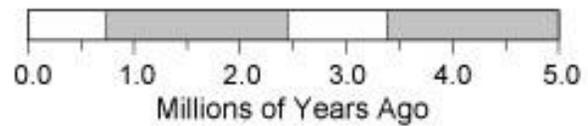
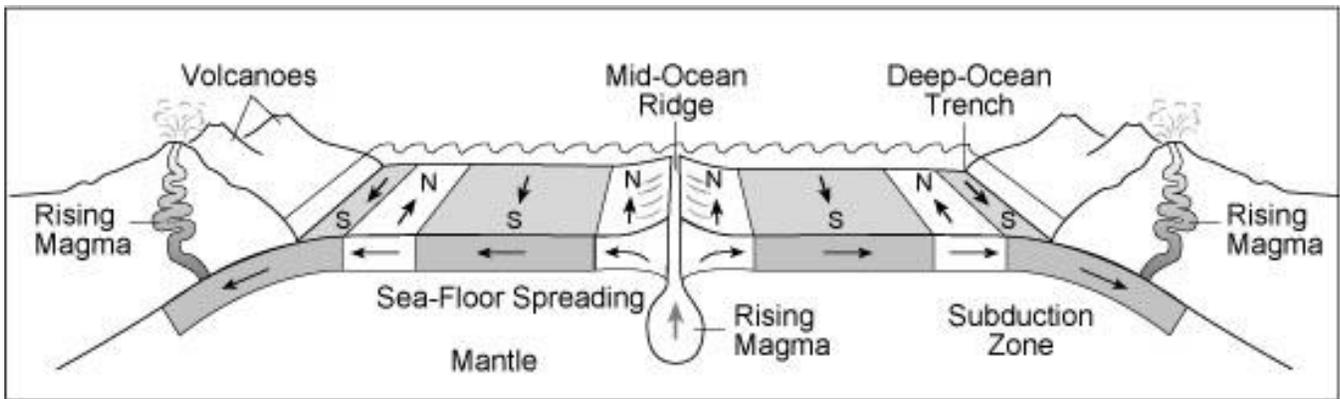
Magnetite crystals randomly aligned and moving in magma or suspended in waves



Magnetite crystals aligned under magnetic field while moving and then frozen in place in rocks or compacted in place in sand layers



Magnetite crystals frozen in place in rocks or compacted in place in sand layers



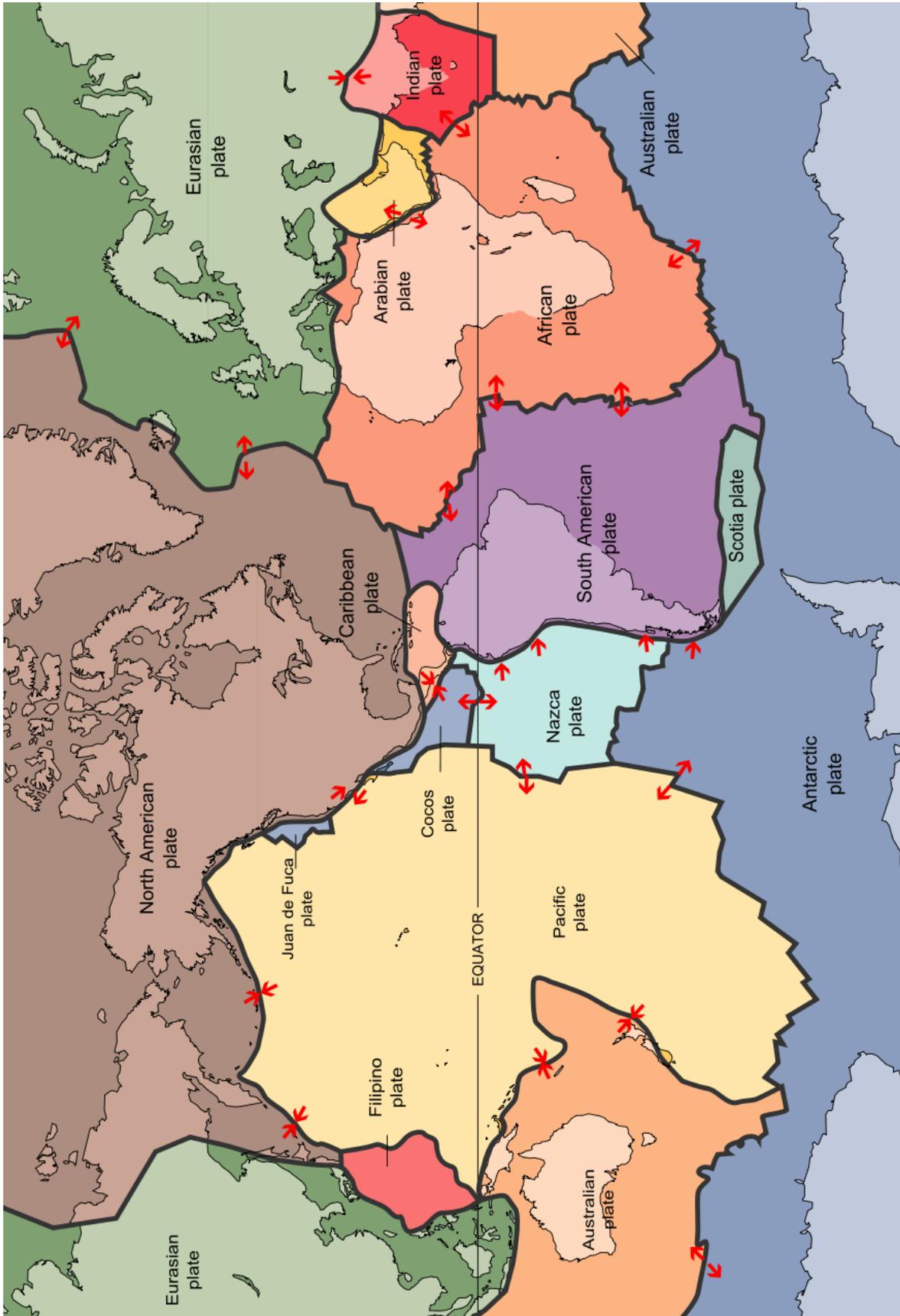
Magnetic Anomalies.

Image from Kenneth R. Lang's book *The Cambridge Guide to the Solar System, Second Edition 2011.*



Satellite image showing relief of India and surroundings. NOAA

PLATE BOUNDARY REFERENCE

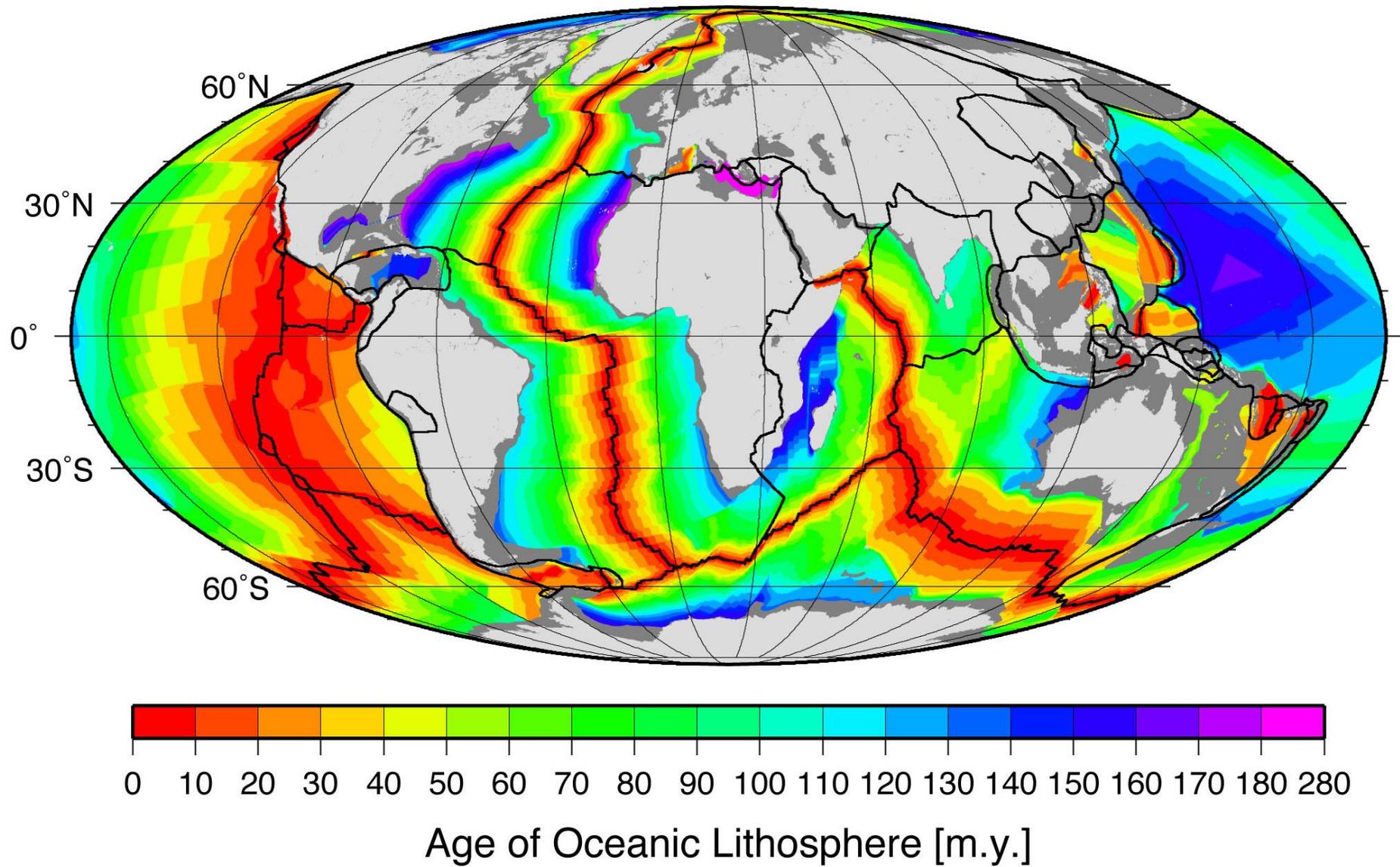


Global Plate Boundaries, USGS

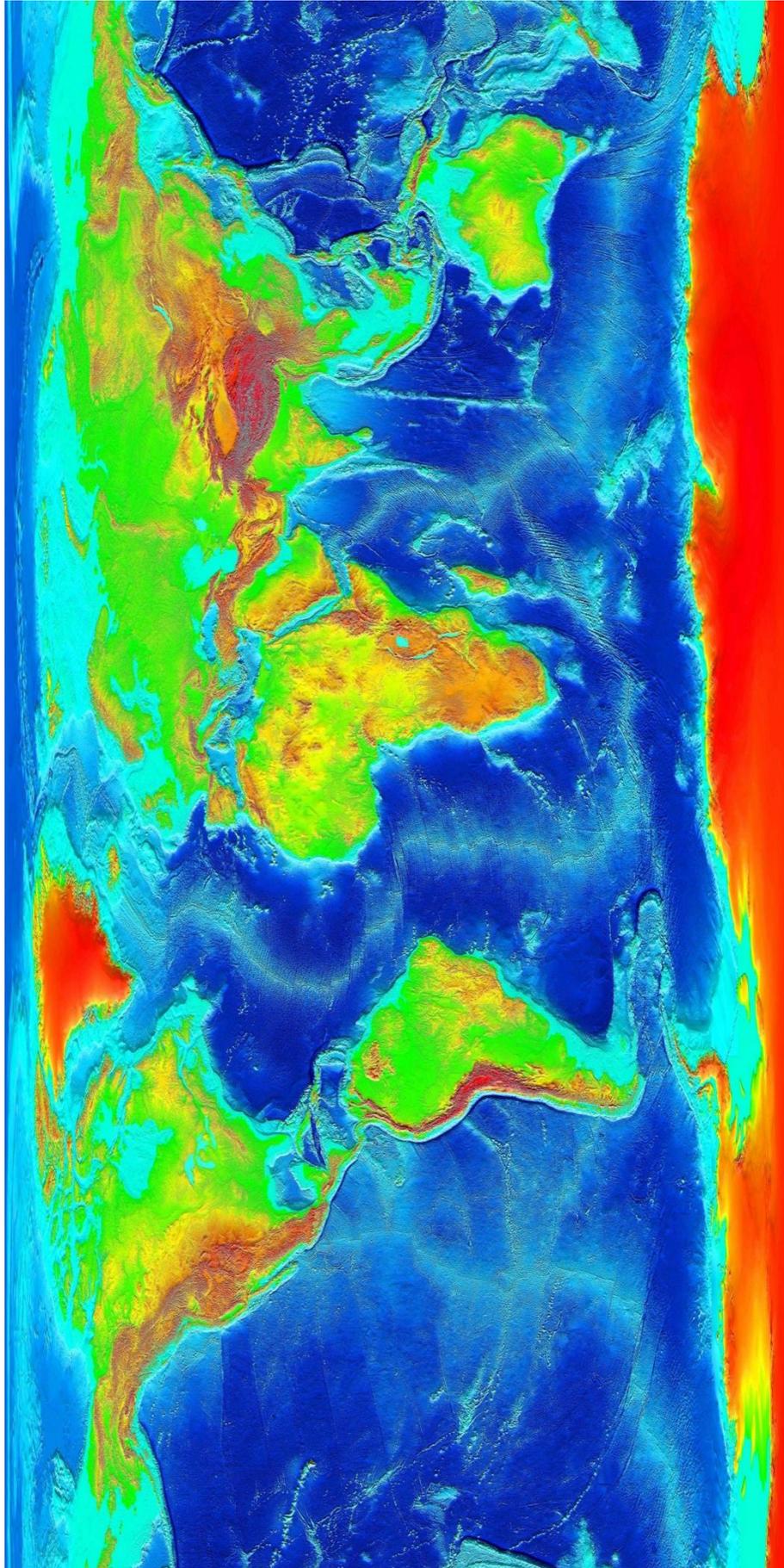
Plate Tectonics Chapter Worksheet

<p>1. OCEAN CRUST CIRCLE most appropriate terms: NEW ROCKS FORMING OLDEST ROCKS ON PLANET NEVER OLDER THAN 200 Ma BASALT GRANITE THICKNESS: 3-10 km THICKNESS: 30-50 km DENSEST LEAST DENSE SUBDUCTS</p>	<p>2. CONTINENTAL CRUST CIRCLE appropriate terms: NEW ROCKS FORMING OLDEST ROCKS ON PLANET NEVER OLDER THAN 200 Ma BASALT GRANITE THICKNESS: 3-10 km THICKNESS: 30-50 km DENSEST LEAST DENSE SUBDUCTS</p>										
<p>3. CIRCLE: Which of the following natural processes would cause the lithosphere to rise isostatically? <i>Basalt lava flows Continental collision and accretion Deposition of sediment Erosion of rock and sediment Glacial advance (more glaciers) Glacial retreat Transform plate motion Divergent plate motion</i></p>	<p>4. CIRCLE: Which of the following natural processes would cause the lithosphere to sink isostatically? <i>Basalt lava flows Continental collision and accretion Deposition of sediment Erosion of rock and sediment Glacial advance (more glaciers) Glacial retreat Transform plate motion Divergent plate motion</i></p>										
<p>5. Which of the following characteristics of a fluid that is free to move make it rise relative to the objects around it? CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY: <i>Density Temperature Salinity Viscosity</i></p>											
<p>6. The Moho is the boundary between which two layers?</p>											
<p>7. How does the Moho relate to the asthenosphere, lithosphere?</p>											
<p>8. In what parts of the planet is the Moho deepest (closest to the center of the Earth)? CIRCLE: <i>Mountains Mid-Ocean Ridge Coastal Plains</i></p>	<p>9. In what parts of the planet is the Moho shallowest (furthest from the center of the Earth)? CIRCLE: <i>Mountains Mid-Ocean Ridge Coastal Plains</i></p>										
<p>10. What happens to oceanic lithosphere over time, as it ages? (Be specific and thorough.)</p>											
<p>11. The continents are ~20 times older than the oldest ocean basins – Why?</p>											
<p>12. What is a terrane? What are different types of terranes, and how do they contribute to the growth of continents?</p>											
<p>13. Stack the following layers found in ocean lithosphere vertically as they'd be found in a hole drilled through the ocean crust and describe how each is formed: BASALTIC DIKES DEPLETED MANTLE (PERIDOTITE) GABBRO PILLOW BASALT SEDIMENT</p>											
<p>14. Draw arrows in map-view boxes below to indicate directions of plate motion at these plate boundaries: (is boundary)</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="padding: 5px;">Divergent</th> <th style="padding: 5px;">Transform</th> <th style="padding: 5px;">Convergent (ocean-ocean)</th> <th style="padding: 5px;">Convergent (ocean-cont)</th> <th style="padding: 5px;">Convergent (cont-cont)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td style="height: 30px;"> </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Divergent	Transform	Convergent (ocean-ocean)	Convergent (ocean-cont)	Convergent (cont-cont)					
Divergent	Transform	Convergent (ocean-ocean)	Convergent (ocean-cont)	Convergent (cont-cont)							
<p>15. Which of the following plate boundaries produces earthquakes? CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY: Convergent (Ocean-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Cont) Divergent Transform</p>											
<p>16. Which of the following plate boundaries produces volcanism? CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY: Convergent (Ocean-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Cont) Divergent Transform</p>											

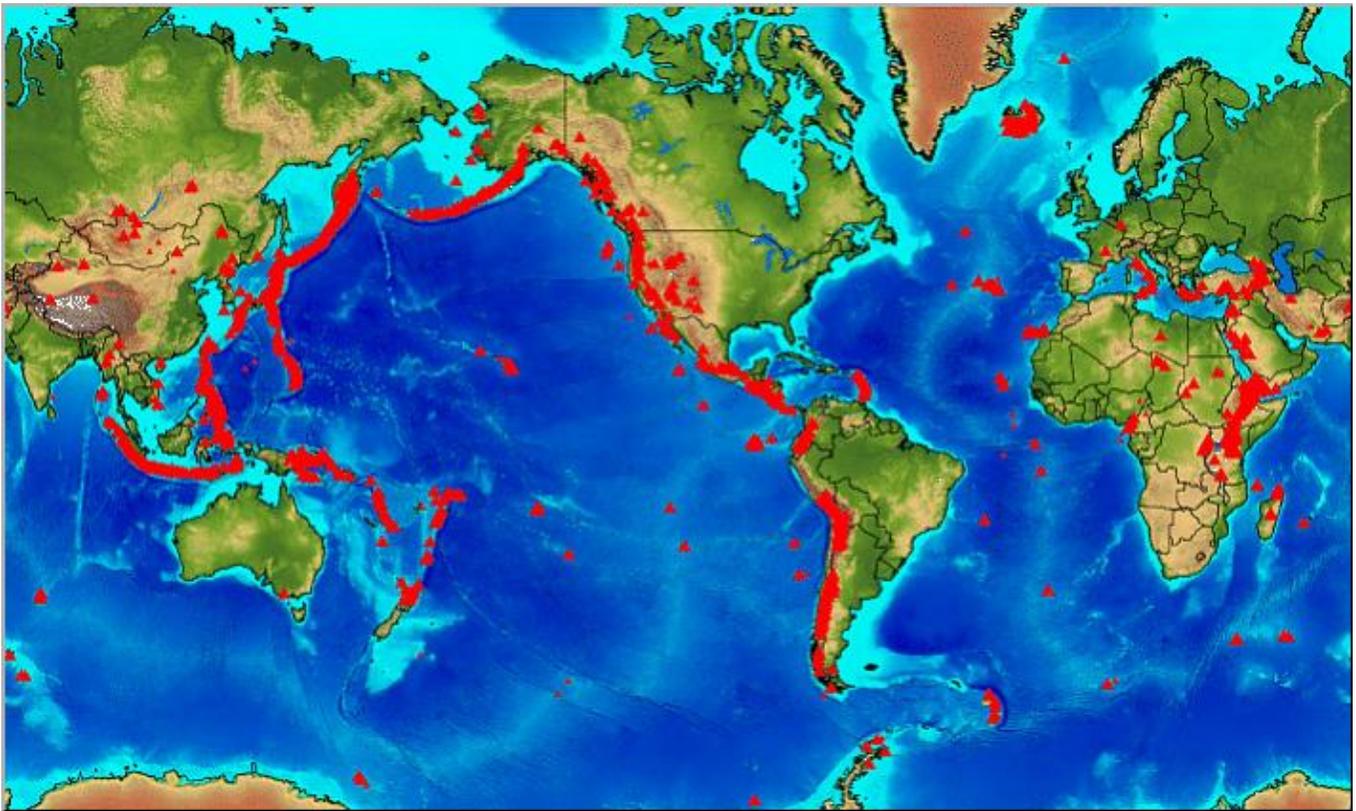
17. Which of the following plate boundaries produces a fracture zones ? Convergent (Ocean-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Cont) Divergent Transform
18. Which of the following plate boundaries produces a mid-ocean ridge ? Convergent (Ocean-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Cont) Divergent Transform
19. Which of the following plate boundaries produces mountains (of any size) ? Convergent (Ocean-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Ocean) Convergent (Cont-Cont) Divergent Transform
20. Where does all new ocean crust form? CIRCLE: trenches passive continental margins abyssal plains mid-ocean ridges varies (no one place)
21. What is the age of the oldest ocean crust currently found in the world's oceans? Where in general in the world's oceans are the oldest rocks? CIRCLE: trenches passive continental margins abyssal plains mid-ocean ridges varies (no one place)
22. What kind of plate boundary do we live on or near in San Francisco?
23. Which of the following is true of hotspots ? CIRCLE: <i>Can originate from as deep as core-mantle boundary produce flood basalts and mass extinctions when first break through crust can last over 200 million years move with the plate found in Iceland found in Yellowstone found in Hawaii</i>
24. If a 5-my-old island that formed at a hotspot is now 500 km northwest of the hotspot, how fast has the plate been moving since its formation? And what direction has the plate been moving? (Note: calculate as km/my then convert to cm/yr by dividing by 10.)
25. Which of the following is true of Earth's Magnetic Field ? CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY: <i>Poles reverse Poles wander Strength changes with time Has four poles Attracts magnets Direction fluctuates based on latitude</i>
26. If a 10-my-old pillow basalt is 1200 km west of the nearest seafloor spreading center, how fast has its plate been moving since its formation? And what direction has the plate been moving? (Note: calculate as km/my then convert to cm/yr by dividing by 10.)
27. Which of the following is TRUE of paleomagnetism ? CIRCLE: <i>ancient record of magnetic pole locations requires magnetic material to align and freeze in place in a rock can form from magnetite crystals forming from lava can form with magnetite grains settling on a beach and being buried can be used to determine latitude of original rock can be used to see the symmetry of seafloor spreading can be studied only in rocks found on the seafloor can be studied only in rocks found on land can be studied in ALL rocks found anywhere</i>
28. Review the figure that shows the age of the ocean crust beneath ocean sediments : Which of the following was required to create this map? CIRCLE: <i>Magnetic signature of rocks on seafloor Timeline of when Earth's magnetic field has switched polarities historically (gathered by land-based volcanic rock layers) Sampling of individual rocks collected from the seafloor Dating seafloor rock samples in a laboratory Ships travelling back and forth across the sea surface dragging a magnetometer Satellites</i>
29. Which types of chemical, physical, and biological processes occur at or under hydrothermal vents? CIRCLE: CHEMOSYNTHESIS PHOTOSYNTHESIS DISSOLUTION PRECIPITATION CHALLENGING ECOSYSTEMS ALTERED OCEAN CRUST PILLOW BASALTS EARTHQUAKES HOT AND COLD WATERS MIXING SUBDUCTION SPREADING TRANSFORM MOTION
30. How hot is the water coming out of a hydrothermal vent?
31. Where do the water and associated dissolved ions in a hydrothermal vent come from?



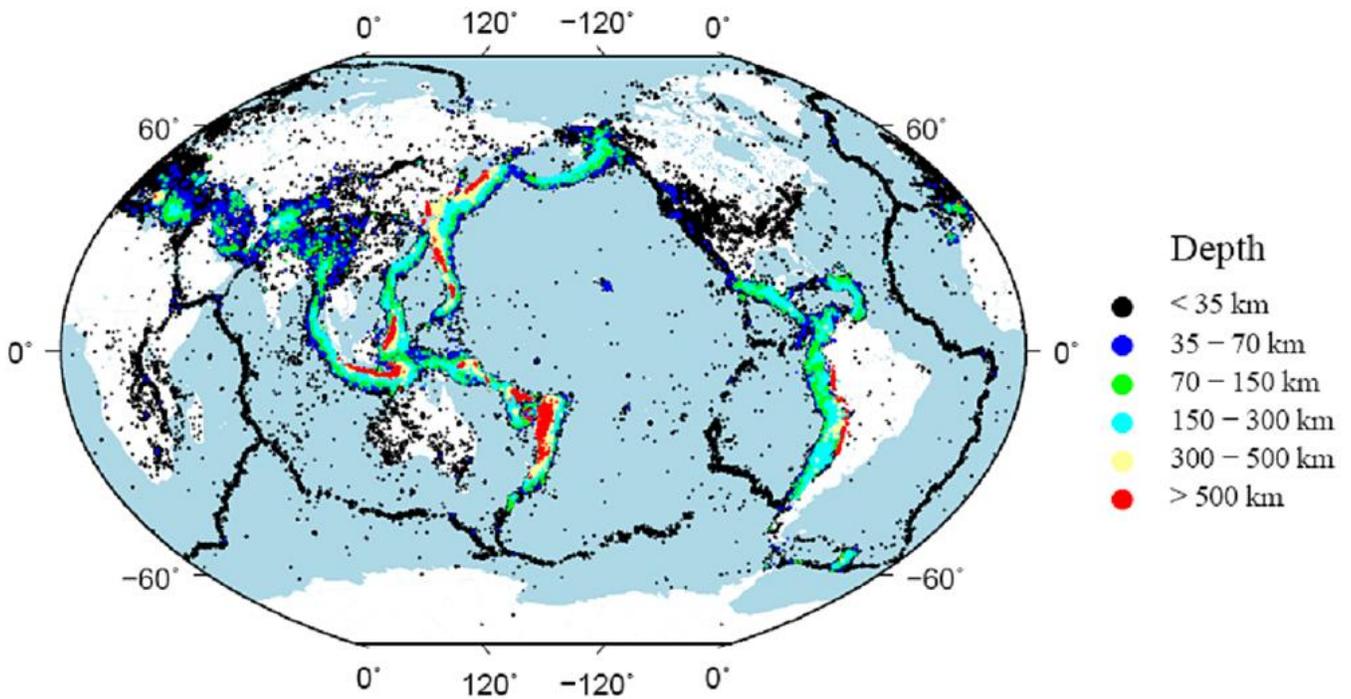
ISOCHRON Map (lines of a particular color represent equal lithosphere age ranges) For example. All areas in yellow are lithosphere from 40 to 50 million years old. NOAA



Seafloor Bathymetry and Continental Topography – World Relief Map – NOAA



Location of the world's primary active volcanic centers. Image from Smithsonian Institution Global Volcanism Project



Earthquakes around the world color coded by depth (Image produced by NORSAR using USGS data).

Plate Motions Activity

Use the preceding Isochron Map (age of seafloor rocks), Global Ocean Bathymetry and Land Topography Map (relief of Earth's surface), Volcanoes Map, and Earthquakes Map to answer these questions. Use support discussion board in CANVAS to seek help and share ideas about these questions.

1. Observe known **divergent plate boundaries** across all four of the preceding maps. What landforms are associated with these boundaries? What patterns in earthquakes, volcanoes, and isochrons? (Think about shapes and patterns!)

2. Observe known **transform plate boundaries** across all four of the preceding maps. What landforms are associated with these boundaries? What patterns in earthquakes, volcanoes, and isochrons? (Think about shapes and patterns!)

3. Observe known **subduction zone plate boundaries** across all four of the preceding maps. What landforms are associated with these boundaries? What patterns in earthquakes, volcanoes, and isochrons? (Think about shapes and patterns!)

4. Observe known **continent-continent convergent plate boundaries** across all four of the preceding maps. What landforms are associated with these boundaries? What patterns in earthquakes, volcanoes, and isochrons? (Think about shapes and patterns!)

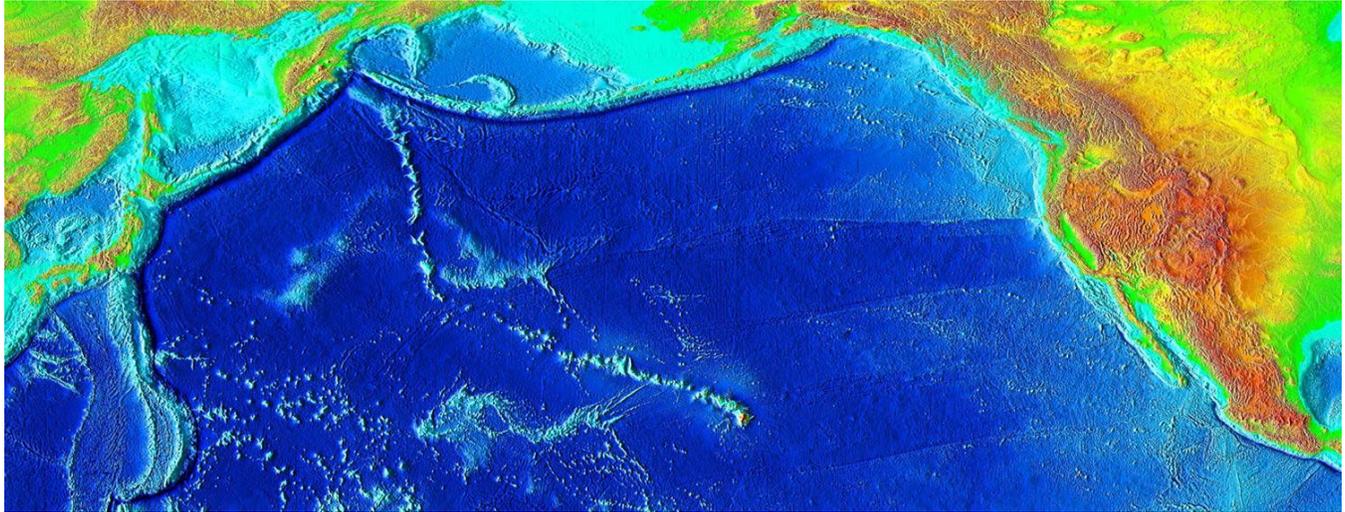
World Ocean Comparison (Isochron Map)

- 5. The fastest spreading center in the world spreads at a rate of 18 cm/yr. How do you recognize it? Where is it located?
- 6. The slowest spreading center in the world spreads at a rate of 2 cm/yr. How do you recognize it? Where is it located?
- 7. What are some possible reasons for the differences?

Atlantic Ocean (Isochron Map)

- 8. What is the age of the youngest rock in the Atlantic Ocean? Where is it?
- 9. What is the age of the oldest rock in the Atlantic Ocean? Where is it?
- 10. When and where did the Atlantic Ocean first start to open?
- 11. Did the entire Atlantic Ocean open at the same time? What’s the evidence?

- 12. Hotspot volcanic islands are prominent topographic features on the seafloor that do not occur at plate boundaries. Isolated volcanic islands and seamounts (undersea mountains) form a linear chain as magma rises under one location and the plate moves these volcanoes away to erode while new ones form. On the map below, locate and label the HAWAIIAN hotspot track. Draw an arrow indicating plate motion (remember: plates take volcanoes away from active hotspot after which they become extinct), and label “NEW” where the new rock is forming and “OLDEST” where oldest volcanic feature formed originally at that hotspot can be found.



NOAA – Northern Pacific (**Note: to draw on this image, use white colored pencil or SHARPIE or stickers. **)

- 13. How do the volcanic landforms that are produced vary among the three geologic settings for volcanism? (How can you recognize which is which?) Give world examples of each.

	Volcanic Landforms (shapes and behaviors)	World Examples
Hotspots		
Subduction Zone Volcanic Arcs		
Divergent Plate Boundaries		

Weekly Reflection

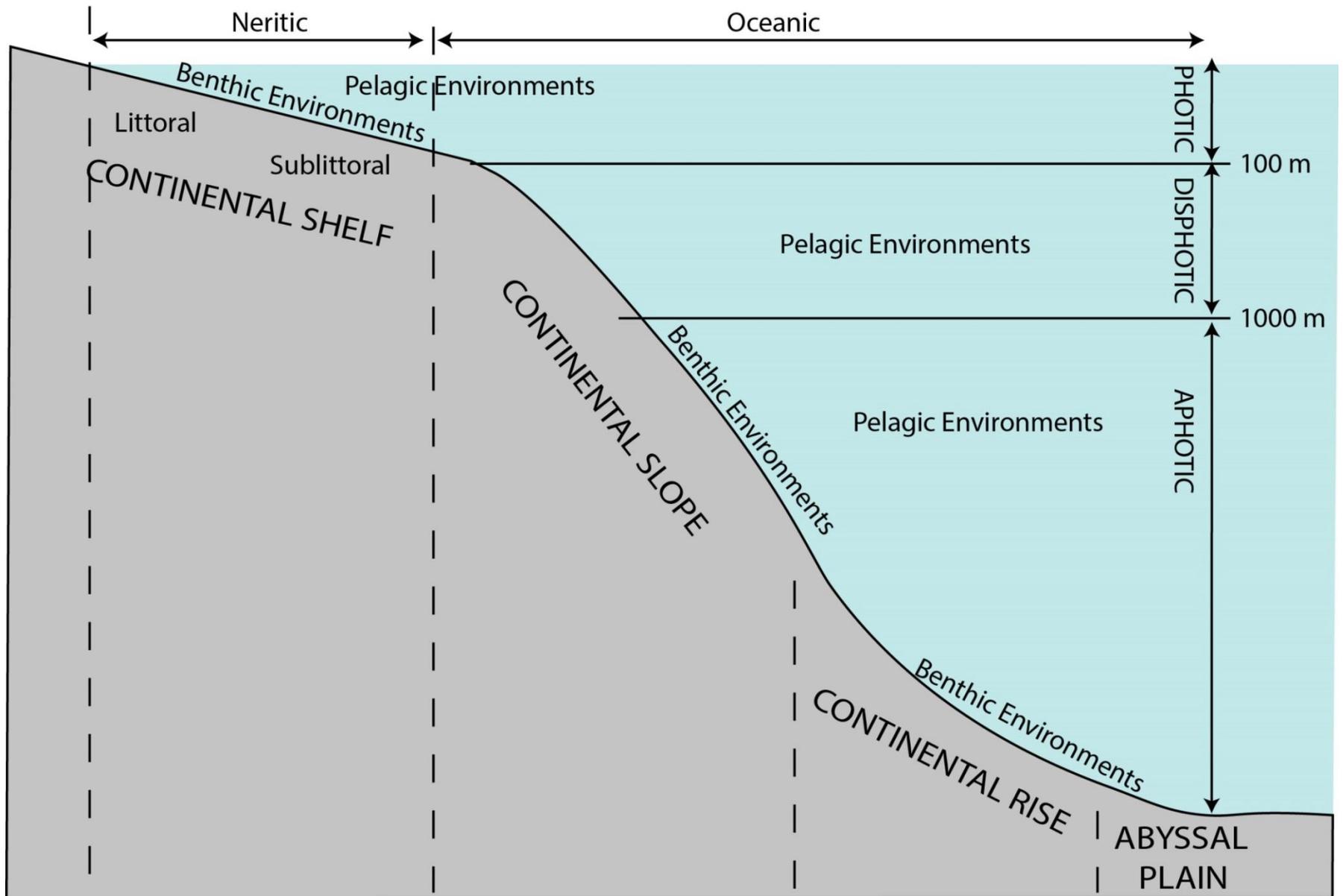
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week's objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Evaluate the evidence for plate tectonics .	A B C D F	
Analyze the cause of earthquakes, volcanism, and mountain building globally.	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast plate boundaries and the landforms and processes found associated with them.	A B C D F	
Apply plate tectonics theory to the origin and evolution of ocean margins, basins, and crust .	A B C D F	

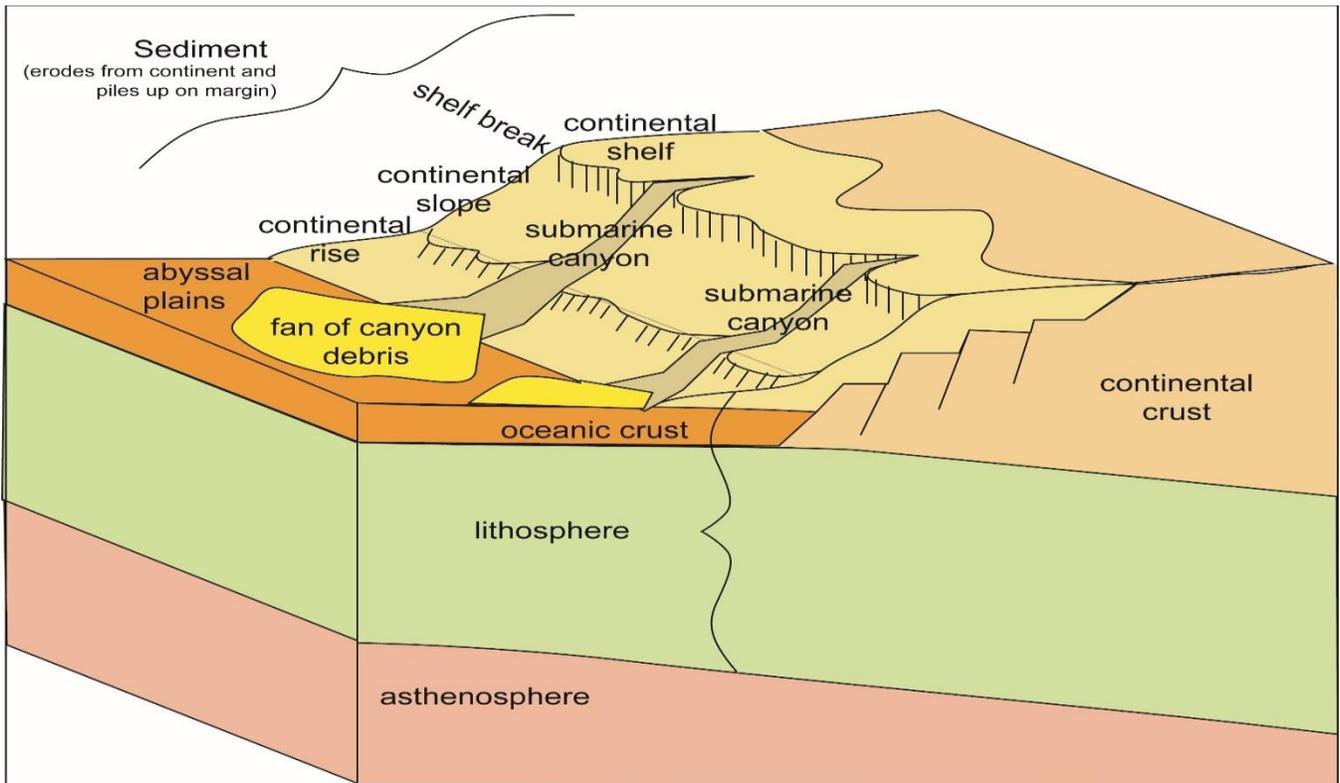
AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you've always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

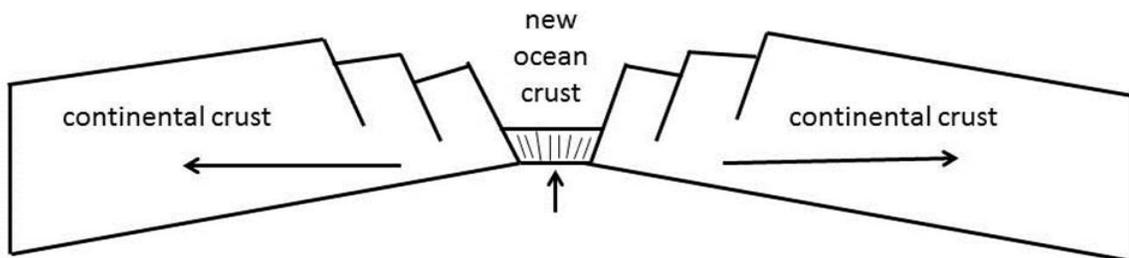
SEAFLOOR & SEDIMENTS



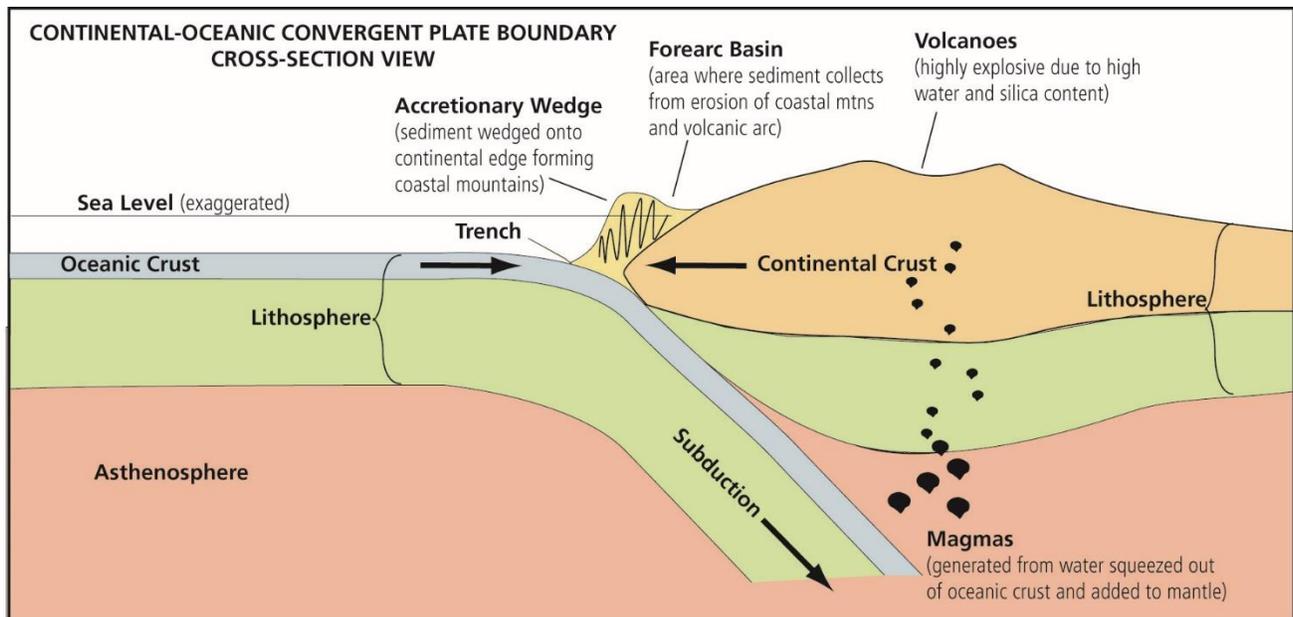
Comparison of Benthic (seafloor) and Pelagic (water column) environments and the Neritic (near shore – over the continental shelf) and Oceanic (offshore – deeper than the continental shelf) provinces. Photic zone is depths where sunlight is still available at least 1% of surface values. Disphotic zone is where available light is between zero and 1% of surface light. The Aphotic zone has no light available.



Continental Shelf – not to scale. Submarine canyons carved out of shelf by turbidity currents (avalanches of sediment).

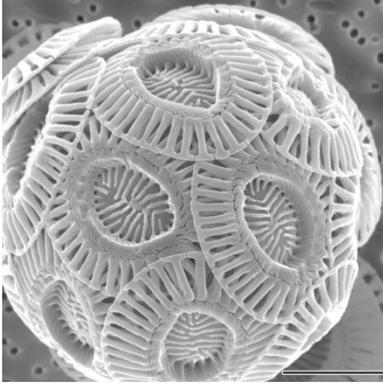
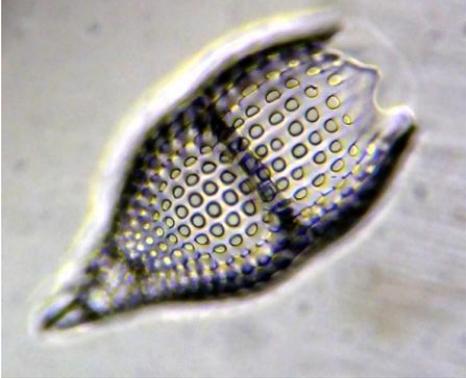


Rift valley in the center of a divergent plate boundary where the continental crust is ripping apart.



Trench forming above a subduction zone.

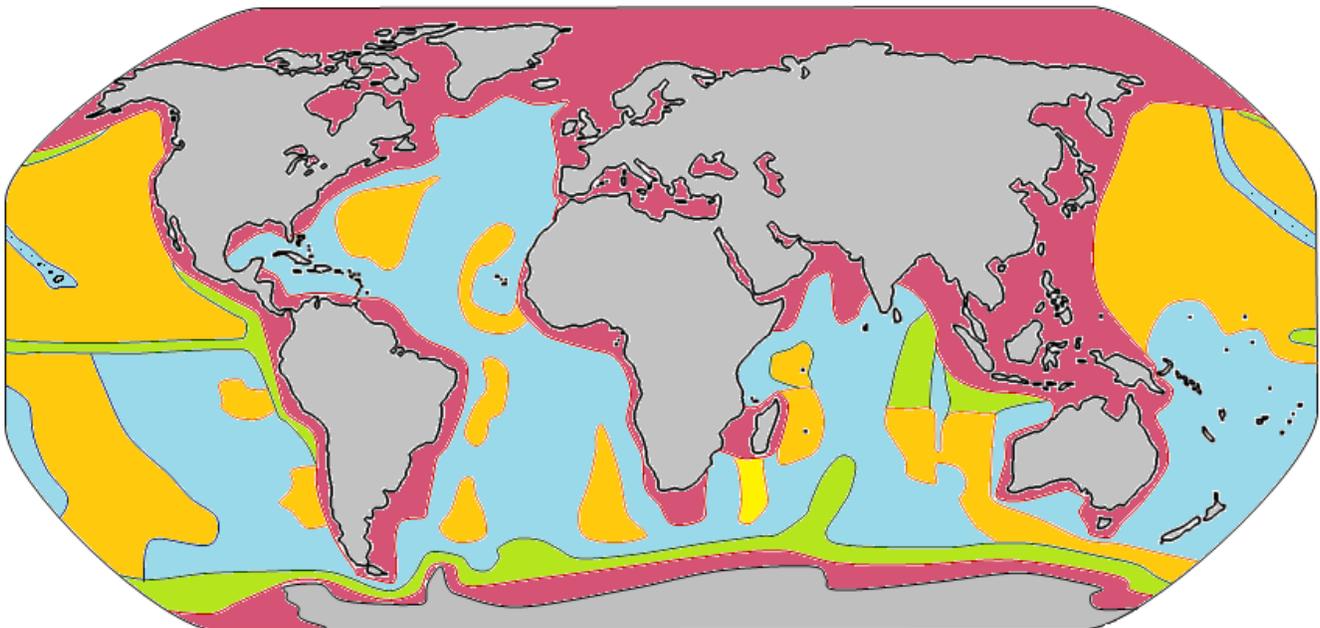
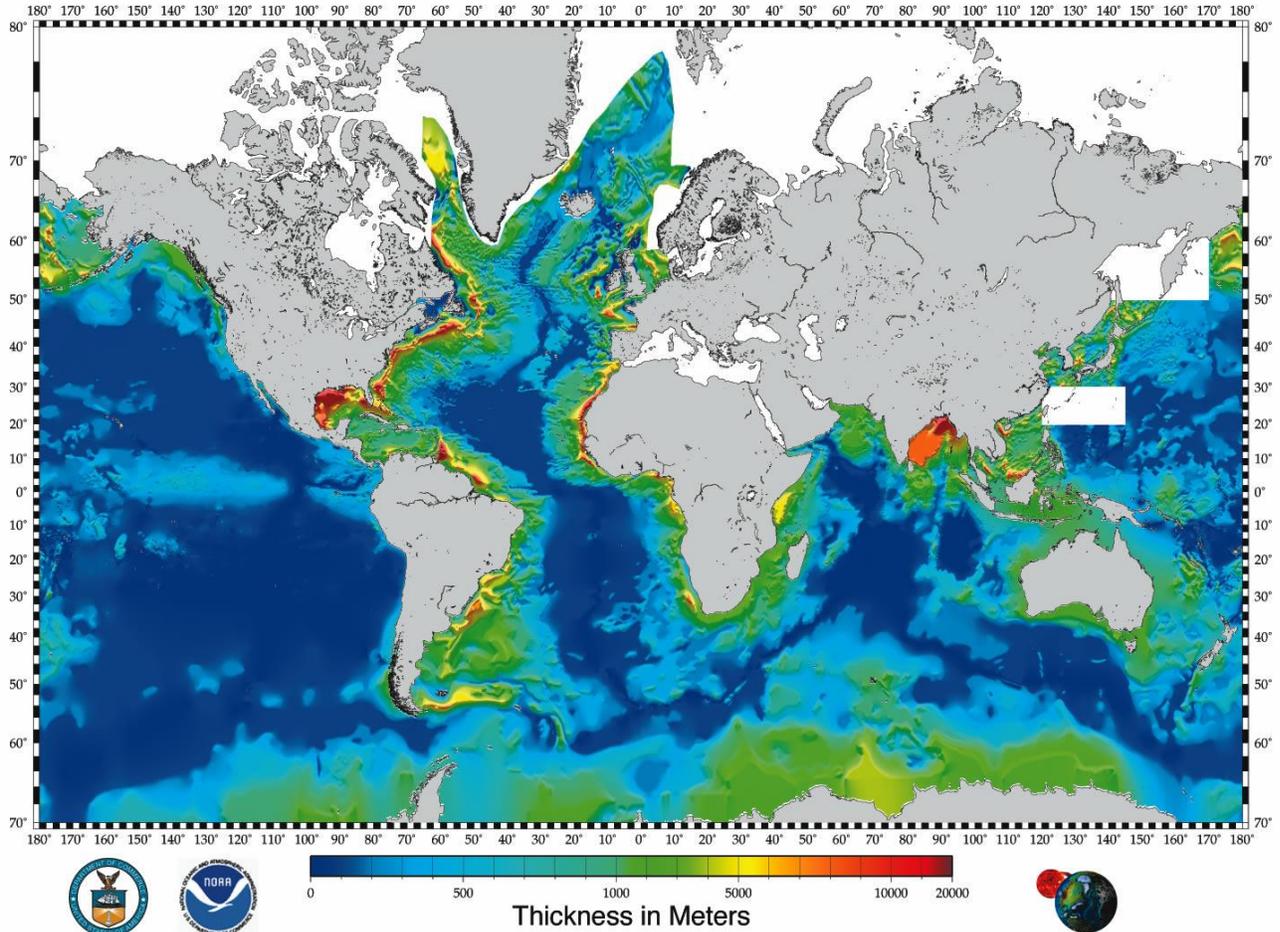
Plankton whose shells contribute to deep-sea oozes

	CaCO ₃ shell	SiO ₂ shell
AUTOTROPHS	 <p>COCCOLITHOPHORE (image: Alison R. Taylor, UNC Wilmington Microscopy Facility, CC Generic 2.5; Scale: 0.005 to 0.1 mm)</p>	 <p>DIATOM (image: M. Dubose; Scale: 0.005 to 1 mm)</p>
HETEROTROPHS	 <p>FORAMINIFERA Scale: 0.1 to 1 mm</p>	 <p>RADIOLARIA Scale: 0.1 to 1 mm</p>



San Francisco Bay Area coastline (and sea level) at the height of the last ice age, 18,000 years ago. Yellow curved lines represent extent of sand dunes covering continental shelf. Modified from work by Tanya Atwater – UC Santa Barbara

Total Sediment Thickness of the World's Oceans & Marginal Seas



Generalized map of global sediment distribution. PINK = lithogenous sediment that includes quartz, clay, and other rock and mineral fragments. BLUE = calcareous ooze. GREEN = siliceous ooze. YELLOW = abyssal clay. Based on image from Creative Commons Licensed Online Textbook: Physical Geology by Steven Earle:

<https://opentextbc.ca/geology/chapter/18-3-sea-floor-sediments/>

Feature	Depth	Shape	Location & Cause
Rift Valley	1-2 km	Linear valley. Square cross section	At the center of divergent plate boundaries (usually atop ocean ridges, unless in center of continent), caused by divergence.
Submarine Canyon	20 m to 2 km	V-shaped cross-section. Sinuous canyon, like river canyons in the mountains.	Carved out of continental shelves by turbidity currents – extend out perpendicular to the shoreline.
Deep-sea trench	> 2 km (6-11 km)	Arc-shaped from above. Deep, wide depression, with steep sides and a flat floor (covered with sediment).	Above subduction zones, caused by subducting oceanic lithosphere.

	Lithogenous or Terrigenous	Biogenic	Hydrogenous	Cosmogenous
Source	LAND – dumped by rivers, coastal erosion, wind, and glaciers.	Dead shelled organisms	Precipitation from supersaturated water	Extra-terrestrial
Examples	Quartz, clay (mature materials) + any rock and mineral debris from land (immature materials).	CaCO ₃ or SiO ₂ shells of microscopic plankton. (Minor amounts from coral reefs and coastal creatures.)	Manganese (Mn) and Phosphate nodules. Metal sulfides at hydrothermal vents. Evaporites (salt and gypsum).	Meteorites and tektites
Distribution	Continental margins; Continental rises where turbidity currents deposit; Deep-sea floor where surface waters do not support a large plankton community.	Deep-sea floor where surface waters support a large plankton community. Near coral reefs.	Hydrothermal vents; areas of deep seafloor with locally high amounts of Mn or P; inland or shallow seas where evaporation rates are high.	Scattered
% seafloor coverage	~45%	~55%	<1%	<<<1%

Region	% of ocean floor	% of total volume of marine sediments	Sediment thickness	Sedimentation rate
Neritic	22%	87%	2.5 to 9 km	Deltas 800 m/1000 yr Quiet bays 500 cm/1000 yr Shelves/slopes 10-40 cm/1000 yr
Oceanic	78%	13%	0 to 0.6 km	0.1 to 1 cm/1000 yr (abyssal clay)

DEEP-SEA, OCEANIC MUDS

Sediment type	Source	Global distribution	%
Calcareous ooze (>30% CaCO ₃ shells)	Foraminifera (hetero) Coccolithophores (auto)	Beneath warm surface water that is filled with marine plankton (and on seafloor that is less than 4 km deep). Accumulation rate: 0.5 to 1 cm/1000 yr.	47%
Siliceous ooze (>30% SiO ₂ shells)	Radiolaria (hetero) Diatoms (auto)	Dominates beneath high-nutrient, cold surface water or plankton-filled water where the seafloor is deeper than 4 km. Common in polar and eastern equatorial oceans. Accumulation rate: 0.5 to 1 cm/1000 yr.	15%
Abyssal or red clay	Deserts: wind-blown clay, sand, dust; Rivers: clays; Volcanic ash	Deep ocean floor near major rivers or deserts, or where surface waters are devoid of plankton. Accumulation rate: 0.1 cm/1000 yr (higher off rivers).	38%

Characteristic	Immature (near source or carried by glaciers)	Mature (usually long travelled by river)
Grain composition	ALL POSSIBLE	Only chemically stable minerals like quartz and clay
Grain size	All sizes (gravels, sands, muds)	Fine sands and muds
Sorting	Very poor	Very good
Grain shape	Angular	Rounded

Sediment size	Particle diameter	Where deposits are found in ocean
Gravel	X > 2 mm	Where rock is breaking down. Where water energy is high (and smaller sediments are held in suspension). Coastline.
Sand	1/16 < X < 2 mm	Where water energy is low. Inner shelf; submarine canyons and their deposits (slope and rise)
Mud	0.0002 < X < 1/16 mm	Where water is still. Outer shelf, estuaries, lagoons (still or slack water); deep-oceans. (EVERYWHERE!)

The Seafloor and its Sediments Chapter Worksheet

1. What methods have been used in the past (and are in use today) to measure the depth to the seafloor so we can create bathymetric maps of the seafloor?

2. **SEAFLOOR FEATURES:** Circle the relevant characteristics in the appropriate boxes below.

RIFT VALLEY	TRENCH	SUBMARINE CANYON
<p><i>Caused by subduction</i></p> <p><i>Caused by seafloor spreading</i></p> <p><i>Caused by turbidity currents</i></p> <p><i>Found only along coasts</i></p> <p><i>Can be found in middle of ocean</i></p> <p><i>Seafloor depression</i></p> <p><i>Deepest spot in ocean</i></p> <p><i>Cross-section = square shape</i></p> <p><i>Cross-section = V shape</i></p> <p><i>Map view = linear shape</i></p> <p><i>Map view = arc shape</i></p> <p><i>Map view = branching shape</i></p>	<p><i>Caused by subduction</i></p> <p><i>Caused by seafloor spreading</i></p> <p><i>Caused by turbidity currents</i></p> <p><i>Found only along coasts</i></p> <p><i>Can be found in middle of ocean</i></p> <p><i>Seafloor depression</i></p> <p><i>Deepest spot in ocean</i></p> <p><i>Cross-section = square shape</i></p> <p><i>Cross-section = V shape</i></p> <p><i>Map view = linear shape</i></p> <p><i>Map view = arc shape</i></p> <p><i>Map view = branching shape</i></p>	<p><i>Caused by subduction</i></p> <p><i>Caused by seafloor spreading</i></p> <p><i>Caused by turbidity currents</i></p> <p><i>Found only along coasts</i></p> <p><i>Can be found in middle of ocean</i></p> <p><i>Seafloor depression</i></p> <p><i>Deepest spot in ocean</i></p> <p><i>Cross-section = square shape</i></p> <p><i>Cross-section = V shape</i></p> <p><i>Map view = linear shape</i></p> <p><i>Map view = arc shape</i></p> <p><i>Map view = branching shape</i></p>

3. **CONTINENTAL MARGINS:** Circle the relevant characteristics in the appropriate boxes below.

ACTIVE MARGIN	PASSIVE MARGIN
<p><i>Edge of the continent (where meets ocean)</i></p> <p><i>Subduction</i></p> <p><i>Plate boundary</i></p> <p><i>Uplifting</i></p> <p><i>Sinking</i></p> <p><i>Large earthquakes</i></p> <p><i>Volcanism</i></p> <p><i>Found in Arctic ocean</i></p> <p><i>Found in Indian ocean</i></p> <p><i>Found in Atlantic ocean</i></p> <p><i>Found in Pacific ocean</i></p>	<p><i>Edge of the continent (where meets ocean)</i></p> <p><i>Subduction</i></p> <p><i>Plate boundary</i></p> <p><i>Uplifting</i></p> <p><i>Sinking</i></p> <p><i>Large earthquakes</i></p> <p><i>Volcanism</i></p> <p><i>Found in Arctic ocean</i></p> <p><i>Found in Indian ocean</i></p> <p><i>Found in Atlantic ocean</i></p> <p><i>Found in Pacific ocean</i></p>

4. Circle the locations below that represent ACTIVE margins:
 EAST COAST US | NORTHWEST COAST US | SOUTHWEST COAST US | EAST COAST SOUTH AMERICA |
 WEST COAST SOUTH AMERICA | EAST COAST AFRICA | WEST COAST OF AFRICA |
 AUSTRALIA | INDIA | ALEUTIAN ISLANDS | PHILIPPINES | JAPAN | INDONESIA

5. **Abyssal Plains:** CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY: *flattest place on Earth* | *rough topography* | *the deepest parts of the ocean (after trenches)* | *shallowest parts of ocean* | *most of ocean seafloor*

6. Circle which of the following are considered **nutrients**: CALCIUM | SILICA | CARBONATE | SUGAR
 OXYGEN GAS | CARBON DIOXIDE GAS | WATER | SUNLIGHT | NITRATES | PHOSPHATES | SULFIDE

7. How do autotrophs get nutrients?

8. How do heterotrophs get nutrients?

9. What is the **calcium carbonate compensation depth (CCD)**? How can it explain why calcareous biogenous deposits are rare on the deepest parts of the ocean floor?

10. **DEEP-SEA MUDS:** Circle the relevant characteristics in the appropriate boxes below.

ABYSSAL or RED CLAY	SILICEOUS OOZE	CALCAREOUS OOZE
<i>Foraminifera</i> <i>Radiolaria</i> <i>Coccolithophore</i> <i>Diatom</i> <i>Lithogenous</i> <i>Biogenous</i> High near volcanoes High near rivers High near deserts High under zones of upwelling Abundant above CCD Most abundant below CCD Collects the slowest Abundant on seafloor where surface waters are warm Abundant on seafloor where surface waters are cold Dominates mid-ocean ridges Dominates abyssal plains	<i>Foraminifera</i> <i>Radiolaria</i> <i>Coccolithophore</i> <i>Diatom</i> <i>Lithogenous</i> <i>Biogenous</i> High near volcanoes High near rivers High near deserts High under zones of upwelling Abundant above CCD Most abundant below CCD Collects the slowest Abundant on seafloor where surface waters are warm Abundant on seafloor where surface waters are cold Dominates mid-ocean ridges Dominates abyssal plains	<i>Foraminifera</i> <i>Radiolaria</i> <i>Coccolithophore</i> <i>Diatom</i> <i>Lithogenous</i> <i>Biogenous</i> High near volcanoes High near rivers High near deserts High under zones of upwelling Abundant above CCD Most abundant below CCD Collects the slowest Abundant on seafloor where surface waters are warm Abundant on seafloor where surface waters are cold Dominates mid-ocean ridges Dominates abyssal plains

SEDIMENT TYPES: Circle the relevant characteristics in the appropriate boxes below.

Lithogenous	Biogenous	Hydrogenous	Cosmogenous
Largest volume in oceans Largest surface area coverage of seafloor Quartz and clay Tektites and meteorites Shells and bones Precipitates (nodules/salts)	Largest volume in oceans Largest surface area coverage of seafloor Quartz and clay Tektites and meteorites Shells and bones Precipitates (nodules/salts)	Largest volume in oceans Largest surface area coverage of seafloor Quartz and clay Tektites and meteorites Shells and bones Precipitates (nodules/salts)	Largest volume in oceans Largest surface area coverage of seafloor Quartz and clay Tektites and meteorites Shells and bones Precipitates (nodules/salts)

- | | |
|--|--|
| 11. What happens to global sea level when average ocean temperature warms? | CIRCLE: Rises Drops |
| 12. What happens to global sea level when average ocean temperature cools? | CIRCLE: Rises Drops |
| 13. What happens to global sea level when ocean basin size increases? | CIRCLE: Rises Drops |
| 14. What happens to global sea level when ocean basin size decreases? | CIRCLE: Rises Drops |
| 15. What happens to global sea level when glaciers expand on land? | CIRCLE: Rises Drops |
| 16. What happens to global sea level when glaciers melt on land? | CIRCLE: Rises Drops |
| 17. What is the lowest sea level would drop during an ice age? | 18. What feature is exposed at that depth? |
| 19. What size of sediment deposits at a beach ? | CIRCLE: Gravel Sand Mud |
| 20. What size of sediment deposits at a rocky headland ? | CIRCLE: Gravel Sand Mud |
| 21. What size of sediment deposits at the edge of the continental shelf ? | CIRCLE: Gravel Sand Mud |
| 22. During an Ice Age , what sediment deposits where the shelf break is today? | CIRCLE: Gravel Sand Mud |

23. Below you will find layers of a core of sediment recovered from drilling through the top layer of sediment in the middle of the continental shelf. For each layer, circle the sea level the grain size represents.

Top		
Mud		HIGH sea level, MODERATE sea level, LOW sea level
Sand		HIGH sea level, MODERATE sea level, LOW sea level
Gravel		HIGH sea level, MODERATE sea level, LOW sea level
Sand		HIGH sea level, MODERATE sea level, LOW sea level
Mud		HIGH sea level, MODERATE sea level, LOW sea level
Bottom		

24. Which of the above layers is the oldest? Youngest? Label above layers accordingly.

Scale Activity

1 kilometer = 1000 meters

1 meter = 100 centimeters

1. 5000 meters = how many kilometers?
2. 11 kilometers = how many meters?
3. 5000 meters = how many centimeters?
4. What, on your body, is 1 cm wide? (Pick something you can regularly reference.)
5. What, on your body, is 10 cm wide or long or tall? (Pick something you can regularly reference.)
6. What, on your body, is 100 cm or 1 m wide or tall or long? (Pick something you can regularly reference.)
7. If you travelled 1000 meters or 1 km west from the CCSF Science Building, where would you be? (Use Google Maps and note the scale bar in the lower right corner. Click on it to change it to kilometers) https://www.google.com/maps
8. What is the length/distance in kilometers of some key landmarks in the surroundings? <i>(Use Google Maps)</i>
9. How tall is the CCSF Science Building ? <i>Try to reason this out for yourself. Think about how many floors it has (5) and how tall one floor is. See tips on website for more suggestions.</i>
10. What is the radius of planet Earth (in km)?
11. What is the circumference of planet Earth (in km)?
12. What is the deepest hole ever drilled (in km)? <i>Follow website link in the resources section for this answer.</i>
13. What is the average thickness of continental crust (in km)?
14. What is the average thickness of oceanic crust (in km)?
15. What is the depth of the ocean's deepest trench (in km)?
16. What is the elevation of the continents' tallest mountain (in km)?
17. What is the average depth of the oceans (in km)?
18. The lowest sea level would drop during an ice age is about 120 m, which exposes the currently flooded edges of the continents, known as the continental shelves . 120m is what percent of the average depth of the oceans?
19. What is the average elevation of the land (in km)?

Continue on to next page...

20. Draw **Earth's layers** to scale (include asthenosphere, crust, core (inner + outer), lithosphere, mantle, and moho).

Weekly Reflection

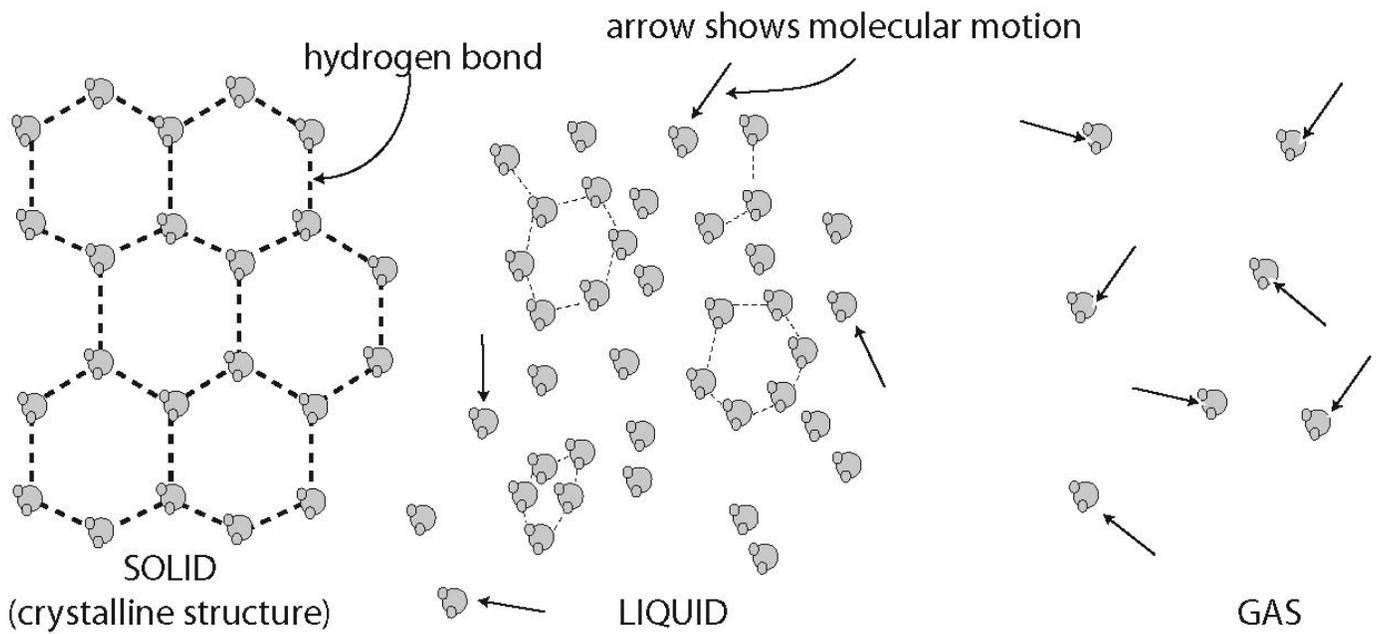
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week's objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Compare and contrast the origins and distributions of abyssal plains, trenches, rift valleys, and submarine canyons.	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast the causes, behaviors, and global distribution of active and passive margins.	A B C D F	
Analyze and interpret the origin, distribution, and evolution of ocean sediment.	A B C D F	
Recognize the major causes and impacts of global (eustatic) sea level rise and fall.	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast scales for distance.	A B C D F	

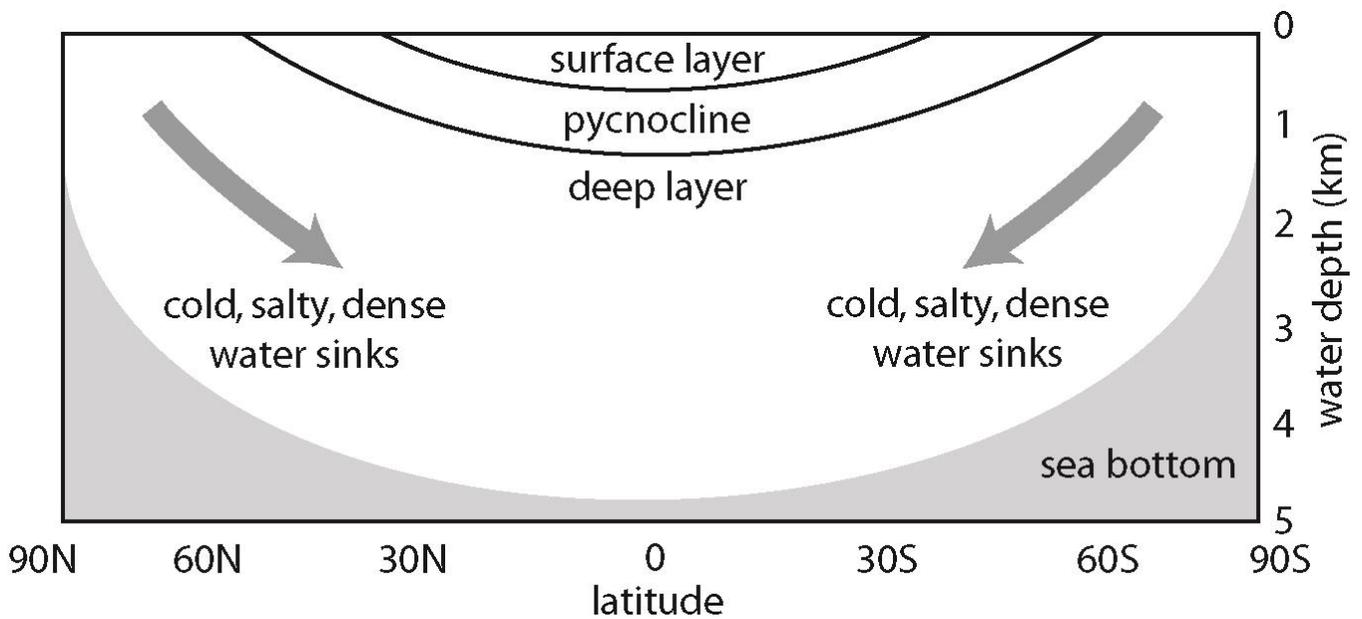
AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you've always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

SEAWATER – PHYSICAL PROPERTIES



Atomic structure of water in its solid, liquid, and gaseous forms. Note the increased volume of water in the solid state.



Generalized water-layer structure of the oceans.

SPECIFIC HEAT OF COMMON SUBSTANCES

Water	1 cal/g°C
Air	0.25 cal/g°C
Sandstone	0.47 cal/g°C
Shale	0.39 cal/g°C
Basalt	0.20 cal/g°C
Limestone	0.17 cal/g°C

Melting: Add 80 calories → 0°C → Heating: add 100 calories → 100°C → Evaporation: Add 540 calories →



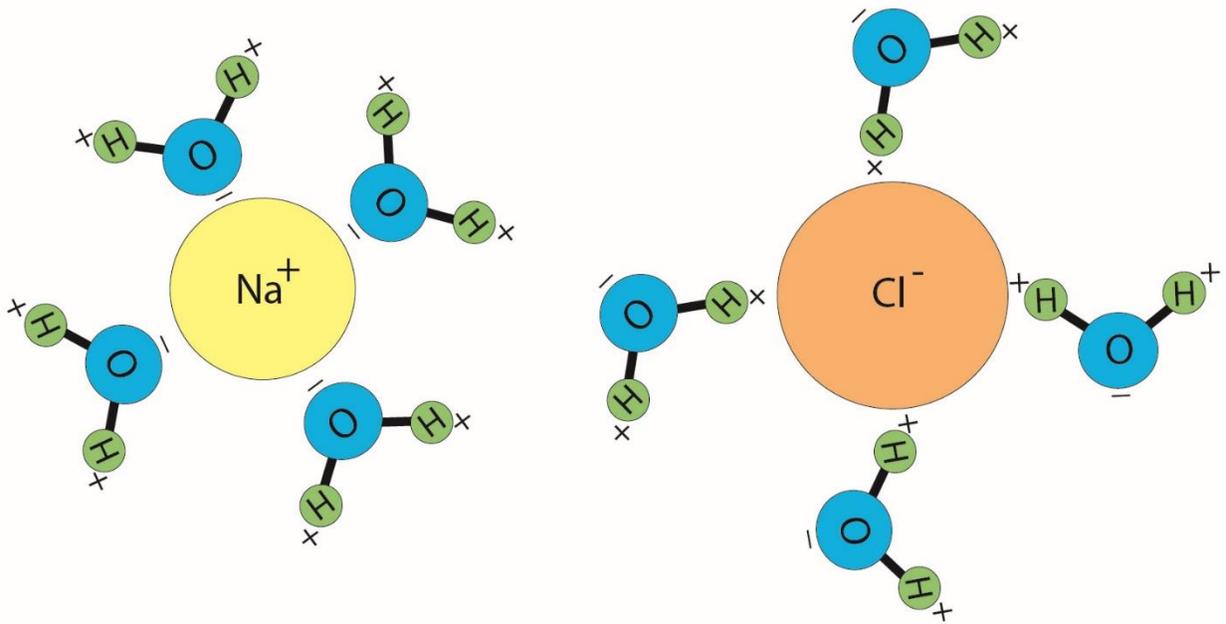
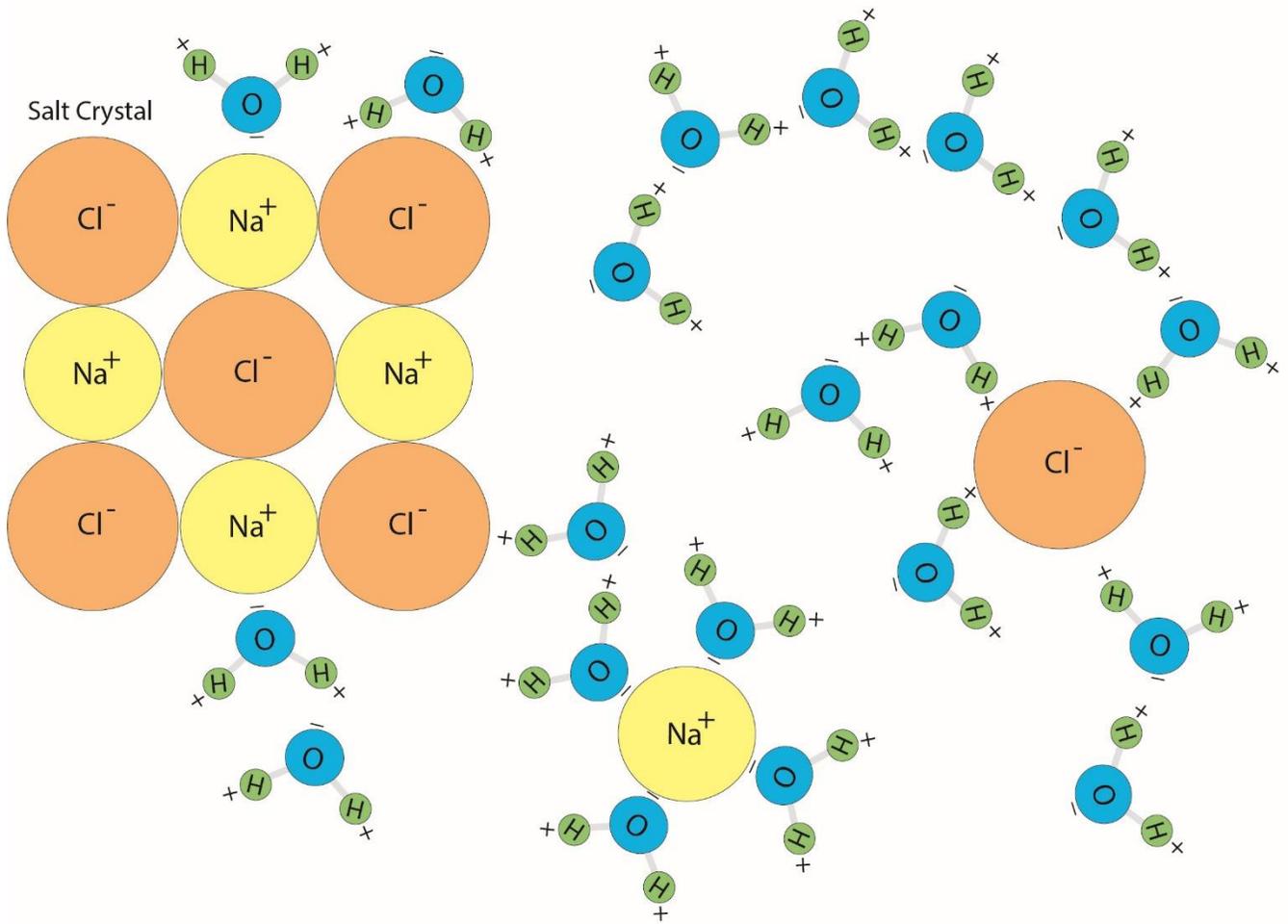
SOLID → 0°C → LIQUID → 100°C → GAS

Freezing Remove 80 calories Latent heat of fusion -- 80 calories

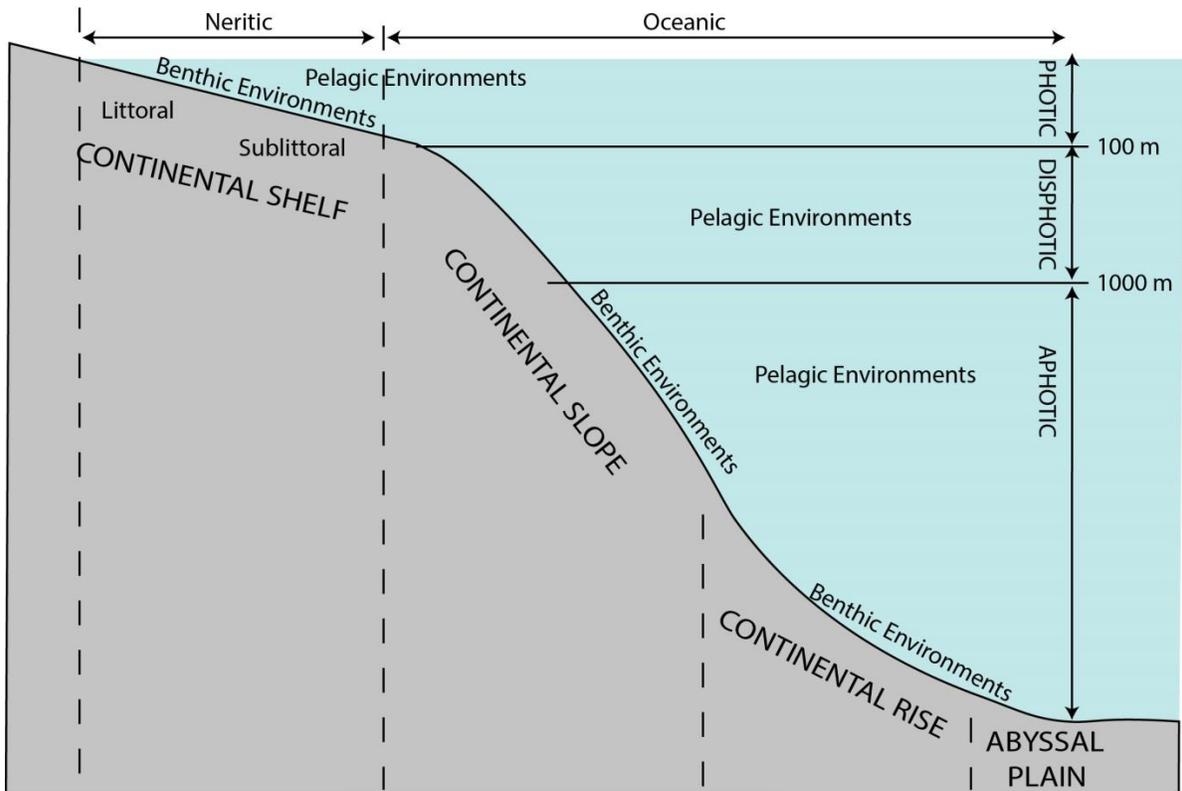
Cooling: Remove 100 calories

Condensing Remove 540 calories Latent heat of vaporization -- 540 calories

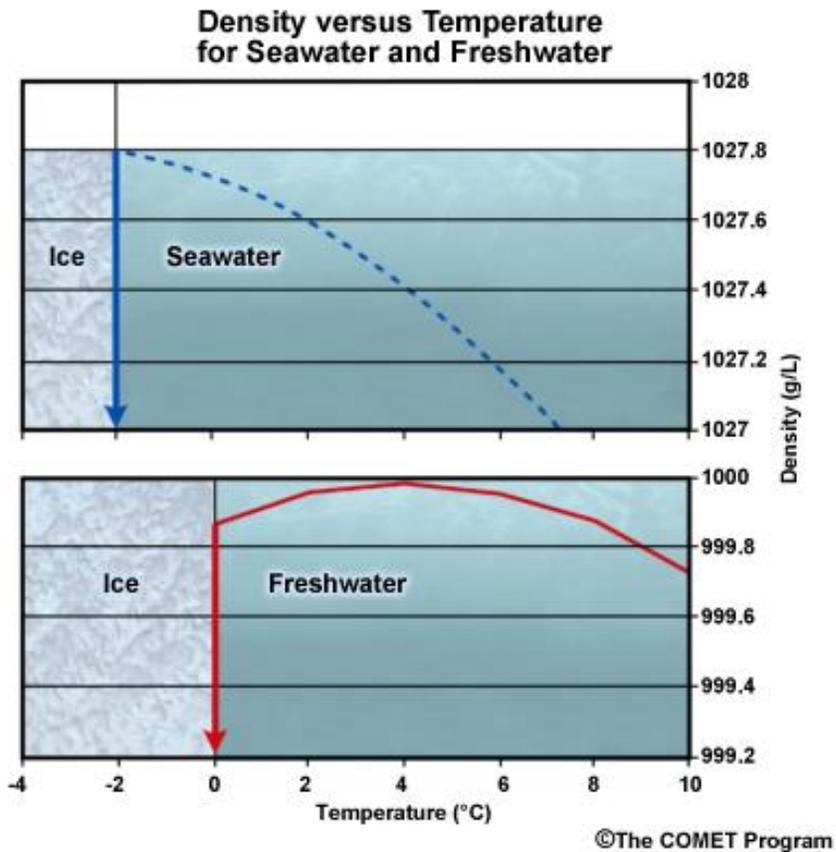
Heat required to be taken out of environment and provided to the water molecule for it to move from solid to liquid to vapor, including latent heat (for breaking bonds) and specific heats (changing temperatures) and the heat loss from the water molecule (return back to the environment) to return vapor back to ice.



Hydration spheres – what dissolved ions look like when held in water. Example here is for the dissolution of salt (NaCl).



Comparison of Benthic (seafloor) and Pelagic (water column) environments and the Neritic (near shore – over the continental shelf) and Oceanic (offshore – deeper than the continental shelf) provinces. Photic zone is depths where sunlight is still available at least 1% of surface values. Disphotic zone is where available light is between zero and 1% of surface light. The Aphotic zone has no light available.



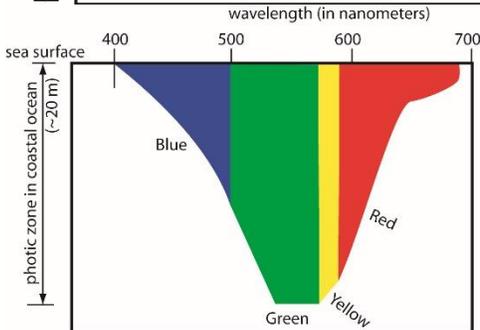
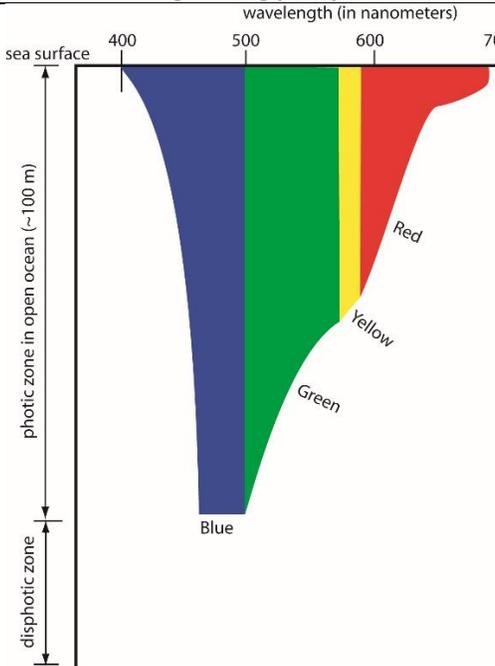
Physical Properties of Seawater Chapter Worksheet

1. Draw two water molecules and label with: <i>H O + - Covalent bond Hydrogen bond</i>	2. This bug is walking on water because of what property of water? <i>Image: David J. Ringer (CC BY-NC-ND 3.0)</i>	
		
3. Which phase of water has the largest distance between water molecules? CIRCLE: gas liquid solid	4. Which phase of water has the smallest distance between water molecules? CIRCLE: gas liquid solid	
5. Which side of a water molecule sticks to a Ca ²⁺ ion?	6. Which side of a water molecule sticks to a CO ₃ ²⁻ ion?	
7. When water turns from liquid to gas, what do we call it?	8. When water turns from gas to liquid, what do we call it?	
9. When water turns from liquid to solid, what do we call it?	10. When water turns from solid to liquid, what do we call it?	
Kinetic Energy (KE) = ½ mv² where m=mass and v=velocity. Objects with greater mass and velocity have higher KE. Velocity can be the actual speed of motion of individual atoms or molecules OR it can be vibrational motion of these same atoms within a solid crystal structure. A solid with high kinetic energy has a lot of internal vibrational motion. A solid within which the atoms have NO vibrational motion – no kinetic energy – means that substance is at ABSOLUTE ZERO = 0 degrees Kelvin = -273 degrees Celsius).		
11. TERM for the average kinetic energy of molecules in a system:	12. TERM for the total kinetic energy of molecules in a system:	13. TERM for the amount of HEAT required to raise 1 g of water by 1° C:
14. If the velocity of molecules within a solid slows down (kinetic energy drops), what happens to the temperature of the substance?		
15. At the beach, on a hot day, in which substance are molecules moving with the highest internal velocity? (Circle: <i>Sand Water Asphalt</i>)		
16. What happens to freshwater Density when temperature rises from 10 to 20C?	17. What happens to freshwater density when temperature descends from 20 to 10C?	
18. What happens to freshwater density when temperature rises from 1to 4C?	19. What happens to freshwater density when temperature cools from 4 to 1C?	
20. What happens to seawater density when temperature rises from 1to 4C?	21. What happens to seawater density when temperature cools from 4 to 1C?	
22. What is the freezing point of freshwater?	23. What is the boiling point of freshwater?	
24. What happens to water's freezing point when salinity increases?	25. What happens to water's boiling point when salinity increases?	
26. If <u>HEAT</u> is added to a system, and the system's <u>TEMPERATURE</u> increases as a result, we call that type of heat:		
27. If heat is added to a system, and molecular bonds are broken to allow a solid to melt and form a liquid, we call that type of heat: _____. What happens to the temperature during this change of state?		
28. If heat is added to a system, and molecular bonds are broken to allow a liquid to become a gas, we call that type of heat: _____. What happens to the temperature during this change of state?		
29. What is the specific heat of water?	30. What is the latent heat of evaporation of freshwater?	

31. What is the **latent heat of fusion** of freshwater?

32. What happens to the heat of the surroundings during **evaporation**?

33. What happens to the heat of the surroundings during **precipitation**?



34. Based on these pictures, what color of light is absorbed first in the open ocean?

35. What color of light lasts the longest in the open ocean and thus gives this water its color?

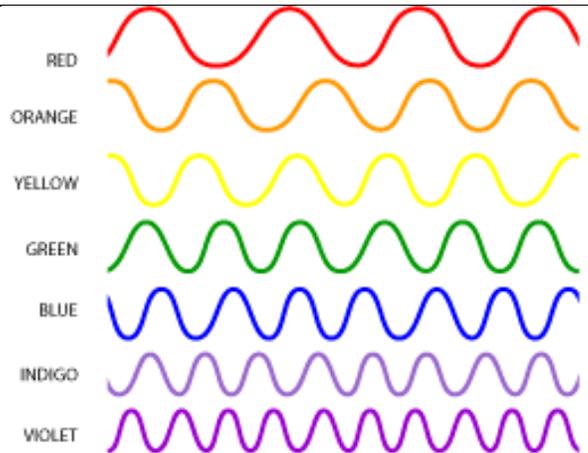
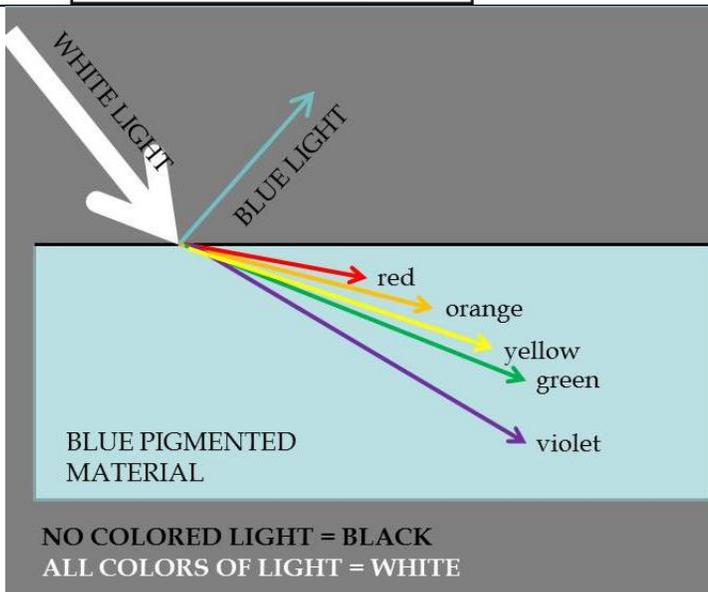
36. White light contains all colors of the spectrum (Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Indigo, Violet).
What color(s) does green pigment (chlorophyll) **absorb**?

37. What color does green pigment (chlorophyll) **reflect**?

38. What color would a red shrimp appear to be if you could look at it at the bottom of the photic zone?

39. What color would a green organism appear to be if you could look at it at the bottom of the photic zone in the near shore?

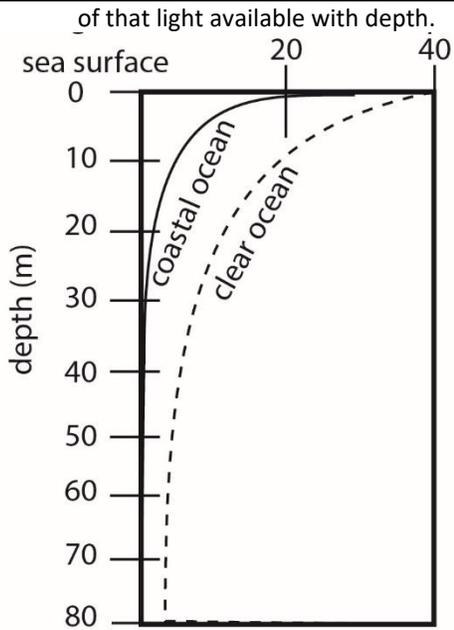
Colors of light and their attenuation with depth.



Relative wavelengths of the different colors of light.
Image: NASA

Graph shows the % of light remaining with 100% hitting surface and decreasing amounts

40. Which of these water types has the deepest photic zone (light travels deepest)?



CIRCLE: Hot water | Cold water | No difference

CIRCLE:

Water with lots of sediment | Clear of sediment | No difference

CIRCLE:

Water with lots of plankton | Desert water (no life) | No difference

41. **Attenuation** is the term used to describe the amount of light absorbed by water in a particular area (not the color but how MUCH). What is the attenuation at the base of the photic zone?

42. **VISCOSITY** means:

43. **Which is most viscous?** CIRCLE: *Honey or Water*

44. Pressure increases by 1 atm for every 10 meters of descent in the ocean; the pressure at the surface is 1 atm

What is the pressure at 100 meters depth?

What is the pressure at 1000 meters depth?

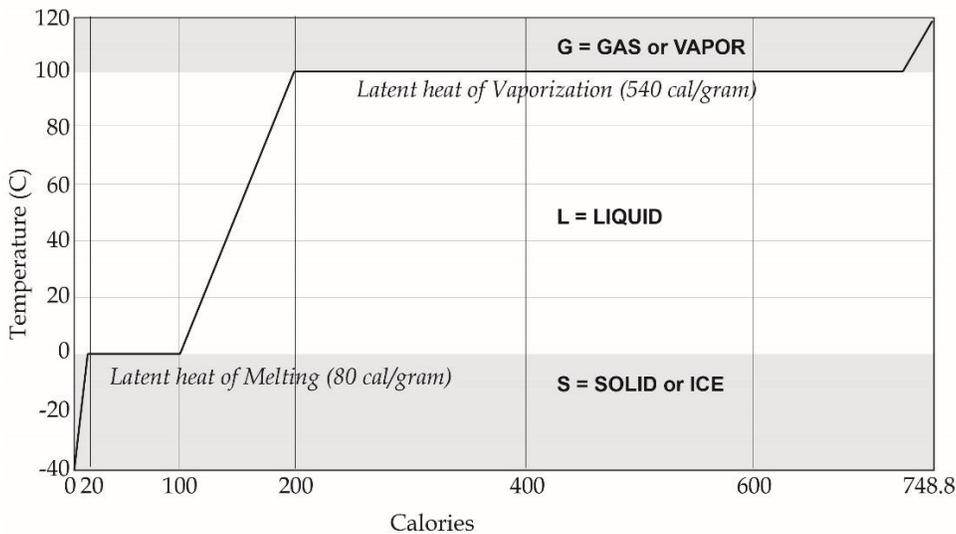
What is the pressure at 10,000 meters depth?

45. Label the picture below of heat/energy transfer with these terms:

Conduction | Convection | Radiation



Phase Changes Activity



Specific heat of water:

1 calorie/gram°C

Specific heat of water vapor:

0.44 cal/gram°C

Specific heat of ice:

0.5 calorie/gram°C

Latent heat of melting:

80 calorie/gram

Latent heat of vaporization:

540 calorie/gram

Note: specific heat has also be called heat capacity, though technically they are not synonyms.

Heat is moved around our natural world through three processes: radiation (think of solar radiation), conduction (think of heat transfer from an iron skillet to your hand), and convection (think of boiling water).

In addition to how heat is transferred, we can also classify heat by how it's used by the object to which it is transferred. If heat is used to break bonds to change the phase of a material, we call it **LATENT HEAT**. If it's used to raise temperature of a substance, we call it **SPECIFIC HEAT**. ANALOGY: If you took the money you bring in each week and classified it by how you used it, you could have *services money* and *goods money* depending on how you choose to spend it. Same concept as heat categories. Heat goes to accomplish different needs.

Determining how much heat is transferred to the water system matters greatly to our understanding of natural processes. Why? The heat that is used to raise the temperature of ice in the mountains (or at the poles), break its bonds to melt it, and then raise its temperature and then evaporate it, so it's part of the air, is the SAME AMOUNT OF HEAT that is then returned to the system when that same water molecule travels to a new location and cools and precipitates and cools more and freezes. Heat added to the system in one location (equator and tropics where most of the evaporation happens) is later released to another location (think the midlatitudes during rain storms or the poles during ice formation).

Through this process of evaporation in one place followed by precipitation in another, heat is redistributed on our planet and keeps our planet from becoming colder each day at the poles (where solar energy is low) and hotter each day at the equator (where solar energy is high).

Example: On a hot summer day, how much heat does the air have to transfer to an open bowl with **1,000 grams of solid ice at -2°C** to change it into **1,000 grams of water vapor at 105°C**? And how much would the temperature of the surrounding air drop as a result?

STEP 1: Use specific heat to change temperature of SOLID ICE from -2°C to 0°C

$$1000\text{g} \times 2^\circ\text{C} \times 0.5\text{cal/g}^\circ\text{C} = 1000 \text{ cal}$$

STEP 2: Use latent heat to break bonds of SOLID ICE and turn it to LIQUID WATER

$$1000\text{g} \times 80 \text{ cal/g} = 80,000 \text{ cal}$$

STEP 3: Use specific heat to change temperature of LIQUID WATER from 0°C to 100°C

$$1000\text{g} \times 100^\circ\text{C} \times 1\text{cal/g}^\circ\text{C} = 100,000 \text{ cal}$$

STEP 4: Use latent heat to break bonds of LIQUID WATER and turn it to WATER VAPOR

$$1000\text{g} \times 540\text{cal/g} = 540,000 \text{ cal}$$

STEP 5: Use specific heat to change temperature of WATER VAPOR from 100°C to 105°C

$$1000\text{g} \times 5^\circ\text{C} \times 0.44\text{cal/g}^\circ\text{C} = 2,200 \text{ cal}$$

TOTAL heat removed from surrounding air: 723,200 calories

The heat capacity and density of air vary by composition and temperature, but for our purposes we use 0.24 cal/g°C. and 1300 g/m³. If we imagine we're in a room that is 9x9x9 meters (729 m³), there would be 1300 g/m³ x 729 m³ = 947,700 grams of air.

$$947,700 \text{ grams} \times 0.24 \text{ cal/g}^\circ\text{C} = 227,448 \text{ cal/}^\circ\text{C}$$

$$723,200 \text{ calories} \times 1^\circ\text{C}/227,448 \text{ cal} = 3.2^\circ\text{C}$$

RESULT: The temperature of the air in the room goes down 3.2°C or 5.7°F.

You'd notice that (however, in reality, the heat transfer is happening from the bowl and the table as well, not just the air. And heat is continually transferred among all the objects in the room as well, so to get the entire room to go down 3.2 °C, you'd need more ice!

TOTAL HEAT TRANSFER for 1000 grams of material:

	Change	Heat ratio	Required heat
STEP 1	-2° to 0°C (ice)	0.5 cal/g°C	1000g x 2°C x 0.5cal/g°C = 1000 cal
STEP 2	0°C Solid → Liquid	80 cal/g	1000g x 80 cal/g = 80,000 cal
STEP 3	0° to 100°C (liquid)	1 cal/g°C	1000g x 100°C x 1cal/g°C =100,000 cal
STEP 4	100°C Liquid → Gas	540 cal/g	1000g x 540cal/g = 540,000 cal
STEP 5	100° to 105°C (gas)	0.44 cal/g°C	1000g x 5°C x 0.44cal/g°C=2,200 cal
	Total		723,200 calories

1. How much heat does desert air give up if heat is used to melt ice in a cup and evaporate the water?

START: 1 gram of solid ice at -10°C

END: 1 gram of water vapor at 120°C

Change	Heat ratio	Required heat
-10° to 0°C (ice)	0.5 cal/g°C	
0°C Solid → Liquid	80 cal/g	
0° to 100°C (liquid)	1 cal/g°C	
100°C Liquid → Gas	540 cal/g	
100° to 120°C (gas)	0.44 cal/g°C	
Total		

2. How much heat do your hands give up if heat is used to melt a snowball and evaporate the water?

START: 10 gram of solid ice at -10°C

END: 10 gram of water vapor at 120°C

Change	Heat ratio	Required heat
-10° to 0°C (ice)	0.5 cal/g°C	
0°C Solid → Liquid	80 cal/g	
0° to 100°C (liquid)	1 cal/g°C	
100°C Liquid → Gas	540 cal/g	
100° to 120°C (gas)	0.44 cal/g°C	
Total		

3. How much heat does your stove use up to melt ice and evaporate the water in a skillet?

START: 10 gram of solid ice at -8°C

END: 10 gram of water vapor at 110°C

Change	Heat ratio	Required heat
-8°C to 0°C (ice)	0.5 cal/g°C	
0°C Solid → Liquid	80 cal/g	
0° to 100°C (liquid)	1 cal/g°C	
100°C Liquid → Gas	540 cal/g	
100° to 110°C (gas)	0.44 cal/g°C	
Total		

4. How much heat does the ocean and air give up if heat is used to melt and evaporate an iceberg?

START: 5 gram of solid ice at -2°C

END: 5 gram of water vapor at 119°C

Change	Heat ratio	Required heat
Total		

5. How much heat does your skin give up if that heat is used to evaporate sweat?

START: 3 gram of water at 20°C

END: 3 gram of water vapor at 110°C

Change	Heat ratio	Required heat
Total		

6. How much heat does your window/air give up if heat is used to melt frost on the pane and then raise the temperature of the melted water?

START: 5 gram of solid ice at -12°C

END: 5 gram of water at 89°C

Change	Heat ratio	Required heat
Total		

7. If the amount of sunlight that arrives at the surface on a particular day is $1.8 \text{ calories/cm}^2 \cdot \text{min}$, and directly hits 1 gram of 15°C water in a 1 square centimeter space, what would the new temperature be after 1 minute?

8. The amount of sunlight that arrives at the surface on a particular day at a particular location with a glacier present is $1.6 \text{ calories/cm}^2 \cdot \text{min}$. The air temperature is 0°C or warmer. The sunlight directly hits a 1 cm^2 surface of a glacier. How many minutes would it take to melt 4 grams of 0°C ice in this glacier?

Weekly Reflection

Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week’s objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Diagram and analyze the shape and physical and chemical behaviors of the water molecule .	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast heat and temperature and the methods for transferring the former and raising or lowering the other.	A B C D F	
Analyze the heat and physical changes that occur externally and internally when water changes phase.	A B C D F	
Evaluate how the color and intensity of light we see is affected by differences in water clarity and depth; and the impacts these effects have on marine life.	A B C D F	
Evaluate how density, viscosity, and pressure change in a variety of ocean conditions and thereby impact on marine life.	A B C D F	

AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you’ve always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

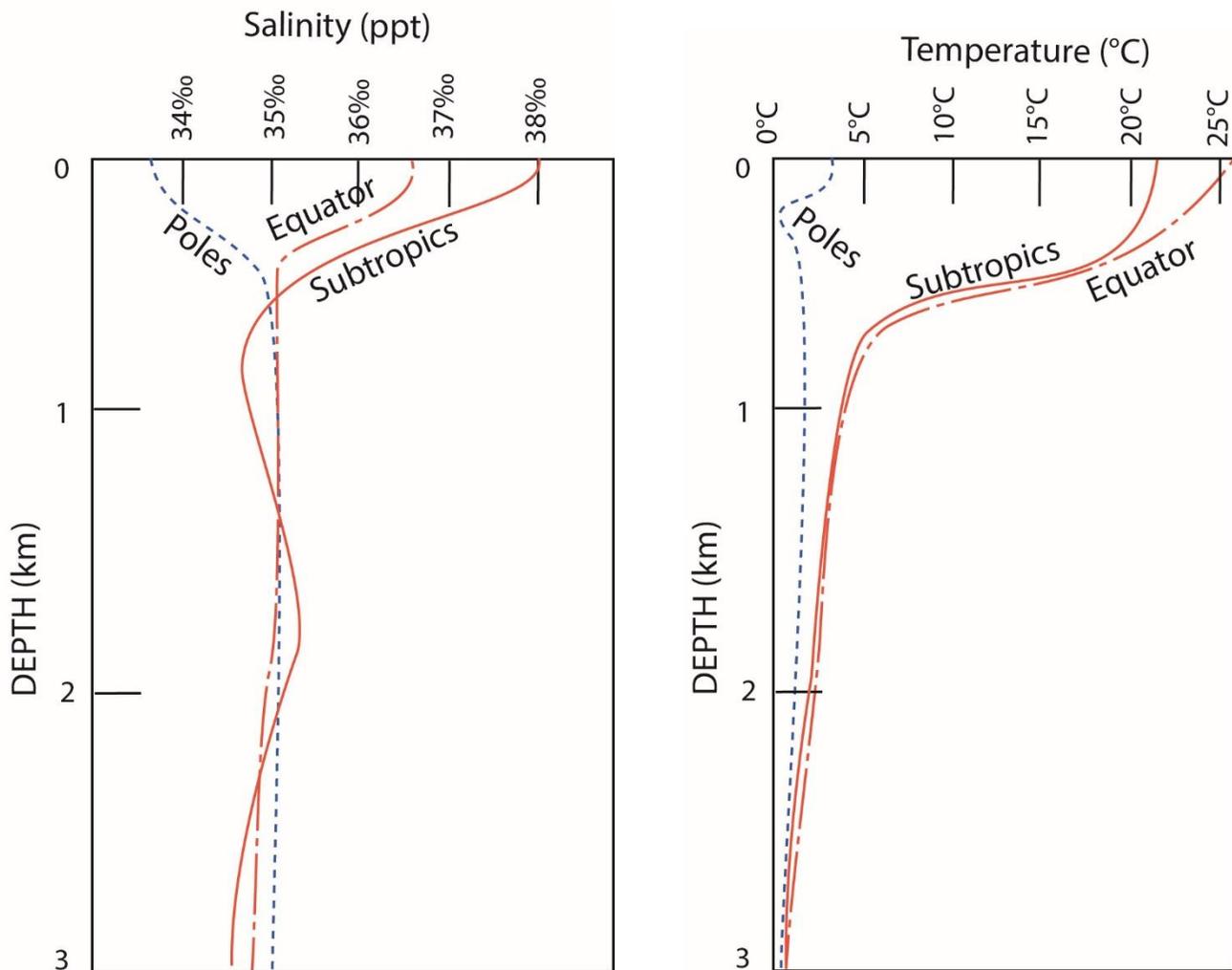
SEAWATER CHEMISTRY

Comparison of the concentration of major dissolved ions in the oceans and in the rivers that act as their primary source to the oceans (by volume or frequency, NOT by weight)

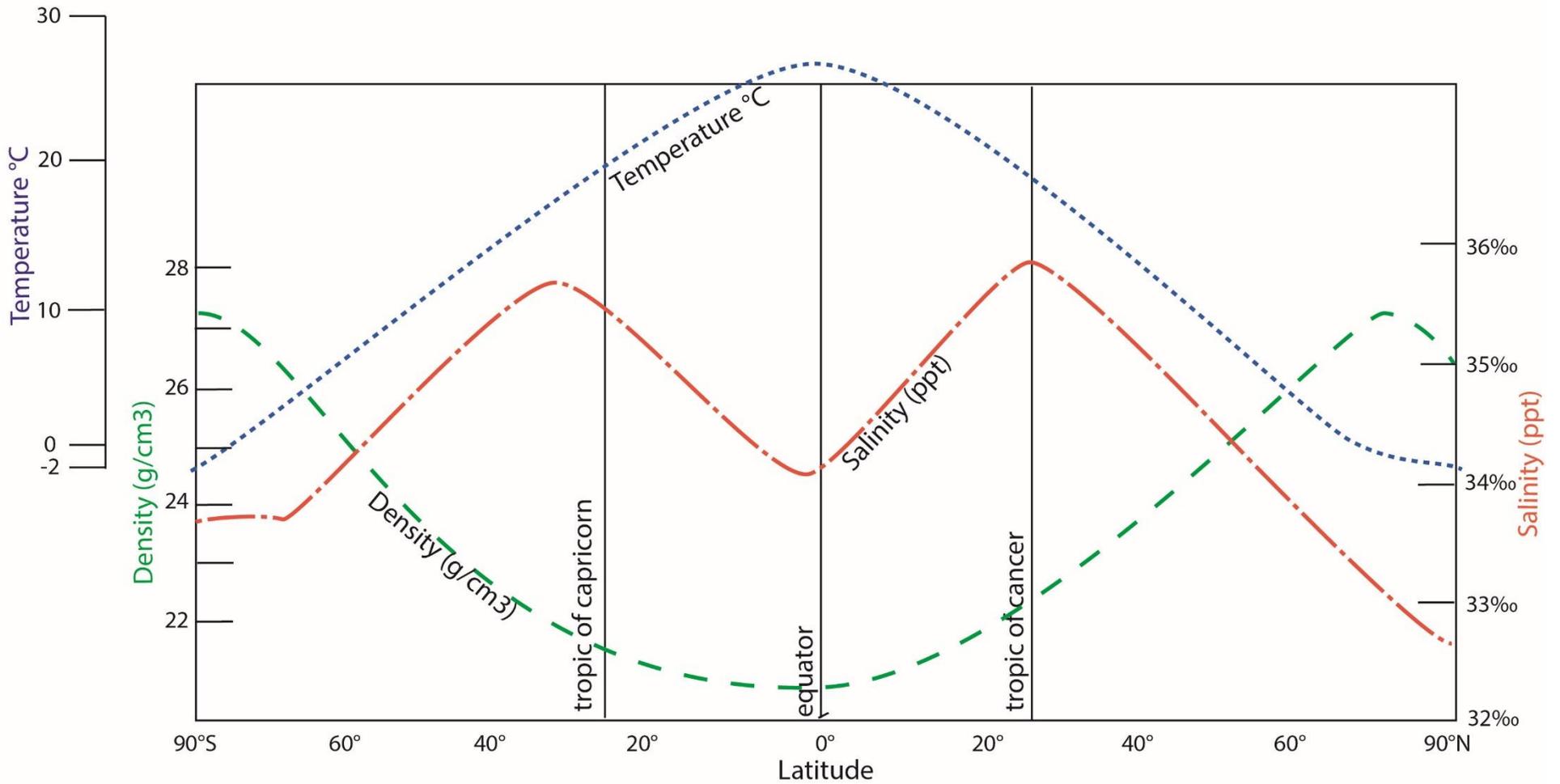
	Oceans (mol/L)	Residence time (yr)	Ocean input from rivers (10^{10} mol/yr)	Rivers (mol/L)
Cl ⁻	0.55	87 million	720	0.00022
Na ⁺	0.46	55 million	900	0.00027
Mg ²⁺	0.054	13 million	550	0.00017
SO ₄ ²⁻	0.028	8.7 million	380	0.00012
K ⁺	0.01	12 million	190	0.000059
Ca ²⁺	0.01	1.1 million	1220	0.00038
HCO ₃ ⁻	0.0023	83,000	3200	0.00095

Comparison of the concentration of gases in the atmosphere and dissolved in the ocean (by volume or frequency, NOT by weight)

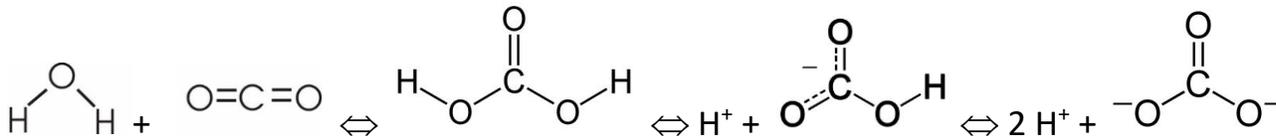
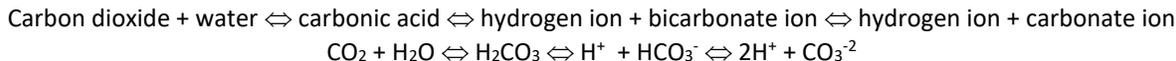
Gas	% in atmosphere by volume	% in ocean surface by volume	% in total ocean by volume
Nitrogen (N ₂)	78	48	11
Oxygen (O ₂)	21	36	6
Carbon dioxide (CO ₂)	0.04	15	83



Generalized depth profiles for salinity and temperature, varying with latitude.



Generalized variations in surface water temperature, salinity, and density across latitude in the world's oceans.

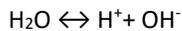


This equation maintains EQUILIBRIUM in the oceans, which means:

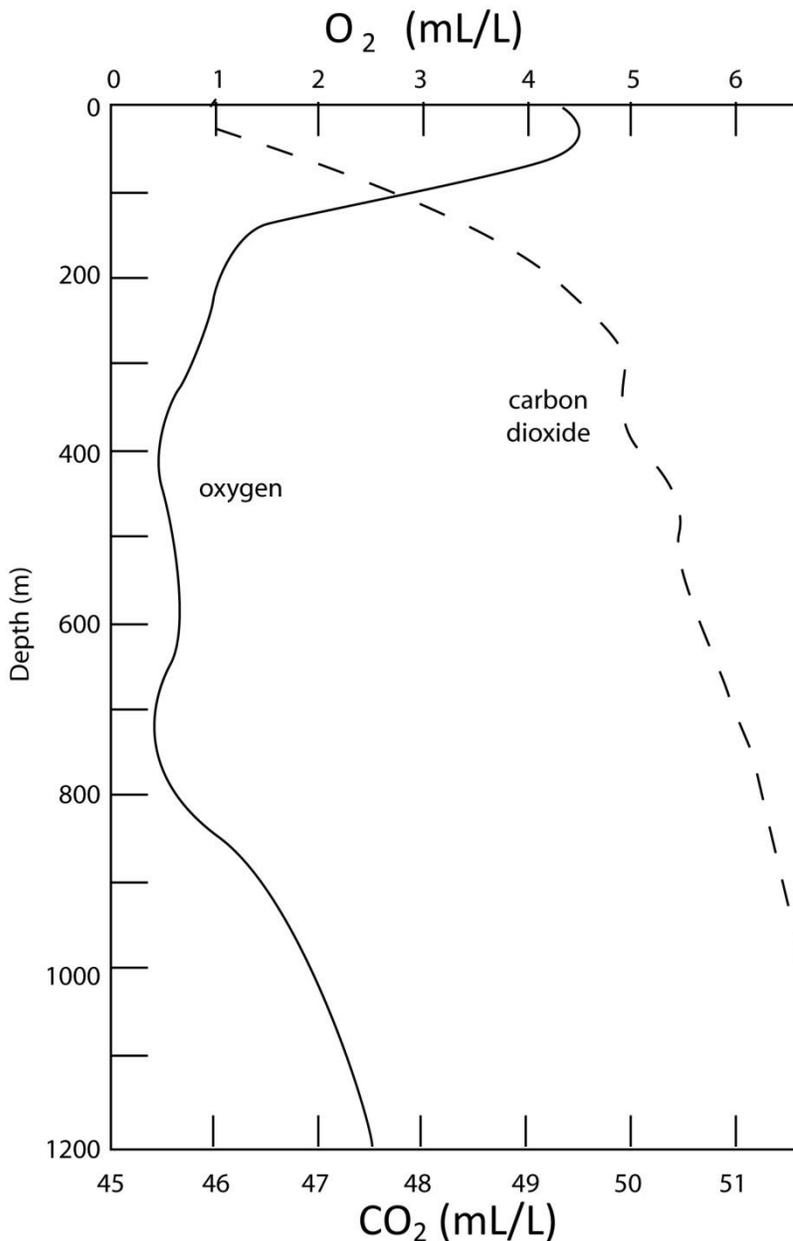
Whenever you try to change the ocean's H^+ or CO_2 content, the above equation will work in whatever directions UNDOES the change, so the system goes back to being in balance.

pH = measurement of the activity (concentration) of H^+ ion.

BUT scale is a negative log function:
 high pH = low H^+ ion concentration;
 low pH = high H^+ ion concentration.



If H^+ and OH^- do NOT balance, then the system will be **acidic** (if more H^+ than OH^-) or **basic** (if more OH^- than H^+).



General variations of the concentrations of carbon dioxide and oxygen with depth in the world's oceans.

Seawater Chemistry Chapter Worksheet

1. What specifically does salinity measure? (definition)		
2. What is the average salinity of the oceans? (be sure to include number + FULL units)		
3. Circle which of the following objects would be part of the above calculation of salinity: <i>Suspended clay minerals Cl⁻ Na⁺ Water molecules plankton feces dissolved oxygen gas nitrates (NO₃²⁻) foraminifera and diatoms SiO₂ shells SO₄²⁻</i>		
4. List the major ions dissolved in seawater in decreasing order (highest on left – least on right):		
5. For the list above, circle the ions that are CATIONS and underline the ones that are ANIONS.		
6. List the 3 types of bonds discussed in this class below the appropriate circumstances in which they are found: WITHIN a single water molecule BETWEEN water molecules BETWEEN Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in a salt crystal		
7. Rank the above bonds (specific to the examples) in order from strongest to weakest (1=strongest 3 = weakest).		
8. What is the term used to describe the opposite of <u>dissolution</u> ? (<i>when dissolved ions get back together and bond to make a solid</i>)	9. If the concentration of Cl ⁻ in a body of water is 4.5 mol/L, and the <u>saturation concentration</u> is 4 mol/L, what term do we use to describe this system?	10. Common evaporite minerals found under shallow seas in warm climates include: Gypsum (CaSO ₄ ·2H ₂ O), Salt (NaCl), and Calcite (CaCO ₃). What kind of bonds exist between the atoms in these minerals?
11. Make a list below of ALL the things conservative constituents have in common:		
12. Make a list below of ALL the things nonconservative constituents have in common:		
13. Circle the conservative constituents from the following materials dissolved in the oceans. <i>Na⁺ Cl⁻ CO₂ gas O₂ gas N₂ gas Nitrates (NO₃²⁻) Phosphates (PO₄³⁻) H⁺ HCO₃⁻ SO₄²⁻</i>		
14. REVIEW: What is a nutrient and which of the above are considered nutrients ?		
15. What is the PRIMARY SOURCE of dissolved ions to the oceans? (what brings ions to the ocean)	16. List as many other SOURCES of dissolved ions to the oceans as you can:	
17. How are nutrients transported through the oceans?		
Ions are removed from the ocean when they bond with each other. Solid surfaces can accelerate that bonding. It is for that reason that PEARLS form – as Ca ²⁺ and CO ₃ ²⁻ find each other on the surface of a sand grain and bond to grow a mineral. When solid surfaces collect and facilitate bonding of seawater ions, we call that adsorption .		
18. In addition to adsorption, what are other ways to remove ions from the oceans?		
19. How is chlorinity related to salinity? Why?		

20. Describe these main methods used to measure salinity. Are they directly measuring salinity or indirectly measuring it? How does each work?

Method	CIRCLE:	How does it work? Provide full explanation of how each of these parameters tells us about salinity.
Conductivity (current meter)	Direct Indirect	
Density (hydrometer)	Direct Indirect	
Chlorinity	Direct Indirect	
Taste	Direct Indirect	
Evaporation and scales	Direct Indirect	
OTHER:		

21. What happens to local salinity when **evaporation** rates increase? CIRCLE: *rises / lowers*

22. What happens to local salinity when **ice formation** rates increase? CIRCLE: *rises / lowers*

23. What happens to local salinity when **rain** increases? CIRCLE: *rises / lowers*

24. What happens to local salinity when **river input** increases? CIRCLE: *rises / lowers*

25. Where is surface salinity **highest** in the world ocean (in general)? Why?

26. Where is surface salinity **lowest** in the world ocean (in general)? Why?

27. Describe how and why salinity varies with depth in the oceans (poles vs subtropics). (*Observations and Evaluations – see graph showing depth profile for salinity in the images that precede this assignment.*)

28. Where is surface temperature **highest** in the world ocean (in general)? Why?

29. Where is surface temperature **lowest** in the world ocean (in general)? Why?

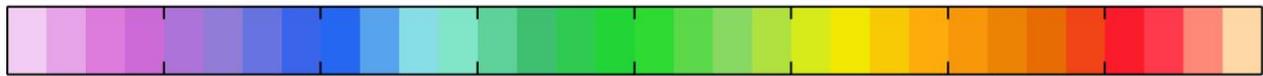
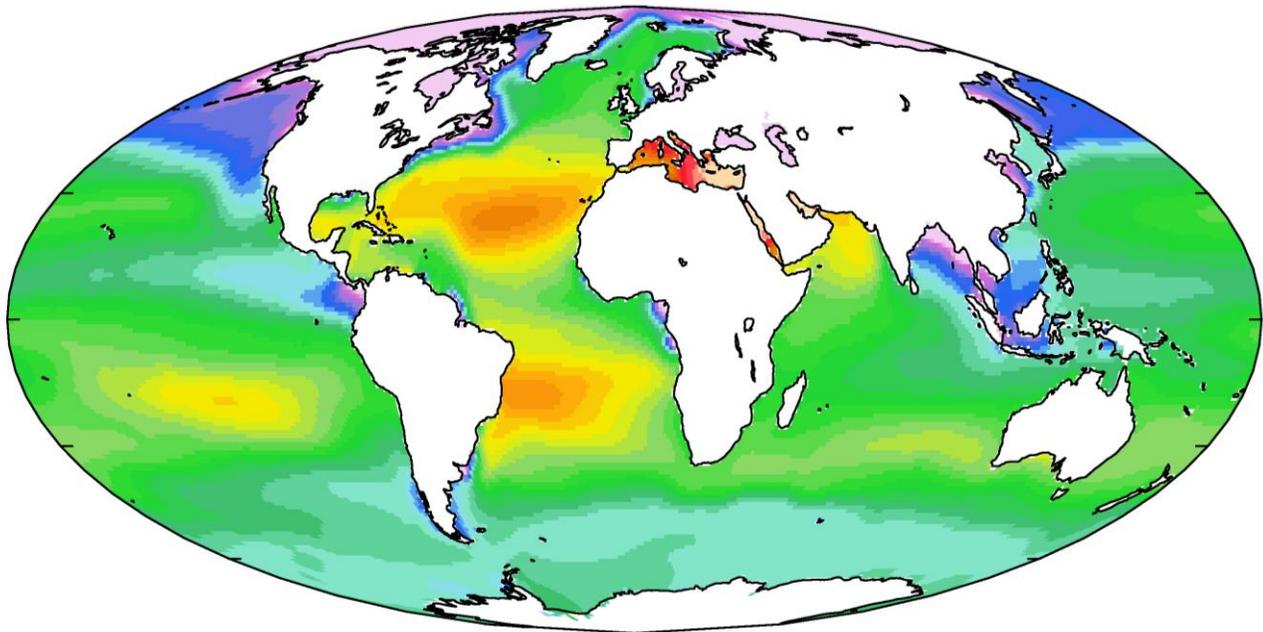
30. Describe how and why temperature varies with depth in the oceans (poles vs subtropics). (<i>Observations and Evaluations – see graph showing depth profile for temperature in the images that precede this assignment.</i>)	
31. What happens to gas solubility when pressure increases?	CIRCLE: <i>rises / lowers</i>
32. What happens to gas solubility when temperature increases?	CIRCLE: <i>rises / lowers</i>
33. What happens to gas solubility when salinity increases?	CIRCLE: <i>rises / lowers</i>
34. Which gas is highest in abundance in the atmosphere ?	35. Which gas is highest in abundance in the oceans ? Why?
36. Which of the following processes increases oxygen in the oceans? SOURCES -- CIRCLE: <i>atmospheric interaction / decomposition / photosynthesis / respiration / volcanic outgassing</i>	
37. Which of the following processes increases carbon dioxide in the oceans? SINKS -- CIRCLE: <i>atmospheric interaction / decomposition / photosynthesis / respiration / volcanic outgassing</i>	
38. Describe how and why oxygen varies with depth in the oceans. (<i>Observations and Evaluations – see graph showing depth profile for oxygen in the images that precede this assignment. And note that you’ve answered this question before in Week 1 What is Science activity and Week 2 Photosynthesis activity so I’m expecting you to get this one 100% correct now!</i>)	
39. Describe how and why carbon dioxide varies with depth in the oceans. (<i>Observations and Evaluations – see graph showing depth profile for salinity in the images that precede this assignment. And note that you’ve answered this question before in Week 1 What is Science activity and Week 2 Photosynthesis activity so I’m expecting you to get this one 100% correct now!))</i>)	
40. What chemical does pH measure? Be specific! (include definition)	
41. In 1 liter of water, there are 3.3×10^{25} atoms of water, 6.022×10^{16} of H^+ , and 6.022×10^{16} of OH^- . What kind of solution is it?	CIRCLE: <i>Acidic / Neutral / Basic</i>
42. If, in that same liter of water, there is more H^+ than OH^- (NOT equal), what kind of solution is it?	CIRCLE: <i>Acidic / Neutral / Basic</i>
43. If, in that same liter of water, there is more OH^- than H^+ (they are NOT equal), what kind of solution is it?	CIRCLE: <i>Acidic / Neutral / Basic</i>
44. What is the pH range for basic solutions ?	CIRCLE: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
45. What is the pH range for neutral solutions ?	CIRCLE: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
46. What is the pH range for acidic solutions ?	CIRCLE: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
47. What is the average pH of the oceans ?	CIRCLE: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
48. What is the average pH of coffee ?	CIRCLE: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
49. What is the average pH of orange juice ?	CIRCLE: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14

SALINITY

8. **Seawater salinity** is a ratio of dissolved ions per unit of water. Where do the ions and water come from that make salinity higher in some places and lower in others? (*Refer to *Photosynthesis activity from Water Planet chapter for review of the definition of sources and sinks.**)

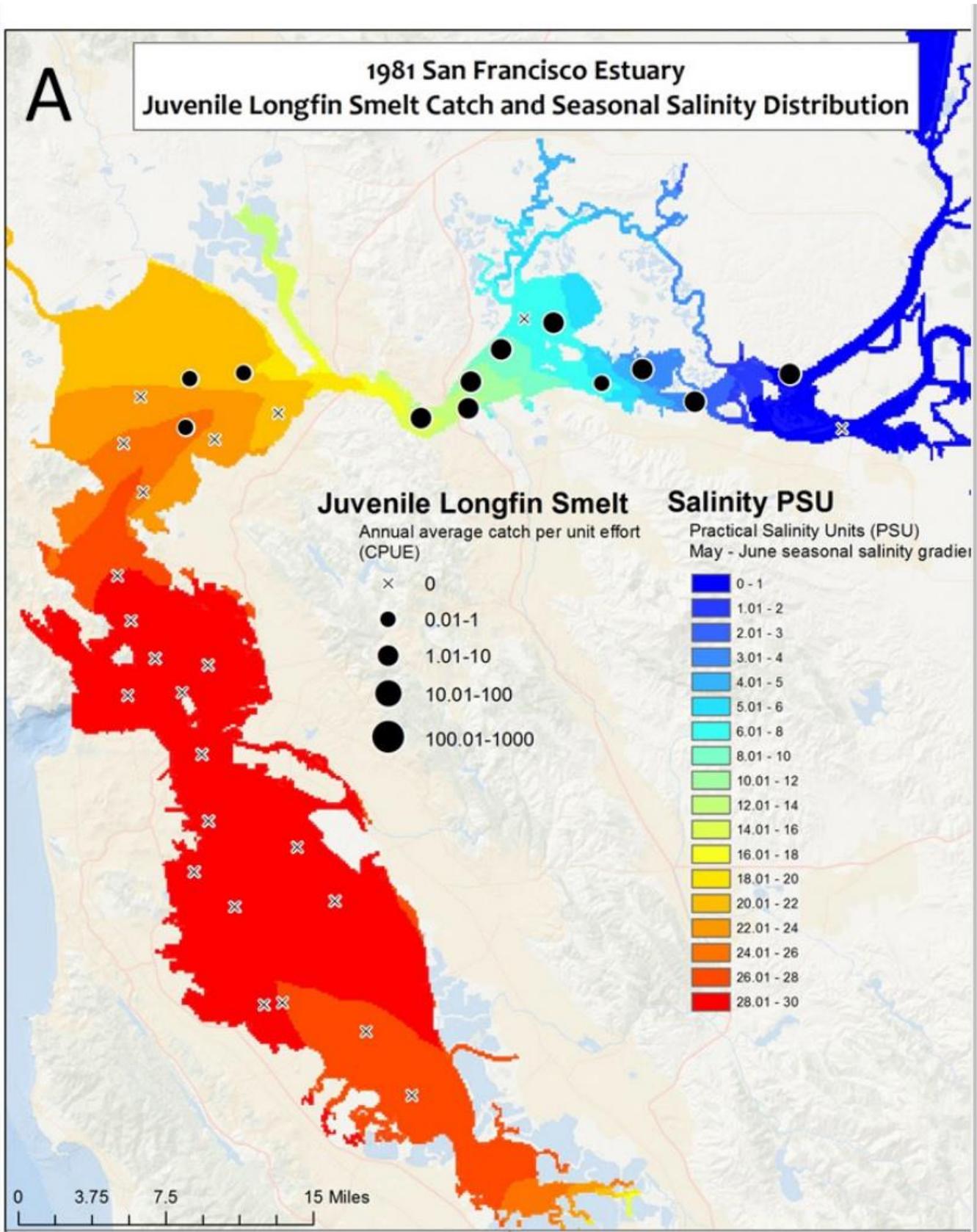
Ion SOURCES (what brings ions to the ocean)	Ion SINKS (what takes ions from the oceans)
Water SOURCES	Water SINKS
Salinity is HIGH where what is happening?	Salinity is LOW where what is happening?

9. Review figure below of the global distribution of seawater surface salinity. Describe what the data show. What patterns do you see and what accounts for them?



31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39
 Sea-surface salinity [PSU]

Annual mean sea surface salinity for the World Ocean. Data from the World Ocean Atlas 2009. Plumbago - CC BY-SA 3.0



Predicted average salinity (PSU or PPT) between May 1 and June 30 1981 with annual average catch per unit effort (CPUE) of Juvenile Longfin Smelt. From [MacWilliams, Bever, and Foresman, 2016](#). CC-BY 4.0

10. **REVIEW:** What is the salinity of river water?

11. **REVIEW:** What is the average salinity of seawater?

12. Review figure on previous page of the distribution of seawater surface salinity for San Francisco Bay. What patterns in seawater surface salinity do you see and what accounts for them? (Ignore the fish data)

13. Would you expect to see changes in these values at the end of winter and spring rain storms? If so describe those changes here:

Weekly Reflection

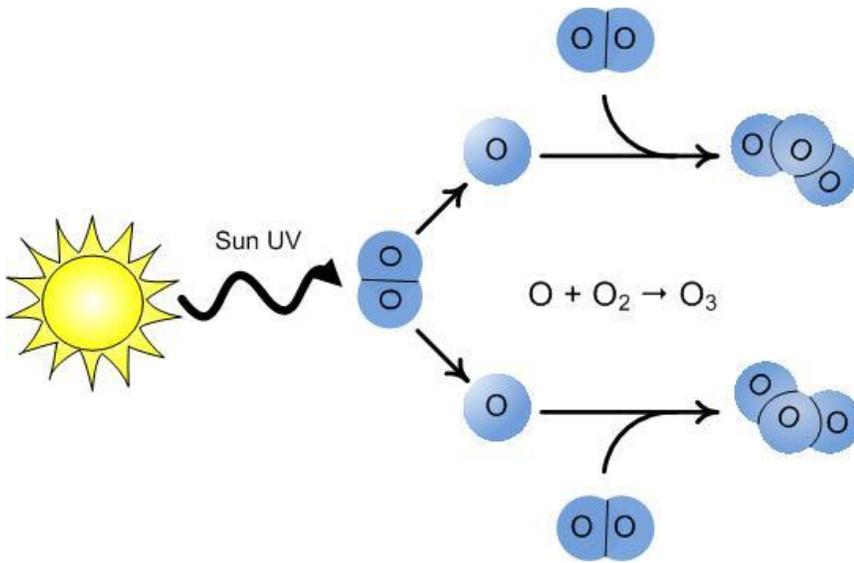
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week’s objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Evaluate the definition, components, sources, sinks, and causes for global and local variations of seawater salinity .	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast a variety of methods for measuring seawater salinity .	A B C D F	
Evaluate the definition, components, sources, sinks, and distribution of dissolved ions, including nutrients, in the oceans .	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast the main gases dissolved in the ocean -- their solubilities, sources, sinks, and distribution.	A B C D F	
Evaluate the impacts of dissolved carbon dioxide on ocean pH and marine life .	A B C D F	

AHA! Moments

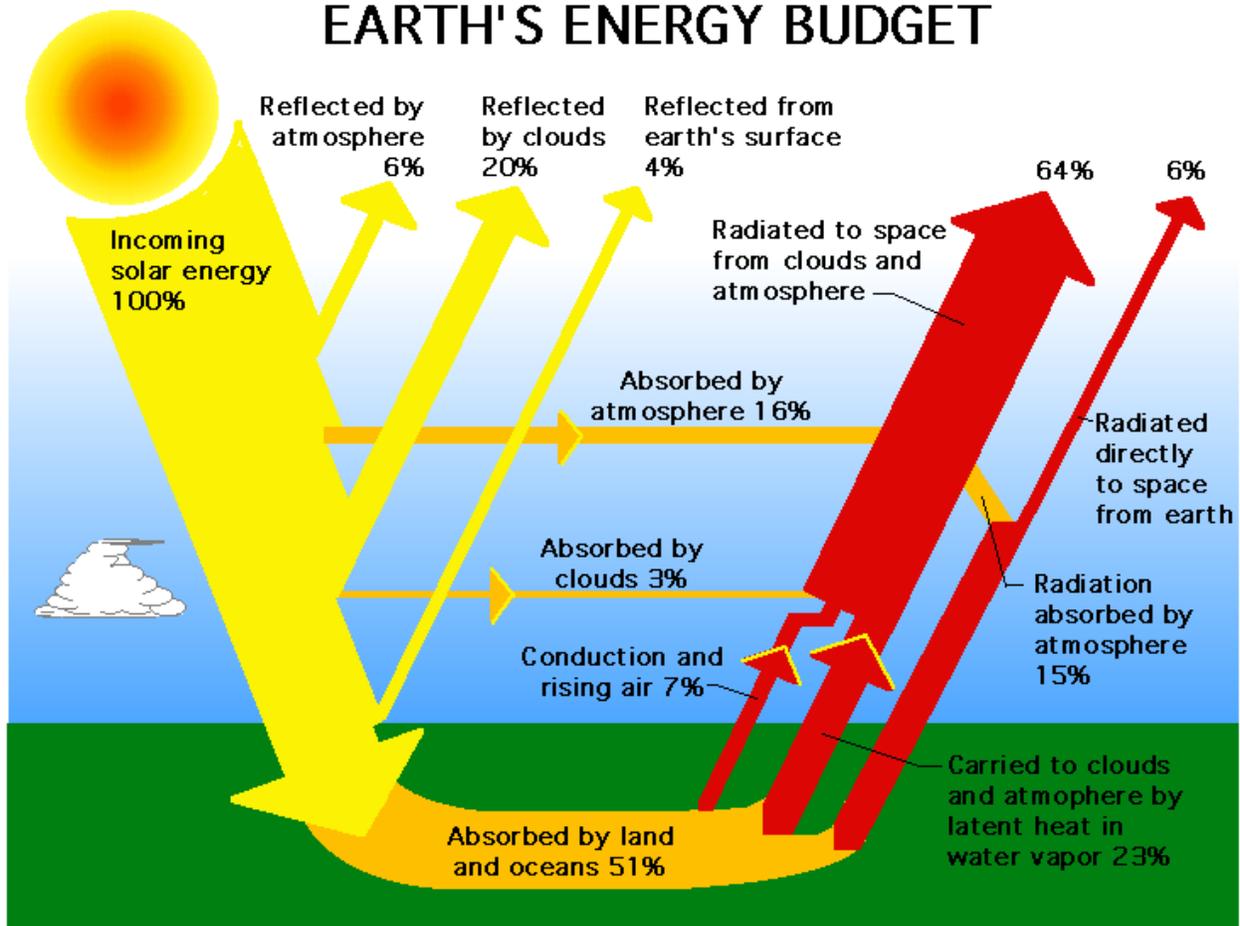
What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you’ve always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

ATMOSPHERE & SEASONS

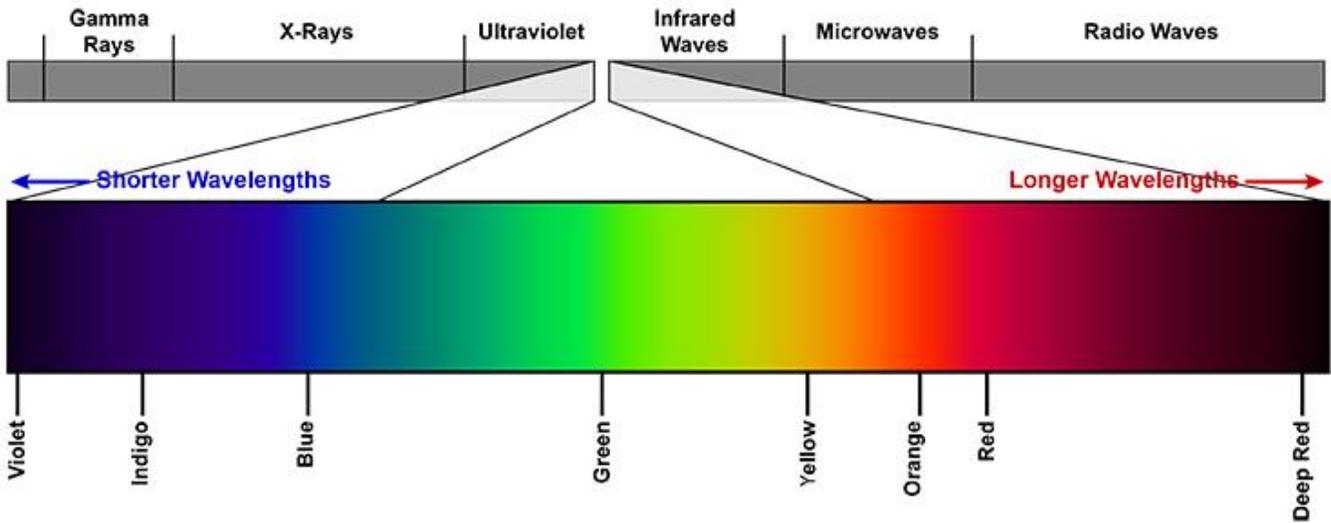


Ozone formation in the stratosphere.
Image from Environment Canada.
<http://www.ec.gc.ca/>

EARTH'S ENERGY BUDGET

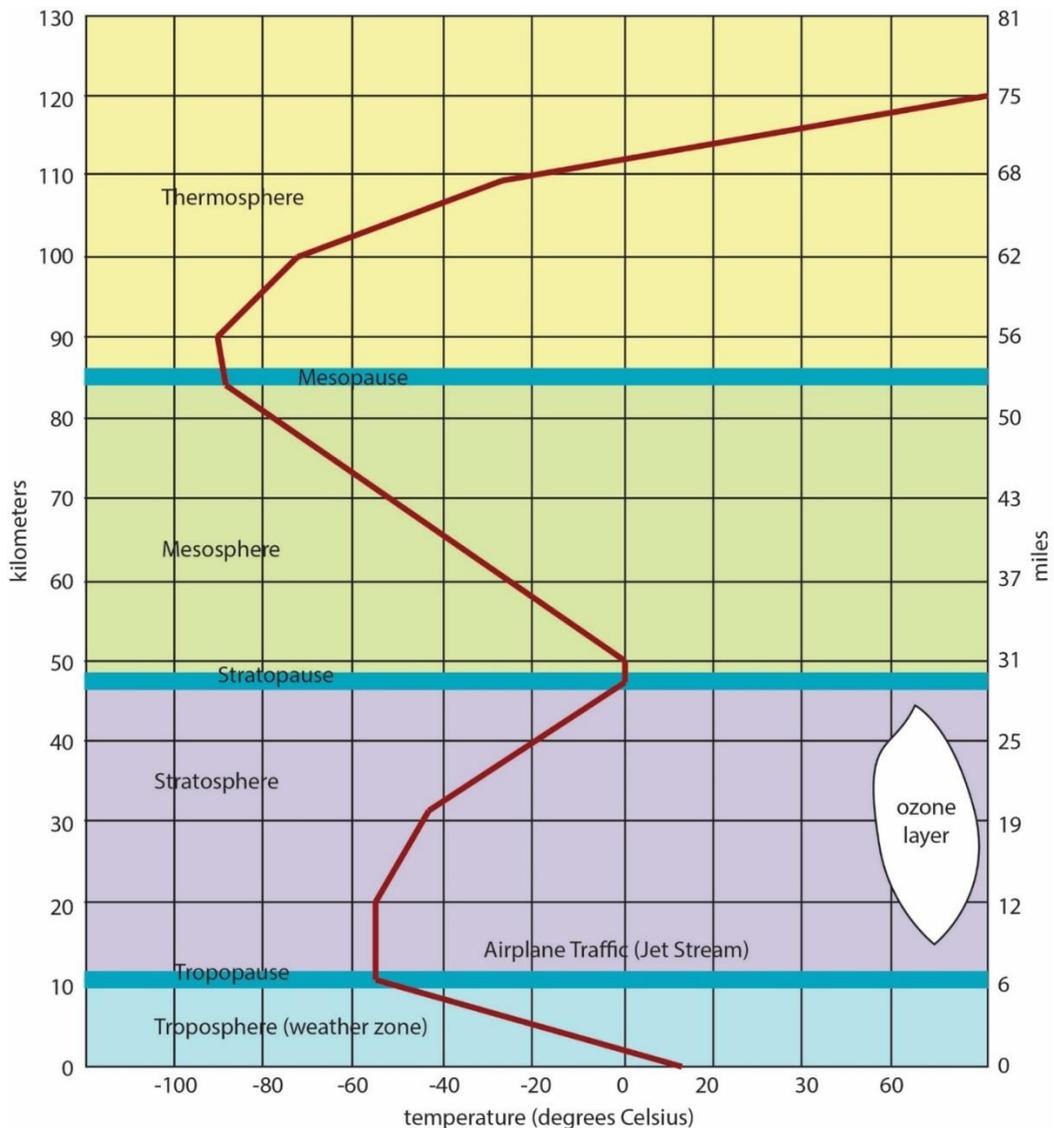


Generalized heat budget of Earth's atmosphere assuming the only source is incoming solar radiation. (Image: NASA)
% values are all relative to a 100% original input of solar energy (UV, visible, IR radiation). 30% of this energy is reflected by atmosphere, clouds, and earth's surface. 19% is absorbed by the atmosphere, leaving 51% to be absorbed by Earth's surface. Assuming an unchanging global surface temperature, all of this heat absorbed by Earth's surface is released back upwards into the atmosphere and escapes to space. (If it didn't Earth's surface temperatures would increase.) 7% transfers through conduction and rising air. 23% transfers through the latent heat of water vapor. 21% through direct IR radiation (15% is absorbed by the atmosphere en route). The 33% total that is absorbed by the atmosphere (both during incoming path and outgoing path) is also a steady amount that is balanced by equal loss outward through radiation, so with an unchanging Earth temperature, the net energy gain by Earth is 0.

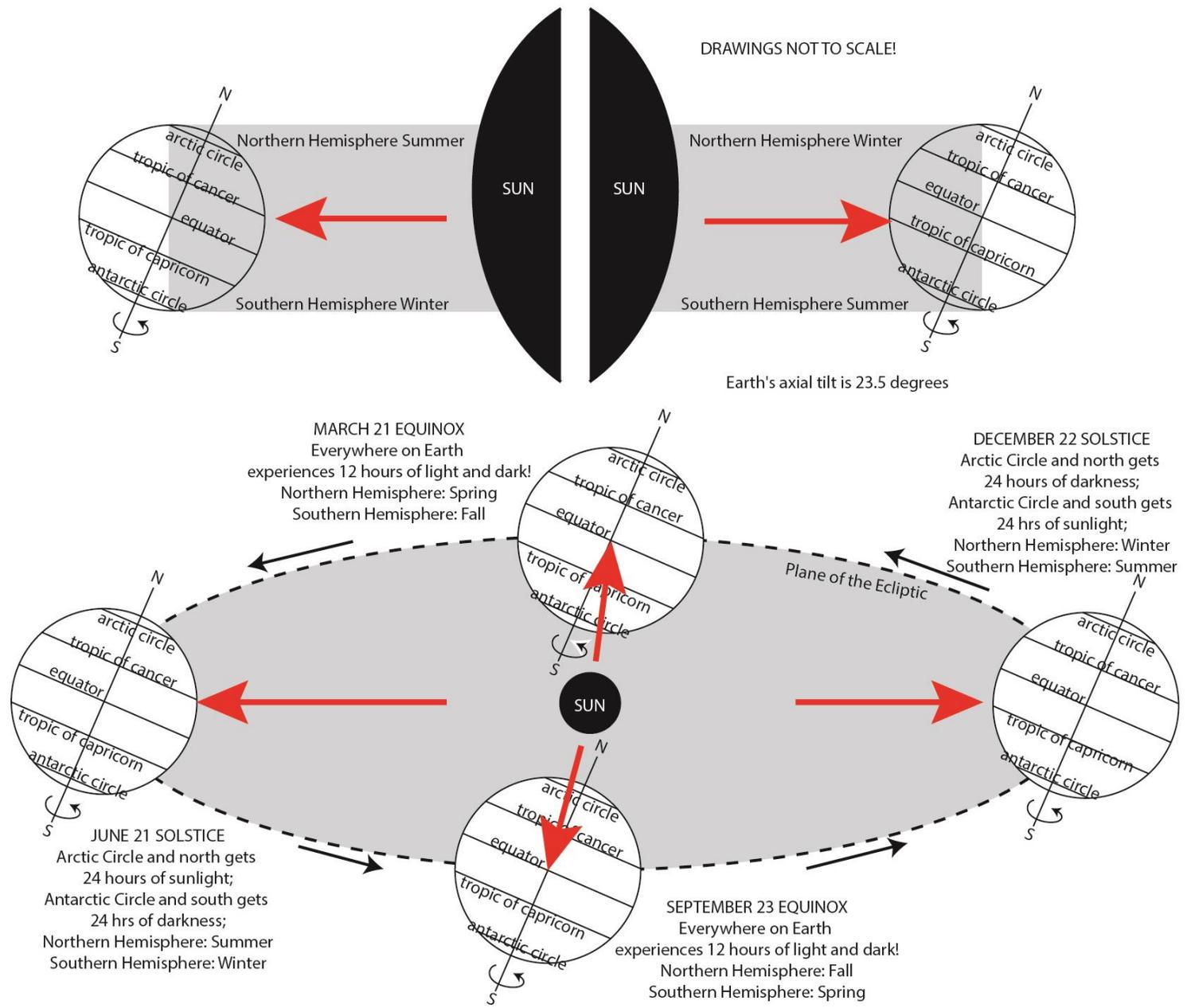


Colors of Visible light, and their place within the electromagnetic spectrum – NOAA

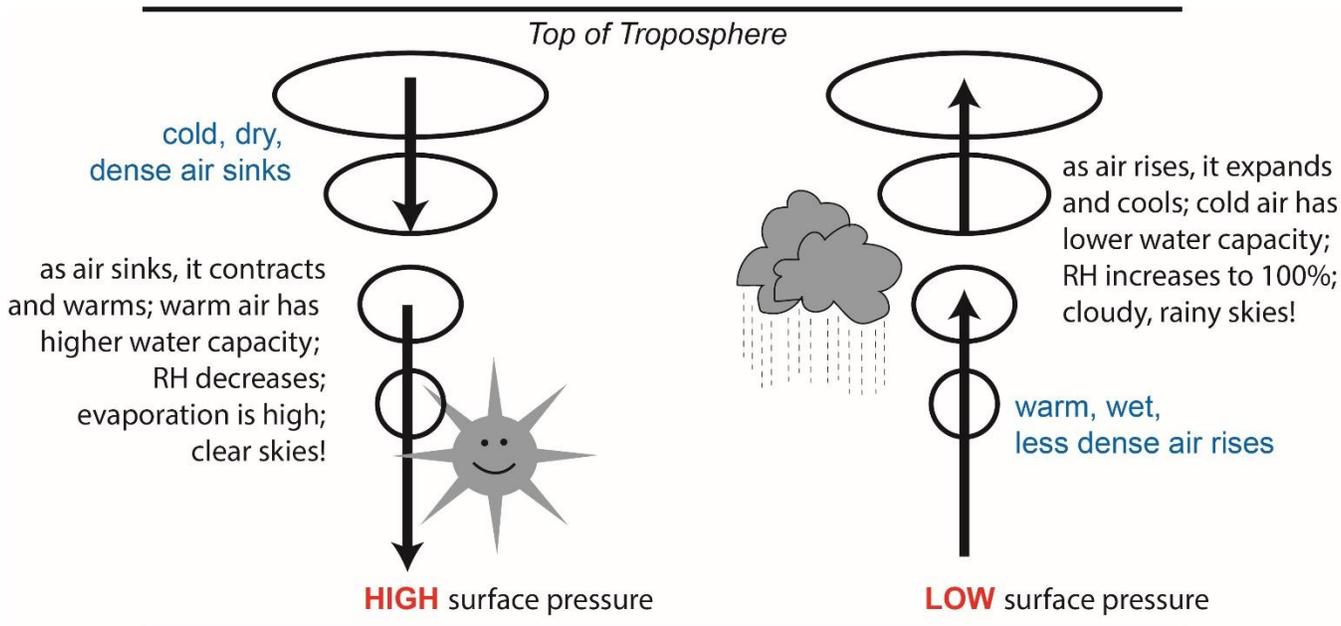
Gamma rays have a wavelength of 10^{-12} m; Ultraviolet (UV) rays: 10^{-8} to 10^{-9} m (nanometers); Visible light: 10^{-6} to 10^{-7} m; Infrared (IR): 10^{-4} to 10^{-5} m; Microwaves: centimeters and millimeters; Radio waves: 1-100 m.



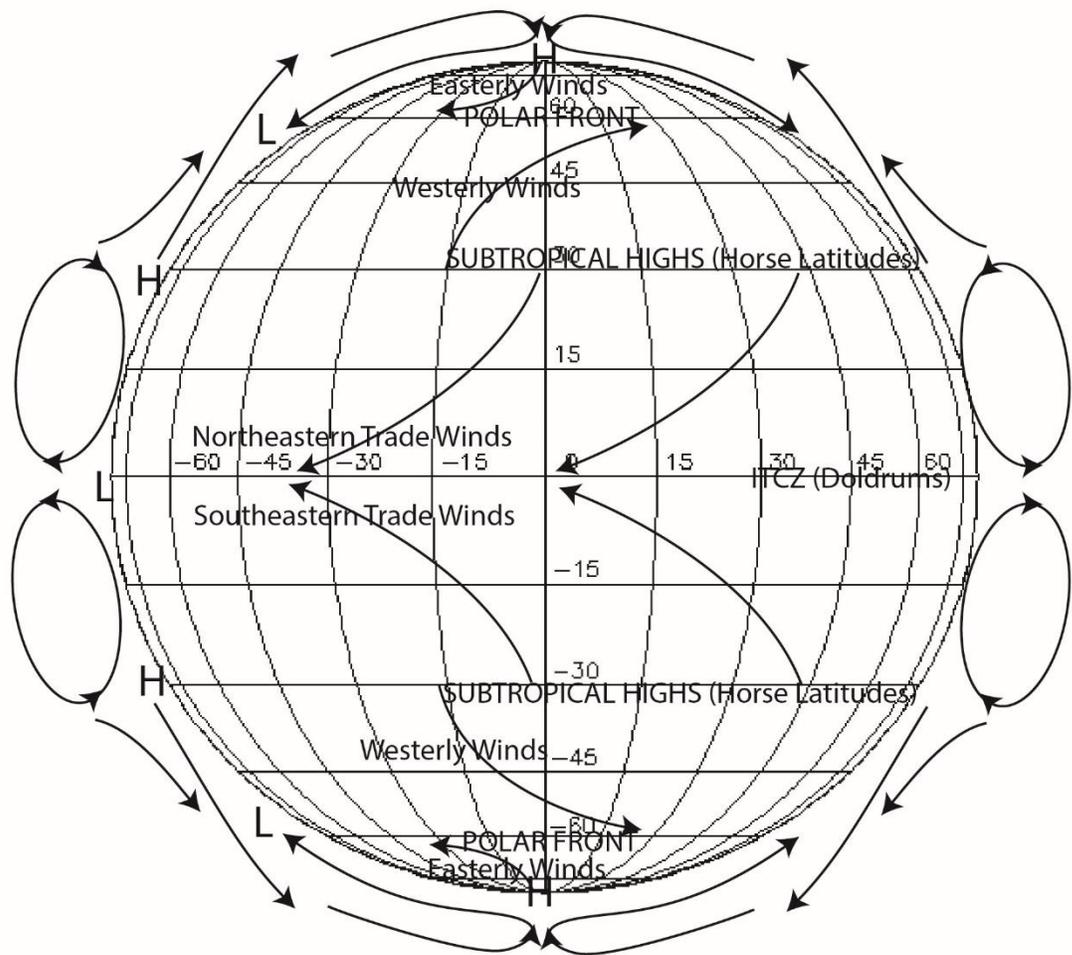
Layers of Earth's atmosphere. Based on image from NOAA.



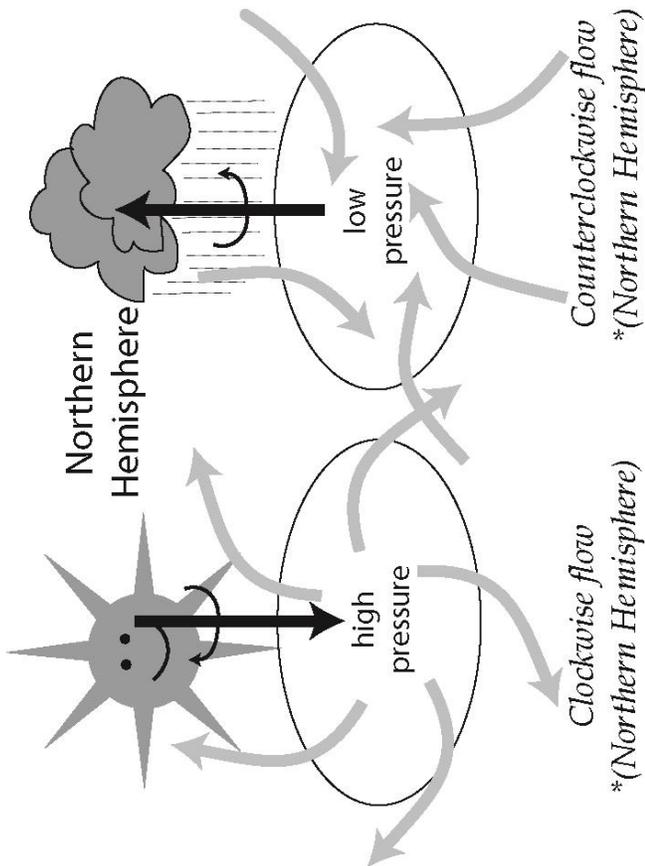
Earth's orbit around the sun and the relationship between its tilted rotational axis and the seasons.



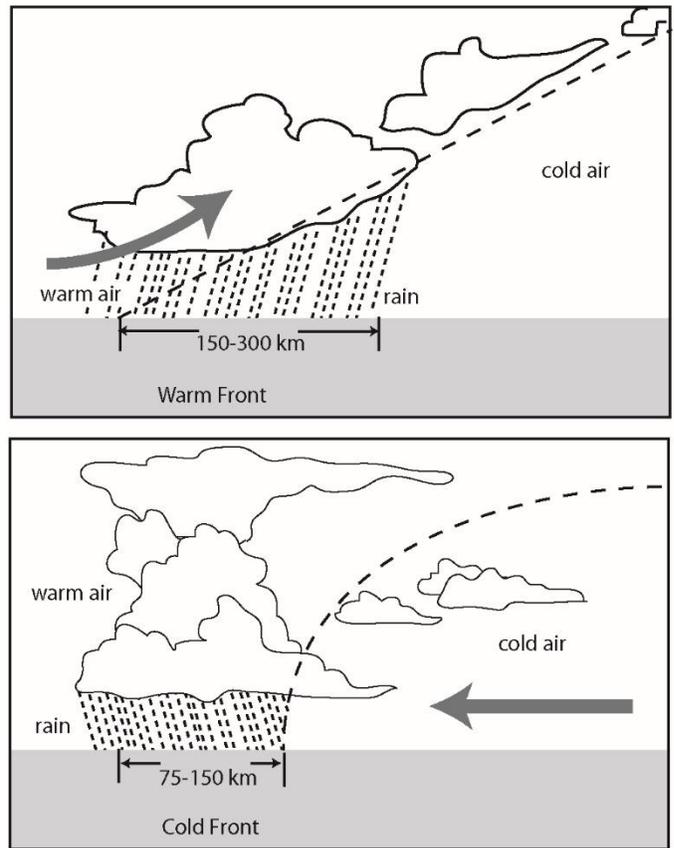
The relationship of air rising and falling in the troposphere and the consequent surface air pressures experienced.



Generalized pattern of tropospheric air motion during an equinox (vertically shown along edges and horizontally shown across surface).



Comparison of air motion and associated weather for low pressure versus high pressure systems in the northern hemisphere. Note that high pressure produces clockwise flow and clear skies; low pressure, the opposite.



Comparison of warm and cold fronts and the intensity of rains associated with their rising air masses.

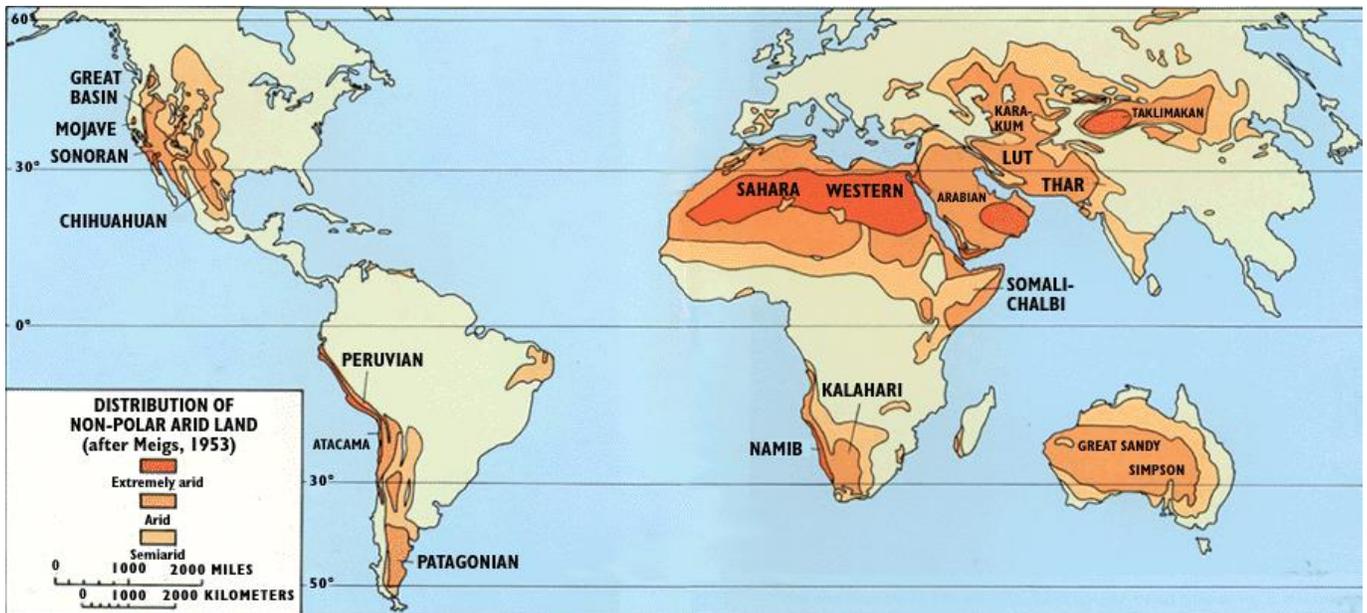
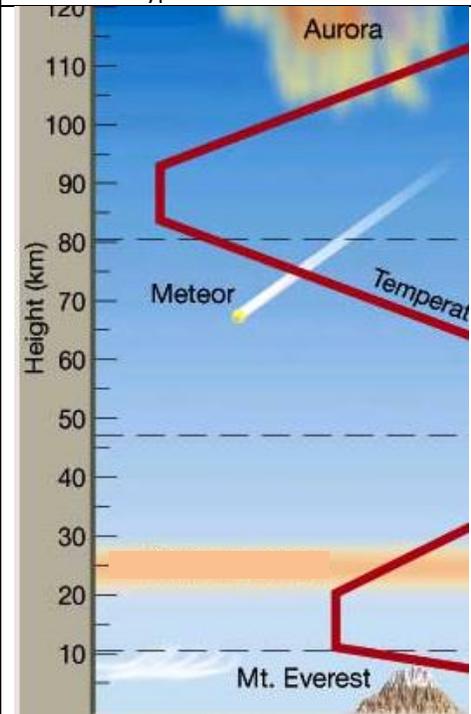


Image from USGS – Northern and southern hemisphere desert belts.

Atmosphere Chapter Worksheet

1. What do we call the time it takes the Earth to rotate once around its axis?	2. What do we call the amount of time it takes the Earth to orbit the Sun?
3. What do we call the amount of time it takes the Moon to orbit the Earth?	4. At what time of the year is the sun directly overhead at the equator?
5. At what time of year is the sun directly overhead at the tropic of cancer?	
6. How much sunlight is received at the Arctic Circle on the September Equinox?	
7. What is the latitude of the Tropic of Capricorn?	8. What is the latitude of the Arctic Circle?
9. At what time of year does the area inside the Antarctic Circle receive no sunlight?	
10. Which latitude on Earth's surface receives the most sunlight year round?	
11. What causes the seasons?	
12. At what time of the year are the Earth and the Sun closest together?	13. What is the angle of axial tilt?
14. Which corresponds to the midlatitudes ? CIRCLE: equatorial tropics subtropics temperate subpolar polar	
15. What percentage of solar radiation is reflected back to space?	16. What percentage of solar radiation is absorbed by Earth's surface?
17. What are the primary mechanisms for redistributing heat on Earth's surface? (Between the equator and poles)	
18. Which type of radiation comes from the Sun?	CIRCLE: infrared visible ultraviolet
19. Which type of radiation comes from Earth?	CIRCLE: infrared visible ultraviolet
20. Which type of radiation is absorbed by the ozone layer?	CIRCLE: infrared visible ultraviolet
21. Which type of radiation is absorbed by greenhouse gases?	CIRCLE: infrared visible ultraviolet
22. Which type of radiation is the longest wavelength?	CIRCLE: infrared visible ultraviolet
23. Which type of radiation is the shortest wavelength?	CIRCLE: infrared visible ultraviolet
	24. In which atmosphere layer does most weather occur? CIRCLE: stratosphere troposphere ozone layer
	25. What is the temperature at the top of that layer?
	26. What is the thickness of that layer?
	27. What is the chemical reaction that occurs to produce ozone?
	28. In addition to the ozone layer, ozone is produced near Earth's surface by combustion. This ozone does what? CIRCLE: <i>migrates to ozone layer</i> <i>stays at surface as smog</i>
	29. How does the ozone layer interfere with radiation? CIRCLE: <i>reduces incoming solar radiation</i> <i>reduces outgoing thermal radiation</i>
	30. In the image on the left, label the: Stratosphere, Troposphere, Ozone layer

31. What is the average composition of the atmosphere (with no water) -- give percentages? (Look back at images in Water Planet chapter.)	
32. What is the range in % that water can contribute to atmospheric gases?	
33. List all known greenhouse gases in decreasing order of importance (most important first):	
34. What is the value of the solar constant?	
35. What are the conditions necessary to get that solar constant to exist somewhere on Earth?	
36. Are there any locations on planet Earth where those conditions are true? CIRCLE: <i>Yes / No</i>	
37. What is average air pressure on Earth's surface at sea level in pounds per square inch AND in atmospheres ?	
38. How does <u>atmospheric pressure</u> change as you go up a mountain? CIRCLE: <i>Increases / Decreases / No change</i>	
39. What happens to a bag of potato chips, bagged at sea level, when it moves up a mountain? CIRCLE: <i>Puffs up (expands) / Shrinks down (contracts) / No change</i>	
40. What is the ultimate cause of vertical air motion? CIRCLE: <i>density / viscosity / temperature / pressure</i>	
41. What happens when the relative humidity of air equals 100%?	
42. The maximum amount of water vapor that can exist within air is dependent on temperature. What happens to the maximum "allowable" amount of water vapor as an air mass cools?	
43. When air reaches the temperature at which the maximum amount of water vapor within = the actual amount of water within, we call that temperature: _____ What happens at this point?	
44. What happens to relative humidity of air when the air warms ?	
45. What happens to relative humidity of air when the air cools ?	
46. What are clouds made of?	47. What do we call clouds on the ground?
48. How does atmospheric pressure change on Earth's surface when air is rising ? CIRCLE: <i>Increases / Decreases / No change</i>	
49. We call those areas on the surface? CIRCLE: <i>High pressure / Low pressure</i>	
50. When air rises , what happens to its temperature? CIRCLE: <i>Warms / Cools / No change</i>	
51. When air rises , what happens to its water <u>capacity</u> ? CIRCLE: <i>Increases / Decreases / No change</i>	
52. When air rises , what happens to its <u>relative humidity</u> ? CIRCLE: <i>Increases / Decreases / No change</i>	
53. In what way does atmospheric pressure change on Earth's surface when air is sinking ? CIRCLE: <i>Increases / Decreases / No change</i>	
54. We call those areas on the surface? CIRCLE: <i>High pressure / Low pressure</i>	
55. When air sinks , what happens to its temperature? CIRCLE: <i>Warms / Cools / No change</i>	
56. When air sinks , what happens to its water <u>capacity</u> ? CIRCLE: <i>Increases / Decreases / No change</i>	
57. When air sinks , what happens to its <u>relative humidity</u> ? CIRCLE: <i>Increases / Decreases / No change</i>	
58. Which surface pressure system is associated with clear cloudless skies? CIRCLE: <i>High / Low / Depends</i>	
59. All winds move FROM areas of? CIRCLE: <i>High pressure / Low pressure</i> TO areas of? CIRCLE: <i>High pressure / Low pressure</i>	

60. Which air is the densest? CIRCLE: *Cold and Dry* / *Cold and Wet* / *Warm and Dry* / *Warm and Wet*
Why?

61. In the southern hemisphere, the coriolis effect makes objects that move independent of the ground (like winds, currents, and airplanes) appear to deflect to the (CIRCLE: *right* / *left* / *depends*) of a straight path.

62. At what latitude is the **polar front**?

63. What meet there?

64. What happens to the latitude of the Polar front during the northern hemisphere summer?
*(*Remember: the figure of Earth's Tropospheric Circulation is idealized for the equinox.)*

65. Which is greater? CIRCLE: *heat capacity of the oceans* / *heat capacity of the land*

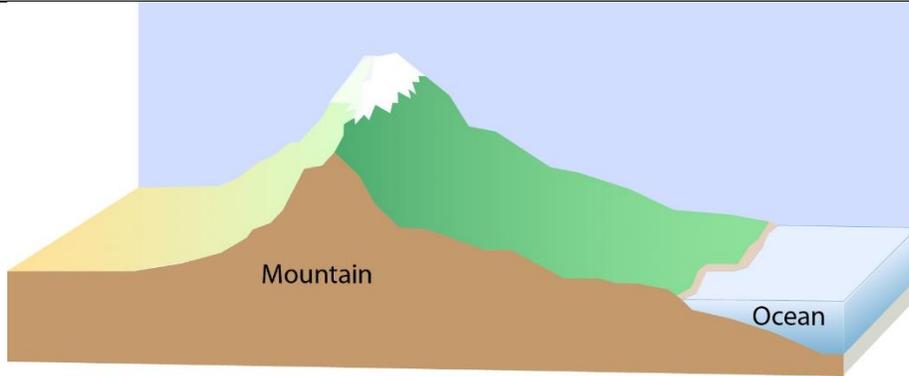
66. Which is true for land near large bodies of water? CIRCLE: *cold winters* / *mild winters* / *hot summers* / *mild summers* / *big temperature differences between night and day* / *big temperature differences between summer and winter*

67. Winds that move from the ocean onto the shore are called? CIRCLE: *onshore breezes* / *offshore breezes*

68. They form because the pressure over the ocean is (CIRCLE: *Higher* / *Lower*) than the pressure over land.

69. In the San Francisco Bay Area in summer, which happen during the **day**?
CIRCLE: *onshore or sea breezes* / *offshore or land breezes*

70. In the San Francisco Bay Area in summer, which happen during the **night**?
CIRCLE: *onshore or sea breezes* / *offshore or land breezes*



Rainshadow Deserts (image from Cort Benningfield)

71. In this image of a mountain range next to the water, use arrows to show winds moving onshore and creating a rainshadow.

72. Indicate the high surface pressure area with an H and the low pressure with an L. (Note: the H and L that result from the wind moving over a mountain, not the H and L that caused the original winds blowing off the ocean).

73. Write RAIN where rain will be high and EVAP, where evaporation will be high.

74. Most of the air that reaches eastern California comes off the Pacific Ocean. What happened to its water to create the deserts of the Mojave and Owens Valley?

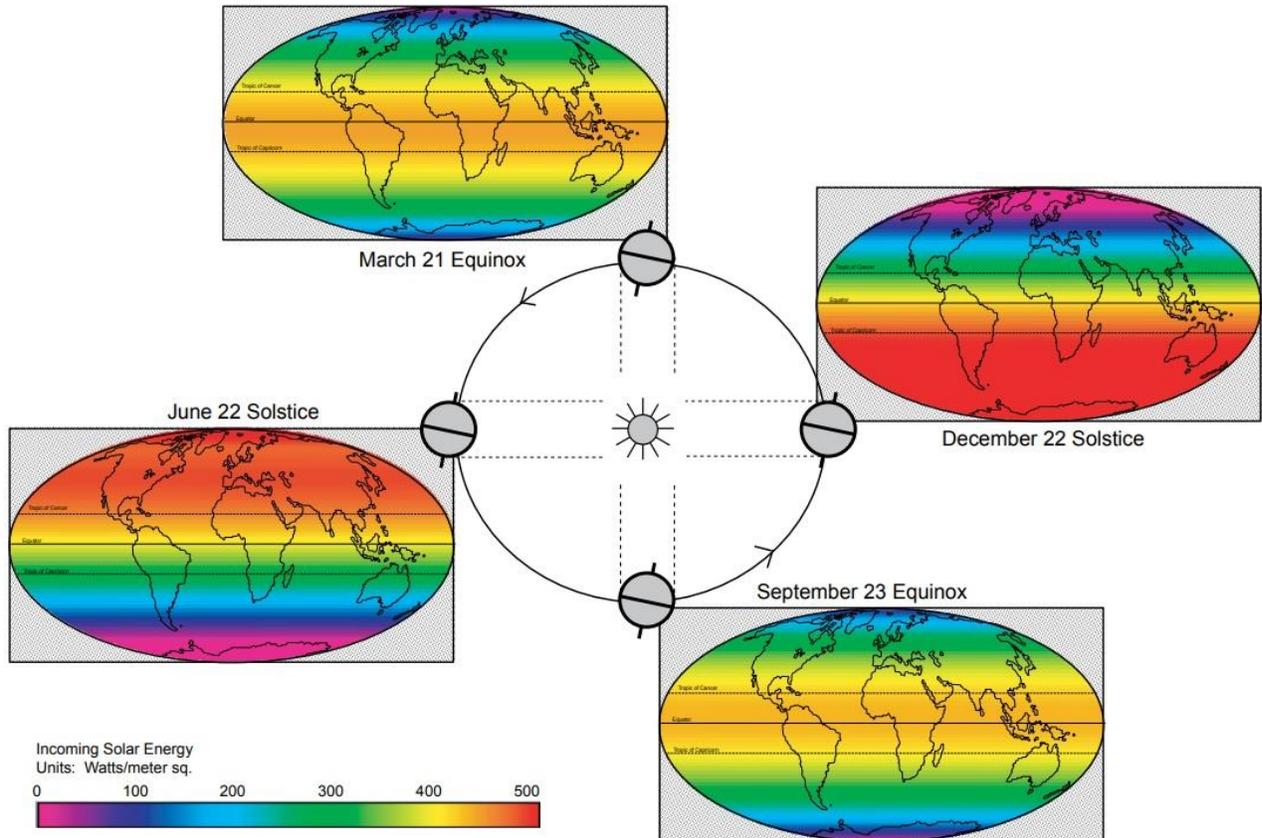
75. Based on all you've learned about rising air masses, rainshadows, and more, what do you think is the evolutionary benefit to the California Coastal Redwoods being so tall?

76. **HURRICANES:** Created by: (CIRCLE: *High pressure* / *Low pressure*)
Found at: (CIRCLE: *all latitudes* / *only mid latitudes* / *only low latitudes – near equator*)
In Northern Hemisphere, hurricane winds move: (CIRCLE: *clockwise* / *counterclockwise* / *depends*)
In Southern Hemisphere, hurricane winds move: (CIRCLE: *clockwise* / *counterclockwise* / *depends*)
Travel path: (CIRCLE: *Can cross the equator* / *can't cross the equator*); gets (CIRCLE: *stronger* / *weaker*) on land.
Is accompanied by a dome of water, called a _____, which floods land when hurricane arrives.

Seasons and Relative Humidity Activity (4 pages)

SOLAR CONSTANT = 2 calories/cm²/min. This is the theoretical maximum amount of sunlight that would hit the surface of the Earth if the sun's rays were direct and there were no atmosphere to reflect or absorb any incoming solar radiation. Let's solve a few problems to help us understand:

1. At what time of the year does solar radiation hit directly (at right angles to the surface) at the Tropic of Cancer?
2. At what time of the year does solar radiation hit directly (at right angles to the surface) at the equator?
3. Incoming sunlight changes throughout the year, but has a big impact on which of the following processes (circle): chemosynthesis | decomposition | photosynthesis | respiration.
4. Review figure below of the global distribution of incoming sunlight with the seasons. What patterns do you see and what accounts for them?



Incoming solar energy throughout the seasons. From Globe.gov

Patterns:

Explanation:

5. How would you expect variations in surface sunlight to impact marine life?

RELATIVE HUMIDITY

ABSOLUTE HUMIDITY (OR WATER VAPOR PRESSURE) = amount of water vapor present in a unit volume of air, usually expressed in kilograms per cubic meter or in units of pressure like millibars (mb) or kilopascals (kPa) (the pressure produced by that number of water molecules at that temperature).

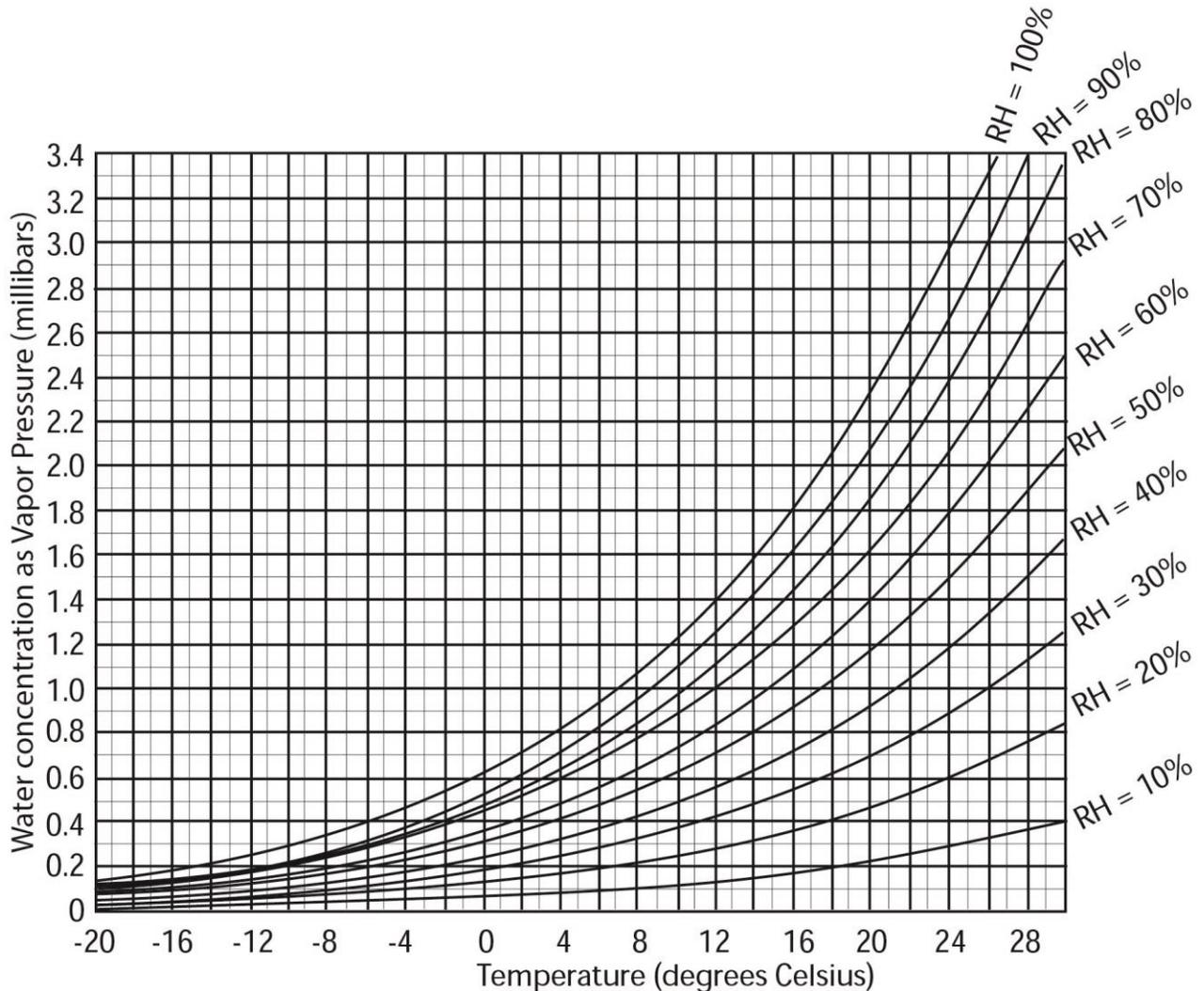
SATURATION ABSOLUTE HUMIDITY (OR SATURATION WATER VAPOR PRESSURE or CAPACITY) is the maximum amount of water vapor that could be present in a unit volume of air (similar units as above) – it is almost entirely dependent on temperature.

RELATIVE HUMIDITY (R.H.) = $100 \times \frac{\text{amount of water present as a gas in a unit volume of air}}{\text{total amount of water that COULD be present as a gas in a unit volume of air at that temperature}}$

RELATIVE HUMIDITY (R.H.) = $100 \times \frac{\text{Actual Water Vapor Content in air.}}{\text{Capacity (max that can be in air)}}$

R.H. is a measurement of what percentage of that maximum has been reached by actual water vapor in the air. In the graph below, you can see that the top line indicates air at 100% R.H. – the content or pressure of water vapor in the air is at its maximum and usually won't rise further. Saturation Vapor Pressure = Actual Water Vapor Pressure. Condensation usually begins at 100% R.H. (*see note). When R.H. is low, like 20%, the air is relatively empty of water. Liquid water that's available in the area will evaporate, R.H. (think of this as "closeness to capacity") will rise.

Dew Point is the temperature at which relative humidity for a given air mass would be 100%.

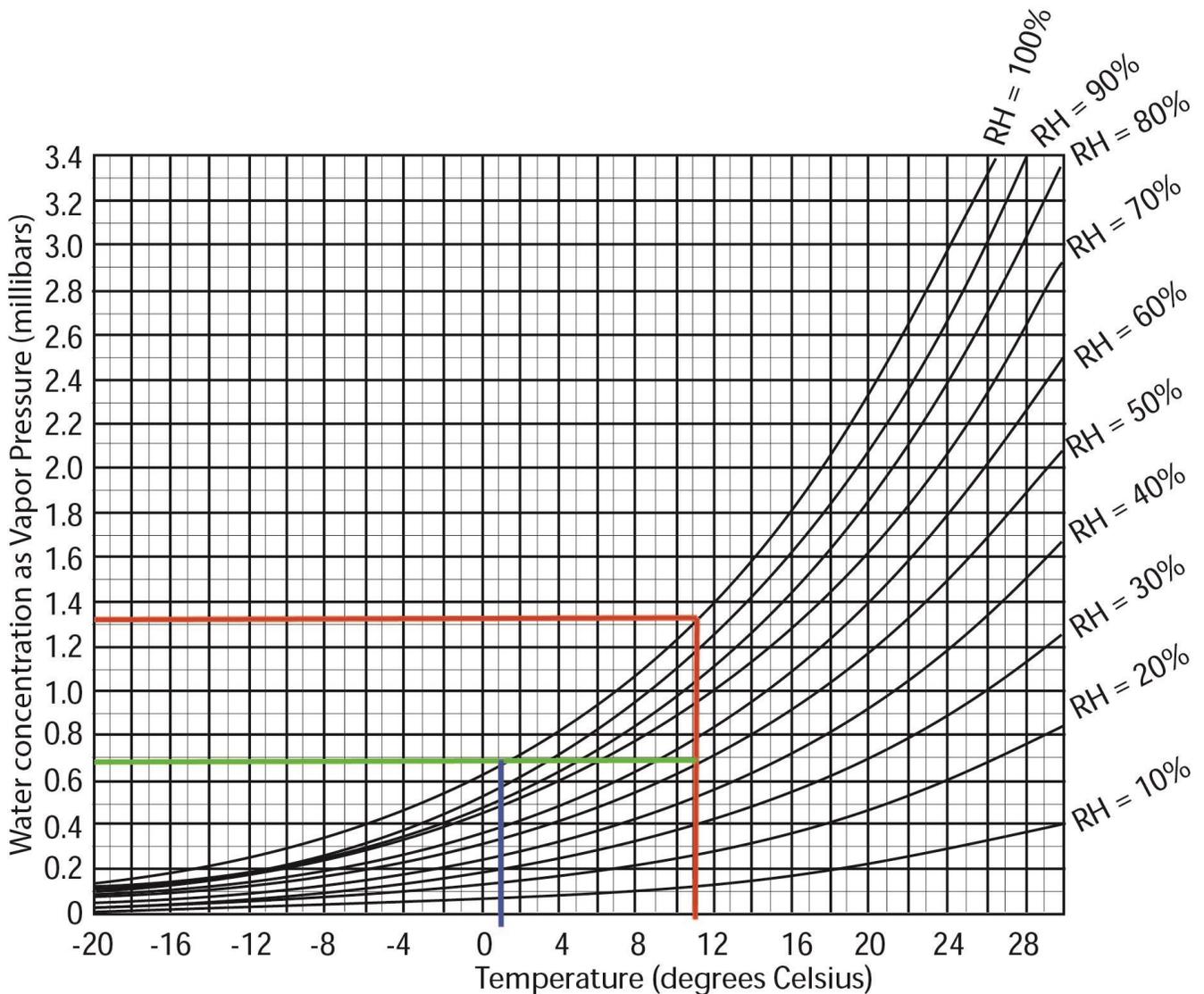


Temperature and water vapor concentration for a range of relative humidities.

As the temperature of air rises (gets hotter), the thermal energy of the molecules increases. That means it's now more likely that water molecules **could be** present as a gas. (If thermal energy is low, most of the water will be moving too slowly to break the hydrogen bonds and will be present only as a liquid.) So as air warms, more water CAN be present as a vapor (increased capacity); as air cools, less water CAN be present as a vapor (decreased capacity). Assuming that the water vapor is slow to adjust or can't adjust, the R.H. will change. Remember: R.H. does NOT measure how much water is present in the air, rather how close the air parcel is to its maximum content for water vapor. An increase in temperature usually means a decrease in R.H. (water capacity is much higher than the actual content). And vice versa.

**NOTE: Although condensation begins at R.H.=100%, it takes a lot of condensation before there's enough water to create visible droplets and clouds. When these droplets fall faster than rising air, it rains.*

As air rises and cools, R.H. will increase to 100%, and condensation will begin. As air continues to rise and cools more, R.H. continues to drop, and more water condenses, until enough rising has caused enough cooling to cause enough of a drop in R.H. to create enough condensation to produce clouds and rain.



Example: an air mass at 11°C, it has a saturation absolute humidity (maximum water vapor content) of 1.3 mbars (red lines). IF it is currently at 50% relative humidity, then it contains half that: 0.65 mbars (green lines).

Such an air mass (50% RH at 11°C) would reach its Dew Point at 1°C.

That's when actual water content = maximum or 100% RH.

RELATIVE HUMIDITY EXERCISES

1. What is the maximum water vapor content possible for a unit volume of air at 20°C.
2. If the actual water vapor content of that same air parcel at 20°C is 1.3865 mbar, what is the relative humidity?
3. What does that relative humidity mean for your life if you're walking around in that air?
4. What is the Dew Point Temperature for this same air mass?
5. If the air temperature overnight will reach 10°C, what does that mean you'll find in the morning on the plants, windows, and outside surfaces?
6. What is the maximum water vapor content possible for a unit volume of air at 4°C?
7. What happens to the maximum water vapor content possible as temperature drops?
8. If the relative humidity of air at 4°C is 20%, what is the actual water vapor content?
9. What is the Dew Point Temperature for this same air mass?
10. If the air temperature overnight will reach -4°C, what does that mean you'll find in the morning on the plants, windows, and outside surfaces?
11. What is the maximum water vapor content possible for a unit volume of air at 25°C?
12. What happens to the maximum water vapor content possible as temperature increases?
13. If the relative humidity of air at 25°C is 80%, what is the actual water vapor content?
14. What is the Dew Point Temperature of this 25°C air at 80% RH?
15. If the air temperature overnight will reach 20°C, what does that mean you'll find in the morning on the plants, windows, and outside surfaces?
16. If we cooled this air parcel from 25°C to 23°C, how would the maximum possible water vapor content (saturation pressure) change?
17. How would relative humidity ("fullness") change?
18. If we warmed this air parcel from 25°C to 28°C, how would the maximum possible water vapor content (saturation pressure) change?
19. How would relative humidity ("fullness") change?
20. What is the relative humidity of an air mass at 20°C that has a Dew Point Temperature of 5°C
21. What is the relative humidity of an air mass at 26°C that has a Dew Point Temperature of 17.5°C
22. What is the relative humidity of an air mass at 12°C that has a Dew Point Temperature of -14°C
23. Which of the above air masses is going to feel the driest to you (evaporating fluids from your skin, eyes, and mouth?)

Weekly Reflection

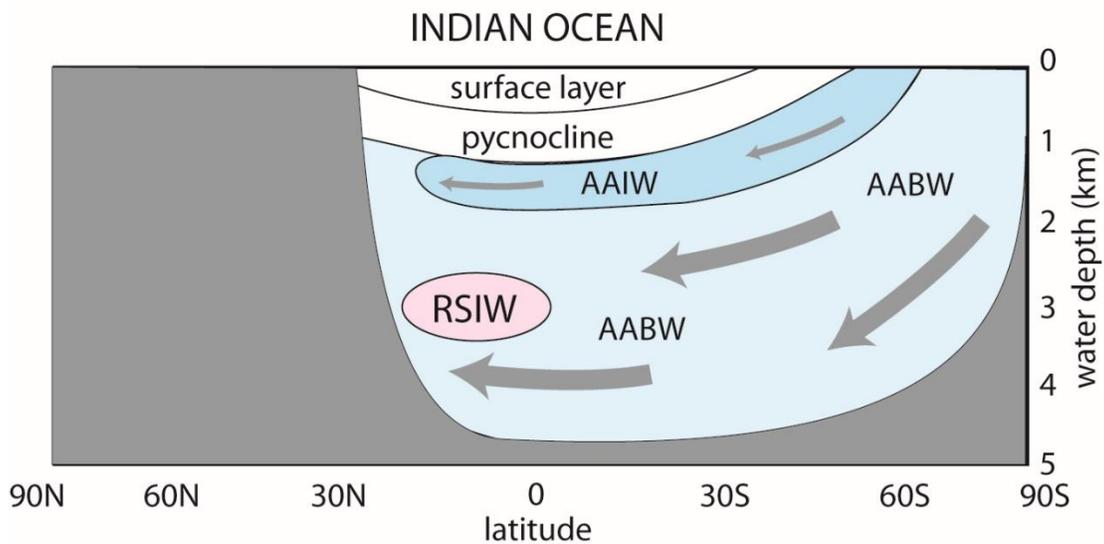
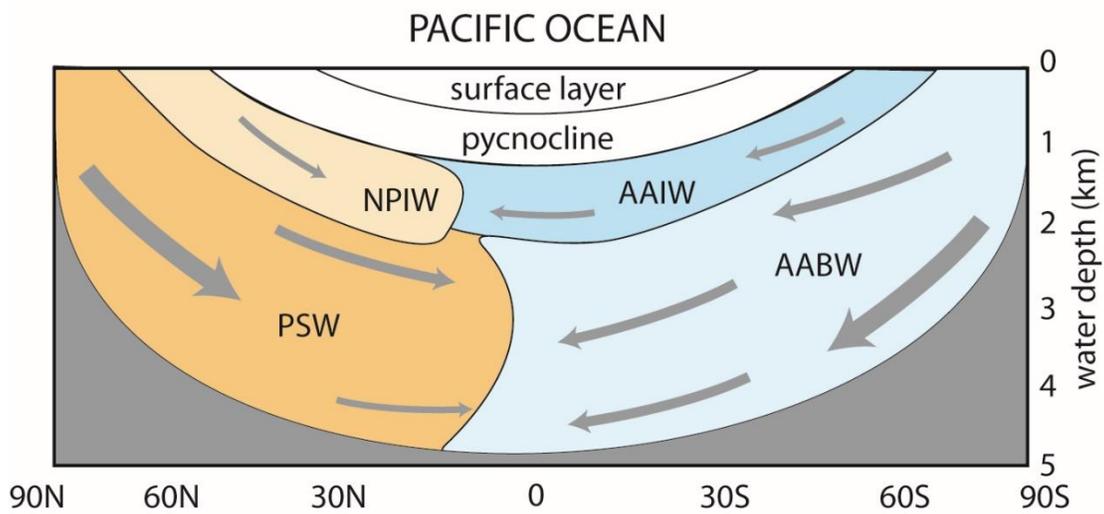
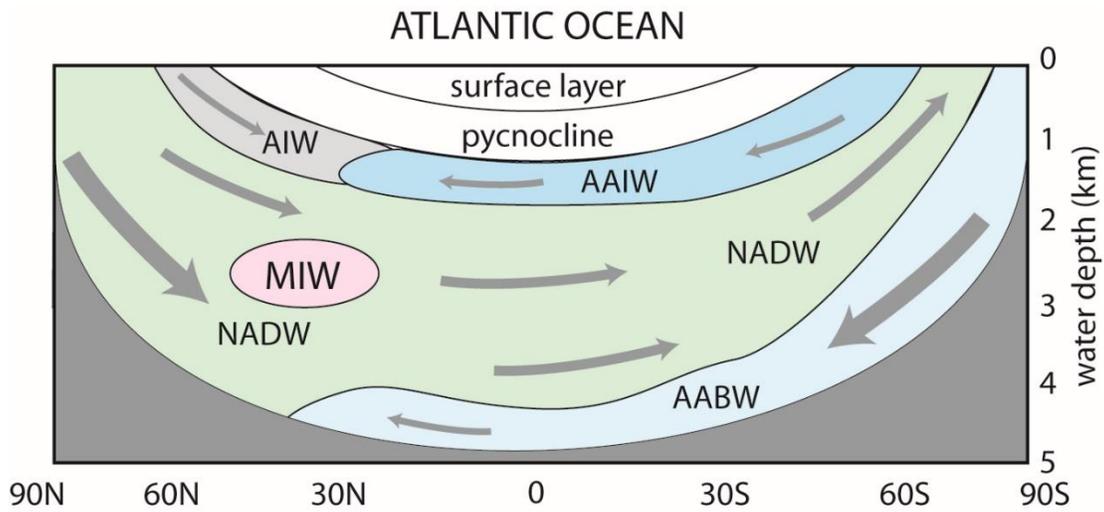
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week’s objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Evaluate the variations in solar input latitudinally and seasonally and the natural mechanisms for redistributing this heat .	A B C D F	
Analyze the causes of Earth's greenhouse effect and its impact on global warming .	A B C D F	
Evaluate the location, cause, and impact of Earth's ozone layer .	A B C D F	
Apply an understanding of the causes of vertical and horizontal air movement to generate a generalized picture of general global air circulation and pressure systems .	A B C D F	
Analyze the relationships among air density, temperature, and water content, including relative humidity and dew point .	A B C D F	
Interpret the causes and effects of ocean-specific weather and climate phenomena such as rainshadow deserts, hurricanes, and fluctuating directions of coastal breezes .	A B C D F	

AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you’ve always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

CURRENTS



Generalized intermediate currents found in the three main oceans.

*AABW = Antarctic Bottom Water; AAIW = Antarctic Intermediate Water; AIW = Arctic Intermediate Water;
MIW = Mediterranean Intermediate Water; NADW = North Atlantic Deep Water;
PIW = Pacific Intermediate Water; PSW = Pacific Subarctic Water; RSIW = Red Sea Intermediate Water.*

When pycnocline best developed? Why?

Polar seas	Never – always vertical mixing – doesn't warm up enough in summer.
Temperate seas	Summer – sun produces warm surface layer with no vertical mixing. In winter, surface water and deep water mix.
Tropical and equatorial seas	Always – constant supply of sun keeps warm surface layer year-round. No vertical mixing.

	Definition	Cause/location	Biological effects	Climate effects
Upwelling	Deep water moving upward to replace surface water	<p>GENERAL CAUSE: Surface water moved away.</p> <p>LOCATIONS:</p> <p>Coastal: Where wind direction, coriolis effect, and/or shape of coast conspire.</p> <p>Submerged Seamounts: Where surface currents are forced to rise up over these mountains.</p> <p>Equatorial: Eastern edge of equatorial oceans</p> <p>Surface current divergence: Central equatorial oceans and around Antarctica.</p>	Increased nutrients and hence increased biologic productivity (more biomass).	Cool water cools air, so that it can hold less water. Can cause rain or fog.
Down-welling	Surface water sinking down to become deep water	<p>GENERAL CAUSE: Surface water piled up in an area.</p> <p>LOCATIONS:</p> <p>Coastal: Where wind direction, coriolis effect, and/or shape of coast conspire.</p> <p>Equatorial: Western edge of equatorial oceans</p> <p>Surface current convergence: Subpolar and subtropical convergence zones.</p>	Plankton, oxygen, and surface toxins carried to deep benthic region.	

	Definition	Cause	Depth	Location
Antarctic Bottom Water or Oceanic Common Water (AABW)	Cold (-1 to 1 C) Salty (34.7 ppt)	Cold Antarctic climate (colder than the arctic due to West Wind Drift) Ice formation	Deepest	All oceans
North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW)	Cold (2.5 to 3.5 C) Salty (34.9 ppt)	Cold Arctic climate Ice formation	On bottom, above ABW	North Atlantic
Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW)	Cold (3 to 6 C) Low salinity (34.1 ppt)	Antarctic Convergence – piling up and sinking of water where surface current converge	500-1500 m, above deep and bottom water	All oceans
Mediterranean Intermediate Water (MIW)	Warm (8.5 to 12.5 C) Salty! (36 ppt)	Evaporation in hot Mediterranean Sea	1000 to 2500 m	Central Atlantic Ocean
Red Sea Intermediate Water (RSIW)	Warm! (23 C) Salty! (40 ppt)	Evaporation in hot Red Sea	2000 to 3000 m	Indian Ocean

	Location	Travel direction	Temp	Speed	Width	Depth	Volume	World examples
Eastern boundary current	Eastern edge of the ocean (western continental margin)	Away from poles; toward equator	Cold	< 0.3 m/s or 10 km/d	>1000 km	<0.5 km	10-15 Sv	California, Canary
Western boundary current	Western edge of the ocean (eastern continental margin)	Away from equator; toward poles	Warm	> 1.5 m/s or 100 km/d	<100 km	1-2 km	> 50 Sv	Gulf Stream [3-10 km/hr; 100 Sv], Kuroshio

- Gulf Stream: max speed usually ~9 km/hr; 30-150 Sv, average water temperature of at least 24°C in winter; ~100 km wide, ~ 1 km deep.
- West Wind Drift (Antarctic Circumpolar Current): max speed usually ~3.7 km/h; 100-150 Sv; -1 to 5°C; ~200 km wide, ~4km deep.
- California Current: <1 km/hr; 1.1 Sv; temperature varies based on El Niño/La Niña; > 1000 km wide; ~100 m deep
- [Sv = Sverdrup = 1 million cubic meters flowing past a point per second. Transport rate of freshwater in all the world's rivers is 1 Sv]

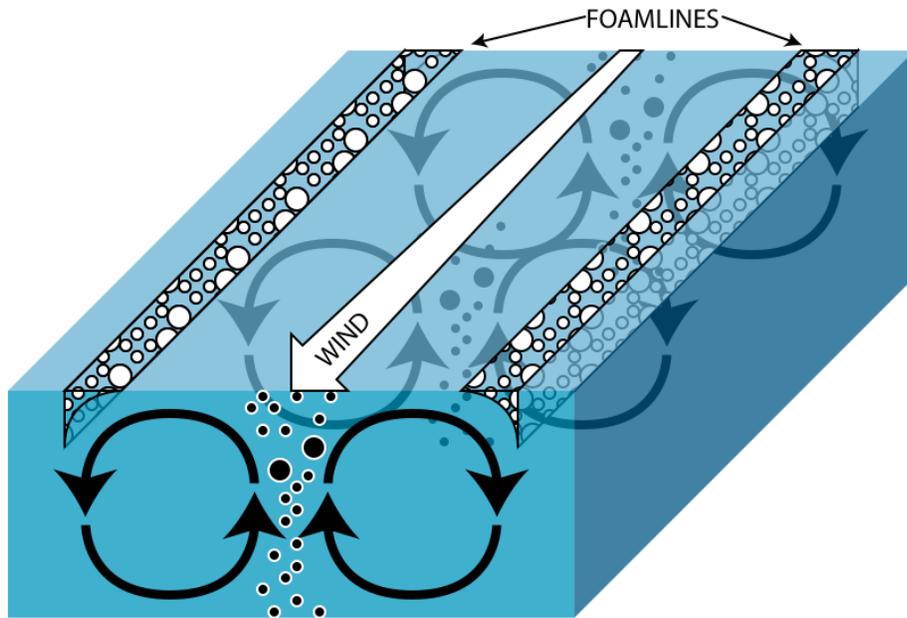


Image of Langmuir cells, affecting the top 10 meters of the ocean surface (when winds blow in a continual direction over a body of water). (Image is from public domain.)

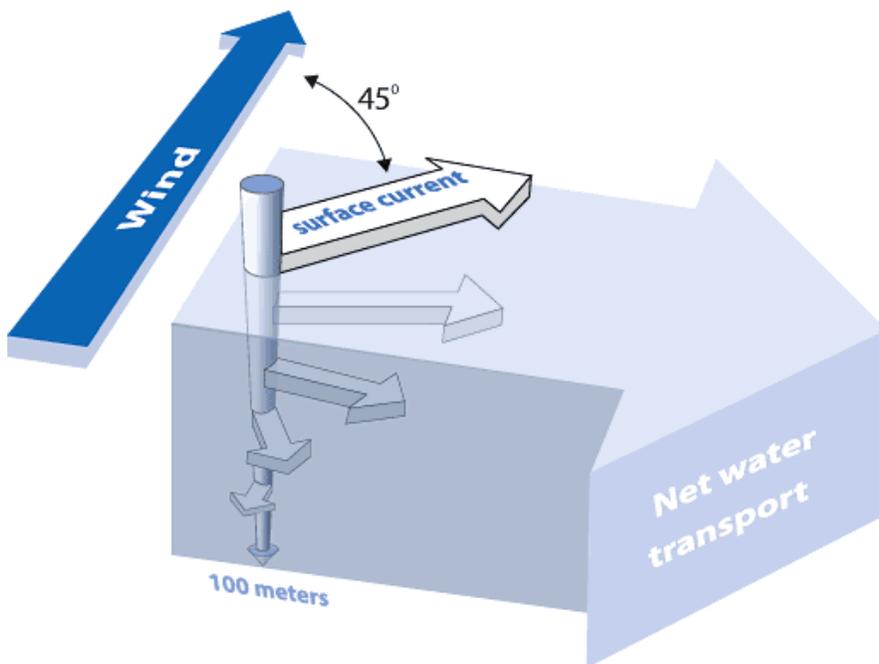
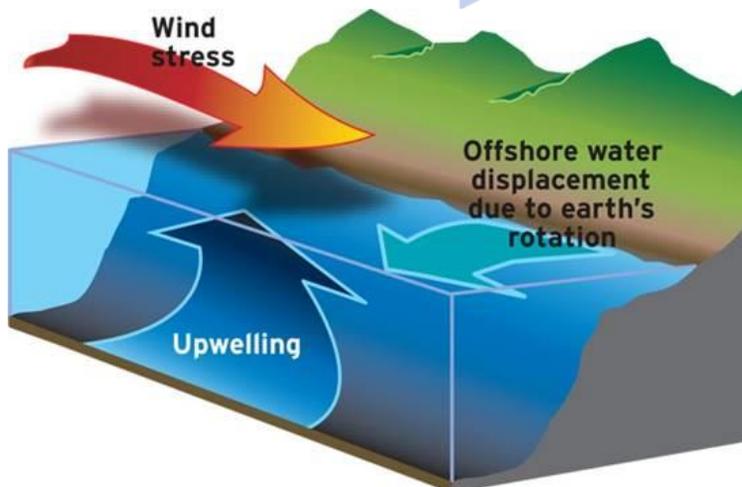


Image of Ekman Transport in the Northern Hemisphere affecting the top 100 meters of the ocean surface. (NOAA)



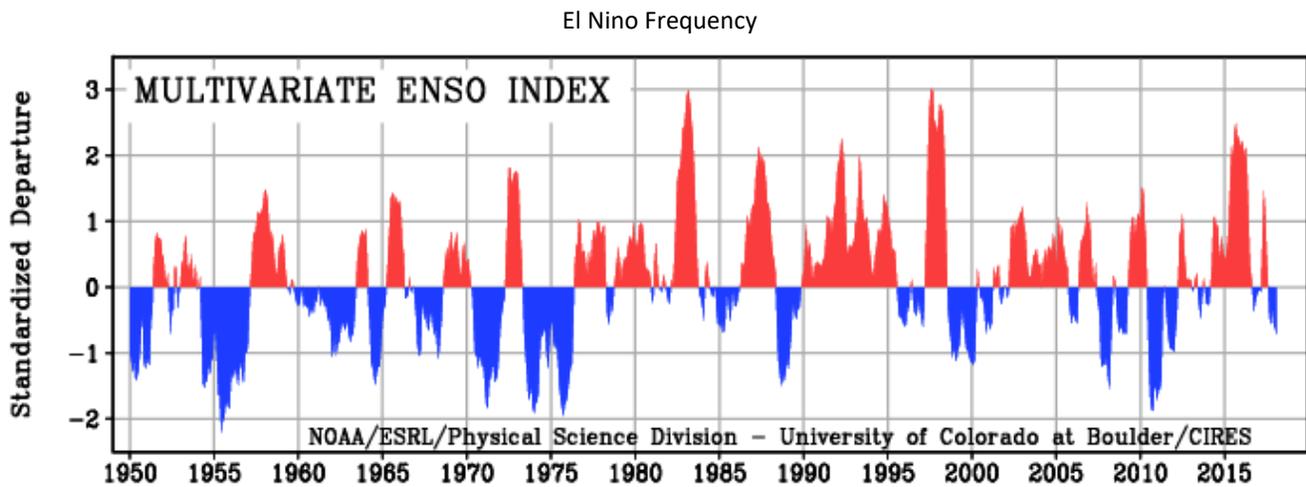
Northern Hemisphere Ekman Transport-induced Coastal Upwelling (NOAA)

ENSO (El Niño Southern Oscillation)

ENSO – (El Niño Southern Oscillation) is the term for the shift in winds, ocean currents, sea surface temperatures, and surface air pressure patterns in the Pacific Ocean. Most commonly observed and reported aspect of ENSO is the change in sea surface temperature in the central and east Pacific Ocean. ENSO changes lead to major shifts in global weather patterns which effect the weather in several locations around the world. The maps below show where significant changes occur, relative to normal, due to the influence of ENSO. (NOAA)

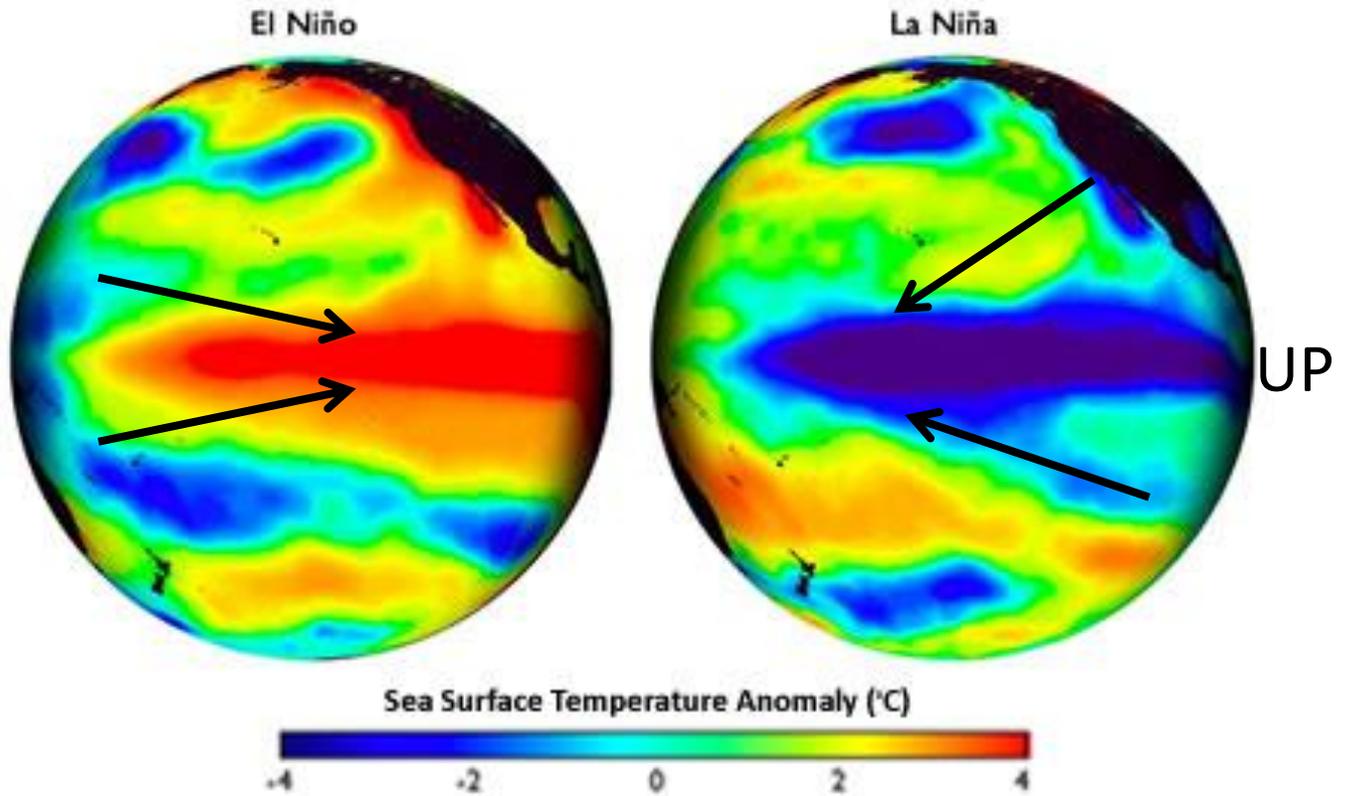
El Nino Characteristics:

- Reversing or weakening of trade winds (Walker Cell convection shifts eastward in equatorial Pacific): Weather patterns reverse: water-laden air masses reach North America’s west coast (hurricanes and storms – causing flooding – *where normally deserts*); dry air reaches Australia and Asia’s east coasts (causing fires and droughts – *where normally rainforest*)
- Thermocline along the equator flattens:
 - Equatorial currents weaken (*normally strongest*) while equatorial countercurrents strengthen (*normally weakest*) – *cold tongue of upwelled water disappears and is replaced by warm tongue*
 - Upwelling off Eastern Equatorial Pacific stops; hence low nutrients and warmer waters; low nutrients causes biological productivity to drop; combined with warmer waters, many organisms migrate or die.
 - Downwelling off Western Equatorial Pacific stops; water gets slightly colder, sea level drops; reefs destroyed.



Multivariate ENSO index, 1950s to present. ENSO index values are calculated using 6-7 different atmospheric and oceanic indicators. Values greater than zero (red areas) indicate El Niño while those less than zero (blue areas) indicate La Niña. The greater the value is from zero, the stronger the event.

For updates, see: <https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/enso/mei/>



These global maps centered on the Pacific Ocean show patterns of sea surface temperature during El Niño and La Niña episodes. The colors along the equator show areas that are warmer or cooler than the long-term average. Images courtesy of Steve Albers, NOAA and modified by K. Wiese. Arrows represent trade wind direction. UP = upwelling.

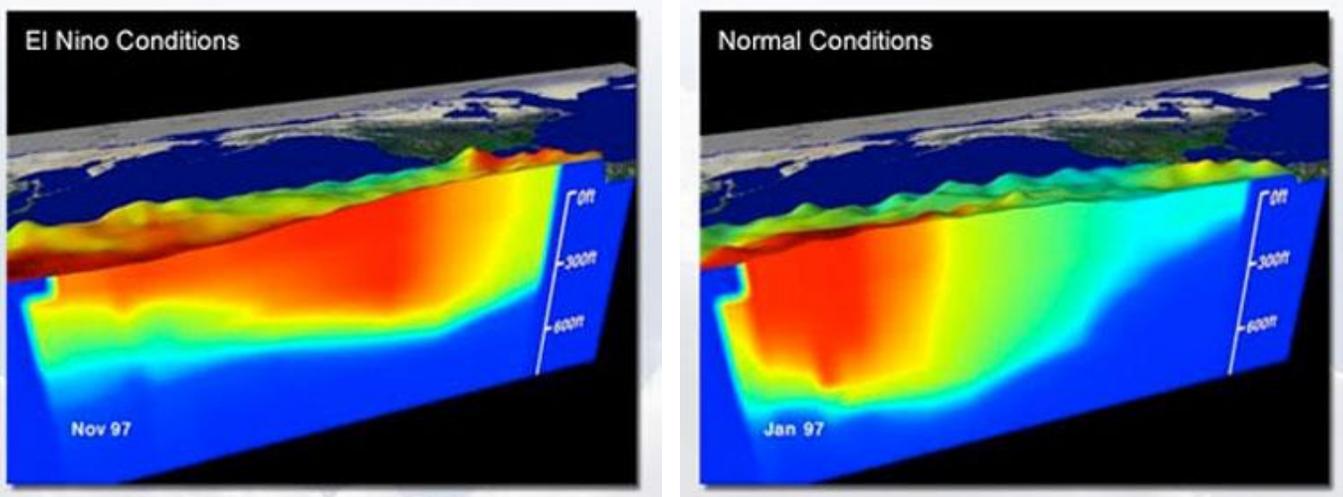
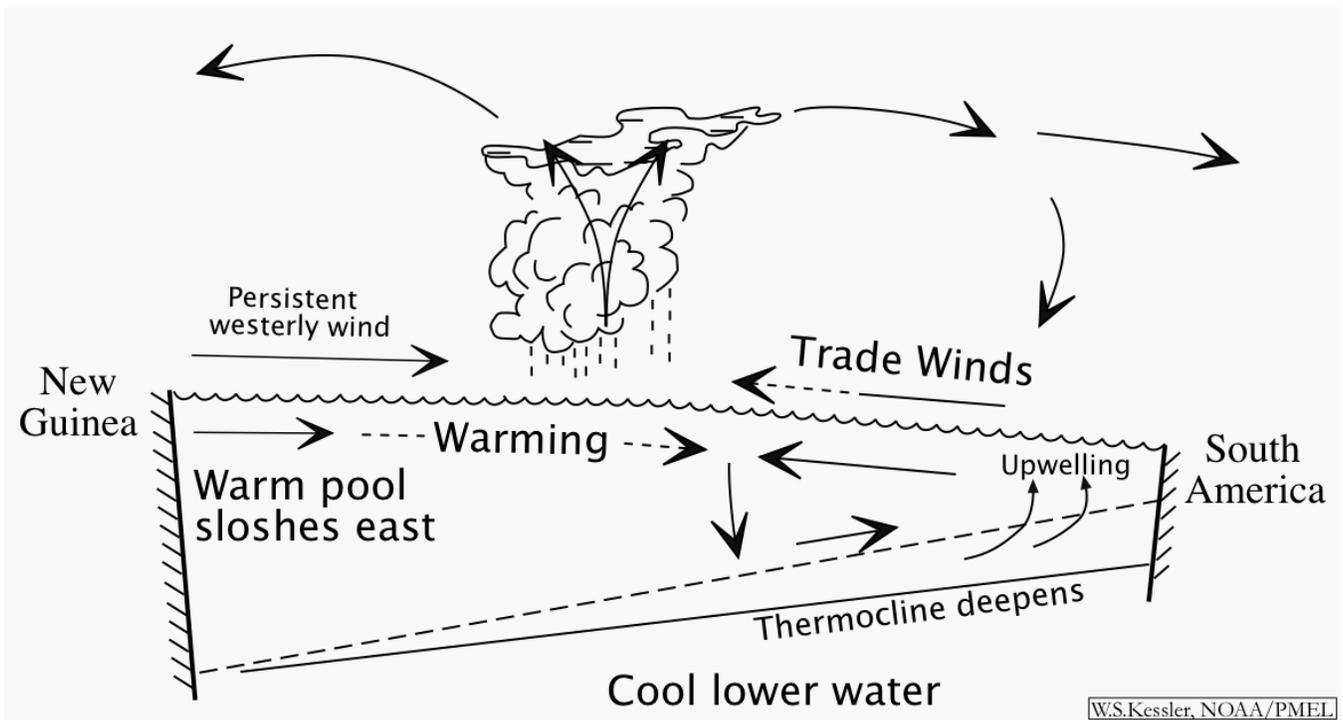
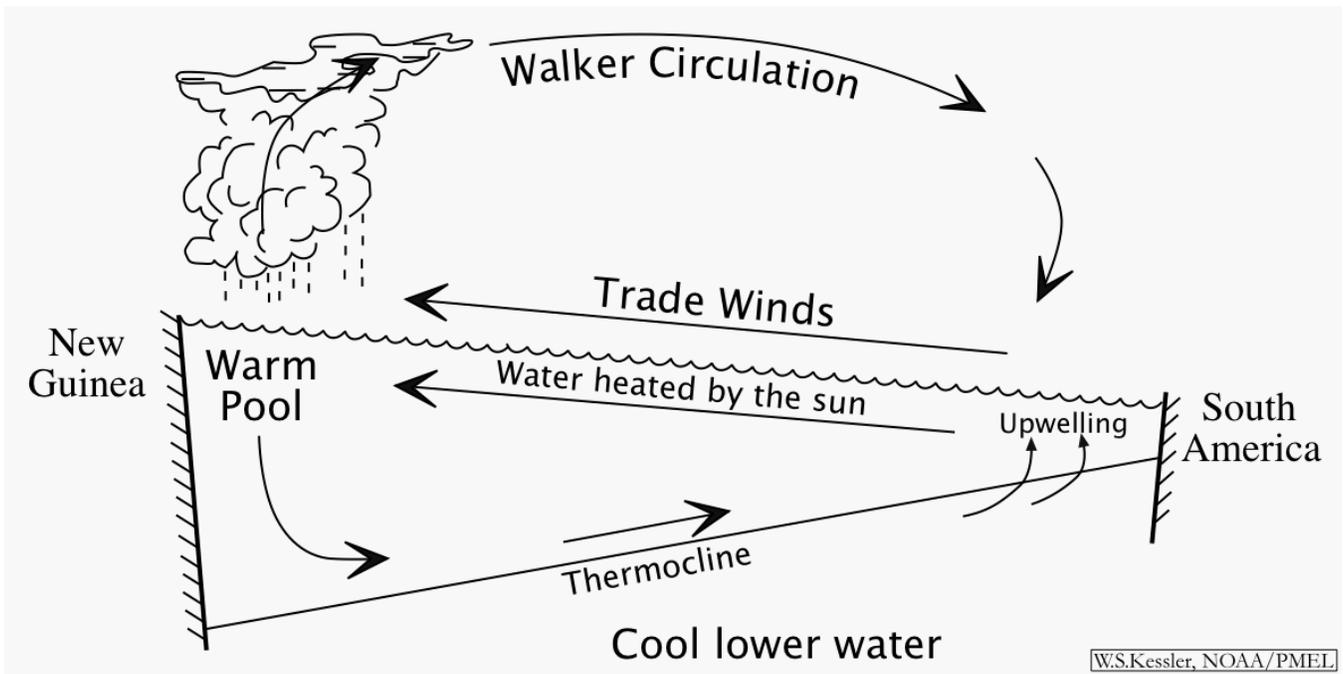


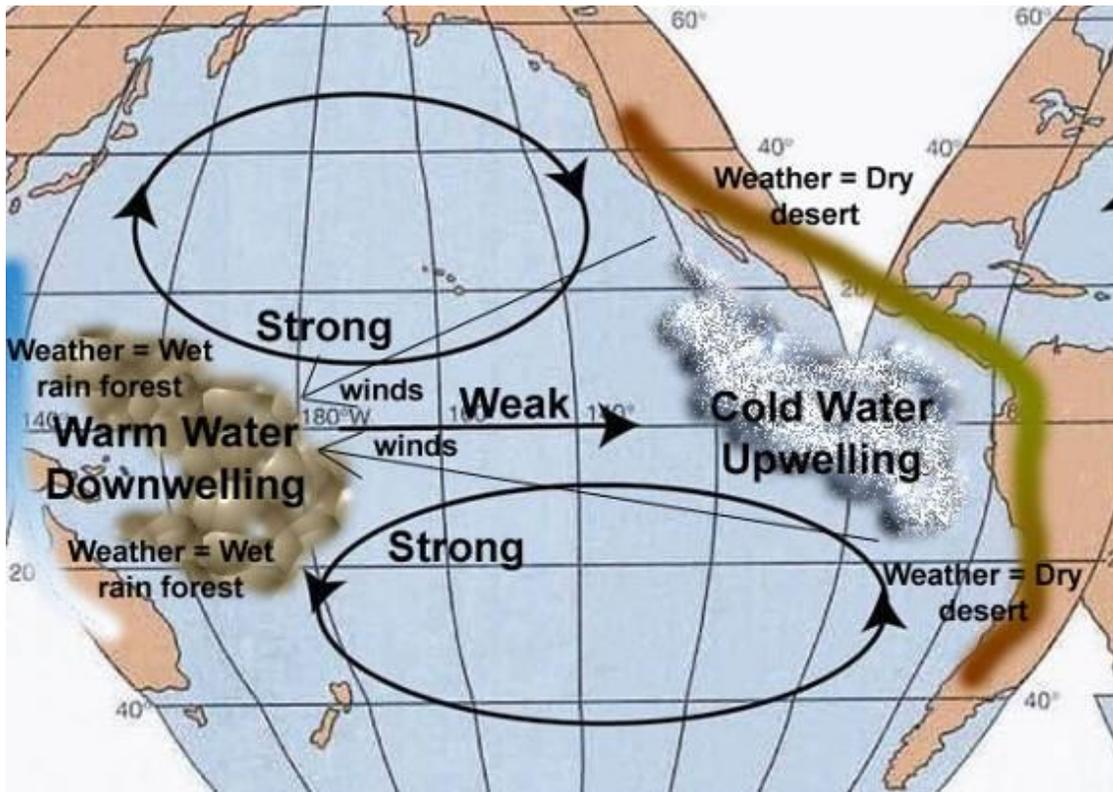
Image: NOAA – These images show sea surface topography and upper ocean temperature data from satellites and buoys. The height of the sea is represented by hills and valleys. Water temperature is shown in color, ranging from 30°C as red to 8°C, shown in dark blue. The image on the right represents "normal" conditions in the equatorial Pacific during January 1997. Notice the lack of a thermocline in the east – as cold water upwells to surface and is pulled from east to west (cold tongue). The image on the left shows El Niño conditions from November 1997. Notice the much warmer waters present in the eastern equatorial Pacific and the deep sharp thermocline. Final note: "Normal" conditions are intermediate between El Niño and La Niña. During a full La Niña, the thermocline in the eastern equatorial ocean would become even less visible and the cold tongue on the surface would become even stronger as globe images above show.



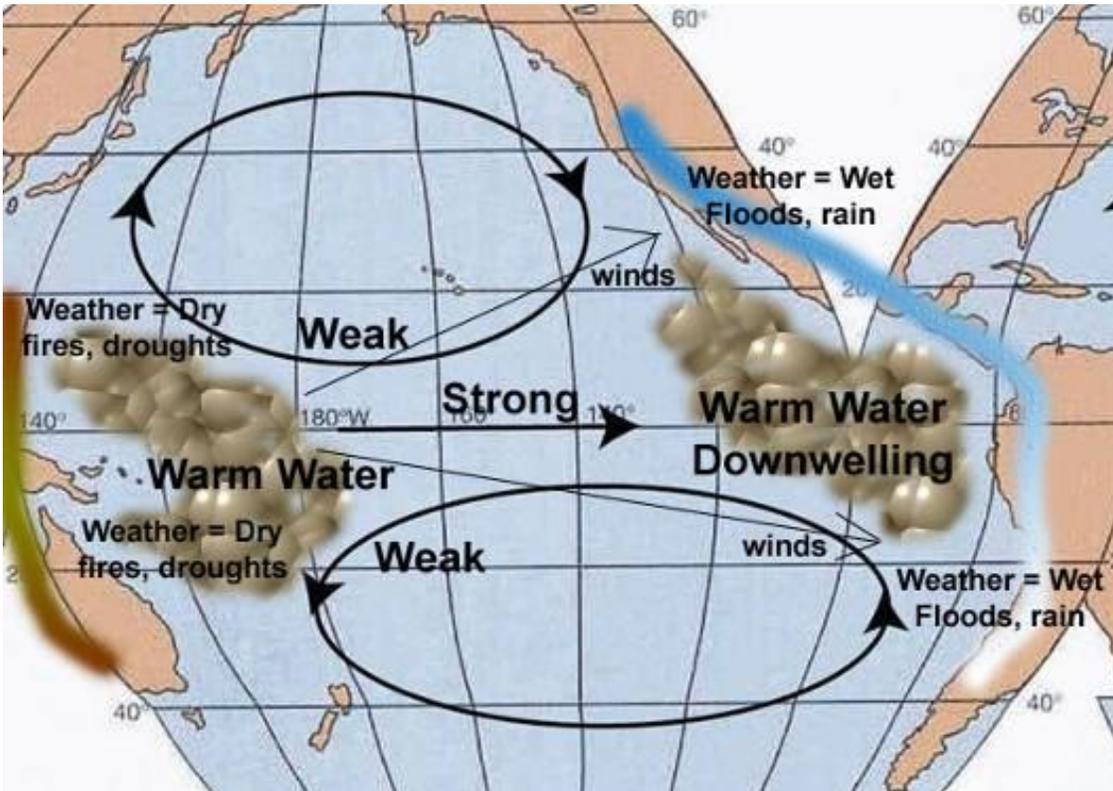
Schematic of normal and El Niño conditions in the equatorial Pacific (ocean currents and atmospheric circulation systems).

Image: NOAA Schematic of normal and El Niño conditions in the equatorial Pacific. Image: NOAA

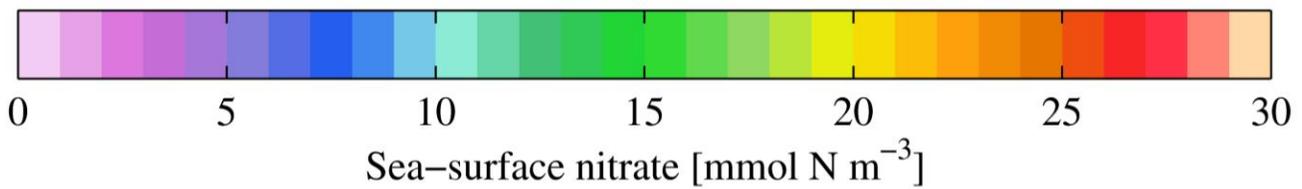
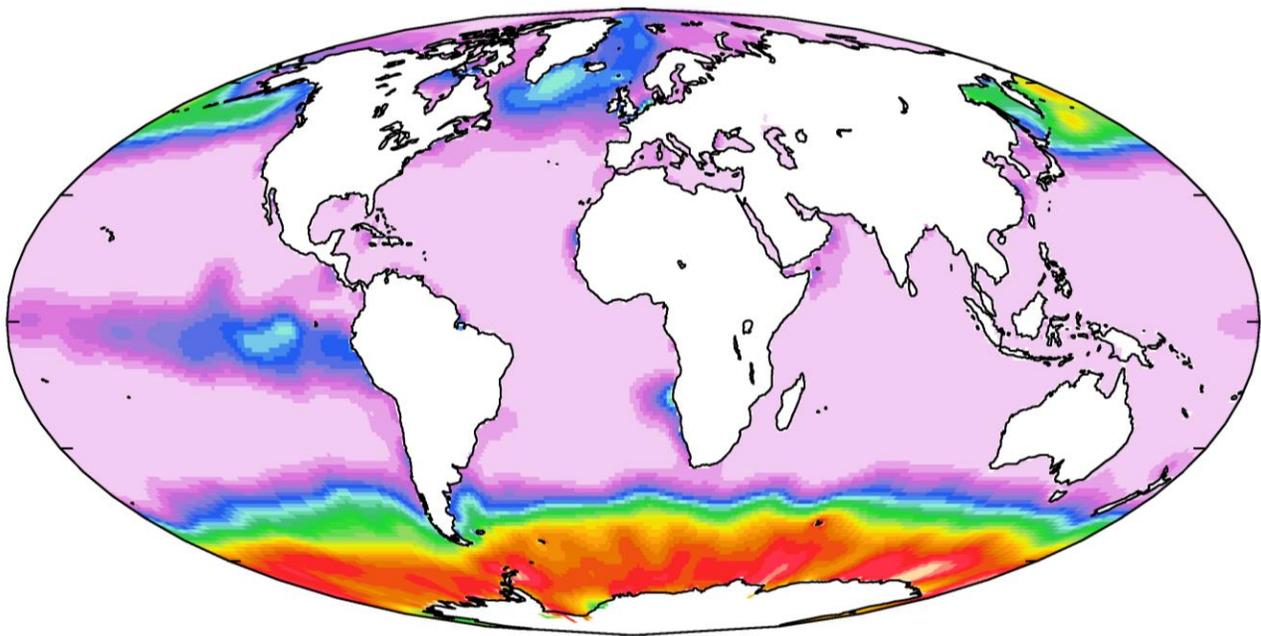
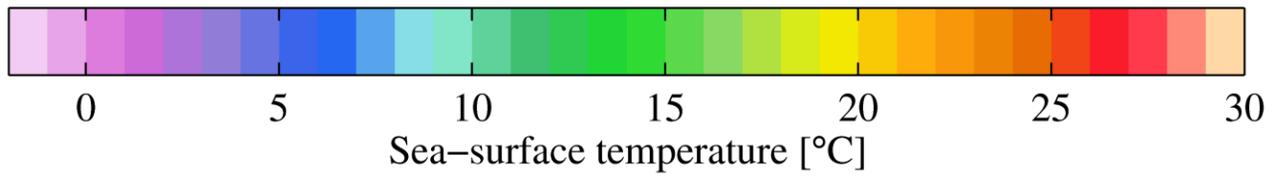
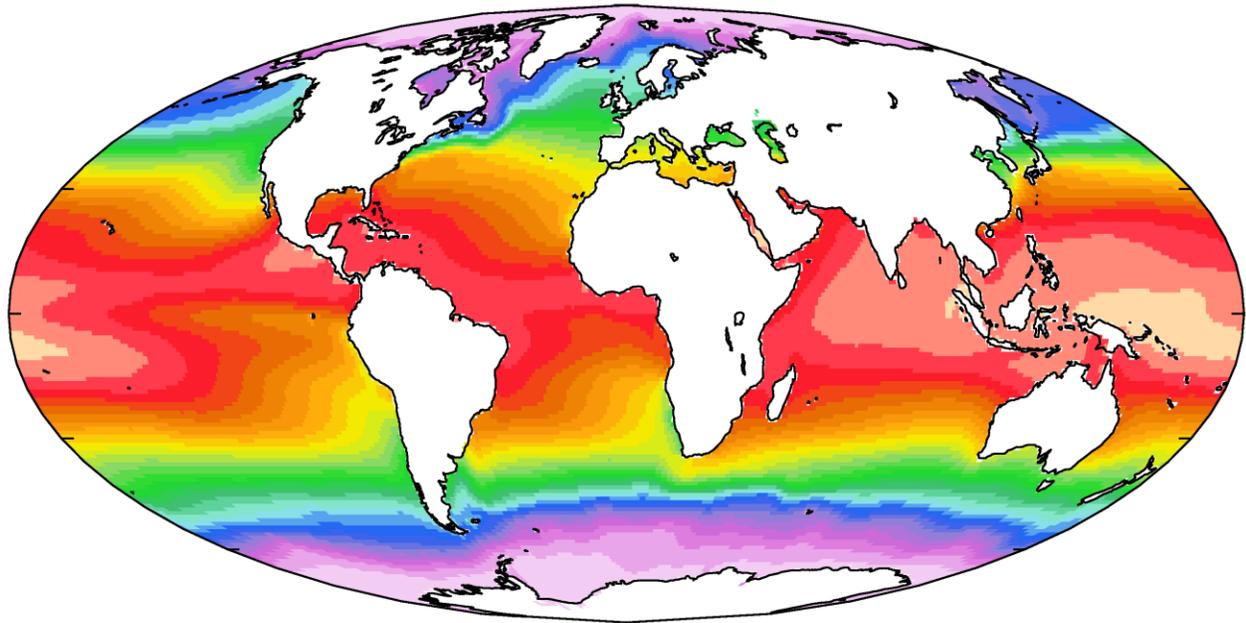
This image illustrates the connection between atmospheric conditions and ocean currents. Notice during La Niña, high pressures in Peru and low pressures in the western equatorial Pacific produce convection that causes the disappearance of a thermocline in the east and the cold tongue of surface water moving west. During El Niño, atmospheric convection shifts eastward, and the warm dome of water normally covering the western equatorial Pacific also shifts eastward, flattening the thermocline, shutting down upwelling, and creating a warm tongue of water pushing east.



La Niña (eastern equatorial zone: ocean = upwelling, cold water, atmosphere = dry high pressure; western equatorial zone: ocean= warm pile of water with downwelling, atmosphere = wet low pressure; equatorial currents **STRONG**; equatorial countercurrent is **WEAK**.)



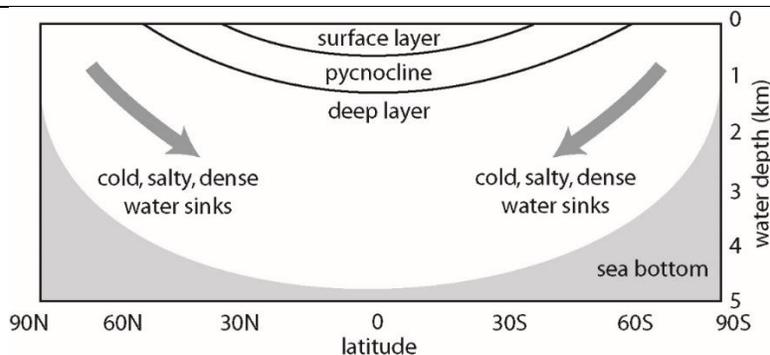
El Niño (eastern equatorial zone: ocean = **NO** upwelling, warm water, atmosphere = wet, low pressure; western equatorial zone: ocean = reduced pile of warm water, atmosphere = dry, high-pressure; equatorial currents **WEAK**; equatorial countercurrent is **STRONG**.)



Both of the above world maps were produced by Plumbago (CC BY-SA 3.0), Wikipedia, based on data from World Ocean Atlas 2009

Currents Chapter Worksheet

1. Thermohaline currents are caused by: (CIRCLE all that apply: *wind* / *coriolis effect* / *gravity* / *density*)



2. How do water characteristics change with depth as you cross the pycnocline in these general locations? CIRCLE.

	Poles	Subtropics	Equator
Density	<i>increases</i> / <i>decreases</i> / <i>no change</i>	<i>increases</i> / <i>decreases</i> / <i>no change</i>	<i>increases</i> / <i>decreases</i> / <i>no change</i>
Salinity	<i>increases</i> / <i>decreases</i> / <i>no change</i>	<i>increases</i> / <i>decreases</i> / <i>no change</i>	<i>increases</i> / <i>decreases</i> / <i>no change</i>
Temperature	<i>increases</i> / <i>decreases</i> / <i>no change</i>	<i>increases</i> / <i>decreases</i> / <i>no change</i>	<i>increases</i> / <i>decreases</i> / <i>no change</i>
Pycnocline also =	<i>halocline</i> / <i>thermocline</i>	<i>halocline</i> / <i>thermocline</i>	<i>halocline</i> / <i>thermocline</i>

3. When is there a pycnocline in the Poles? CIRCLE: *spring* / *summer* / *fall* / *winter* / *never*

4. When is there a pycnocline in the midlatitudes? CIRCLE: *spring* / *summer* / *fall* / *winter* / *never*

5. When is there a pycnocline from the equator to the subtropics? CIRCLE: *spring* / *summer* / *fall* / *winter* / *never*

6. Where does all **deep water** in the world's oceans originate? CIRCLE: *poles* / *mid latitudes* / *equator* / *depends*

7. Why?

Use the following **thermohaline currents** to answer these questions:

Antarctic Bottom Water (ABW) | Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) | Mediterranean Intermediate Water (MIW) | North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW) | Red Sea Intermediate Water (RSIW)

8. Which current is the **densest**? CIRCLE: AABW | AAIW | MIW | NADW | RSIW

9. Which current is the **least dense**? CIRCLE: AABW | AAIW | MIW | NADW | RSIW

10. Which current is the **coldest**? CIRCLE: AABW | AAIW | MIW | NADW | RSIW

11. Which current is the **warmest**? CIRCLE: AABW | AAIW | MIW | NADW | RSIW

12. Which current is the **freshest**? CIRCLE: AABW | AAIW | MIW | NADW | RSIW

13. Which current is the **saltiest**? CIRCLE: AABW | AAIW | MIW | NADW | RSIW

14. Does cold water sit over warm water anywhere? Where and why?

15. **Upwelling causes:** CIRCLE all that apply: *surface current convergence* / *surface current divergence* / *islands blocking a surface current* / *seamounts blocking a bottom current* / *Ekman transport INTO coastline* / *Ekman transport AWAY from coastline*

16. **Downwelling causes:** CIRCLE all that apply: *surface current convergence* / *surface current divergence* / *islands blocking a surface current* / *seamounts blocking a bottom current* / *Ekman transport INTO coastline* / *Ekman transport AWAY from coastline*

17. What happens to the following surface water characteristics when upwelling is happening?

Temperature – CIRCLE: *increases* / *decreases* / *no impact* || **Nutrient content** – CIRCLE: *increases* / *decreases* / *no impact*

Density – CIRCLE: *increases* / *decreases* / *no impact* || **Oxygen content** -- CIRCLE: *increases* / *decreases* / *no impact*

Marine life activity – CIRCLE: *increases* / *decreases* / *no impact* || **Fog** -- CIRCLE: *increases* / *decreases* / *no impact*

18. What percentage of wind speed (10 m or 30 ft above the surface) is transferred to water to produce surface currents?

19. The Ekman spiral is caused by: (CIRCLE all that apply: *wind* | *coriolis effect* | *gravity*)

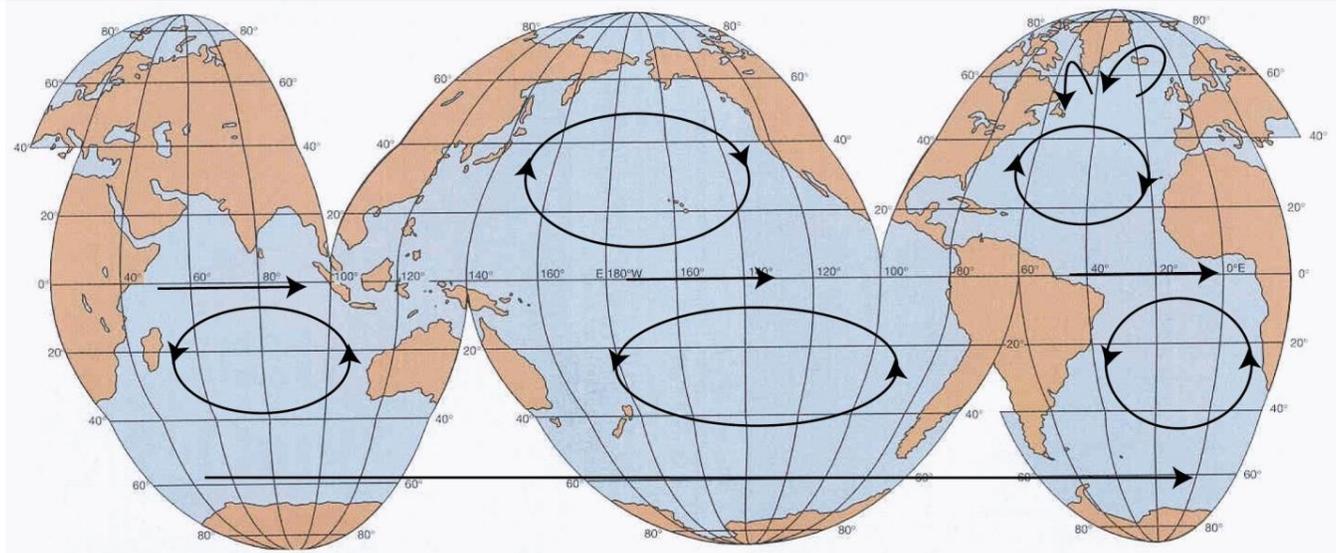
20. The Ekman spiral affects what portion of the ocean's surface water? (How deep?)

21. Ekman transport in the northern hemisphere is what angle to the wind and what direction?

22. Ekman transport in the southern hemisphere is what angle to the wind and what direction?

23. What are the 5 circulation circles in the 3 main oceans called (generic term)?

24. What causes them to form?



Map of the world's oceans with the main five gyres, equatorial countercurrents, and major polar currents (both hemispheres).

25. Label these **surface currents** in the above map: *Calif. Current* | *Equatorial countercurrent* | *Gulf Stream* | *West Wind Drift*

26. From the list above, and consulting the sea surface temperature graphs that precede this assignment, which current is the **warmest**?

27. From the list above, which current is the **coldest**?

28. In comparison with **western boundary currents**, **EASTERN boundary currents** are:

(CIRCLE: *faster* | *slower*) (CIRCLE: *colder* | *warmer*) (CIRCLE: *deeper* | *shallower*)
(CIRCLE: *moving poleward* | *moving equatorward*)

29. Along the equator in each major ocean, there are countercurrents. Why?

30. What happens to these countercurrents during El Niño? Why?

31. **EI NIÑO/LA NIÑA**: Trade Winds stronger than normal.

Trade Winds weaken and possibly reverse.

Warm equatorial ocean currents move east.

Eastern equatorial oceans have high upwelling (surface waters pulled away).

Western equatorial oceans experience dry weather, fires, and drought.

Eastern equatorial oceans experience wet weather, flooding, and coastal erosion.

CIRCLE: *El Niño/La Niña*

32. **Langmuir cells** include zones of: (CIRCLE *convergence* | *divergence* | *eddies* | *Ekman spirals*)

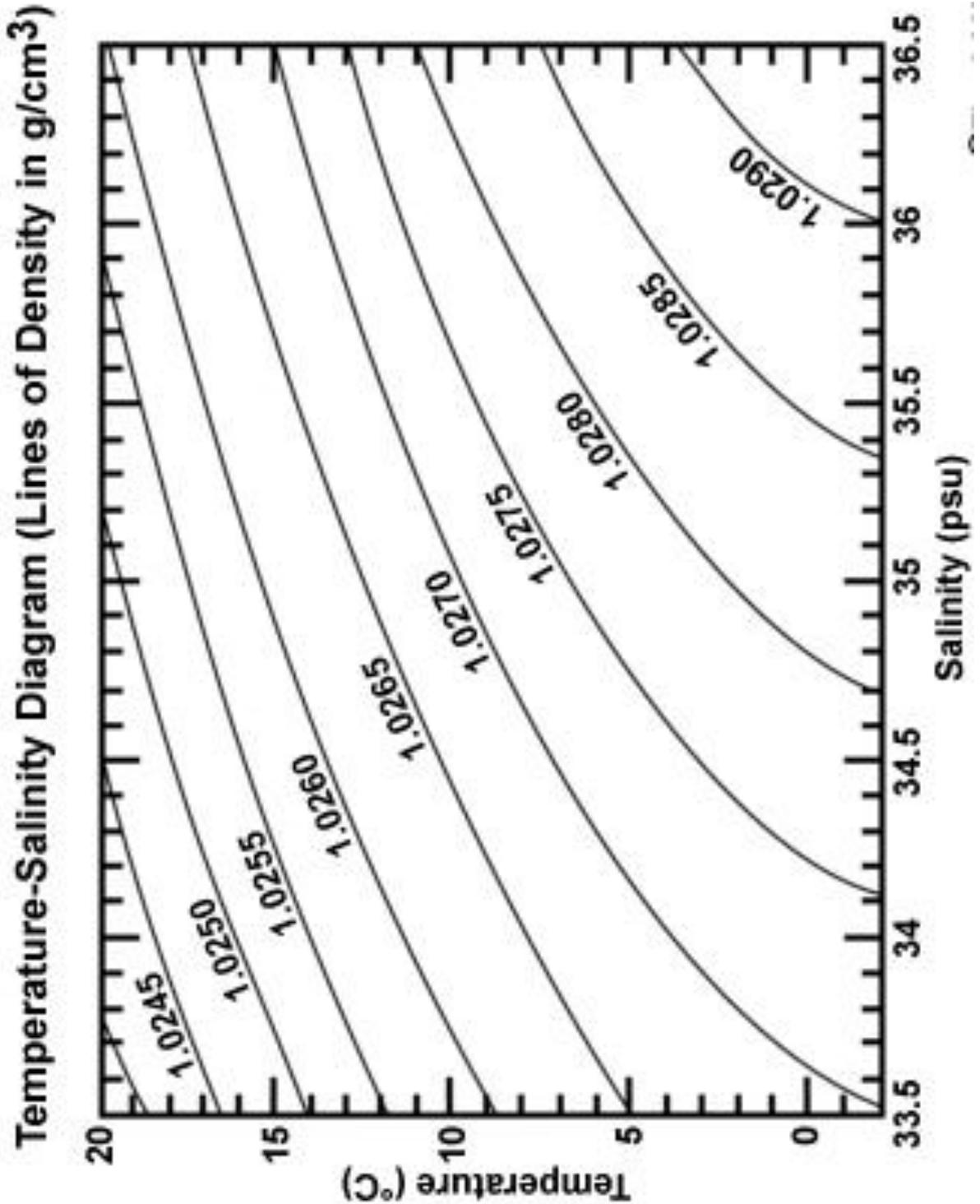
33. **Langmuir cells** affect what portion of the ocean's surface water? (How deep?)

34. On the graph below, map the values of the thermohaline currents from the table that appears on the second page of images for this chapter of the workbook. Where values are range, create a bar (where both X and Y values are a range, create a rectangle). Label: AABW, NADW, AAIW, MIW, RSIW.

Note: Salinity units in graph below are PPT. (Image below is from the Comet Program.)

35. Based on the location each appears on the graph, determine density. (You can also use the calculator on class website for more numeric accuracy.)

	Freshwater at 4°C	AABW	NADW	AAIW	MIW	RSIW
Density	1.000 g/cm ³					



Lost at Sea – Where Am I? Activity

You are left in adrift in a dinghy after a fishing excursion gone awry somewhere near Hawaii over spring break. How can you use your knowledge to find your location and to make your way back to land? Use the following clues to identify the **your location on the following maps** (mark with an X), and the **direction you would paddle to find land** (mark the location you would travel to with another X and draw an arrow between the two). Clues:

- Sun rises at **stern** (back) of your vessel and sets at **bow** (front) and you are keeping your vessel oriented this way throughout the day.
- Currents are moving towards the sunset (direction your bow is facing).
- Water temperatures are on the warm side.
- Frigate birds are flying from the sunrise direction in morning and the sunset direction in evening;
- Albatross and Arctic Tern are flying from **starboard** (right side of vessel when facing bow) to **port** (left side).
- At night, Polaris is on starboard side of boat and appears at angle of 10 degrees from horizon.
- Winds are from starboard **stern**.
- Swell is approaching from multiple directions but no local storm and no clouds in sky.
- When on dry land in Hawaii, your clock read 12 noon at close to solar noon. Now it reads 1 pm at solar noon.

To learn more about how to use the clues above and how to use them, refer to the exercises that follow then return here to answer the question!

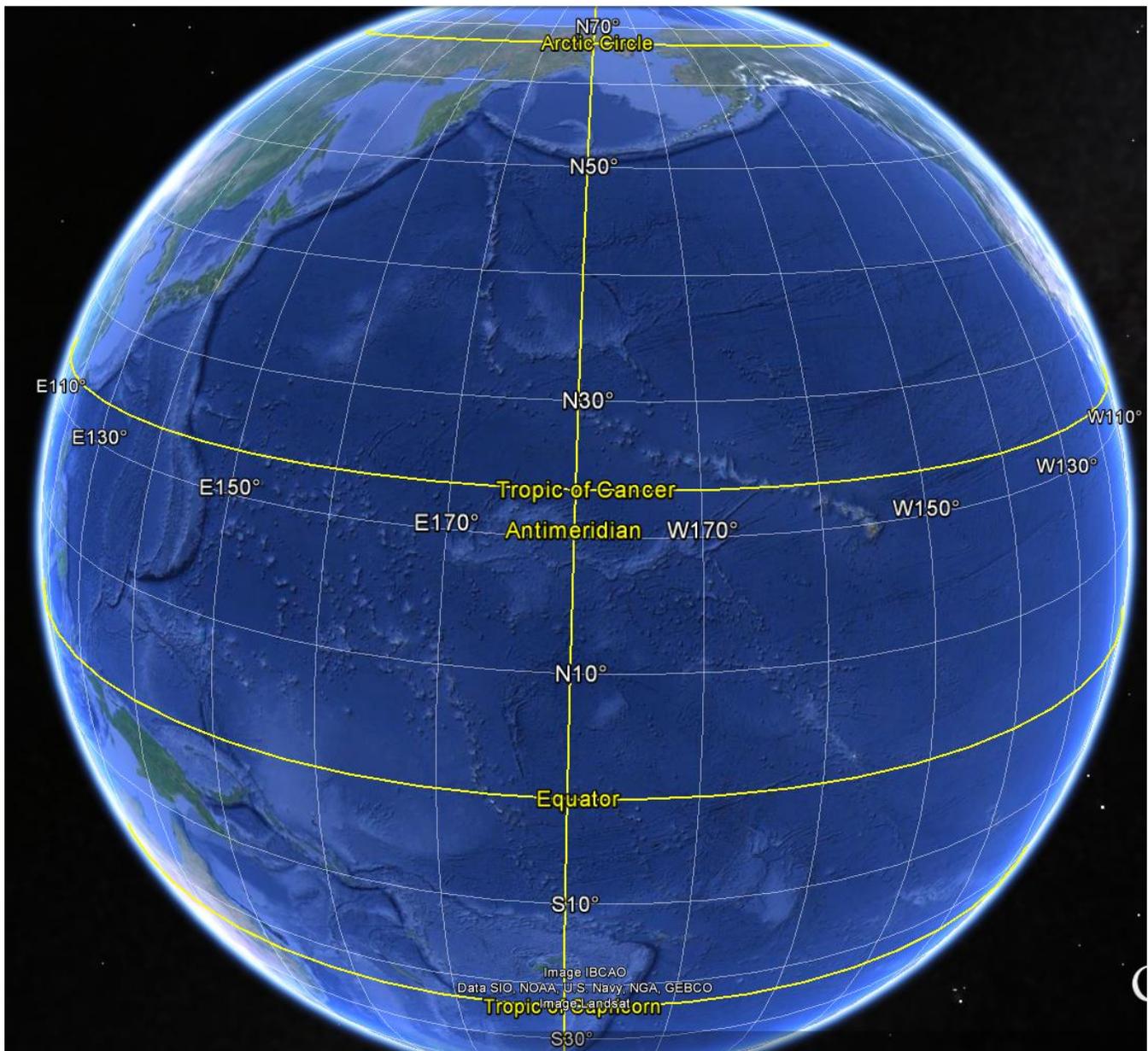


Image: Google Earth

MARINE TRADITIONAL NAVIGATION WAYFINDING -- Text below is from www.exploratorium.edu:

For thousands of years, group of explorers from a variety of indigenous cultures have set out on canoes for points unknown, possibly never to return, leaving behind loved ones and the safety of terra firma. What made them do it? No written record preserves much of this history, but speculations abound. They may have been driven by population pressures, a famine caused by a period of drought, or a lost battle. Or they may have been led by an ambitious chief, bent on glory or expansion. Some voyages may not have been driven by necessity at all, but instead by curiosity and a spirit of adventure.

This much is certain: Traditions of seafaring ran deep in the peoples of Pacific Coastal and Island nations, and often those who voyaged left their homes with no intention of returning, bringing with them the plants and animals they would need to start their lives afresh in a new land.

Today, with the rebirth of traditional voyaging in Hawai'i and elsewhere, we can ask the same question: Why set out for a weeks-long journey on a pitching canoe, risking the dangers of the open sea, and leaving behind loved ones and the comforts of home?

When the navigation renaissance began in the early 1970s, native peoples voyaged to prove a point, to refute the claim being advanced by some that their land was settled accidentally by the hapless drifting of rafts or by fishing boats blown off course. Now, with the tradition of traditional canoe navigation revived and thriving, the voyages allow new generations to connect with their native histories.

Of course, traveling thousands of miles by canoe without navigation aids has appeal in modern times, especially to people who love challenges as much as they love the ocean. But those voyagers who have mastered observation-based navigation techniques agree that it isn't really about the sailing, nor is it about the mental feat of getting from one tiny speck in the vast Pacific to another. These canoe voyages are really about preserving and celebrating culture—knowledge, traditions, and values that were very nearly lost.

*Hokule'a Sailing 2009
(Honolulu, Hawaii) –
Image by Kohuroa CC
BY 2.0.*



PACKING FOR THE JOURNEY

“Packing for a modern canoe voyage is a weighty matter, and the packing list looks much the same as for a long backpacking trip into the wilderness: water, nonperishable meals (think pasta and canned beans), a sleeping bag, a select and sturdy set of clothing, first aid and medications, a light source, and any of the things you can't imagine going a few weeks without—books, music, a journal, and yes, fishing gear. (Fresh sashimi is one of the delights of ocean travel.)

Water is the heaviest burden—a gallon of water per day per person. It must be stored and used in a carefully balanced arrangement, lest it disturb the steering and tracking of the canoe. When it rains, the crew uses tarps to catch the rainwater and refill empty bottles. Meals are also packed systematically, in bins marked "Day 1" and "Day 2," etc., for easy access" and to ensure there's enough food to last the voyage.

In a broader sense, preparing for a voyage has to do with not only what you bring, but also what you leave behind. Navigators counsel their crew members to make whatever arrangements are necessary to take care of responsibilities at home so that they can set out to sea untroubled." -- Exploratorium's *Never Lost*

What would YOU bring or most like to have with you if out in the middle of the Pacific Ocean? (Pick your top 5.)

Answers will vary. Suggestions: water (or tarp to collect water); warm clothing, watch, compass, fishing line/hook and/or food, maps!, flares.

What would be the biggest challenges you'd face?

Answers will vary. Suggestions: hunger and thirst; communication, staying warm, staying dry

WHICH WAY IS HOME?

"If there is a golden rule among marine navigators, it is this: **Keep track of where you've been, and you will never be lost.** Traditional marine navigation is home-centered, meaning that the navigator keeps a mental and even a written log of every step of the voyage, starting from the moment the canoe is launched. What was the bearing? How far did the canoe travel? How did the wind and currents affect the canoe's path? By tracking direction and distance throughout the journey, the navigator maintains a mental roadmap of the canoe's path that establishes the location of both the destination and the home island. The payoff for such careful observation is that at any given moment during the voyage, you should always be able to point both to the destination and back to home. Even if the winds or currents put the canoe off track, even if the destination island never appears, returning home is still just a matter of retracing the journey, relying on the same clues that brought you. In this sense, you are never lost, because you always know the way home." -- Exploratorium's *Never Lost*

To make the above possible, there has to be a constant knowledge of how the boat is situated relative to north, south, east, and west. Use the rising sun in the east and the setting sun in the west to get your bearings first, then be sure you never lose them. Always know which direction your bow is facing at any particular time.

If no compass or map, how would you keep track of where you've been and where you're going?

You'd want some kind of writing device, so you could keep a record – create a map as you travel. AND FIRST AND FOREMOST figure out North South East and West directions from setting sun. Keep these always aligned.

If no compass, how do you orient yourself relative to north, south, east, west and keep your orientation (know the direction you're moving or facing)?

Pick a location on the boat and use that as your guide (measure everything relative to that one location). Then at night check orientation of north stars or ecliptic against that location. During day check sun's path. Remember that sun sets in west and rises in east. When no land in sight, and no stars or sun, you can keep your orientation by direction the waves are coming from.

HOW FAR?

"A voyaging canoe lacks two things that most people have come to expect in a moving vehicle: a speedometer and a trip odometer. So how do you know how far you've gone?

A straightforward way of measuring speed is by what's called dead reckoning. If you time the progress of bubbles and froth as they pass along the length of the canoe, it's possible to get a rough calculation of speed using simple algebra. To calculate canoe speed by dead reckoning, you can use a very simple formula: speed = distance / time.

So, for example, if it takes a bubble 4 seconds to travel 20 feet along the canoe, you know you are traveling at 5 feet per second. Divide by 6,077 feet per nautical mile, and multiply it by 3,600 seconds per hour, and you'll have your answer in nautical miles per hour, or knots—in this case, 3 knots.

Sometimes navigators prefer to simply estimate the distance traveled using "canoe days," the average distance a particular canoe covers over the course of a full day. For example, a voyaging canoe might average 120 miles (193 km) per day when sailing in tropical latitudes. So after sailing three days, you can assume you've traveled roughly 360 miles (579 km), although variations in winds and currents can alter this number dramatically." -- Exploratorium's *Never Lost*

If you paddle at the same rate every day, what are some reasons you would actually cover more ground (be moving faster) on a particular day? Moving slower on a particular day? *If you're paddling WITH the current, you'll be moving faster. If you're paddling AGAINST the current, you'll be moving slower.*

•How fast are you travelling if your boat is 10 feet long, and you paddle past a floating log in 10 seconds? How far could you travel paddling at this speed for 8 hours?

10 feet/10 seconds = 1 foot per second

$$\frac{1 \text{ foot}}{1 \text{ sec}} \times \frac{60 \text{ sec}}{1 \text{ min}} \times \frac{60 \text{ min}}{1 \text{ hr}} \times 8 \text{ hr} = 28,800 \text{ feet} \quad \text{SO} \quad \frac{28,800 \text{ feet}}{6,077 \text{ feet}} \times \frac{1 \text{ nautical mile}}{1} = 4.7 \text{ n. mi}$$

You could travel 4.7 nautical miles or ~5 degrees of longitude at the equator.

SEAMARKS

“Seamarks can help track progress and indicate location. Seamarks are natural mid-ocean signposts that tend to appear at certain specific places along the way, including sea life, flocks of birds, free-floating seaweed or driftwood, or other natural phenomena. A particular zone might always host a swarm of jellies, say, or a school of porpoises. Seamarks reassure the navigator that he or she is on track.

Locating a small island in the middle of the Pacific might seem a nearly impossible feat, but navigators get help from a variety of sources. First, most islands occur in groups. This makes the navigator's target more of a zone than a dot. Find any island in the group, and you can use it to find the one you're looking for.” -- Exploratorium's *Never Lost*

What are some reasons that areas would regularly have floating material?

Zone of converging currents and downwelling and/or center of gyre

What are some reasons that areas would regularly have high sea life?

Zone of upwelling due to diverging currents or an underwater seamount intersection a bottom current or bottom feature.

How are the island chains and areas of active sea life related (especially areas with no visible islands)?

Typically we find upwelling happening on one side of an island (if winds from NE, then upwelling happens on NW side of island). And if island chains continue under water, then upwelling will happen over these seamounts.

Refer to map below. In the areas around Hawaii, what direction has the highest amount of seamounts?

West of Hawaii there are a LOT of seamounts/island chains. – MOST are southwest.

If you connected these island chains and seamounts with lines, what directions would they run? (Example: a line parallel to the equator would be east-west. A line parallel to a meridian would be north-south. What are the geometries of the lines of seamounts? (If you follow them in your boat, what two directions might you be traveling

Many line up northwest-southeast; some are almost north-south

USING WINDS AND CURRENTS

“Most navigators plan their routes using a technique known as downwind sailing. The strategy is to set a course to a point at a given latitude upwind of the target island. Then, when you reach the correct latitude, you turn and let the wind carry you to your destination.

Downwind sailing helps simplify the challenge of locating the target island. If you sail directly toward your target and somehow miss it, you may not know which way to turn. Was it to the left or right? But if you deliberately sail to a point to one side (that is, east or west) and upwind of your target, you can then turn downwind and trust that the island is in front of you. Fortunately, many islands are part of a group of islands, presenting a larger target that is easier to locate than a single, lone island.

Another advantage to downwind sailing: It guarantees that the final leg of the journey will be relatively easy, giving the crew a break when they are likely to need it most.

Any successful sailing voyage requires intimate knowledge of wind patterns and currents. A strong current can be friend or foe, helping to carry you where you want to go or rapidly carrying you off course. Winds and currents vary widely from place to place and from season to season, and storms frequently disrupt the typical patterns. A good navigator takes careful consideration of the winds and currents likely to be in play at the time of a voyage.

Clouds can be a sign of land. Clouds accumulate over islands, and an isolated pile of clouds on the horizon often signals the presence of land. Reflected light on clouds can be another clue. When sunlight (or moonlight) shines on white sand and shallow bays, the light can reflect upward, illuminating the base of low clouds with a silver or greenish glow.” -- Exploratorium's *Never Lost*

On the map on the first page of this assignment, draw in the typical currents found in the Northern and Equatorial Pacific. Label them with speeds (fast, slow) and temperature (cold, warm).

On the same map, in another color, draw arrows indicating the dominant wind directions (and names).

Circle on the same map the largest islands that would be good targets for navigation (based on wind and current directions and not wanting to miss the island...)

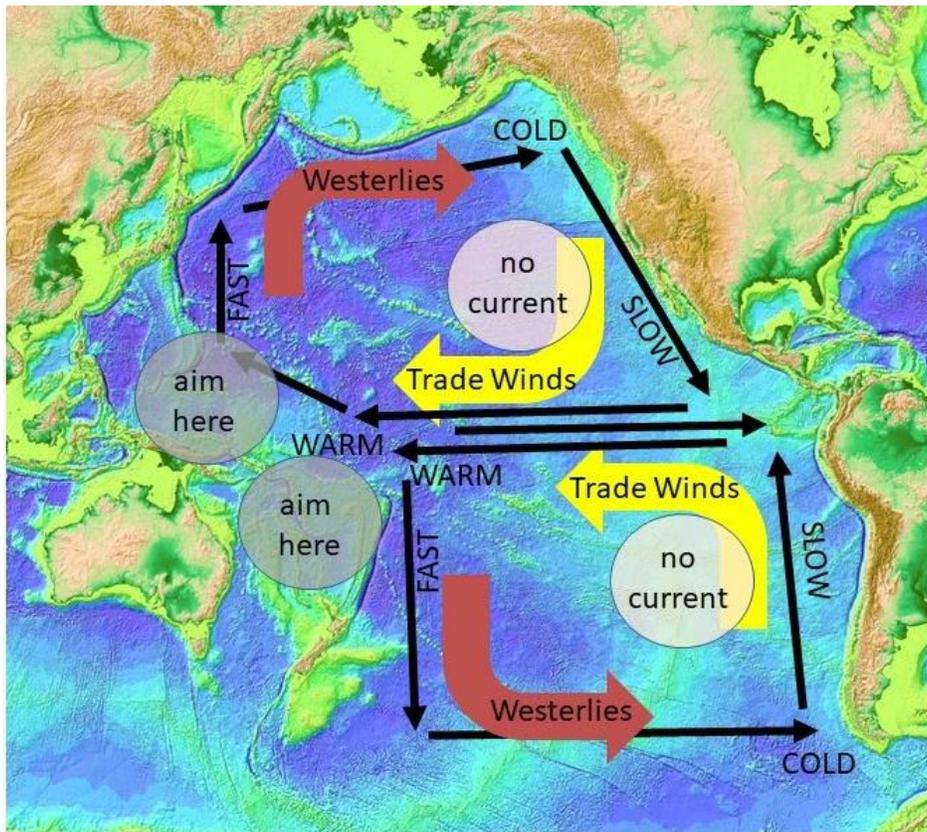
How could you decide which current you were in if you found yourself in a current? Give example.

Size of current, temperature, and direction it's going. For example, if warm current travelling westward, probably in the equatorial currents. If warm and going eastward, probably in equatorial countercurrent.

Where would you be if you noticed NO current? Put a big 0 mark there in the map on the previous page and indicate no current. *In center of Gyre! **NOTE: This is the only place where there is no current, also where the "garbage patches" are.*

What happens to the location of currents and winds with the seasons?

At June solstice, they've all migrated north so equatorial currents and ITCZ is around tropic of cancer. At December solstice, they've all migrated south so equatorial currents and ITCZ are around tropic of capricorn. At equinoxes, equatorial currents and ITCZ are at equator!



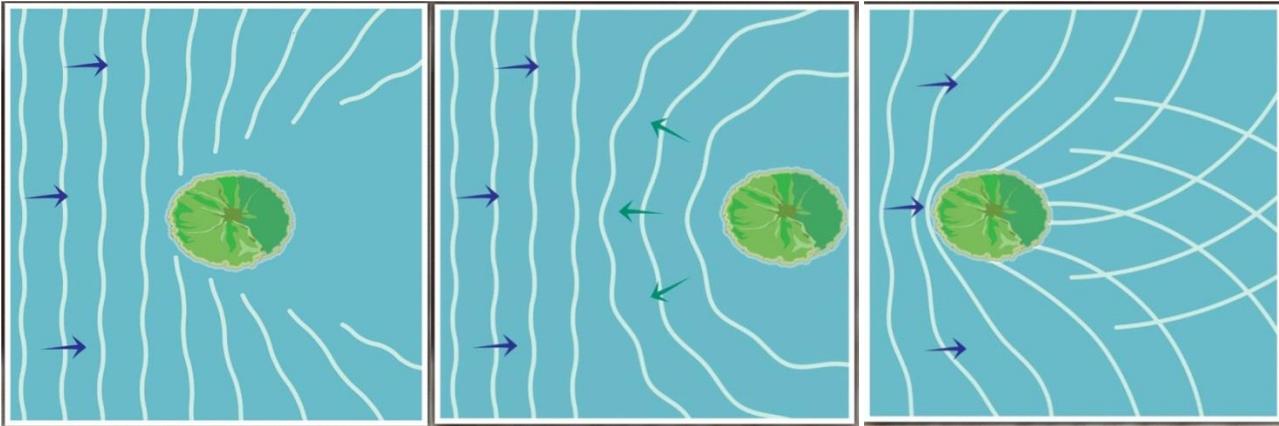
SWELL

"Night and day, ocean swells can fill in as a rough guide to direction. Ocean swells are waves that have traveled far from the winds or storms that generated them. With practice, you can feel their subtle roll as they pass under the canoe and sense the direction the swells are coming from. If you note the direction from which the swells are coming at a time when the stars or other celestial guides are available, those same swells can guide you when the celestial guides disappear.

Unlike other guides to direction, swells are almost always present, which makes them especially important during the day, when other clues are absent. But swell patterns can and do shift, so a navigator can't rely on them indefinitely. When all else fails, and there's no way to keep a correct bearing, a good navigator "heaves to"; that is, takes down the sail and waits until he or she can set the course again.

Wave patterns, too, can be altered by the presence of land. Islands block, reflect, and refract ocean swells, creating distinct wave patterns that can help steer a seasoned navigator to land—especially helpful at night or when visibility is low. Bits of land vegetation such as seed pods or driftwood floating on the waves are yet another sign of land nearby." --

Exploratorium's *Never Lost*



Wave refraction around islands. Images reproduced with permission from the Exploratorium

Where do swell originate? (And can that help you find your location at sea?)

Distant storms – so wherever swell is coming FROM is where there's a low pressure. Winds also likely moving in that direction.

How can you use swell direction to keep your direction/bearing constant during the day?

If you can't see sun or stars, and swell have been pretty consistent, you can keep yourself moving at same angle to swell.

What do you do if you have lost your direction and no longer trust the swell direction?

Stop and wait until you can find something you can measure.

If you are traveling in the opposite direction of the swell (against the swell) and notice an area of interference (where waves suddenly seem to be coming from multiple directions, what might that represent? (Put an X in the pictures above that mark that location.) *Island ahead! You can see this in the right-most image above – X goes in the center of the right half.*

BIRDS

Birds can be helpful to a navigator in search of an island. Certain land-nesting birds fly out to hunt for fish in the morning and return to their nests in the evening, supplying a useful pointer to land. Not all birds make this daily commute between land and sea, however, so it's important to know one species from another.

A typical Pacific island can be sighted on a clear day from about 10 miles (16 km) away. Birds can significantly extend this detection zone. Some birds range only 30 miles (50 km) from land, while others, such as frigate birds can range much farther, up to 100 miles (160 km) from land. But don't trust every bird you see. Behaviors are general and many juveniles can be unpredictable.

Frigatebirds are found over tropical oceans and ride warm updrafts. Therefore, they can often be spotted riding weather fronts and can signal changing weather patterns. These birds do not swim and cannot walk well, and cannot take off from a flat surface. Having the largest wingspan to body weight ratio of any bird, they are essentially aerial, able to stay aloft for more than a week, landing only to roost or breed on trees or cliffs. Because they cannot swim or take off from a flat surface, they will never set down in the water. They mostly steal their food from other birds mid-flight.



The **Arctic Tern** travels the farthest of any bird, crossing the equator in order to spend the Austral summer in Antarctica. They thus travel from pole to pole, maximizing their food sources – summer in the Arctic and then summer in Antarctica, and back again.

Image: Malene Thyssen, Wikimedia Commons



Albatrosses usually spend 80 to 90 percent of their time at sea flying, day and night. They return to islands once a year to breed. If you can recognize the species and know its breeding time, you should be able to determine whether it's heading to land or open sea.



Image: Laysan Albatross, Kauai, Hawaii by Dick Daniels (Wikimedia Commons)

Shorebirds or land birds are those that must stay close to land and/or rely on freshwater. These include penguins, cormorants, coots (a few migrating species migrate only at night), eagles, herons, osprey, ducks, sanderlings, oyster catchers, ruddy turnstones, plovers, red- and blue-footed boobies, and more.



Coot



Cormorant



Penguin



Osprey



Sanderlings



Snowy Plover

(images from Wikipedia Commons)

Which birds provide no indication of the proximity of land?

Arctic tern, Albatross, Frigate birds (mostly),

Which birds indicate land is nearby?

Frigate birds (somewhat – but can be out for a week!) – shorebirds – like coots, hawks, oyster catchers, etc.

Which birds can be used to indicate time of year? How?

Migrating birds, like arctic tern. If we see them moving North to South, we know that it's the end of the Northern Hemisphere summer.

CALCULATING YOUR LATITUDE

"The North Star, known as Polaris or Hōkūpa'a (Hawaiian), is an especially useful star. Situated at the north celestial pole, it is fixed in the sky and reliably marks due north. In the Southern Hemisphere, where the North Star can't be seen, there is no fixed pole star. But there is a constellation in the southern sky—called the Southern Cross, or Hānaiakamalama in Hawaiian—that points to the south. Draw a line from the top of the cross through the bottom, and this line points toward due south on the horizon.

Of course, stars aren't visible all the time. That's when the sun and moon can help. At dawn, as the stars are fading, you can note the position of the rising sun relative to the canoe and use the sun as a guide while it's low in the sky. At night, if clouds or fog pass in front of your guiding stars, the moon may still be visible and a good bearing marker when it is near the horizon.

Stars can also give clues about location. The height of a star as it passes through its highest point in the sky depends directly on the latitude of the observer. So you can measure the height of stars above the horizon to figure out your latitude.

The North Star, or Hōkūpa'a, is a useful latitude marker when you're in the northern hemisphere. The angular height of the North Star above the horizon, in degrees, is equal to your latitude. For example, in Hawai'i, the North Star is 20° above the horizon. That tells you that your latitude in Hawai'i is 20°.

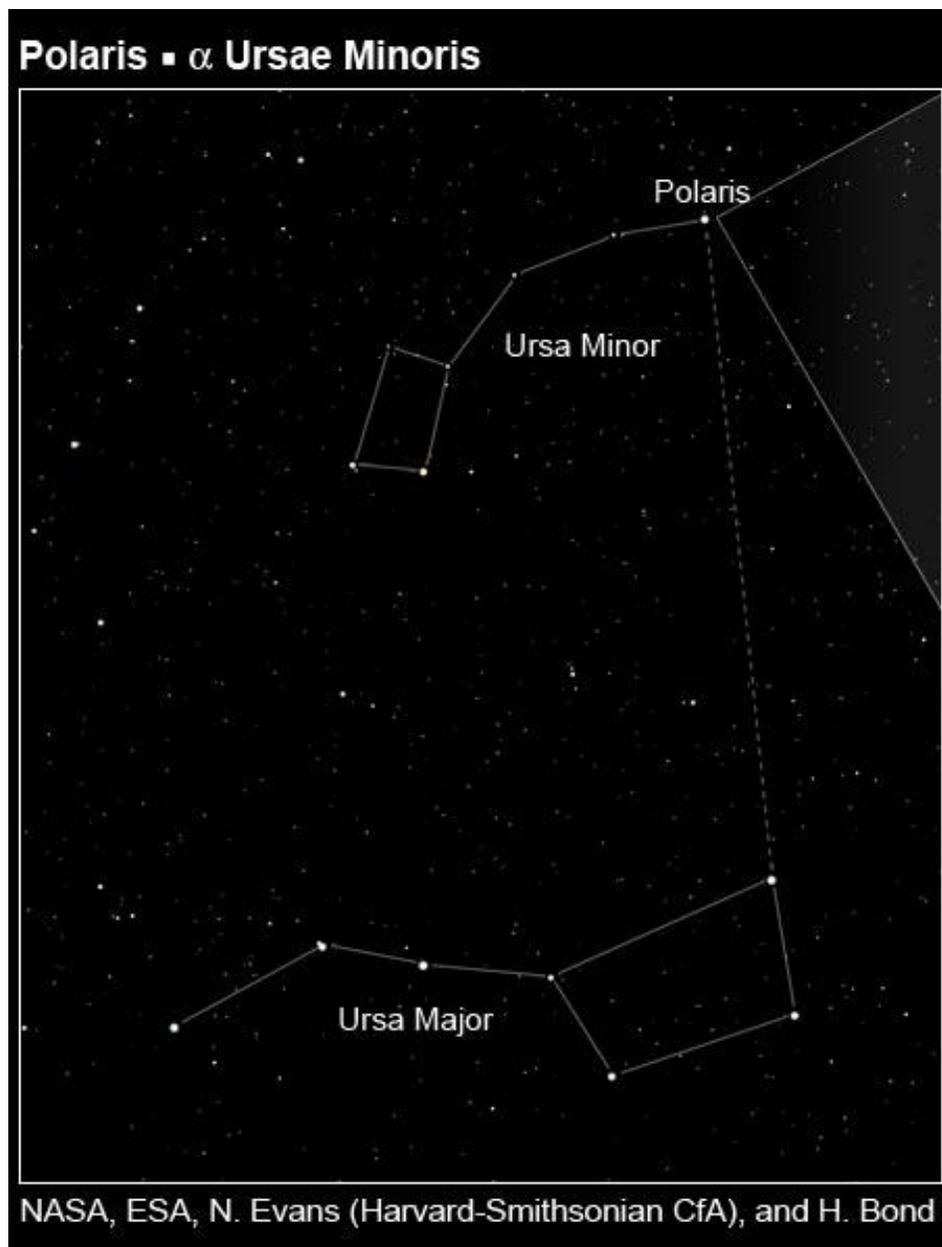
Measuring the angular height of a star in degrees may sound complicated, but it's something you can do easily, using your own body as a measuring tool. Stretch your hand out in front of you, as far as it will go. The width of your pinky is about 1°. Make a fist, and the width of your fist is about 10°. For greater accuracy, you'll want to "calibrate" your own hand as a measuring tool.

The Southern Cross, or Hānaiakamalama, is another useful constellation for finding your latitude, especially near Hawai'i. When the Southern Cross is upright above the horizon, and the distance between the top star and the bottom star

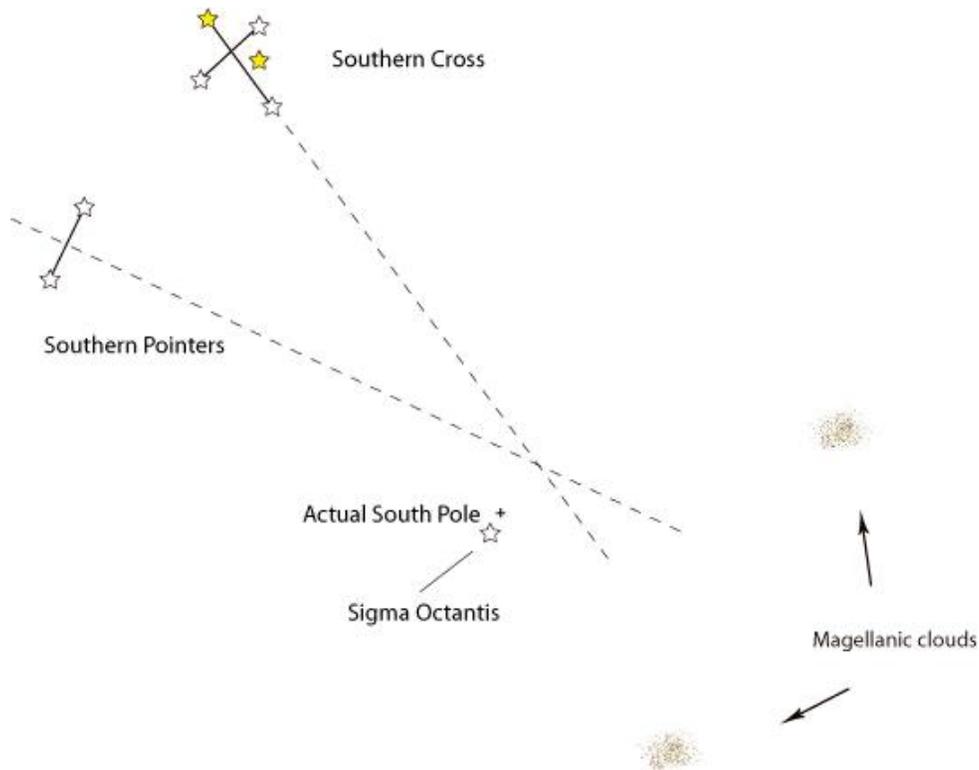
is equal to the distance between the bottom star and the horizon, then you know you are at 20° north, the latitude of Hawai'i. Travel south from Hawai'i and the Southern Cross rises higher in the sky, to 30° above the horizon (about three fists) at the equator." -- Exploratorium's *Never Lost*

Hold your hand in front of you, as far as you can. Line up your outstretched hand with distant objects to measure their angular width or height. Various parts of your hand span different angles. These "rules of thumb" work for most people, but if you want to make your "handy" measuring tool even more personal and precise, try calibrating your hand.

- Find a wall that you can stand back from at least 2 meters.
- Get your meter stick and put a bright sticker or piece of tape at the following positions: 3.5 cm (1°), 17.5 cm (5°), 35.3 cm (10°), and 72.8 cm (20°). Write the degree measurement on top of each sticker.
- Use the clear tape to attach the meter stick to the wall. Orient the meter stick vertically and put the center of the meter stick roughly at eye level.
- Put your measuring tape on the floor and measure a distance of 2 meters from the wall. Use colored tape or a sticker to mark the spot on the floor.
- Stand on the spot and look toward the meter stick. Use the markings on the meter stick to figure out exactly what positions your hand must take to span the distance to each sticker. Memorize these and you'll have a handy measurement tool to take with you wherever you go!"

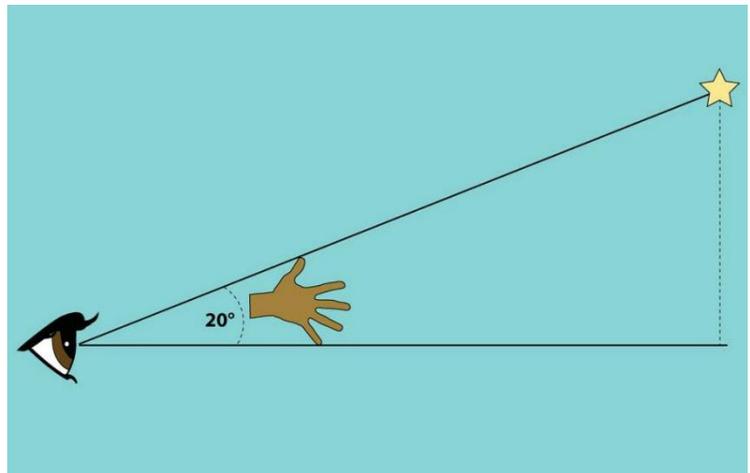


Polaris Image from NASA |



Southern Cross Image by Michael Millthorn (Creative Commons Share Alike 3.0)

Part of Hand to Compare	Angular Degrees (approximate)
Outstretched Thumb & Pinkie	20°
Thumb to Fingertip	15°
Clenched Fist	10°
Thumb	2°
Pinkie	1°



Images reproduced with permission from the Exploratorium

LATITUDE: YOUR TURN FOR SOUTHERN HEMISPHERE:

What's your latitude if you measure the sun's altitude at solar noon to be 53.5°, and it is Dec 21st?

Dec. 21 = summer in southern hemisphere

$A = 53.5$ degrees, $D = 23.5$ degrees, $L = 90$ degrees $- 53.5$ degrees $+ 23.5$ degrees = 60 degrees S latitude

What's your latitude if you measure the sun's altitude at solar noon to be 20°, and it is March 22?

$A = 20$ degrees, $D = 0$ degrees, $L = 90$ degrees $- 20$ degrees = 70 degrees S latitude

What's your latitude if you measure the sun's altitude at solar noon to be 5°, and it is July 1st?

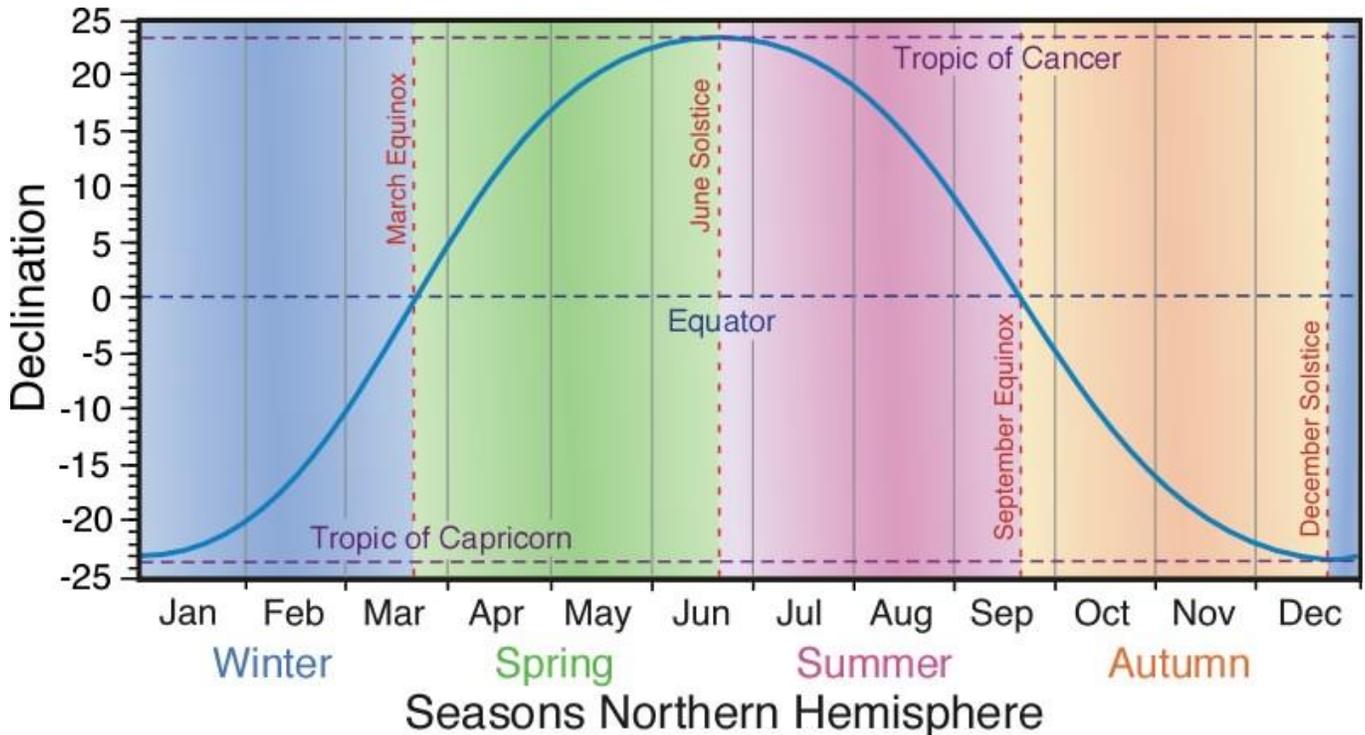
July 1st is winter in southern hemisphere and it sits between $D=23.5^\circ$ (June Solstice) and $D=0^\circ$ (September Equinox). From the graph, I get that D on July 1 day is $\sim 23^\circ$.

Latitude = $90^\circ - (5^\circ - 23^\circ) = 62^\circ\text{S}$ (This answer is only as good as D was measured)

FINDING LONGITUDE DURING THE DAY:

Go outside at solar noon and measure the angle between the horizon and the sun. What is **solar noon**? Solar noon is the moment at which the sun is at its maximum height above the horizon. If you are at the Tropic of Cancer on the June Solstice in the Northern Hemisphere, the sun would be DIRECTLY over your head. If you are at a latitude further north from 23N (the tropic), the sun will always make its transit south of you, and you will have to look south to find it. North of 23N (and south of 23S), the sun will never be DIRECTLY overhead.

The rest of this section is based on information and uses images produced by Dr. Michael Pidwirny, University of British Columbia Okanagan. <http://www.physicalgeography.net>



June solstice $D=23.5^\circ$, December solstice $D=-23.5^\circ$, March equinox $D=0^\circ$, and September equinox $D=0^\circ$.
Declination = the latitudinal angle at which the sun is directly overhead (depends on season).

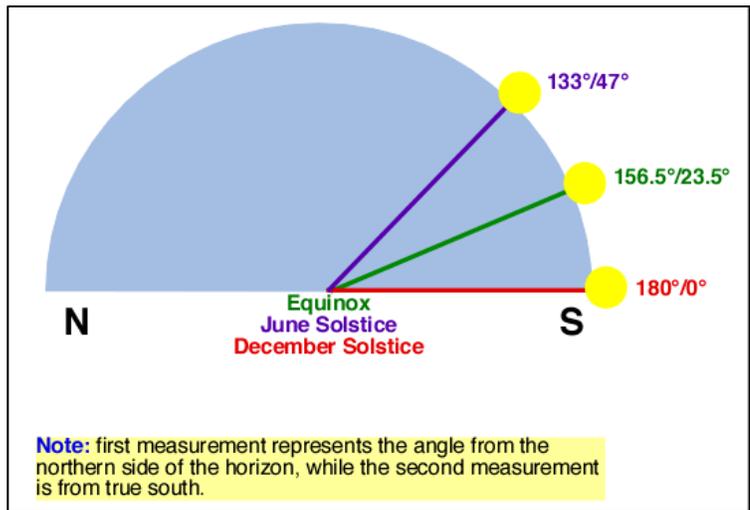
Maximum Sun altitudes for selected latitudes during the two solstices and equinoxes.

Location's Latitude	March Equinox March 20/21	June Solstice June 21/22	September Equinox September 22/23	December Solstice December 21/22
90 N	0°	23.5°	0°	- 23.5°
70 N	20°	43.5°	20°	-3.5°
66.5 N	23.5°	47°	23.5°	0°
60 N	30°	53.5°	30°	6.5°
50 N	40°	63.5°	40°	16.5°
23.5 N	66.5°	90°	66.5°	43°
0°	90°	66.5°	90°	66.5°
23.5 S	66.5°	43°	66.5°	90°
50 S	40°	16.5°	40°	63.5°
60 S	30°	6.5°	30°	53.5°
66.5 S	23.5°	0°	23.5°	47°
70 S	20°	-3.5°	20°	43.5°
90 S	0°	- 23.5°	0°	23.5°

(winter in a hemisphere)
 Latitude = 90 – sun altitude – sun declination
 (L = 90° – (A – D))

(summer in a hemisphere)
 Latitude = 90 – sun altitude + sun declination
 (L = 90° – (A + D))

In this equation, latitude (L) is in degrees as is declination (D). Sun altitudes (A) are measured relative to True North for southern latitudes and True South for northern latitudes. When using the above equation in tropical latitudes, Sun altitude values greater than 90° may occur for some calculations. When this occurs, the noonday Sun is actually behind you when looking



Solar noon Sun angles for 66.5° N.

towards the equator. Under these circumstances, Sun altitude should be recalculated as follows:

$$A_{\text{new}} = 180^\circ - A_{\text{original}}$$

EXAMPLES FOR NORTHERN HEMISPHERE:

What's your latitude if you measure the sun's altitude at solar noon to be 63.5°, and it is June 22?	
On June 21 or 22 (solstice) D=23.5°.	
FROM TABLE	From the table above, on June Solstice, a 63.5° altitude means I'm at 50°N latitude!
EQUATION	Latitude = 90° – (63.5°-23.5) = 50°N

What's your latitude if you measure the sun's altitude at solar noon to be 20°, and it is September 23?	
On September 21 or 22 is equinox, D=0°.	
FROM TABLE	From the table above, on September Solstice, a 20° altitude means I'm at 70°N latitude!
EQUATION	Latitude = 90° – (20°) = 70°N

What's your latitude if you measure the sun's altitude at solar noon to be 50°, and it is March 1st?	
What is D? March 1 st sits between D=0° (at March 20/21) and D=23.5° (December 21/22). From the above graph, I get that D on that day is ~10°. (An estimate...if you needed to be really accurate, you would use this equation where δ = declination angle (rads); n = the day number, such that n = 1 on the 1st January.	
$\delta = 23.45 \frac{\pi}{180} \sin \left[2\pi \left(\frac{284 + n}{36.25} \right) \right]$	
EQUATION	Latitude = 90° – (50° + 10°) = 30°N (This answer is only as good as D was measured)

MAKING A SEXTANT.

MATERIALS: Protractor, jumbo paper clip, 20 cm string, clear plastic straw, tape, scissors, metric ruler.

1. Tape the straw to the protractor so that the straw goes through 90 degrees and the center hole.
2. Tie the string to the paper clip. Making sure that the string hangs freely, tape it to the center mark. (Note: the string should go through the 0 degree mark if the straw is held parallel to the ground.)
3. Pick an object high on the ceiling or outdoors above ground. Sight this object through the straw. Press the string against the protractor when it stops swinging and read the scale on the protractor. (Read the scale that ranges between 0 to 90 degrees.) This is the angle of the object above ground.

CALCULATING LONGITUDE (nontraditional, but useful!)

Although traditional ocean voyagers didn't have a pocket watch, modern mariners do. We can use these clock to help us determine longitude by setting it to keep track of what time it is at the Prime Meridian (Greenwich, England). On the day you want to know your longitude, go outside at solar noon with your watch.

EXAMPLE:

When it is solar noon in your location, your Greenwich clock says its 3:53 pm. What is your longitude?	
How many hours and what direction away from Greenwich are you?	We are 3 hrs and 53 minutes west of Greenwich
Convert 53minutes to hours	$\frac{53 \text{ minutes}}{60 \text{ minutes}} \times 1 \text{ hr} = 0.883 \text{ hr}$ TOTAL=3.883 hr
Convert hours to° of longitude	$3.883 \text{ hr} \times 15^\circ \text{ of longitude} = 58.25^\circ \text{ of longitude W of PM}$

When it is solar noon in your location, your Greenwich clock says its 6:26 am. What is your longitude?	
How many hours and what direction away from Greenwich are you?	12:00 – 6:26 = 5:34 We are 5 hrs and 34 minutes East of Greenwich
Convert minutes to hours	$\frac{34 \text{ minutes}}{60 \text{ minutes}} \times 1 \text{ hr} = 0.566 \text{ hr}$ TOTAL=5.566 hr
Convert hours to° of longitude	$5.566 \text{ hr} \times 15^\circ \text{ of longitude} = 83.5^\circ \text{ of longitude E of PM}$

YOUR TURN

When it is solar noon in your location, your Greenwich clock says its 9:51 pm. What is your longitude?	
How many hours and what direction away from Greenwich are you?	<i>It's later in Greenwich, so they must be east of us. We're west of Greenwich by 9 hours and 51 minutes.</i>
Convert minutes to hours	$\frac{51 \text{ minutes}}{60 \text{ minutes}} \times 1 \text{ hr} = 0.85 \text{ hr}$ TOTAL=9.85 hr
Convert hours to° of longitude	$9.85 \text{ hr} \times 15^\circ \text{ of longitude} = 147.75^\circ \text{ of longitude E of PM}$

When it is solar noon in your location, your Greenwich clock says its 11:55 am. What is your longitude?	
How many hours and what direction away from Greenwich are you?	<i>It's earlier in Greenwich, so we're east.</i> 12:00 – 11:55 = 0:05 We are 5 minutes East of Greenwich
Convert minutes to hours	$\frac{5 \text{ minutes}}{60 \text{ minutes}} \times 1 \text{ hr} = 0.083 \text{ hr}$
Convert hours to° of longitude	$0.083 \text{ hr} \times 15^\circ \text{ of longitude} = 1.25^\circ \text{ of longitude E of PM}$

When it is solar noon in San Francisco, your clock reads 12:15 pm. You then travel to Hilo, Hawaii and do not change your clock. The longitude of Hilo Hawaii is 155°W. The longitude in San Francisco is 122°W. What time should your clock read when it's solar noon in Hilo?	
How many degrees of longitude and what direction away from San Francisco are you?	$155^\circ - 122^\circ = 33^\circ \text{ West} - \text{Hawaii is } 33^\circ \text{ West of San Francisco}$
Convert longitude to hours and minutes.	$33^\circ \times \frac{1 \text{ hr}}{15^\circ \text{ of longitude}} = 2.2 \text{ hrs} = 2 \text{ hours and } 12 \text{ minutes}$
Add or subtract the time as necessary	Should say 12:15 + 2 hrs and 12 minutes = 2:27 pm

Weekly Reflection

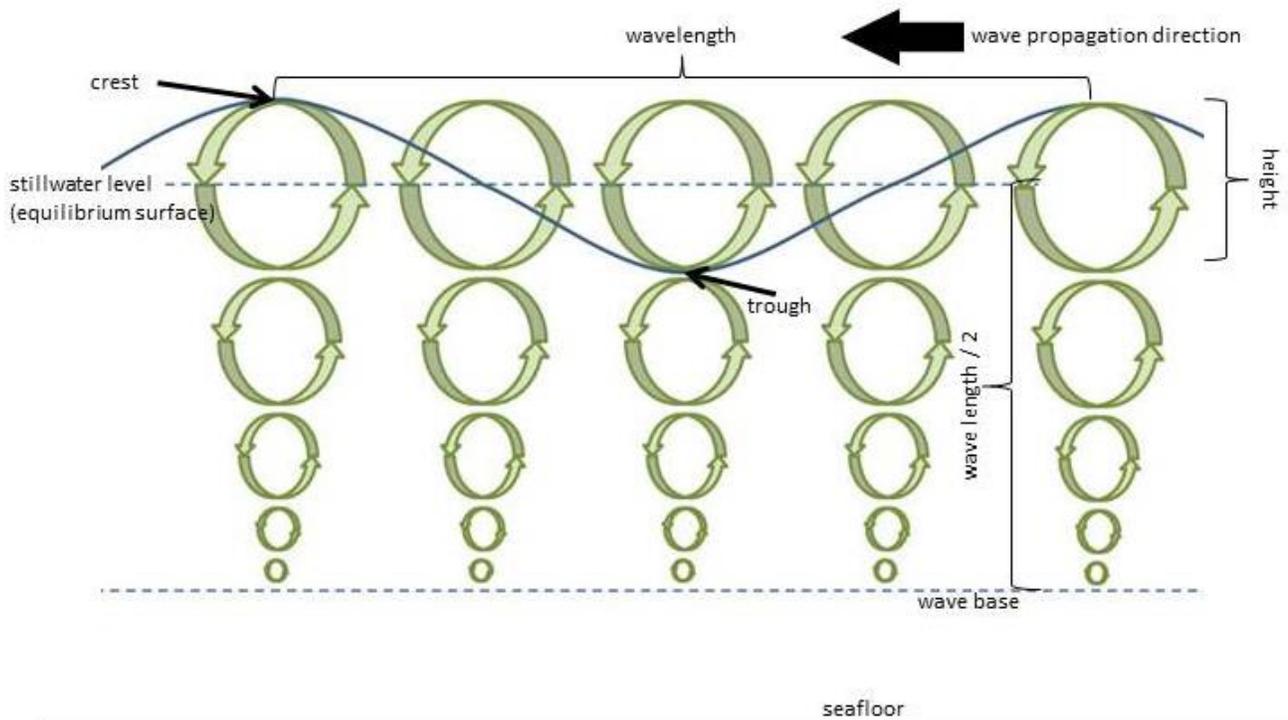
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week’s objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Evaluate the causes, impacts, and global patterns of surface and deep-water currents .	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast the ways in which waters of different densities, temperatures, and salinities remain separated on monthly scales but mix over longer time scales (~1,000 years).	A B C D F	
Evaluate the impact of global ocean circulation and mixing on the distribution of pollutants .	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast upwelling and downwelling including the causes, locations, and impacts.	A B C D F	
Recognize and evaluate the timing, causes, and impacts of the El Niño, La Niña oscillations .	A B C D F	

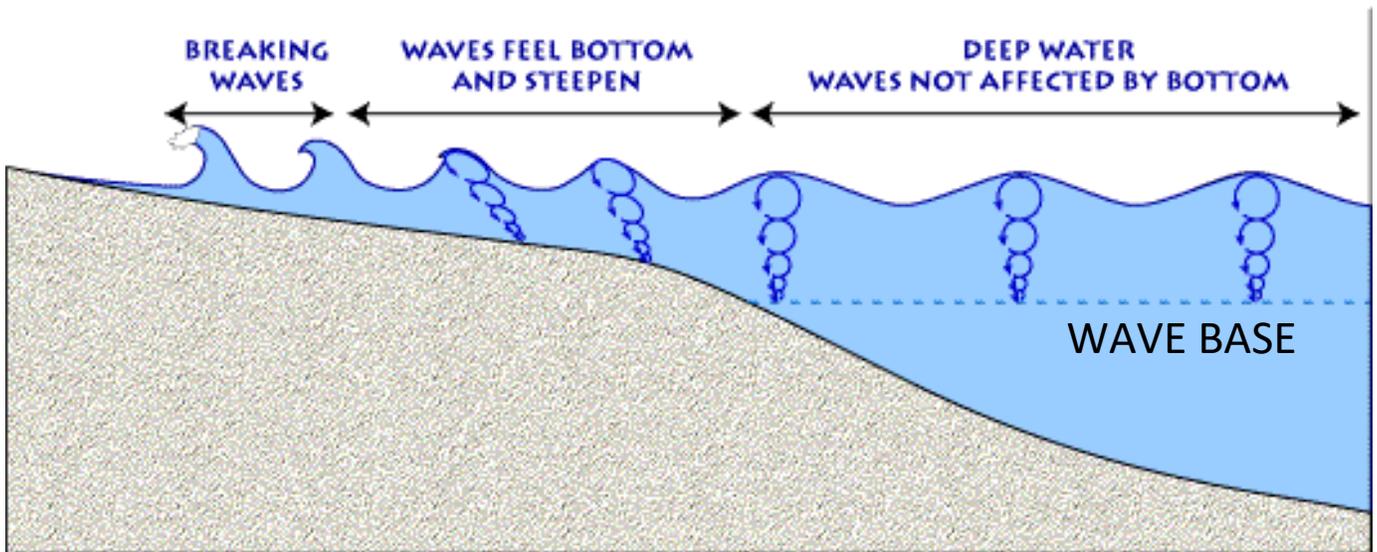
AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you’ve always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

WAVES



Idealized wave showing its components/characteristics including trough and crest; wavelength (from crest to crest or trough to trough or midpoint to next similar midpoint); height; stillwater level or equilibrium surface; and wave base ($\frac{1}{2}$ the wavelength measured down from equilibrium surface). Note: because this wave's base doesn't intersect the seafloor, it doesn't "feel" bottom and thus thinks it's in deep water. It's considered a deep-water wave. Also shown are the circular orbits that represent motion of the water and any objects in the water when this wave moves through.



Changes to wave height, length, and motion when waves approach the shore and wave base hits seafloor. (Wave base = $\frac{1}{2}$ wavelength measured below stillwater point.) Image from USGS

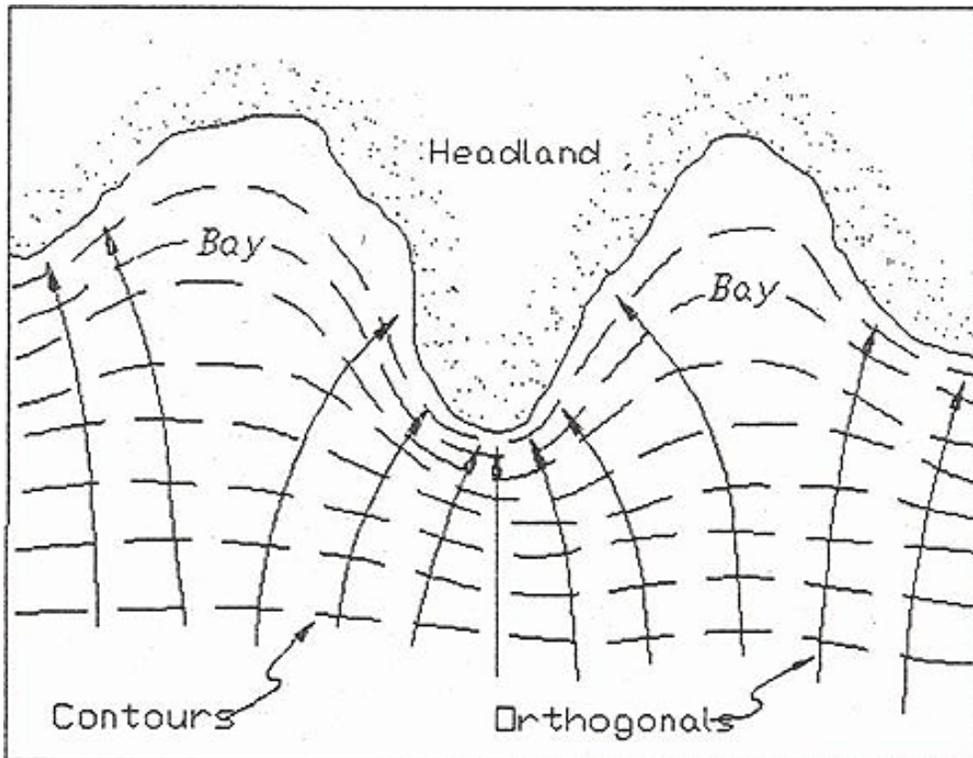
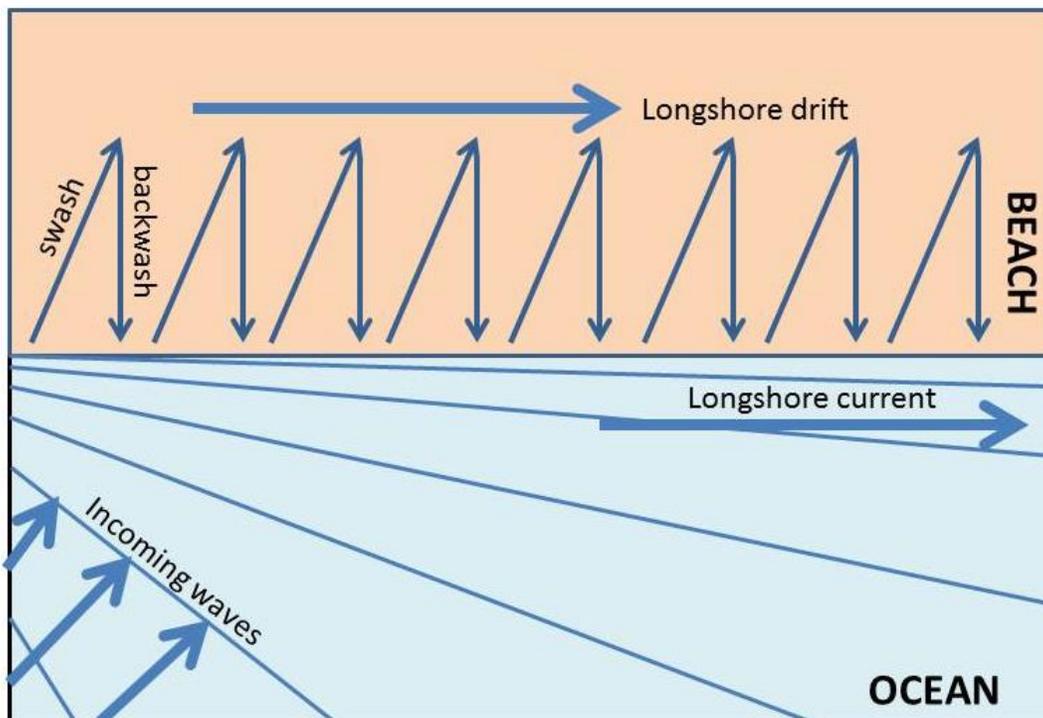
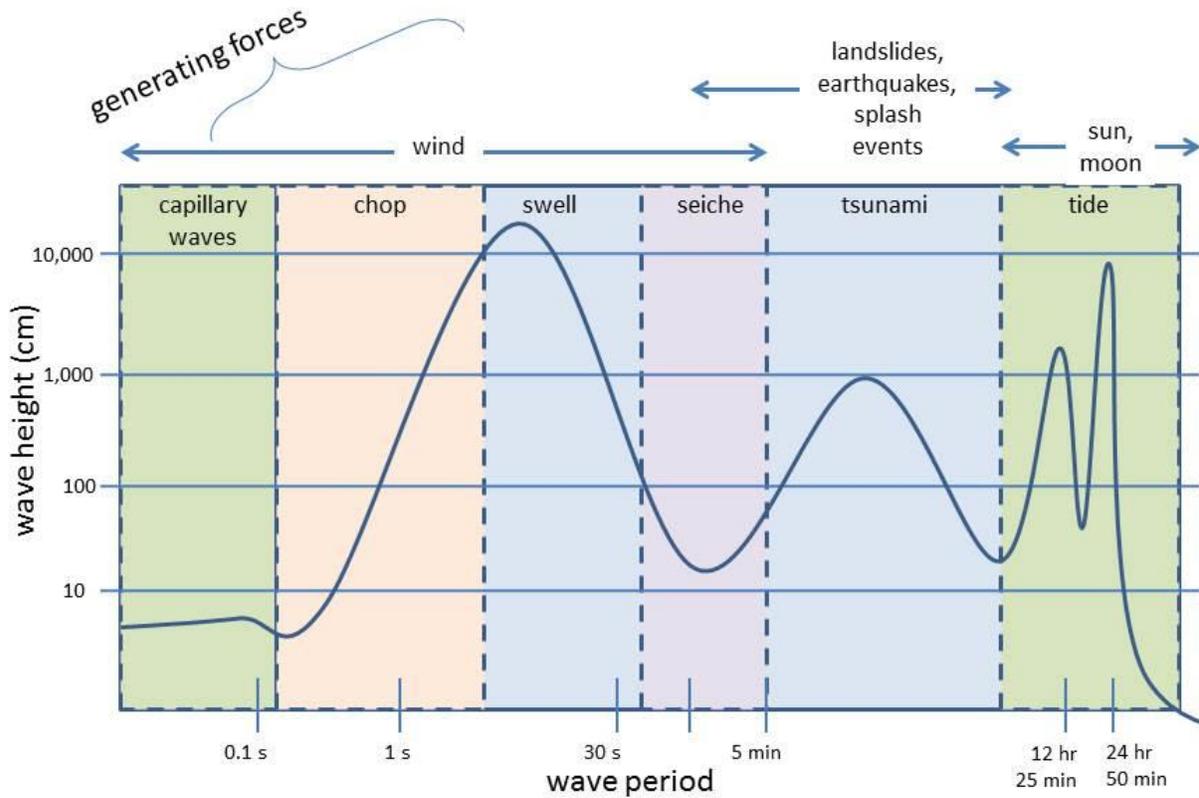


Image from US Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration. Note: Orthogonals are rays (or arrows) indicating the direction that the wave is travelling. Contours are lines of equal depth in the ocean. These waves are approaching an irregular shoreline and bending or REFRACTING as one part of the crest feels bottom first, slows down, and the faster-moving crest bends toward the slower part. Anything that sticks out from the shoreline (such as headlands) will act as a focal point for waves, which bend toward it. And waves will bend toward the shore coming in nearly parallel (but never perfectly parallel.)



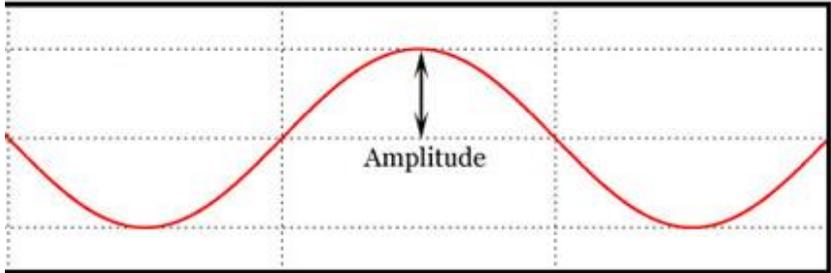
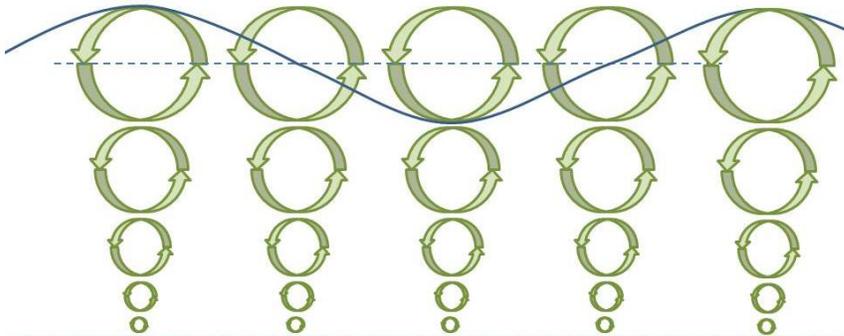
Generalized schematic of how waves approaching the shore at an angle produce a zig-zag migration of sand and water along the beach. The incoming waves push the sand up at an angle. Gravity returns it straight down. The result = beach and longshore drift (sand migration) and longshore current (water migration).



Generalized wave heights and periods of waves produced by different generating forces.

Wave type	Generating force	Period	Wavelength	Wave height
Capillary	Local wind (restoring force = surface tension)	<1 s	< 2cm	<4 cm
Chop/Sea	Local wind	1 to 30 s	1-10 m	0.01 to 50 m
Swell	Distant storm (windy there)	30s to 5 min	<100s of m	1 m to 100 m
Standing	Wind, earthquakes, tides, wave reflection	1/6 to 10 hr	<100s of km	~ 1 m
Tsunami	Earthquake or landslide under water	~15 min	100-300 km	0.5 to 10 m
Tide	Gravitational attraction	12.4 or 24.8 hr	~18,000 km = ½ the Earth's circumference	1 cm to 20 m

Waves Chapter Worksheet

<p>1. Which of the following is true of swell? CIRCLE: found in the area of the wind that generated it found far away from wind that generated it caused by wind caused by earthquakes presents as multiple wave trains single wave train</p>	
<p>2. Circle which of these are restoring forces for waves. CIRCLE: gravitational forces between Earth and Moon Earth's gravity earthquakes landslides surface tension wind</p>	
<p>3. Circle which of these are generating force(s) for waves. CIRCLE: gravitational forces between Earth and Moon Earth's gravity earthquakes landslides surface tension wind</p>	
<p>4. Circle which of these forces restores a capillary wave. CIRCLE: gravitational forces between Earth and Moon Earth's gravity earthquakes landslides surface tension wind</p>	
<p>5. Circle which of these forces generates a capillary wave. CIRCLE: gravitational forces between Earth and Moon Earth's gravity earthquakes landslides surface tension wind</p>	
<p>6. Which of the following is true of an internal wave? CIRCLE: Found at surface Found along pycnoclines Found along seafloor</p>	
<p>7. On this figure, label crest, trough, equilibrium surface, height, and wavelength. Be precise. (Make it clear where height and length start and stop – mark crest and trough with an X).</p>	
<p>8. What are the number of wavelengths shown in the image above?</p>	
<p>9. Which of the following would be considered a standing wave? CIRCLE: Tsunami Swell Chop Seiche Tides</p>	
<p>10. Which of the following would be considered a progressive wave? CIRCLE: Tsunami Swell Chop Seiche Tides</p>	
<p>11. In this image, label wavelength and wave base. (Give equation for wave base and make it clear from where it's measured.)</p>	
<p>12. If this wave has a wavelength of 30 m, what is the wave base depth?</p>	
<p>13. In this drawing of a floating ball on the water, indicate with arrows the motion of the ball when a wave passes through from the right side.</p>	
<p>14. If 4 wavelengths pass a point in 2 minutes, what is the wave period?</p>	
<p>15. What is the equation for wave speed – not an approximation, but one that is true under all conditions?</p>	
<p>16. How fast do tsunami travel?</p>	
<p>17. What's the average period of a tsunami?</p>	<p>18. What's the average wavelength of a tsunami?</p>
<p>19. With a period of 10 seconds and a wavelength of 50 m, what is the wave speed?</p>	

20. As a wave approaches shore and feels bottom, what happens to: wave speed -- CIRCLE: increases decreases no change wave height -- CIRCLE: increases decreases no change wave length -- CIRCLE: increases decreases no change wave period -- CIRCLE: increases decreases no change
21. What happens to wave motion (shape) after a wave feels bottom and approaches shore?
22. At what ocean depths is a 30-m wavelength wave considered a deep water wave ?
23. At what ocean depths is a 30-m wavelength wave considered NOT a deep water wave ?
24. Which types of waves have the potential to have the largest height ?
25. Which of the following would be considered a deep-water wave in the open ocean ? CIRCLE: Tsunami Swell Chop Seiche in Pool/Lagoon/Bay
26. Which of the following will increase wind wave height in the open ocean? CIRCLE: Strong winds Moderate winds Weak winds CIRCLE: Consistent winds Gusting winds Changing winds CIRCLE: Large fetch Moderate fetch Minimum fetch
27. As a result, where in the world's oceans do we get the largest open ocean wind waves? Why?
28. What type of interference causes episodic (or rogue) waves ? CIRCLE: constructive destructive
29. What is the equation for wave steepness ?
30. With a wavelength of 50 m, and a wave height is 1 m, what is wave steepness ?
31. What is the maximum steepness a wave can be?
32. What happens when it reaches that point?
33. What is the steepness of the wave in Question 7?
34. Could such a wave actually exist? CIRCLE: Yes No
35. Which direction does a rip current move? CIRCLE: along the shore towards the shore away from the shore
36. What cause(s) rip currents ? CIRCLE: jetty headland two longshore currents colliding wave direction
37. Can they be predicted? CIRCLE: yes no
38. Which direction does a longshore current move? CIRCLE: along the shore towards the shore away from the shore
39. What cause(s) longshore currents ? CIRCLE: jetty headland two longshore currents colliding wave direction
40. Circle which of the following is true for tsunamis: CIRCLE: deep-water wave shallow-water wave earthquake caused landslide caused wind caused rogue (episodic) wave standing wave progressive wave
41. What's the average height of a tsunami in the open ocean ?
42. Are tsunami dangerous in the open sea? What happens when they reach shore?
43. Based on table of wave characteristics at start of this chapter in the workbook: which types of waves have the smallest wavelength, height, and period?
44. Based on table of wave characteristics at start of this chapter in the workbook: which types of waves have the largest wavelength?
45. Based on table of wave characteristics at start of this chapter in the workbook: which types of waves have the longest period?

Making a Wave Bottle

(FYI – do on own if want...)

MATERIALS

- Paint thinner
- Rubbing Alcohol
- Plastic bottle with cap
- Electrical tape
- Sharpie (black)
- Funnel
- Food coloring

1. Open an empty plastic bottle and insert funnel.
2. Pour 8 oz of rubbing alcohol into plastic bottle (**cap alcohol bottle immediately**).
3. Drop 1-2 drops of food coloring into bottle (don't mix yet – watch fluids separate).
4. Pour 8 oz of paint thinner into plastic bottle (**cap paint thinner bottle and your wave bottle immediately**).
5. Tighten the cap on your wave bottle.
6. Use electrical tape to seal your wave bottle: first run tape clockwise around cap, then over lip. Stretch vinyl tape around lip to ensure proper seal.
7. With black sharpie, label the neck of the bottle:

WARNING! FLAMMABLE

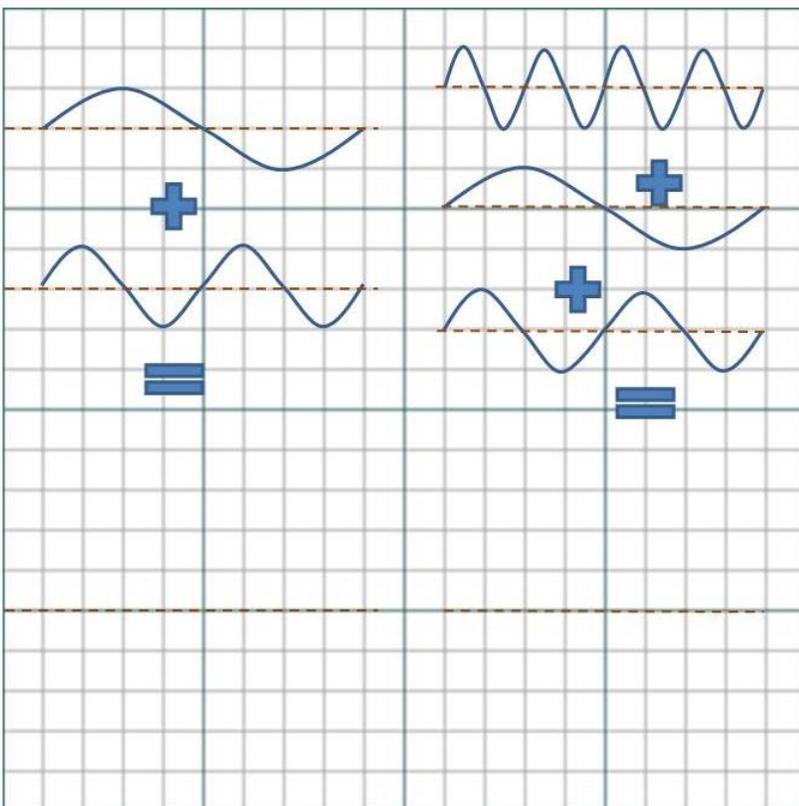
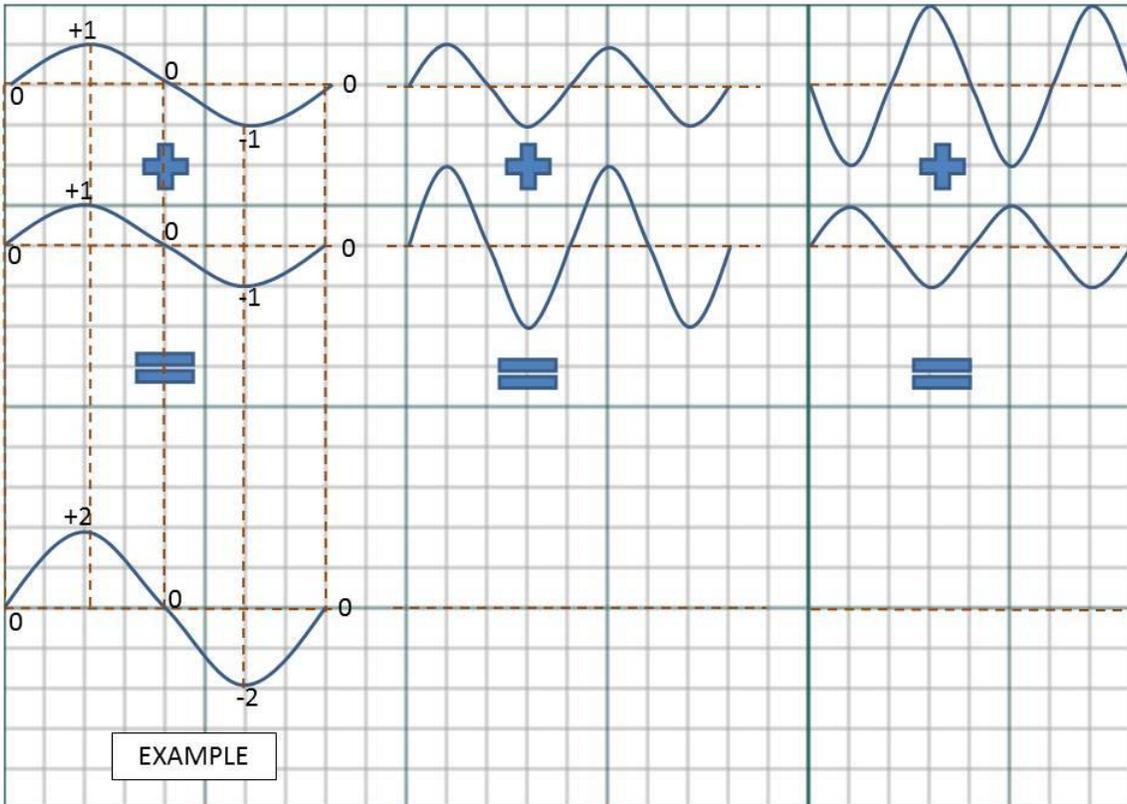
Do not drink. Paint thinner + alcohol.

Waves Practice Activity

<p>1. SLINKIES: Two people stand apart holding tight to slinky. Sketch to right a standing wave with wavelength = distance between the two. Label wavelength and height.</p>	
<p>2. SLINKIES: Two people stand apart holding tight to slinky. Sketch to right a standing wave with wavelength = 1/2 distance between the two. Label wavelength and height.</p>	
<p>3. SLINKIES: Two people stand apart holding tight to slinky. Sketch to right a standing wave with wavelength = twice the distance between the two. Label wavelength and height.</p>	
<p>4. Draw to scale an ocean wave with a steepness of 1/10.</p>	
<p>5. Draw to scale an ocean wave that is maximum steepness and label all components (crest, trough, wavelength, height, stillwater level, wave base).</p>	

INTERFERENCE:

6. Complete these interference diagrams. Add the two top waves together and then build the resulting wave. (See example at top left). When done, label where constructive and destructive interference are happening and annotate with notes/explanations as appropriate. **Place X where a boat would be most challenged.**



Weekly Reflection

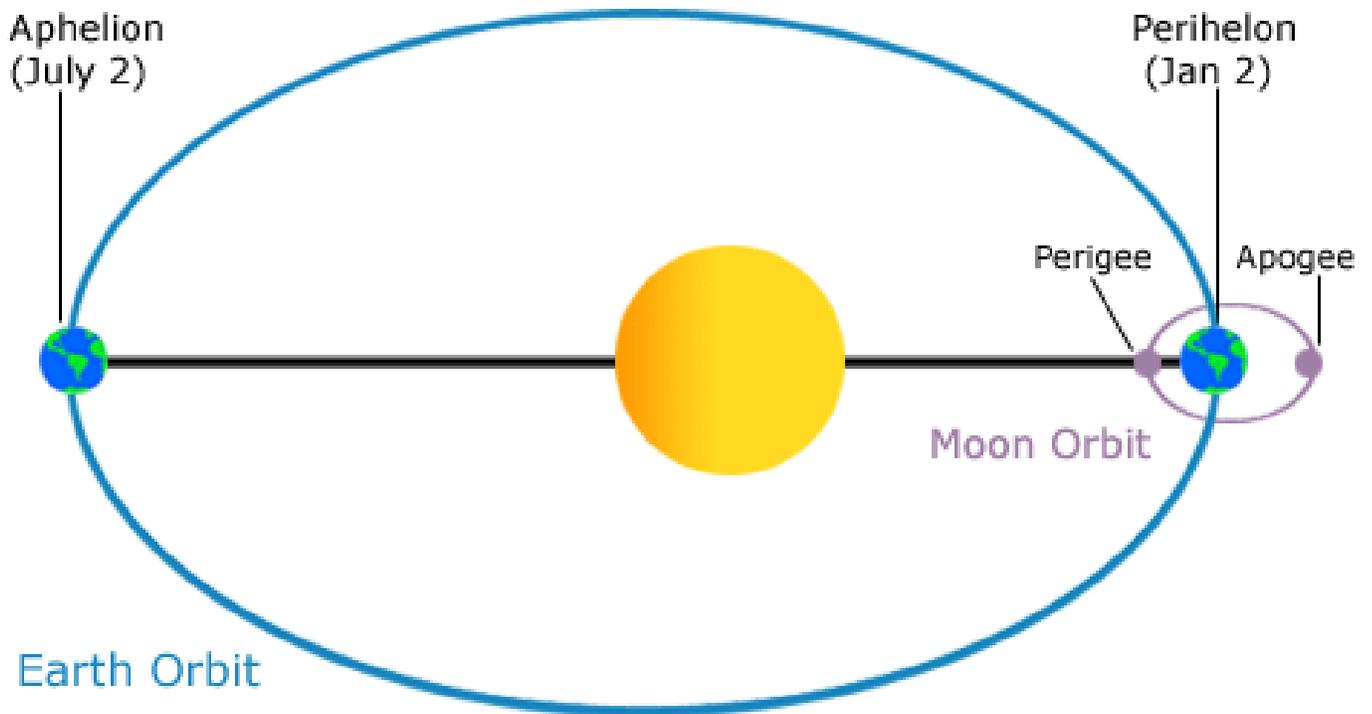
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week’s objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Recognize and calculate the important characteristics of ocean waves including height, wavelength, period, speed, steepness, and wave base.	A B C D F	
Diagram the motion of water as waves move through it.	A B C D F	
Classify ocean waves by cause, size, and depth.	A B C D F	
Analyze the changing behaviors and impacts of ocean waves when they interfere with each other.	A B C D F	
Analyze the impacts to and from ocean waves when they interact with the seafloor and shoreline , including longshore and rip currents.	A B C D F	
Evaluate the causes and variable impacts of tsunami and how we detect them in the open ocean.	A B C D F	

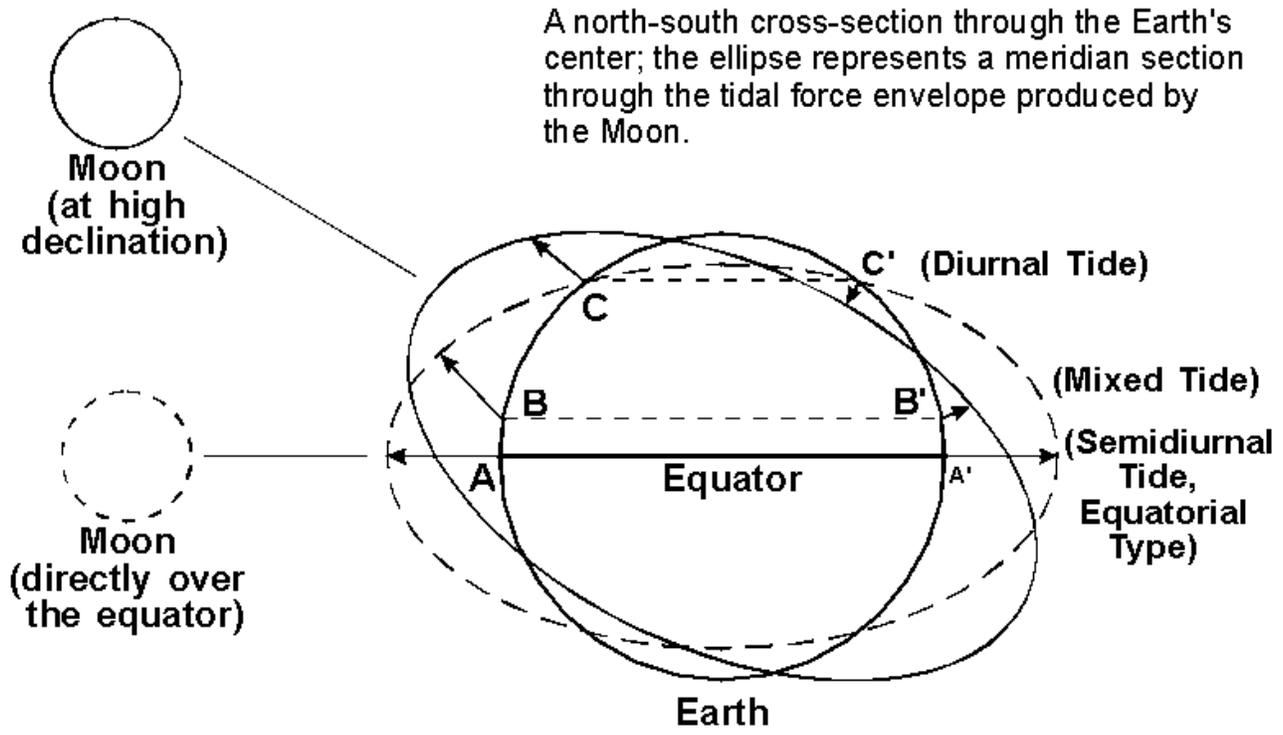
AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you’ve always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

TIDES

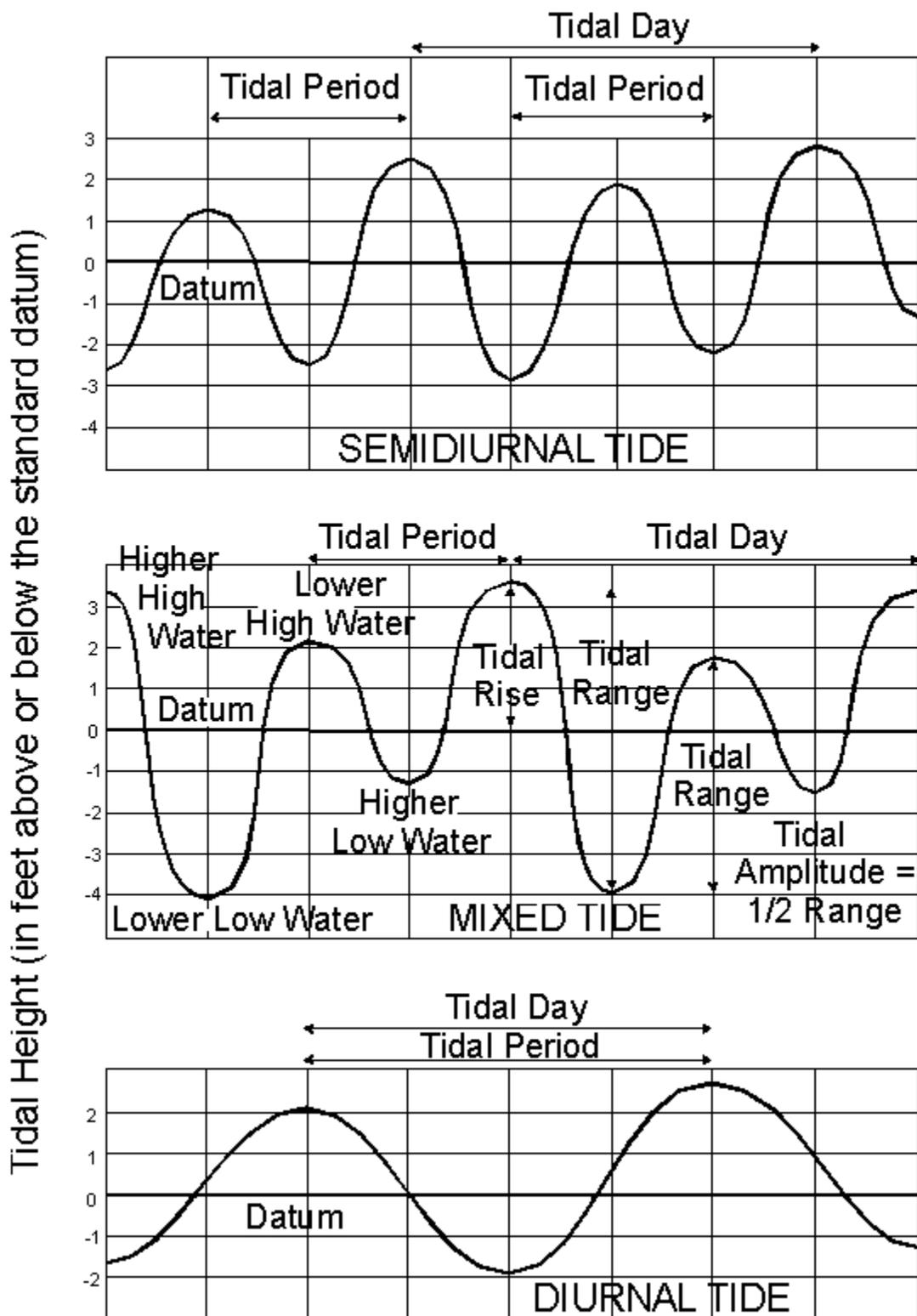


Earth's orbit around the Sun (and moon's orbit around Earth). Note the Earth is closest to the sun on Jan 2. Image: NOAA



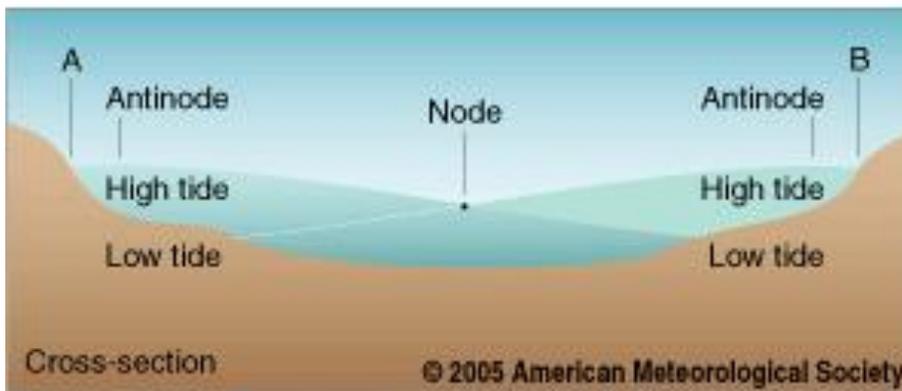
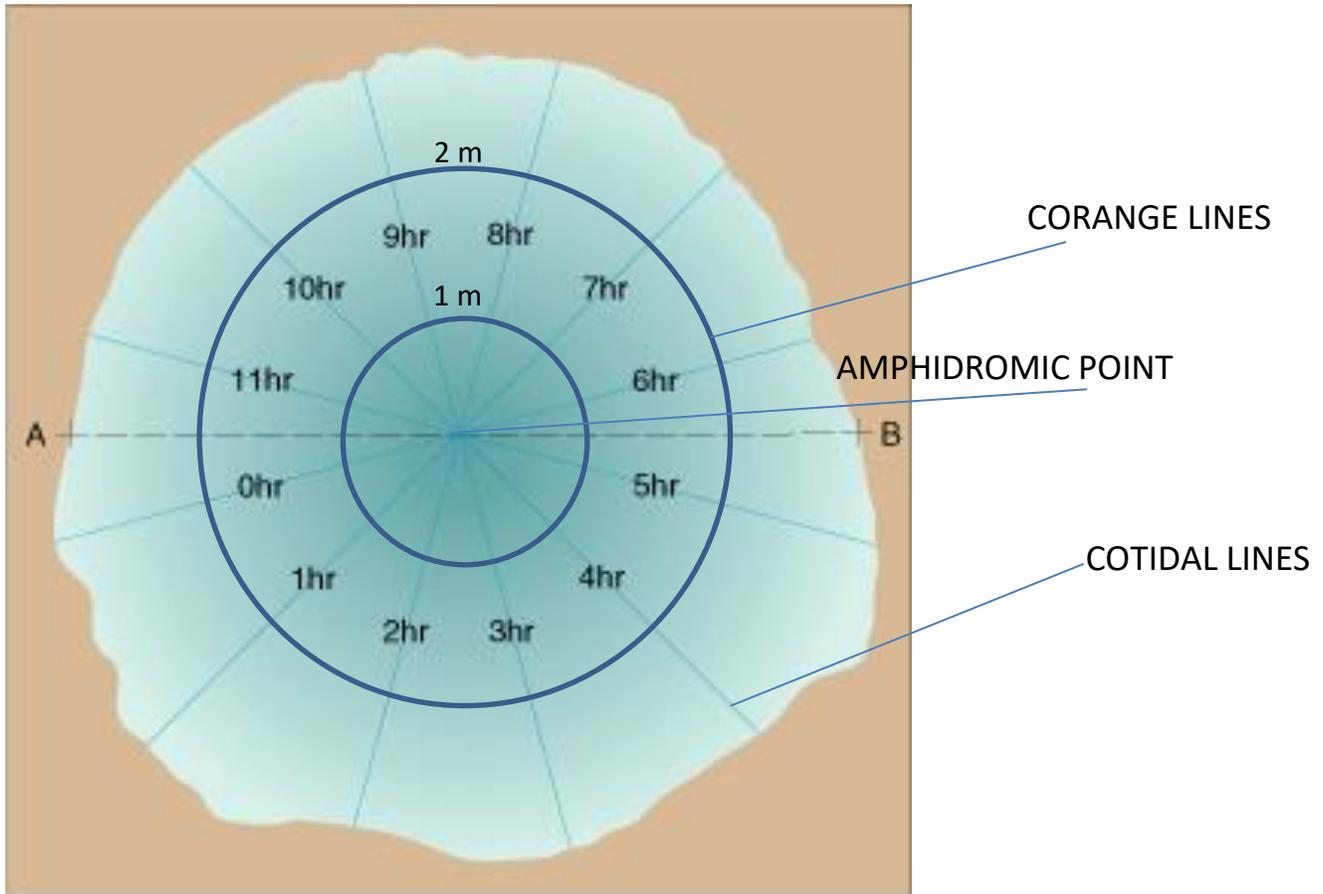
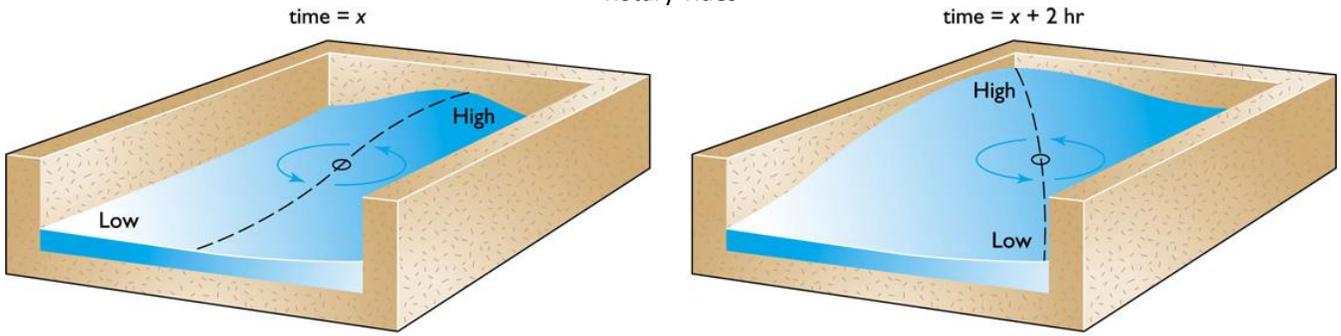
Tidal patterns with latitude as moon's declination changes. Image: NOAA

Distribution of Tidal Phases

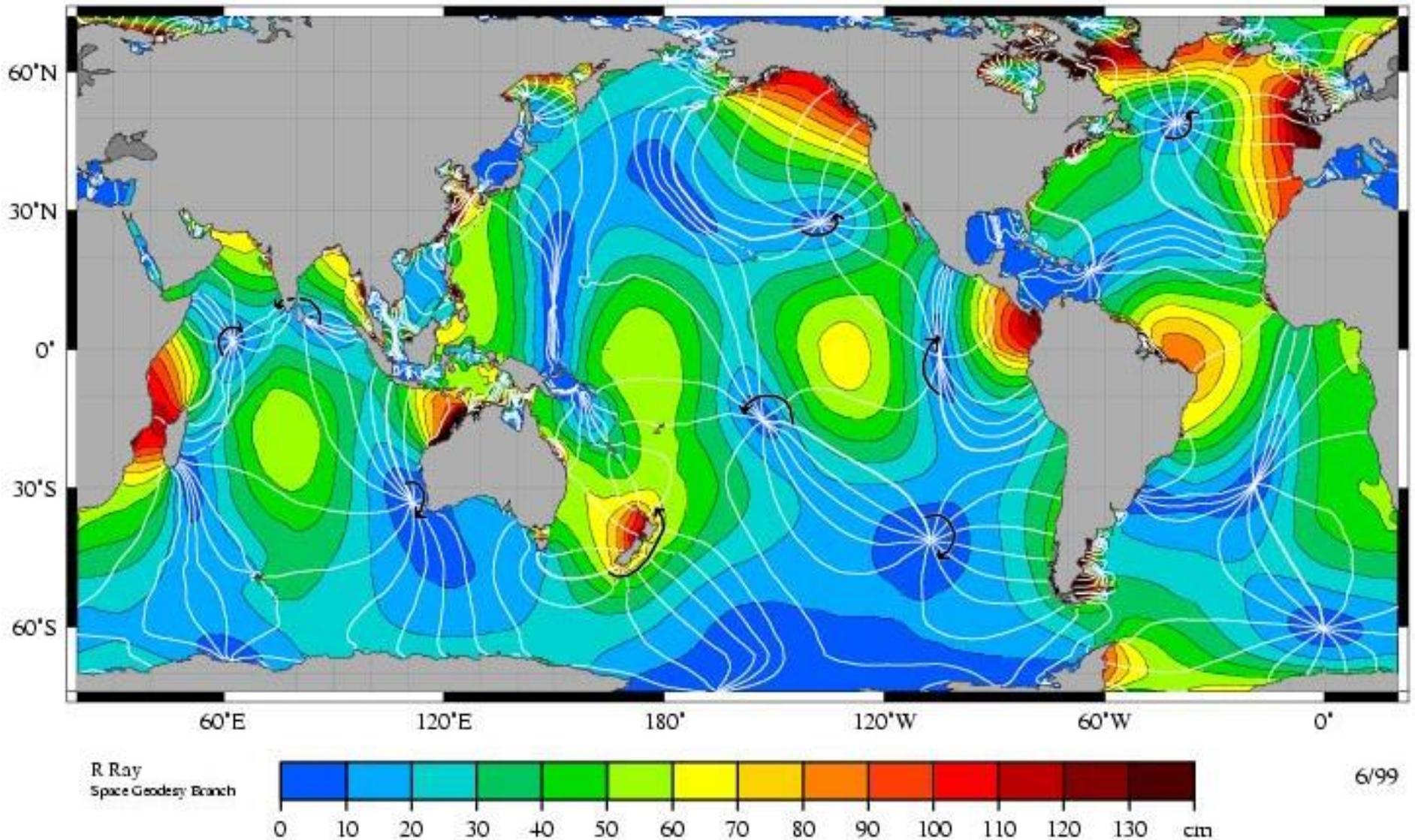


Three main tidal patterns, showing over ~50 hours (2 lunar days). Image: NOAA

Rotary Tides



*Rotary amphidromic tidal waves.
 Top image shows the sloshing effect of the water around the ocean basins.
 The middle picture shows the effect from a birds eye view (northern hemisphere).
 The lower picture shows what it looks like in cross-section.*

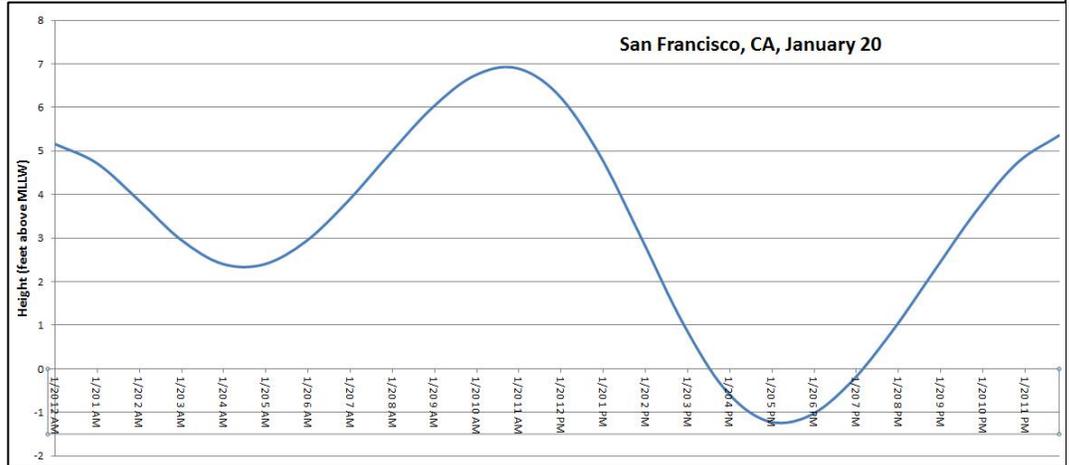


Generalized world amphidromic (rotary tidal wave) systems. Amplitude is indicated by color, and the white lines are cotidal differing by 1 hr. The curved arcs around the amphidromic points show the direction of the tides, each indicating a synchronized 6 hour period. Image credit: R. Ray, and NASA - Goddard Space Flight Center, NASA - Jet Propulsion Laboratory, Scientific Visualization Studio, Television Production NASA-TV/GSFC

Tides Chapter Worksheet

1. In this image, label:

- Higher high water (HHW)
- Higher low water (HLW)
- Lower high water (LHW)
- Lower low water (LLW)
- Slackwater (SW)
- Ebb current (EC)
- Flood current (FC)
- Tidal range (TR)
- Tidal period (TP)



Y-axis: Height (feet above MLLW): -2 feet at bottom; + 8 feet at top. X-axis: 1-hour increments from midnight to midnight over 1 day.

2. Tidal datum means?

3. MLW means?

4. MLLW means?

5. The period of a semidiurnal tide is?

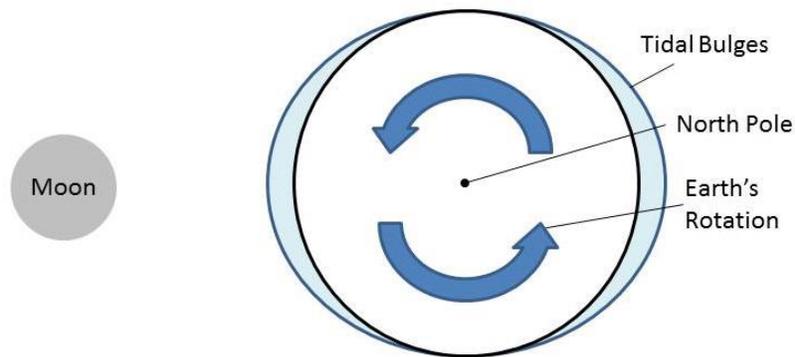
6. The period of a diurnal tide is?

7. The definition of a semidiurnal mixed tide is?

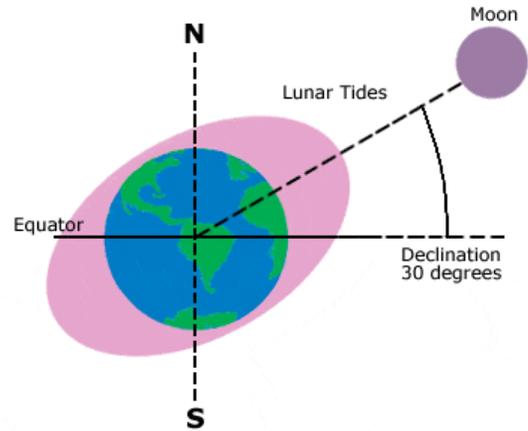
8. How long does it take the moon to orbit the Earth? What do we call that?

9. Ocean tides are caused by the differences felt on opposite sides of the Earth in the gravitational pull between the moon and the Earth. Gravitational force is stronger on the side of the Earth nearer to the moon and is weaker on the side farthest from the moon because Gravitational Force weakens as distance increases. All Earth's oceans are pulled toward the center of the Earth-Moon orbital system, but the far side is pulled less, thus it lags behind, while the near side jumps ahead, thus producing two bulges – near and far side. The solid Earth then rotates once every 24 hours and 50 minutes under these bulges. Why the extra 50 minutes?

10. Using this diagram, explain high tide and low tide.

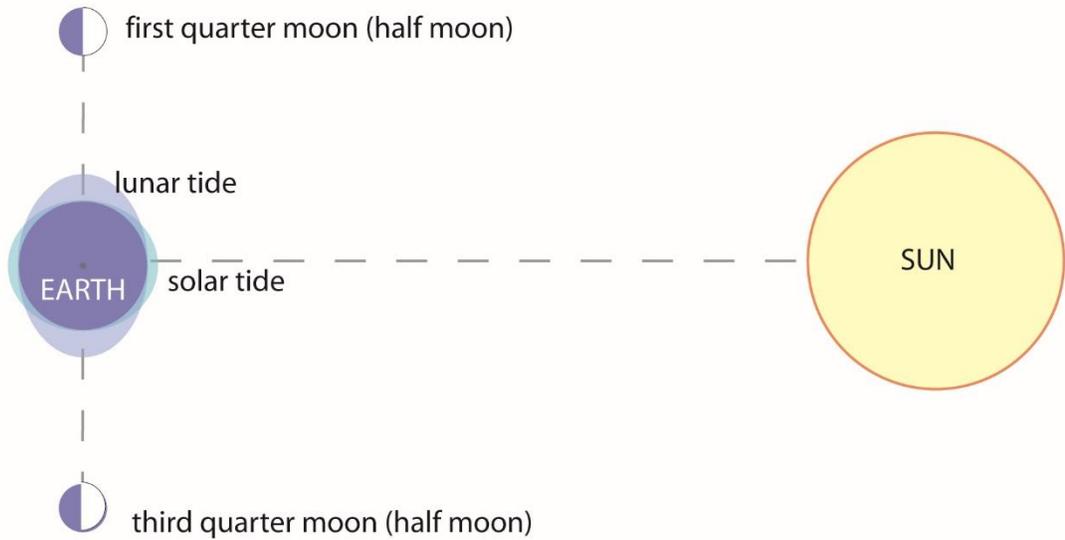
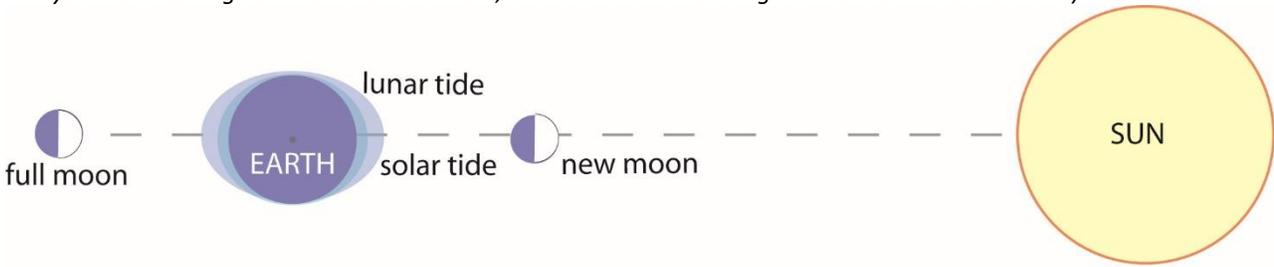


11. Earth's declination to its orbital plane has what effect on tides?



(Image: NOAA)

12. Label these images with **spring tide** or **neap tide** and interference types as appropriate. (Images are produced as though you were looking down on the North Pole, and the Earth is rotating counterclockwise around it.)



13. Which of the following is true of **NEAP** tides?

- CIRCLE: Highest highs | Lowest lows | Largest tidal range | Smallest tidal range
- Caused by constructive interference | caused by destructive interference
- Associated with: half moons | new moons | full moons
- Repeat every 2 weeks | repeat monthly | repeat yearly

14. Which of the following is true of **SPRING** tides?

CIRCLE: Highest highs | Lowest lows | Largest tidal range | Smallest tidal range
Caused by constructive interference | caused by destructive interference
Associated with: half moons | new moons | full moons
Repeat every 2 weeks | repeat monthly | repeat yearly

15. Earth's elliptical orbit around the Sun has what effect on tides?

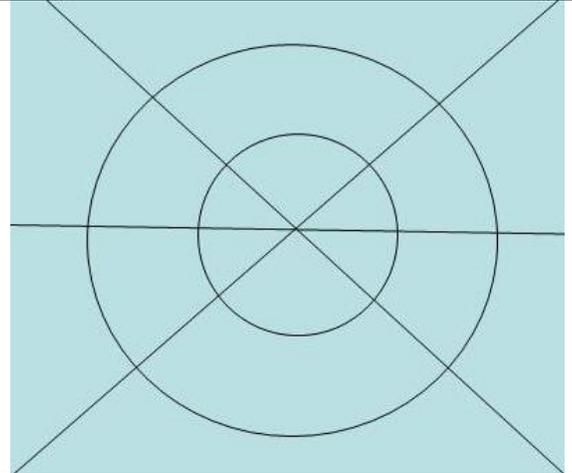
16. In this map-view image of a **rotary standing tidal wave**, label:

- **Amphidromic point**
- **Cotidal lines**
- **Corange lines**

Use arrows to show the direction of the tidal current for the Northern Hemisphere.

Place an X, where one would experience the highest tidal range.

Note: there is ALSO a small current formed by the orbital motion of the water as the tidal waves pass through. This current is in the opposite direction of the tidal wave motion. We will not focus on these in this class.



17. What direction do tides move along the California Coast?

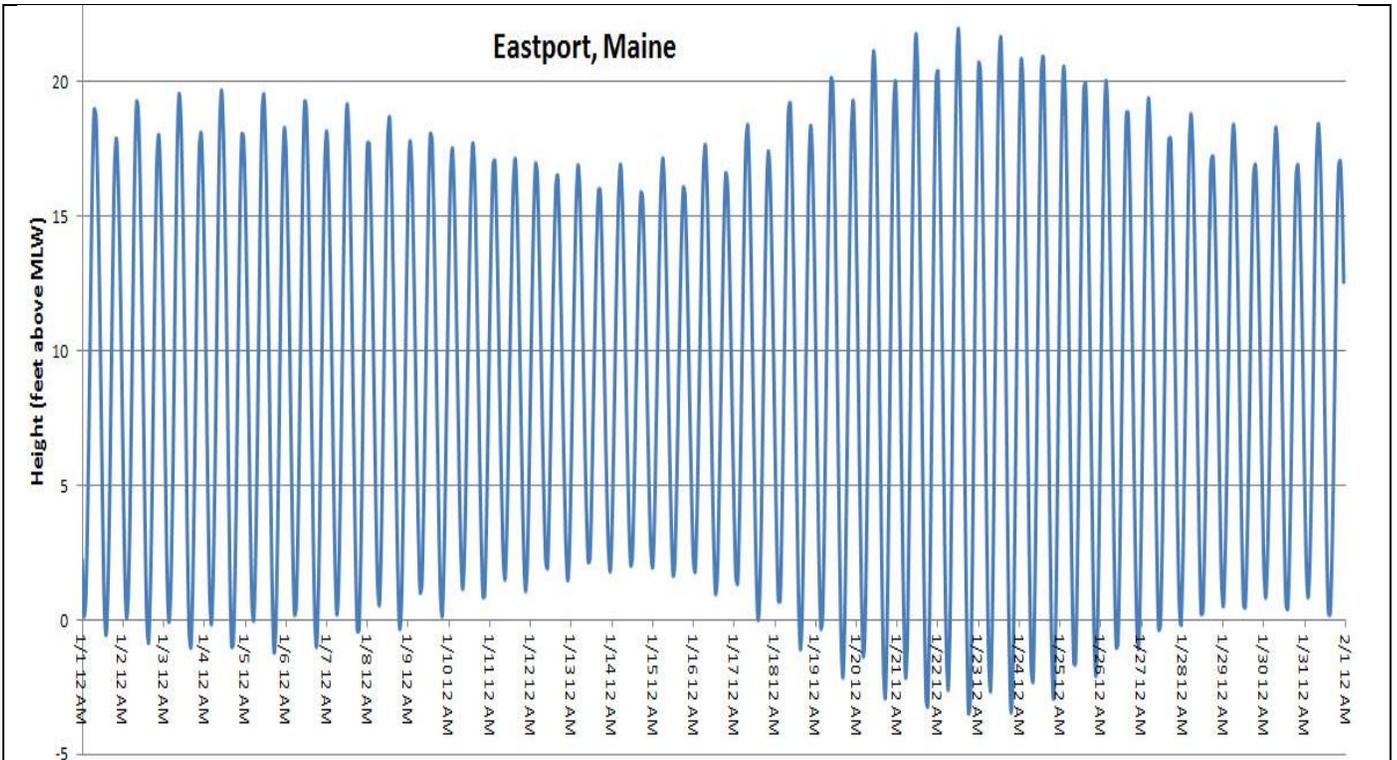
18. What are the PRIMARY requirements for a region to produce a **tidal bore**?

19. The Bay of Fundy in Nova Scotia, Canada has the highest tidal range in the world. What is it (in meters)?

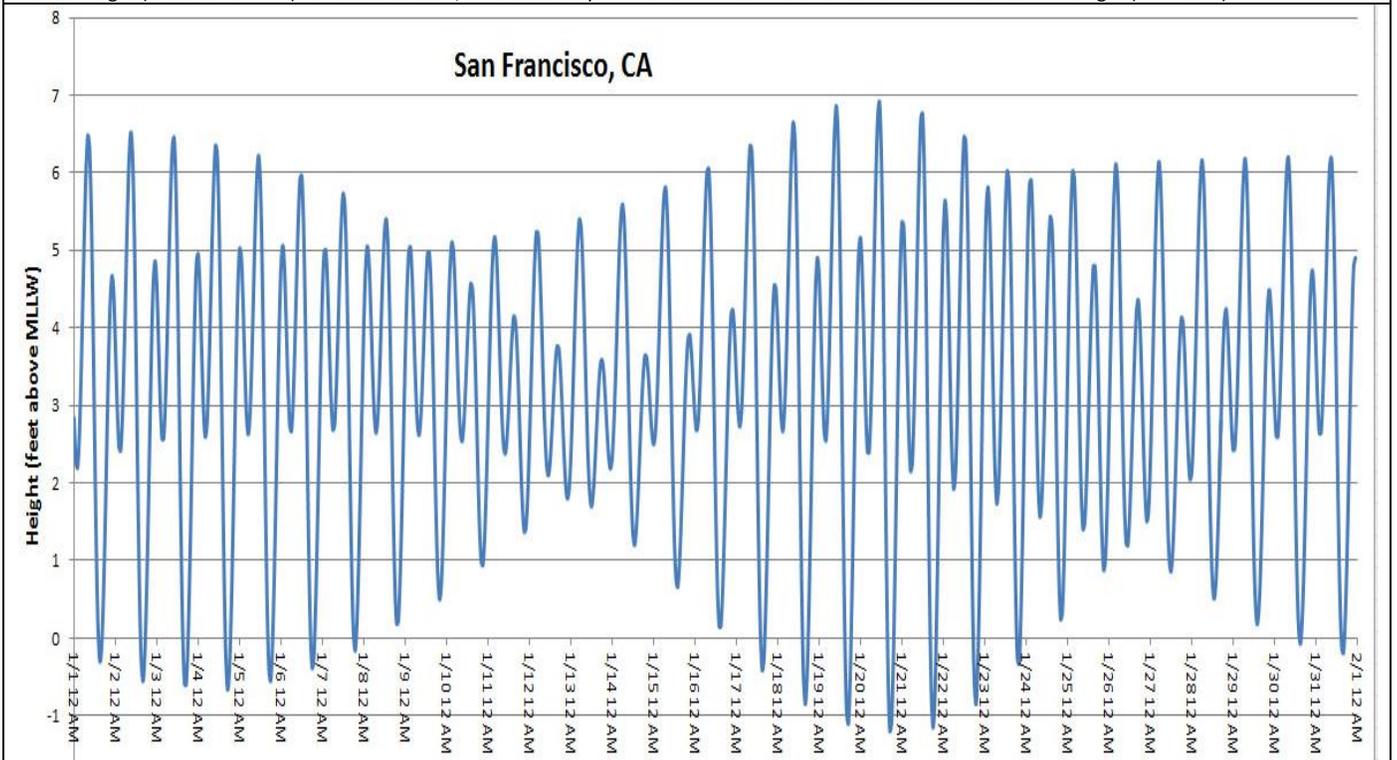
20. Why so high there?

21. List all the ways in which marine organisms are affected by the tides.

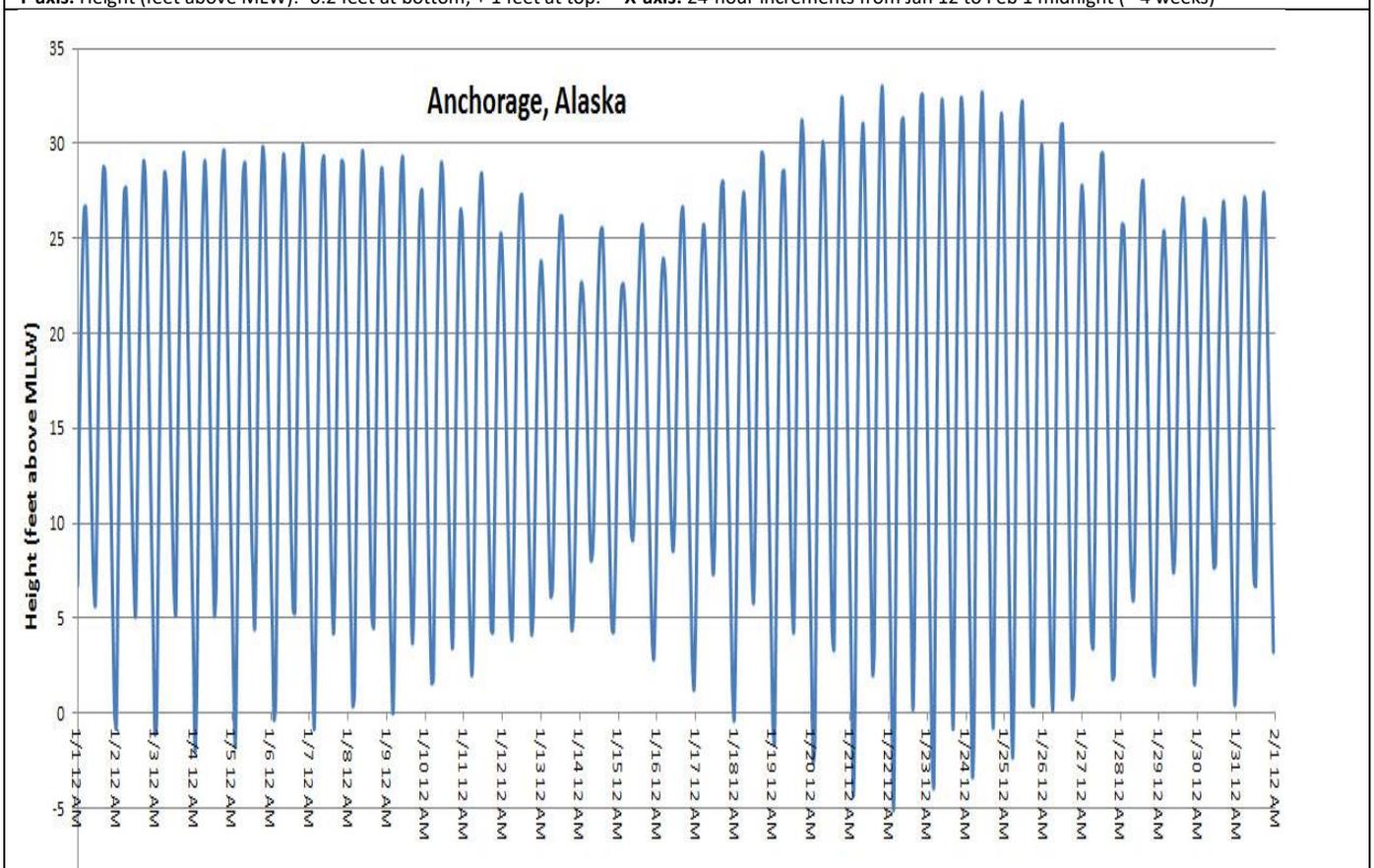
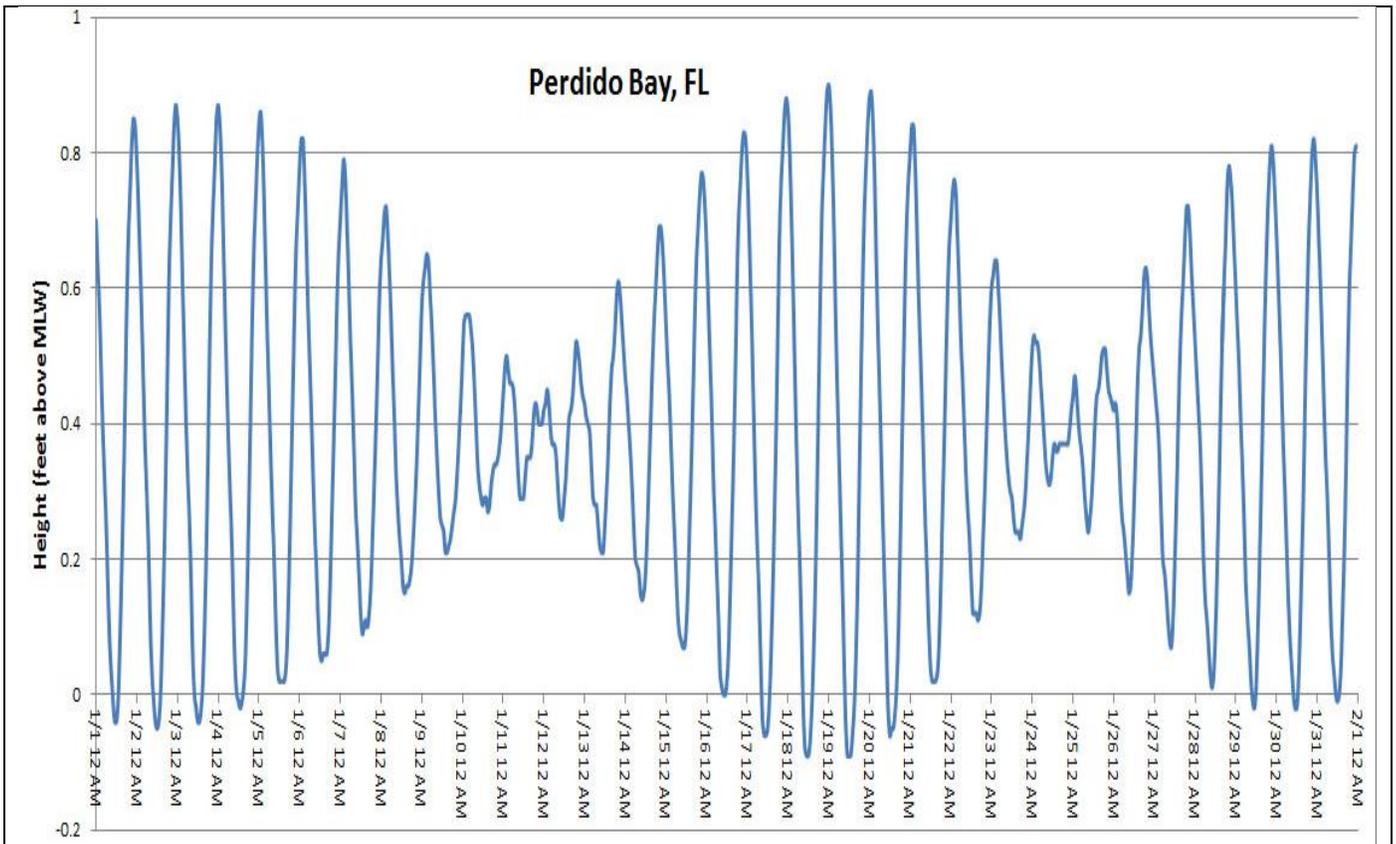
Charting Tides Activity



Y-axis: Height (feet above MLW): -5 feet at bottom; + 25 feet at top. X-axis: 24-hour increments from Jan 12 to Feb 1 midnight (~ 4 weeks)



Y-axis: Height (feet above MLLW): -1 feet at bottom; + 8 feet at top. X-axis: 24-hour increments from Jan 12 to Feb 1 midnight (~ 4 weeks)



Eastport, Maine

1. The **tidal pattern** is? CIRCLE: diurnal | semidiurnal | semidiurnal mixed
2. **Largest tidal range** for this chart is? (Label on chart)
3. Days of the month in which neap tides are occurring? (circle on chart)
4. **Tidal datum** (choice of zero reference point) for this chart? CIRCLE (there should be only one!):
MLW (mean low water) | MLLW (mean lower low water) | MSL (mean sea level) | MTL (mean tide level) MHW (mean high water) | MHHW (mean higher high water).

San Francisco, CA

5. The **tidal pattern** is? CIRCLE: diurnal | semidiurnal | semidiurnal mixed
6. **Largest tidal range** for this chart is? (Label on chart)
7. Days of the month in which neap tides are occurring? (circle on chart)
8. **Tidal datum** (choice of zero reference point) for this chart? CIRCLE (there should be only one!):
MLW (mean low water) | MLLW (mean lower low water) | MSL (mean sea level) | MTL (mean tide level) MHW (mean high water) | MHHW (mean higher high water).

Perdido Bay, FL

9. The **tidal pattern** is? CIRCLE: diurnal | semidiurnal | semidiurnal mixed
10. **Largest tidal range** for this chart is? (Label on chart)
11. Days of the month in which neap tides are occurring? (circle on chart)
12. **Tidal datum** (choice of zero reference point) for this chart? CIRCLE (there should be only one!):
MLW (mean low water) | MLLW (mean lower low water) | MSL (mean sea level) | MTL (mean tide level) MHW (mean high water) | MHHW (mean higher high water).

Anchorage, AK

13. The **tidal pattern** is? CIRCLE: diurnal | semidiurnal | semidiurnal mixed
14. **Largest tidal range** for this chart is? (Label on chart)
15. Days of the month in which neap tides are occurring? (circle on chart)
16. **Tidal datum** (choice of zero reference point) for this chart? CIRCLE (there should be only one!):
MLW (mean low water) | MLLW (mean lower low water) | MSL (mean sea level) | MTL (mean tide level) MHW (mean high water) | MHHW (mean higher high water).

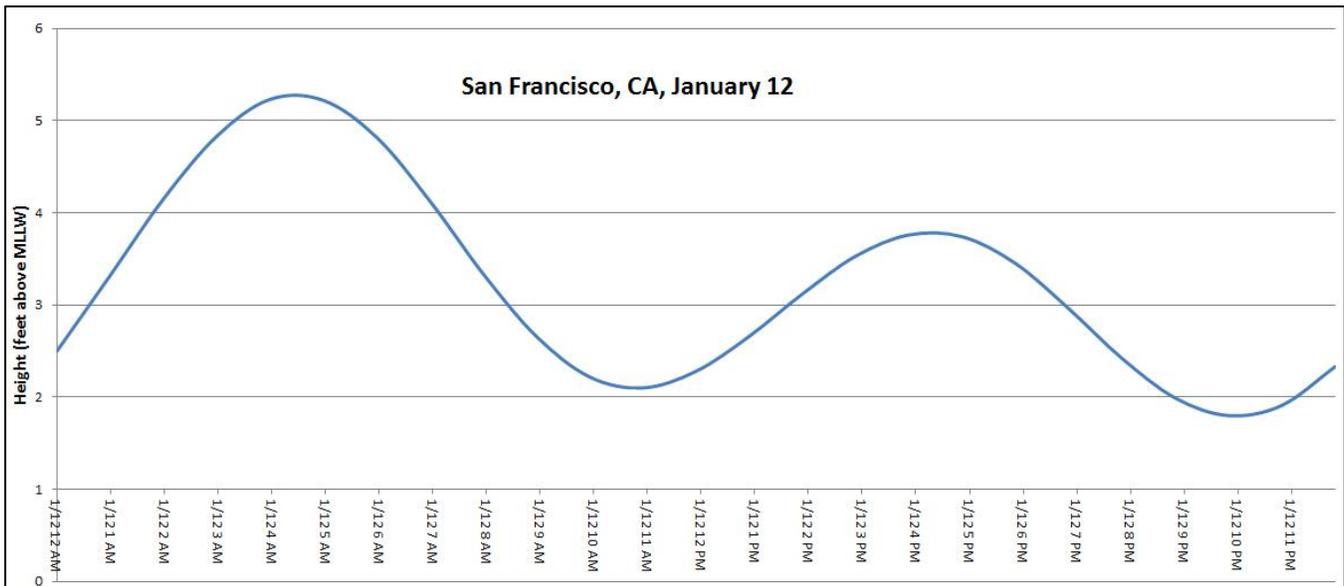
Comparisons

17. Which of these regions is a good candidate for tidal bores? Which day?

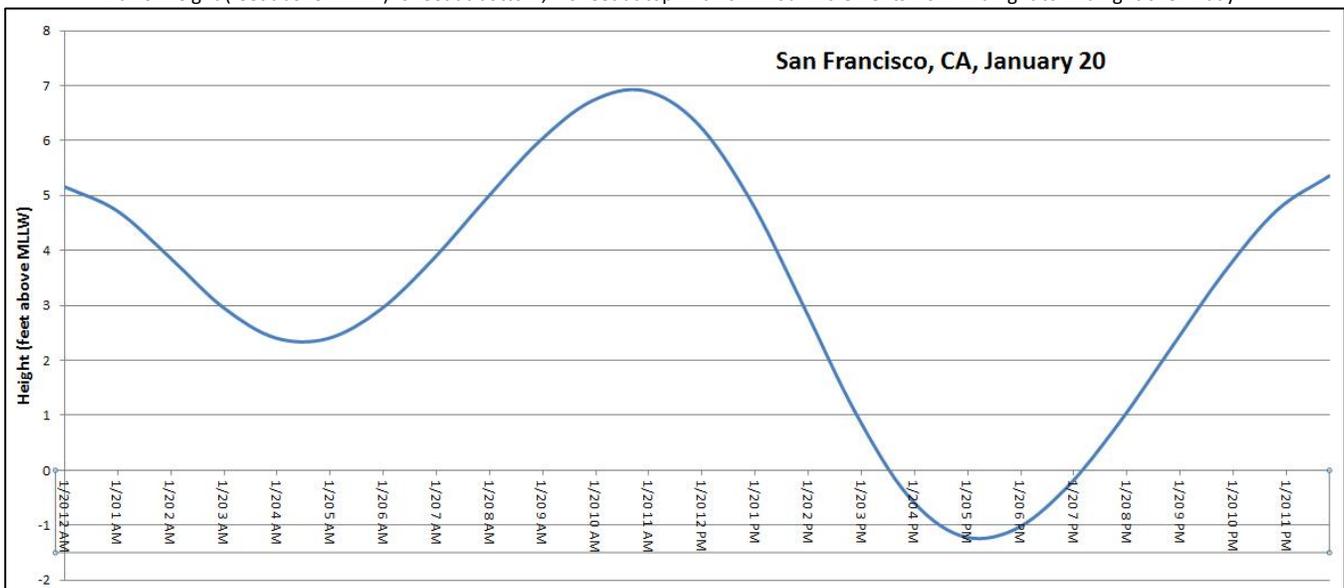
18. Which of these regions is a good candidate for building a house along the beach? Why?

San Francisco Bay

19. Reviewing the two day tidal charts on the following page, what would be a good day AND time to move your boat to a tidal grid (a device that cradles your boat when the tide retreats) to hold your boat above sea level for the maximum time and allow you to clean the bottom?
How long would your boat be above water?
20. Reviewing the two day tidal charts on the following page, what would be a good day AND time to bring a large crane under the Golden Gate Bridge
21. Reviewing the two day tidal charts on the following page, what would be a good day AND time for a 4-hr beach race (in which you don't want to worry much about changing tides)?
22. Reviewing the two day tidal charts on the following page, what would be a good day AND time to move a boat out of a harbor that has a shallow entrance?
23. Reviewing the tidal charts above, what would be a good day AND time to plan a tidepooling trip?

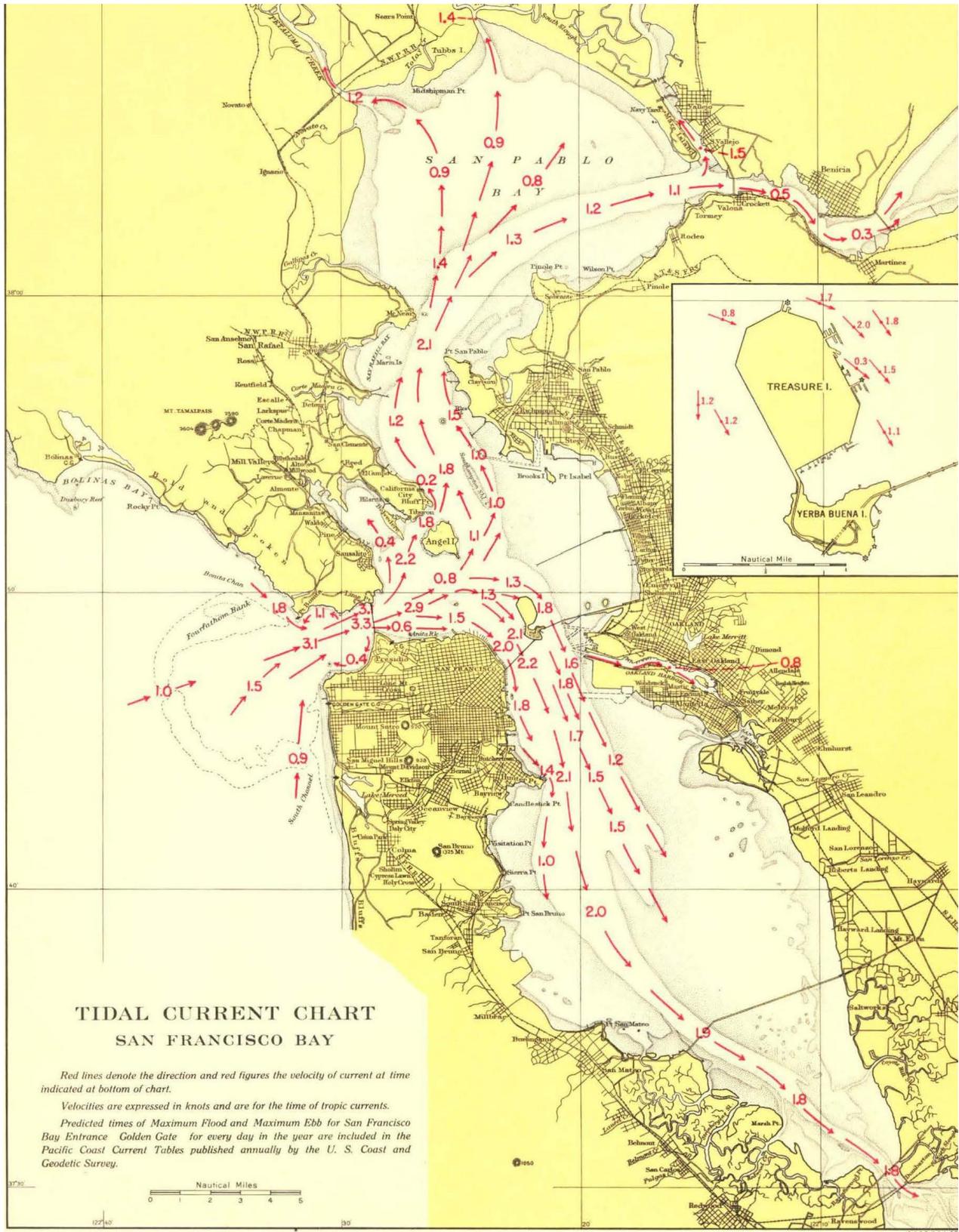


Y-axis: Height (feet above MLLW): 0 feet at bottom; + 6 feet at top. **X-axis:** 1-hour increments from midnight to midnight over 1 day.



Y-axis: Height (feet above MLLW): -2 feet at bottom; + 8 feet at top. **X-axis:** 1-hour increments from midnight to midnight over 1 day.

24. Reviewing the tidal charts above, what would be a good day AND time to plan a kayaking trip for beginners (limit current) from Sausalito (inside the Bay) to under the Golden Gate Bridge and back?
25. Reviewing the tidal charts above, what would be a good day AND time to plan a kayaking trip for experts (maximize current) from Rodeo Lagoon (outside the Bay) to under the Golden Gate Bridge and back? (*Remember: Currents reach maximum speed halfway between High and Low Tide.*)
26. Reviewing the tidal charts above, what would be a good day AND time to see marine organisms laying eggs on the beach? Why?
27. On the charts above, indicate which is the most likely candidate for a new moon, full moon, or half moon.
28. Review figure on the next page of the incoming maximum flood current into San Francisco Bay. Where is current fastest? How fast? Where is current slowest? How slow?



MAXIMUM FLOOD AT GOLDEN GATE

Tidal Chart of San Francisco Bay during Maximum Flood Current at the Golden Gate Bridge from U.S. Department of Commerce – 5th Edition (1955)
 #s given are speeds in knots (1 nautical mile/hour)

Weekly Reflection

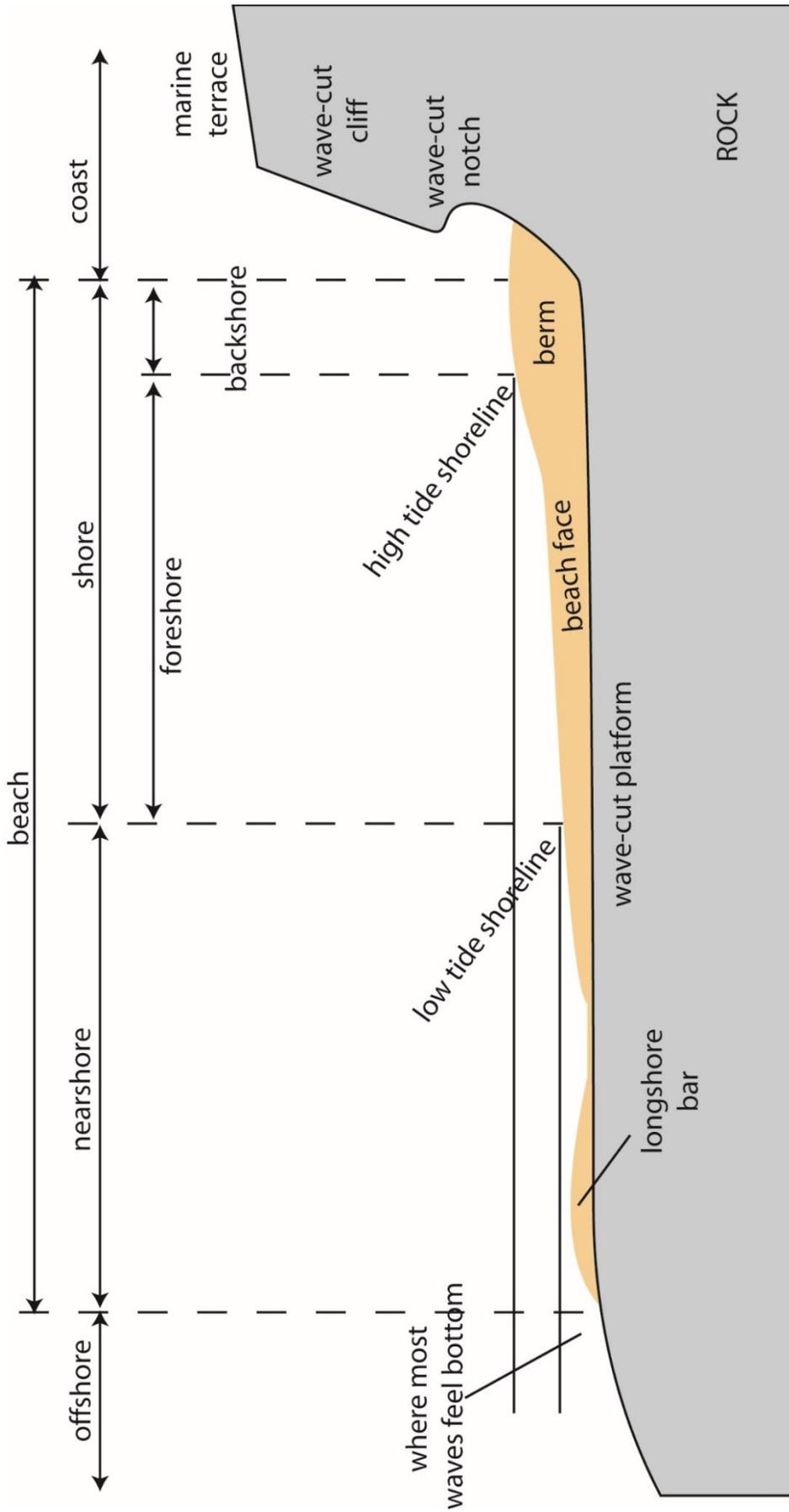
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week’s objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Analyze the causes of tidal waves .	A B C D F	
Evaluate and diagram how tidal waves behave in enclosed ocean basins .	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast the causes, behaviors, distribution, and impacts of different tidal patterns .	A B C D F	
Evaluate how and why tidal range varies throughout the month and year and the impact on marine organisms .	A B C D F	
Apply an understanding of tides to evaluate and describe how tides behave in and impact the San Francisco Bay area .	A B C D F	

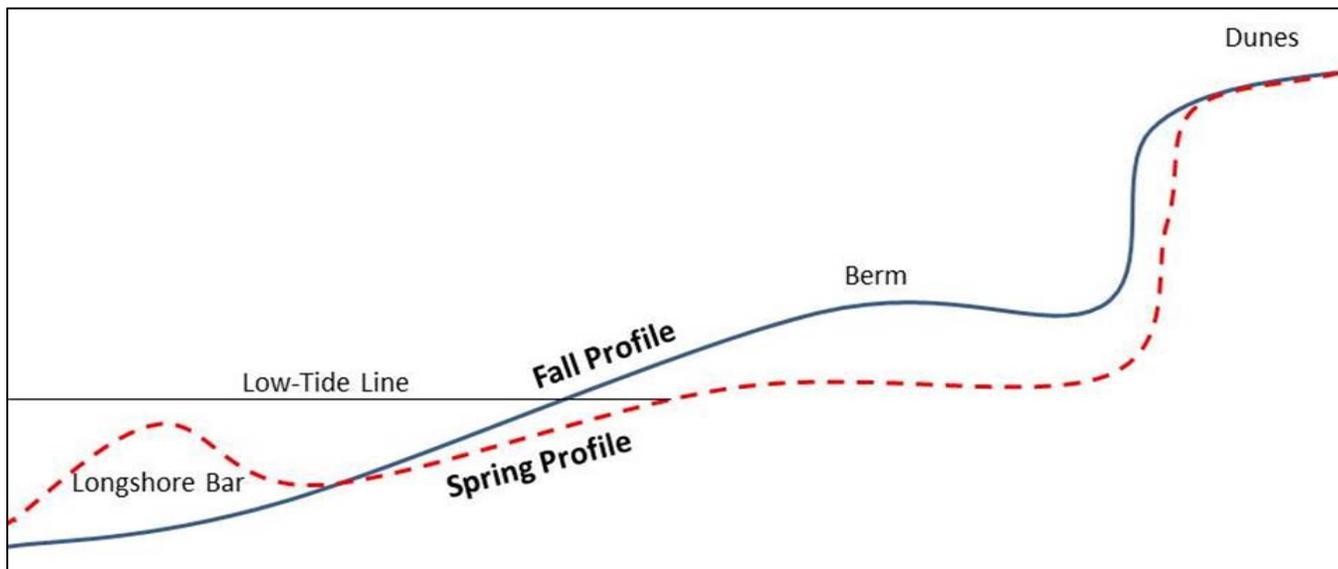
AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you’ve always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

COASTS, BEACHES, AND ESTUARIES



Generalized beach profile along coast with a resistant, eroding cliff at the back of the beach. Yellow represents sand.



Beach profiles – from dunes/cliff to offshore bar – based on seasons.

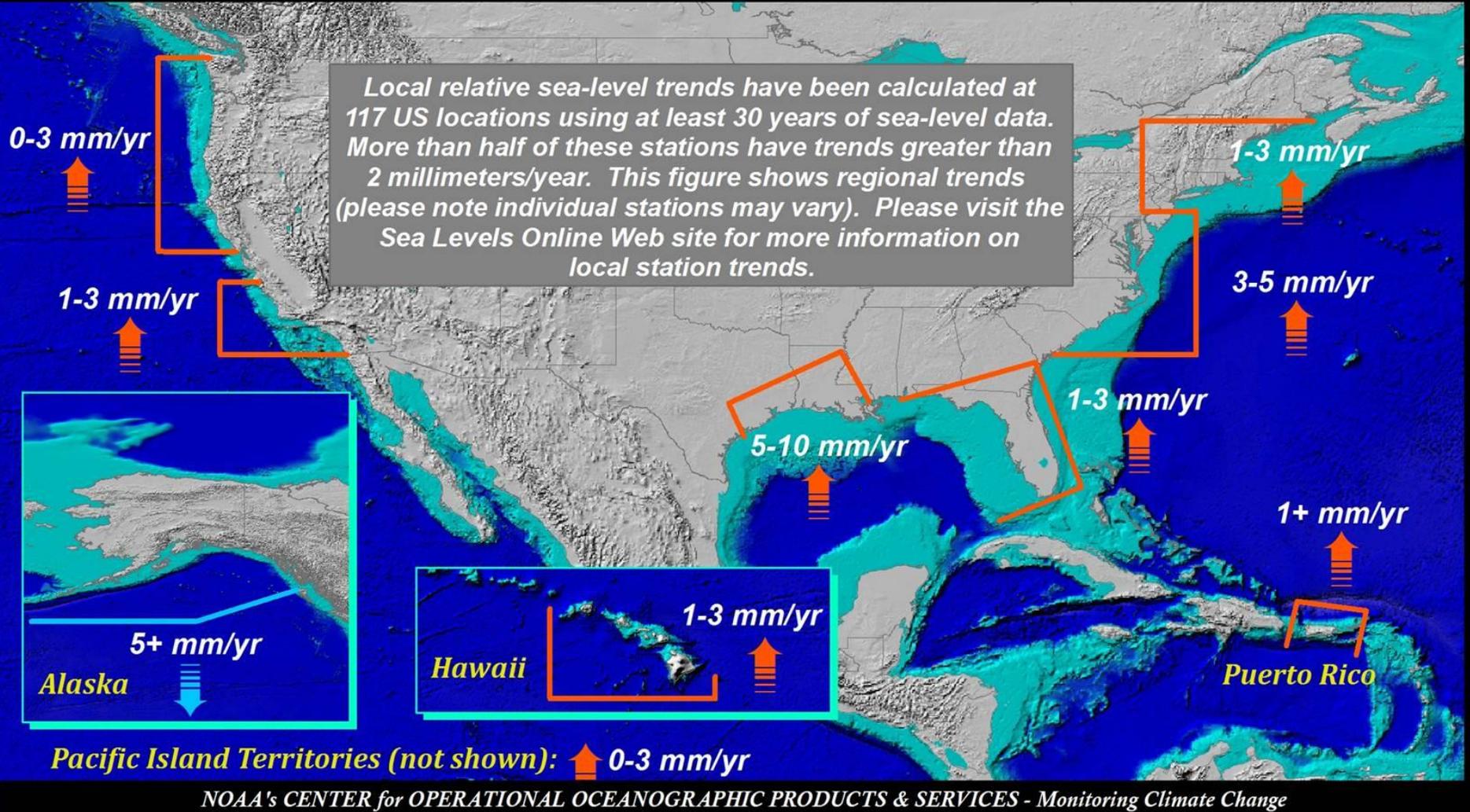


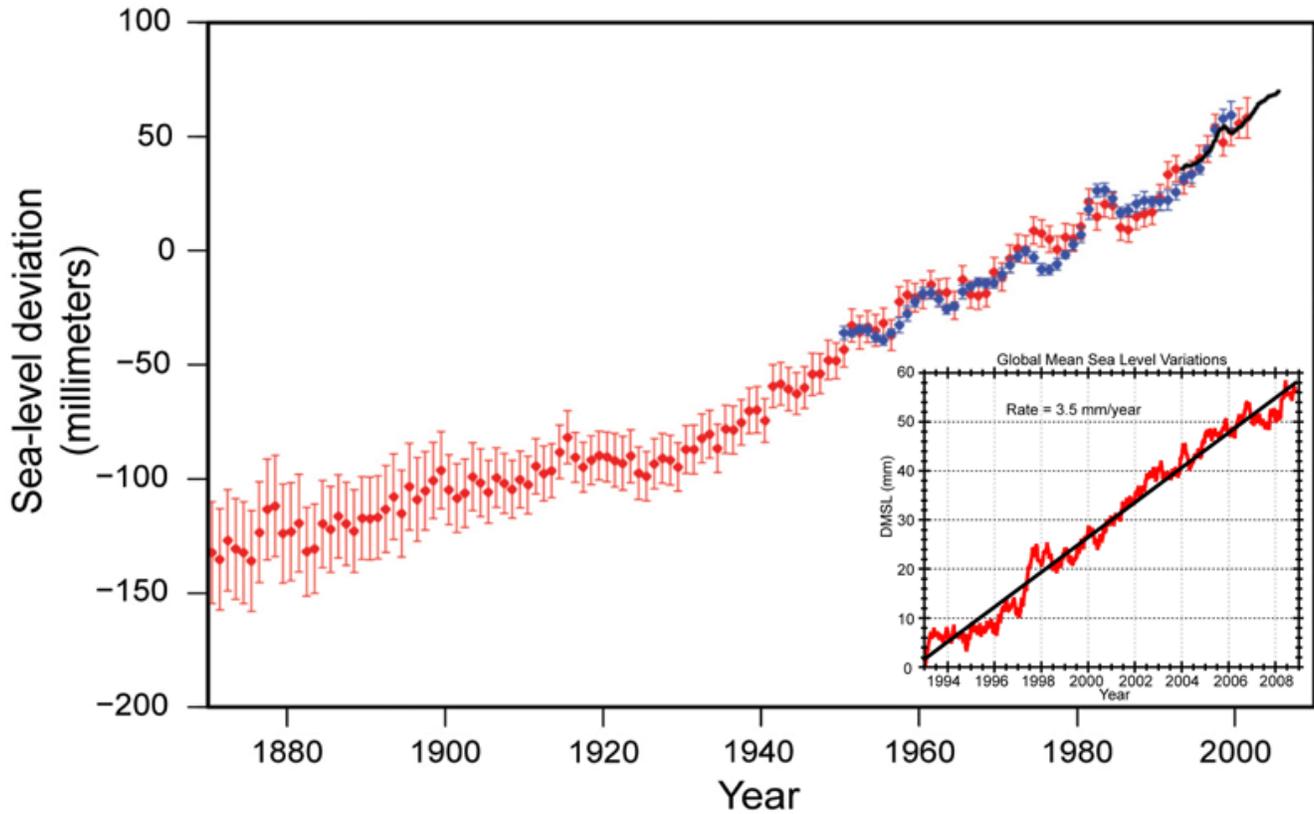
*View from the Cliff House towards the sand dunes that will become the site of the Golden Gate Park and the Sunset district c. 1865
photographer: HC Hecht*



LONG TERM RELATIVE SEA LEVEL TRENDS FOR THE UNITED STATES

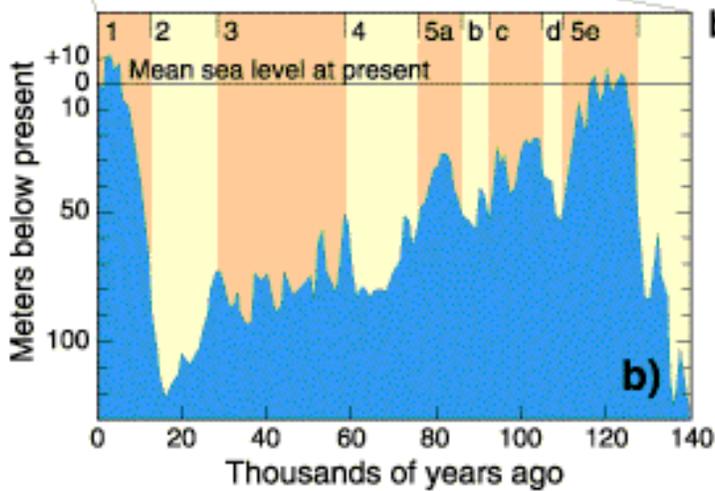
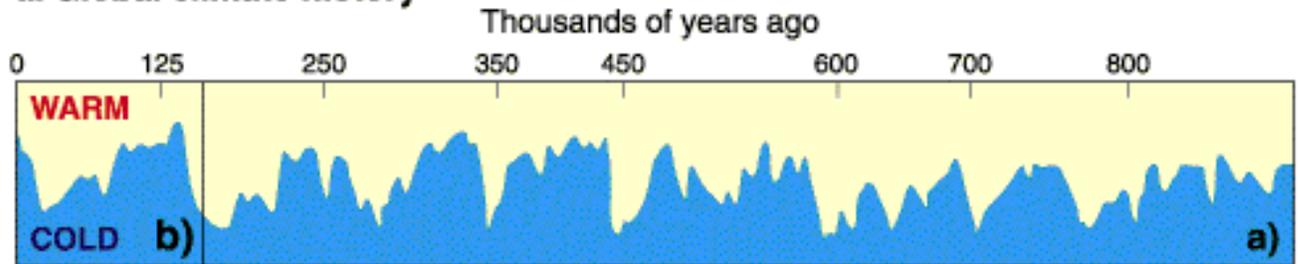
NOAA Sea Levels Online: www.tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov/sltrends/sltrends.html





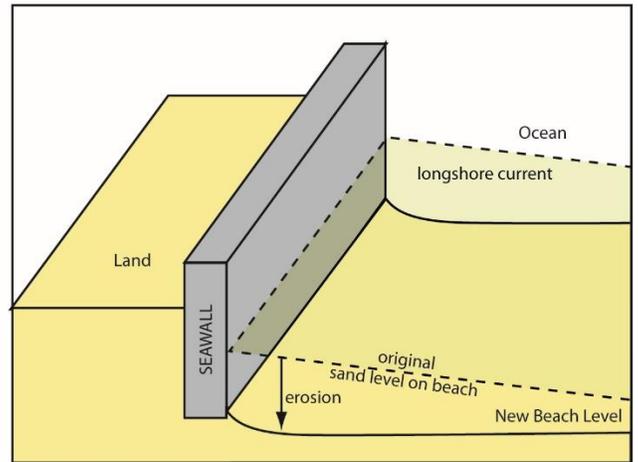
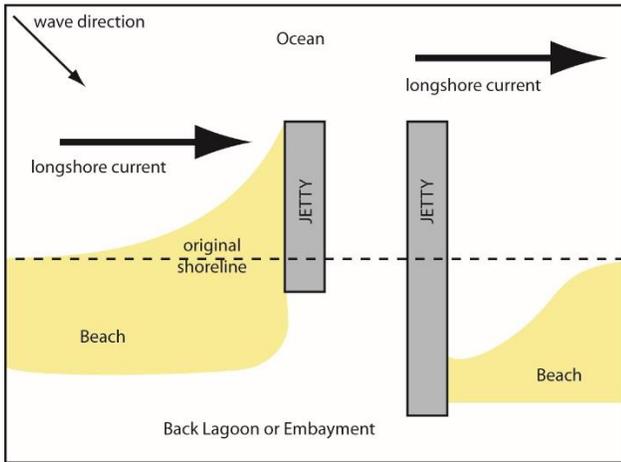
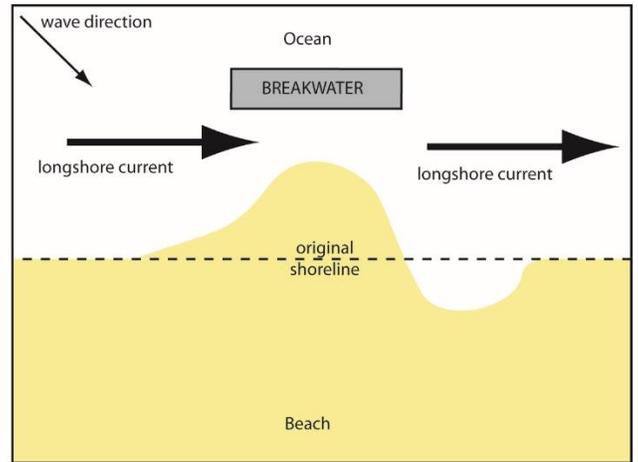
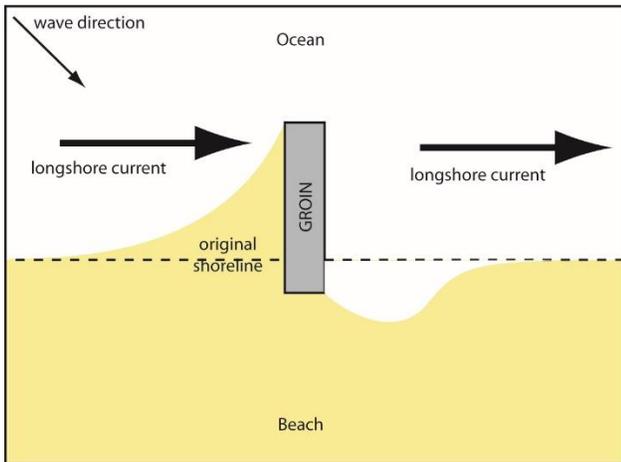
Average global sea level changes over the past 100 years. Image from NOAA

a. Global climate history



b. Late Quaternary sea-level history

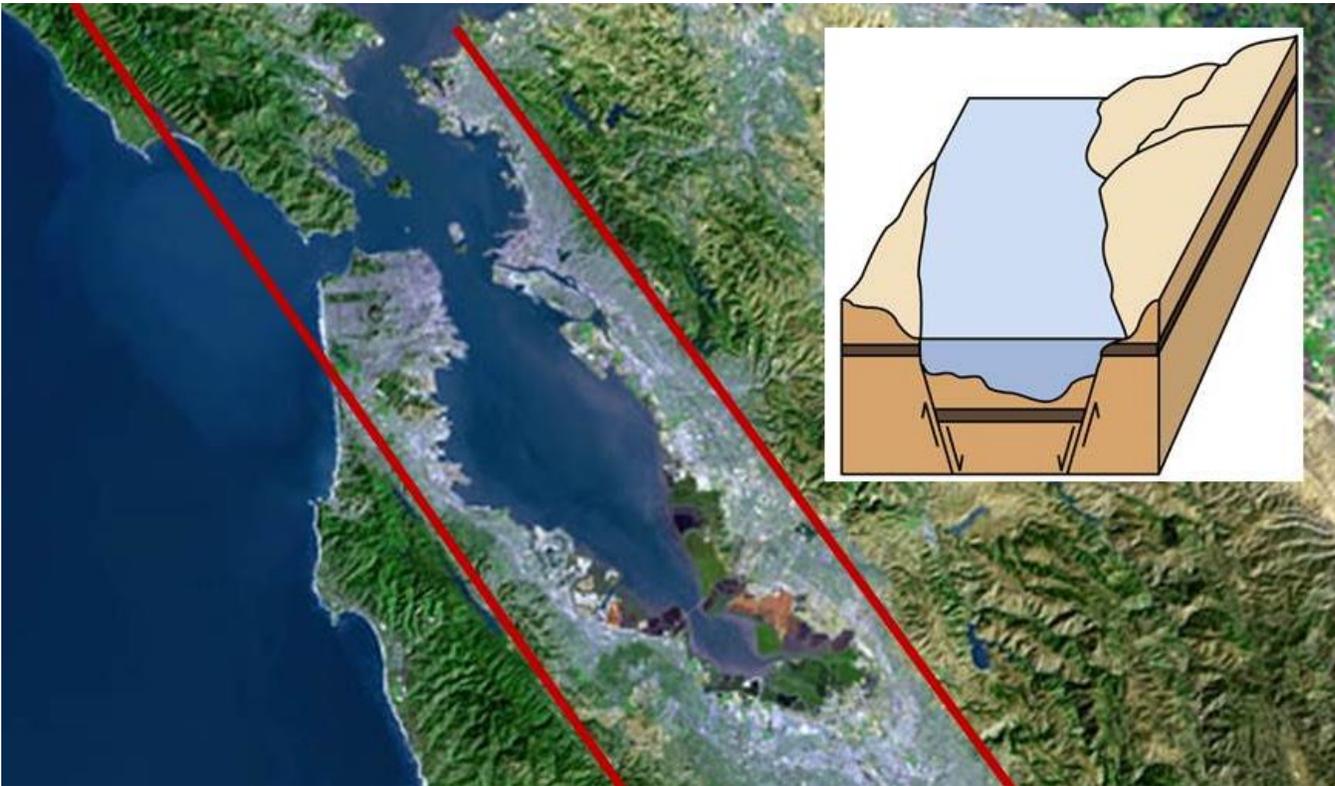
Sea level changes over the past 1 million years. Image from NOAA



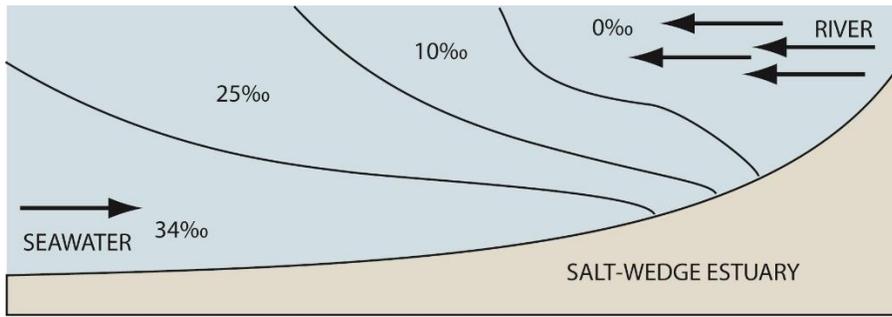
Structure	Groin	Jetty	Seawall	Breakwater
Picture or description	Wall running perpendicular to beach, extending off beach	Two parallel walls running alongside harbor mouth, perpendicular to beach	Wall running parallel to beach, on the beach	Wall running parallel to beach, but offshore
Why used?	Create a beach	Prevent mouth closing	Prevent homes, roads, etc. from erosion	Create a gentle water region for boats to anchor
Results?	Another beach is eroded to compensate; wall must be maintained.	Sand builds up in harbor mouth eventually and must be dredged. Beach forms in one location at expense of another. Jetty must be maintained.	Sand on local beach diminishes; erosion increases elsewhere; rip rap must be added.	Sand on local beach grows, eventually requiring dredging; erosion increases downcurrent; wall must be maintained.



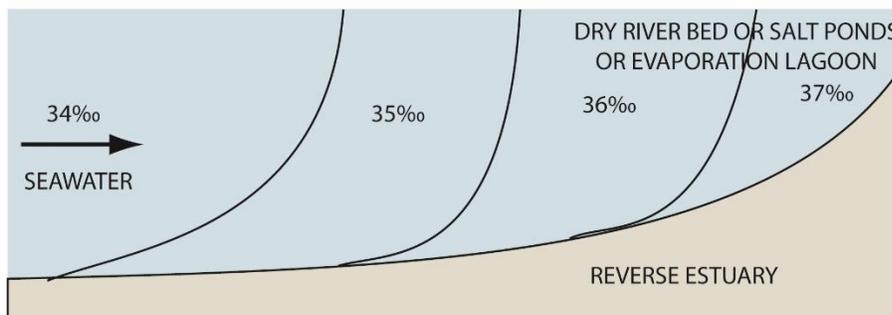
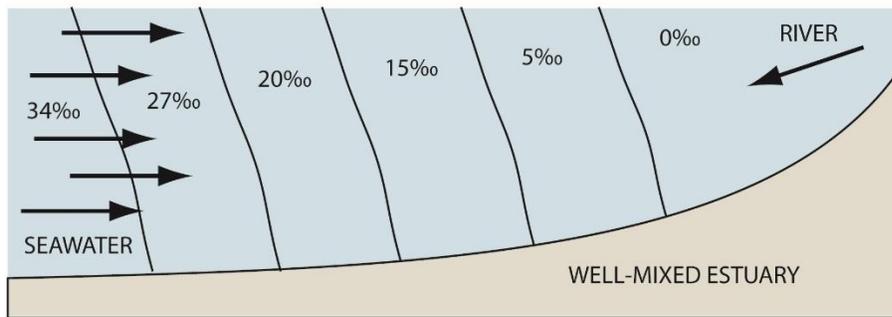
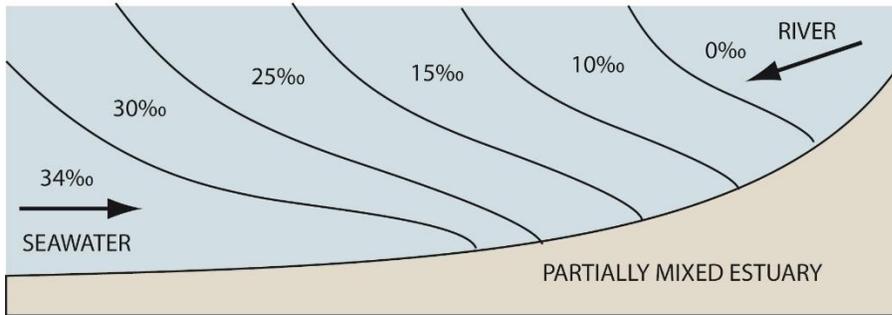
Satellite image of North San Francisco Bay, which is a drowned river valley (as sea level rose, the Sacramento River delta was pushed inland to where it is today in Sacramento). (USGS)



Satellite image of South San Francisco Bay, which is a down-dropped tectonic basin that sits between the Hayward and San Andreas Faults. (USGS image + Unknown source for inset graben)



Cross-sections through the range of different types of estuarine mixing, with river water entering from the right and tidal input from the left.



Mixing type	Definition/Cause	Examples
Salt Wedge	Strong, high-volume river (stronger than the tidal action); strong halocline	Mouths of Columbia and Mississippi Rivers. Mouth of the Sacramento River (local effect)
Well-mixed	Weak, low-volume river (much weaker than the tidal action); No halocline	Shallow estuaries like the Chesapeake and Delaware Bays. Also South San Francisco Bay.
Partially mixed	Medium-volume river (river and tides are more well matched); Weak halocline	Deeper estuaries like the Puget Sound, North San Francisco Bay, Strait of Georgia
Fjord	Moderately high river input – little tidal mixing – in fjord with sill that blocks entrance. Deeper water may stagnate behind sill. Strong halocline.	British Columbia, Alaska, Norway, Iceland, Greenland, New Zealand, Chile
Evaporative or reverse	High evaporite content along dry river bed. River gone. Tides are only water source.	Red Sea and Mediterranean Sea. Salt ponds of San Francisco's South Bay.

Coasts, Beaches, and Estuaries Chapter Worksheet

1. Which of the following features are caused by deposition ? (Sand piling up)	CIRCLE: barrier island berm delta sand spit beaches headlands wave-cut notches marine terrace
2. Which of the following features are caused by erosion ? (Rock being removed)	CIRCLE: sea arches cliffs wave-cut platform sea stacks blowholes tombolos barrier islands marine terrace
3. Reviewing the beach profile image in the preceding pictures, what is the term used for the solid rock surface eroded by waves and covered by sand that migrates with the waves?	
4. Shorelines that have marine terraces are likely experiencing what process(es)?	CIRCLE: deposition erosion CIRCLE: subsidence uplift sea level rise sea level drop
5. Which process dominates the East Coast of the United States?	CIRCLE: deposition erosion
6. Why?	
7. Which process dominates the West Coast of the United States?	CIRCLE: deposition erosion
8. Why?	
9. San Francisco's North Bay is a drowned river valley (Sacramento River) that formed as sea level rose after the last ice age. San Francisco's South Bay is a fault-bounded, tectonic estuary. It sits between the Hayward and San Andreas Faults and represents a down-dropped basin that filled with water. On the map of San Francisco Bay, displayed a few pages earlier, identify and label all the features highlighted in bold in this question (<i>North Bay, South Bay, Hayward Fault, San Andreas Fault, and Sacramento River</i>). (Make sure you understand how each formed.)	
10. List three causes of global or eustatic sea level change (review from <i>Seafloor Sediments Chapter Worksheet</i>).	
11. What is the highest sea level has been during the last 900,000 years of periodic ice ages? (Refer to preceding image showing <i>Global climate history for this time period</i> .)	
12. What is the lowest sea level has been during the last 140,000 years of periodic ice ages? (Refer to preceding image showing <i>last 1 m.y.</i>)	
13. What is the rate of increase today?	
14. What is the projected height for 2100?	
15. Reviewing the beach profile image in the preceding pictures, what is another term used for the intertidal zones (between high and low tide)?	
16. Reviewing the beach profile image in the preceding pictures, what is another term used for the surf zone (the zone that occurs shoreward of when a wave feels bottom)?	
17. The main effect of waves hitting shore at an angle is the movement of sand and water along a beach. What is the name given to the sand movement?	
18. Waves that hit our beaches are caused primarily by?	CIRCLE: local winds far-distant winds
19. Swell generally approach the North American coastline from the north. Why? What's there?	
20. General direction of longshore current in North America is?	

21. Which of the following is true of summer swell in California?	CIRCLE: created by local winds created by long-distant winds CIRCLE: high energy moderate energy low energy CIRCLE: generally come from North come from West come from South CIRCLE: erosion > deposition deposition > erosion CIRCLE: backwash > swash swash > backwash
22. Which of the following is true of winter swell in California?	CIRCLE: created by local winds created by long-distant winds CIRCLE: high energy moderate energy low energy CIRCLE: generally come from North come from West come from South CIRCLE: erosion > deposition deposition > erosion CIRCLE: backwash > swash swash > backwash
23. During what month of the year would you expect the berm on the beach to be smallest?	
24. During what month of the year would you expect the berm on the beach to be largest?	
25. What is the primary source of all beach sand? (~90% globally)	
26. What is the secondary source of global beach sands?	
27. What is a third source of beach sands globally (dominant in tropical shorelines)?	
28. What are the two primary sinks for all beach sand globally?	
29. What are the primary mechanisms for moving sand from one area of the coast to another (including to its ultimate sinks)?	
30. What is the ultimate source of beach sand at Ocean Beach?	
31. Which of these coastal structures is installed specifically to prevent coastal erosion?	CIRCLE: seawall jetty groin breakwater none
32. Which of these coastal structures is installed to create protected low-energy water for boats?	CIRCLE: seawall jetty groin breakwater none
33. Which of these coastal structures results in bigger beaches in a particular location?	CIRCLE: seawall jetty groin breakwater none
34. Which of these coastal structures results in increased erosion in a particular location?	CIRCLE: seawall jetty groin breakwater none
35. Which of these coastal structures results in increased wave height in a particular location?	CIRCLE: seawall jetty groin breakwater none
36. Which of these coastal structures requires continued maintenance?	CIRCLE: seawall jetty groin breakwater none
37. Which of the following is true of an estuary ?	CIRCLE: embayment freshwater and saltwater mix freshwater only saltwater only
38. Which type of estuarine mixing occurs when large volume rivers enter the ocean?	CIRCLE: partially mixed reverse salt wedge well mixed
39. Which type of estuarine mixing occurs when moderate volume rivers enter the ocean (usually evenly matched by tides)?	CIRCLE: partially mixed reverse salt wedge well mixed
40. Which type of estuarine mixing occurs when low volume rivers enter the ocean?	CIRCLE: partially mixed reverse salt wedge well mixed
41. Which type of estuarine mixing creates no halocline?	CIRCLE: partially mixed reverse salt wedge well mixed
42. Which type of estuarine mixing creates the strongest halocline?	CIRCLE: partially mixed reverse salt wedge well mixed

Understanding Tsunami Activity

THIS ASSIGNMENT SPANS MULTIPLE PAGES DUE TO THE LARGE IMAGES USED. BE SURE YOU COMPLETE ALL THE PAGES (21 QUESTIONS). Some answers come from past assignments. Be sure those are correct!

****For questions below, review your corrected, completed Waves and Water Planet chapter question sheets. REVIEW:**

- **Deep-water waves:** wave base of wave doesn't touch bottom (*remember: wave base = ½ wavelength, so these waves are in water deeper than ½ wavelength*)
- **Shallow-water waves:** wave base of wave does touch bottom (*waves are in water shallower than ½ wavelength*)
- (*Technically intermediate-water waves touch bottom, but their wavelength is between 0.5 and 0.05 of depth – for purposes of this assignment, ignore this limitation and designate waves as either deep-water or shallow-water*)

1. Oceans: average depth	2. Oceans: Shelf break depth	3. Oceans: deepest depth
4. Tsunami: average wavelength	5. Tsunami: average wave base	6. Use standard speed equation (given below) to calculate tsunami average speed: $\text{speed} = \frac{\text{wavelength}}{\text{period}}$
7. Tsunami are shallow-water waves everywhere in the ocean. Use the definitions from above and the data above to explain why.		

Shallow-water wave speed equation (short):

$$\text{Speed} = \sqrt{9.81 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2} \times \text{depth of water (in meters)}}$$

$$\text{CONVERSION: Speed in } \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \times 3.6 = \text{Speed in } \frac{\text{km}}{\text{hr}}$$

Completed examples:

In the surf zone, swell is a shallow-water wave. For swell in a depth of 8

meters, speed would be $\sqrt{9.81 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2} \times 8 \text{ m}} = \sqrt{78.48 \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{s}^2}} = 9 \text{ m/s}$.

$$\text{CONVERSION: } 9 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \times 3.6 = 32 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{hr}}$$

8. Tsunami: calculate tsunami speed in deepest ocean location . Give answer in km/hr. (Use short-cut equation above.)
9. Tsunami: calculate tsunami speed in average ocean depth . Give answer in km/hr. (Use short-cut equation above.)
10. Tsunami: calculate tsunami speed at edge of continental shelf Give answer in km/hr. (Use short-cut equation above.)
11. Tsunami: calculate tsunami speed in water 5 meters deep . Give answer in km/hr. (Use short-cut equation above.)
12. What happens to tsunami speed as it approaches the shore?

CALCULATING TSUNAMI TRAVEL TIMES

To calculate tsunami travel times, you have to solve the basic speed equation for time. **Time = distance/speed**

Example: Assuming average depth of the oceans, what would be the travel time for 15-s-period **swell** between Japan and San Francisco, which are 7700 km apart?

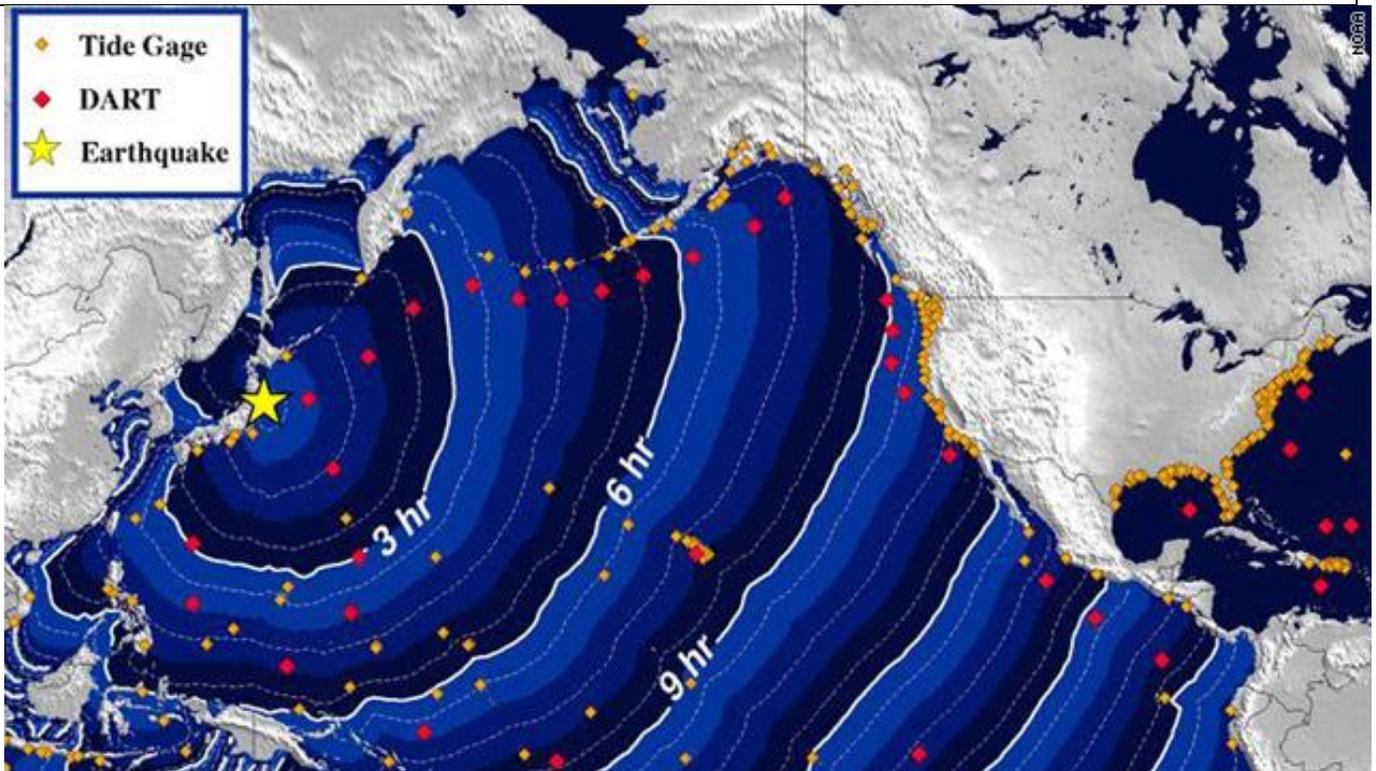
In average depth oceans, swell is a deep-water wave, so its speed, as calculated previously, is 84 km/hr.

TIME = distance/speed = 7700 km/ 84 km/hr = **92 hrs**

13. Assuming average depth of the oceans and average speed of a tsunami at that depth (get answers from previous page calculations), what would be the tsunami travel time between Japan and San Francisco, which are 7700 km apart?

14. The image below provides Japan tsunami time arrivals based on data received at coastal tide stations. What did they indicate was the travel time between Japan and San Francisco?

15. How do above two answers compare? If there's a difference, why?

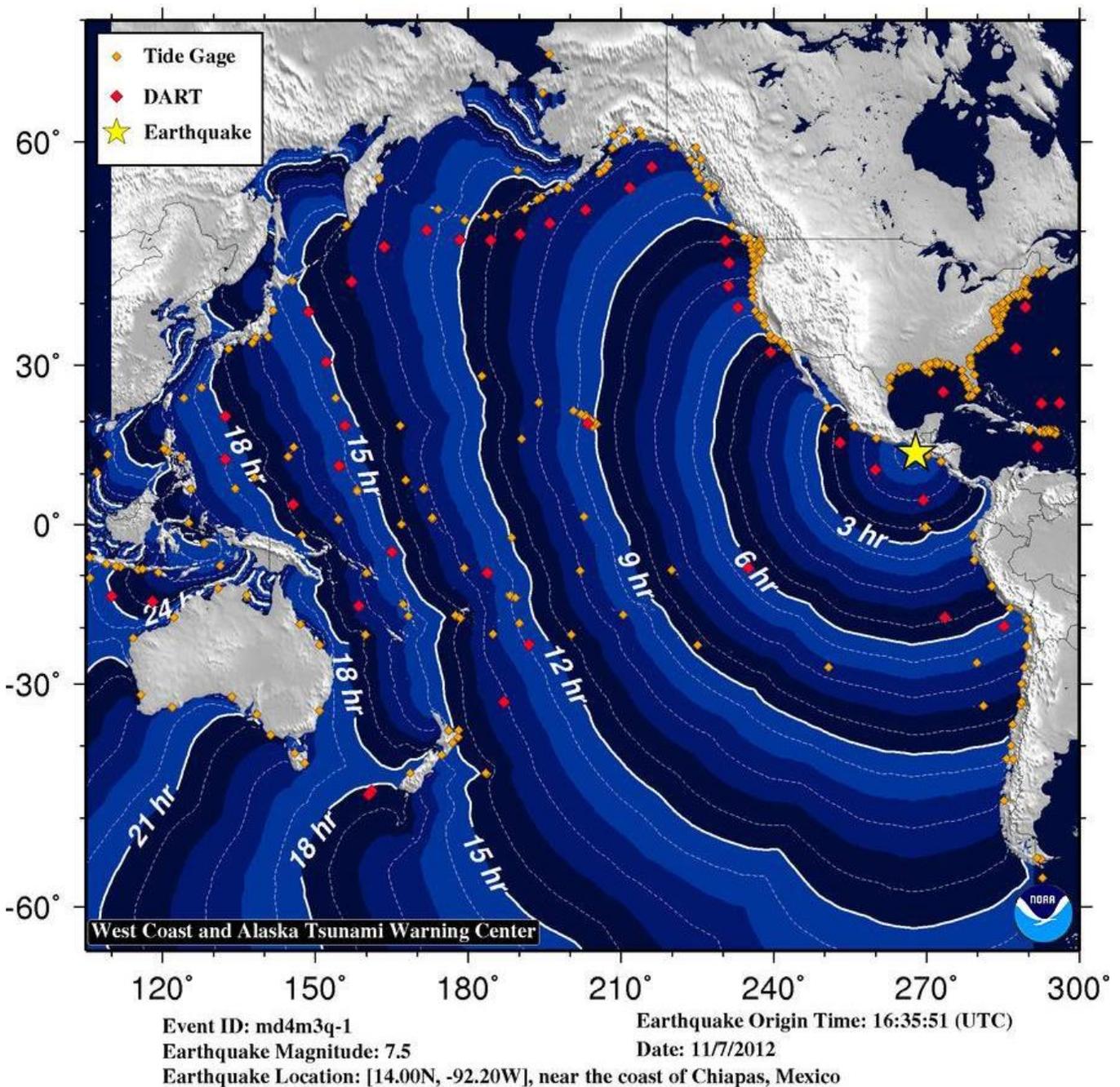


Tsunami Travel Times (travel time contours every 30 mins, beginning from the Japan 2014 earthquake origin time). NOAA

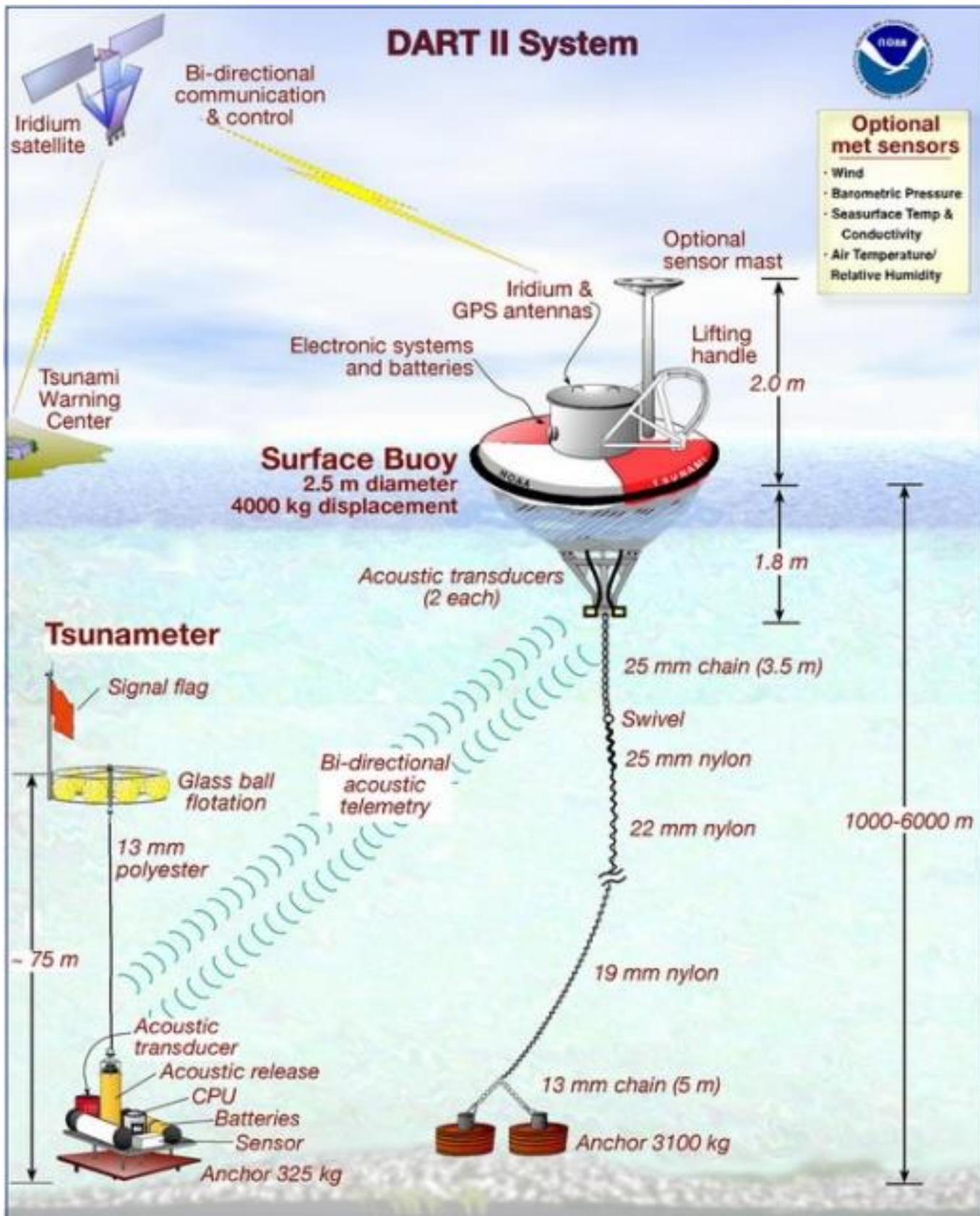
16. Assuming average depth of the oceans and average speed of a tsunami at that depth (get answers from previous page calculations), what would be the tsunami travel time between Chiapas Mexico and the Southern Tip of Baja, California (Mexico), which are 2300 km apart?

17. The image below provides Chiapas tsunami time arrivals based on data received at coastal tide stations. What did they indicate was the travel time between Chiapas and the southern tip of Baja?

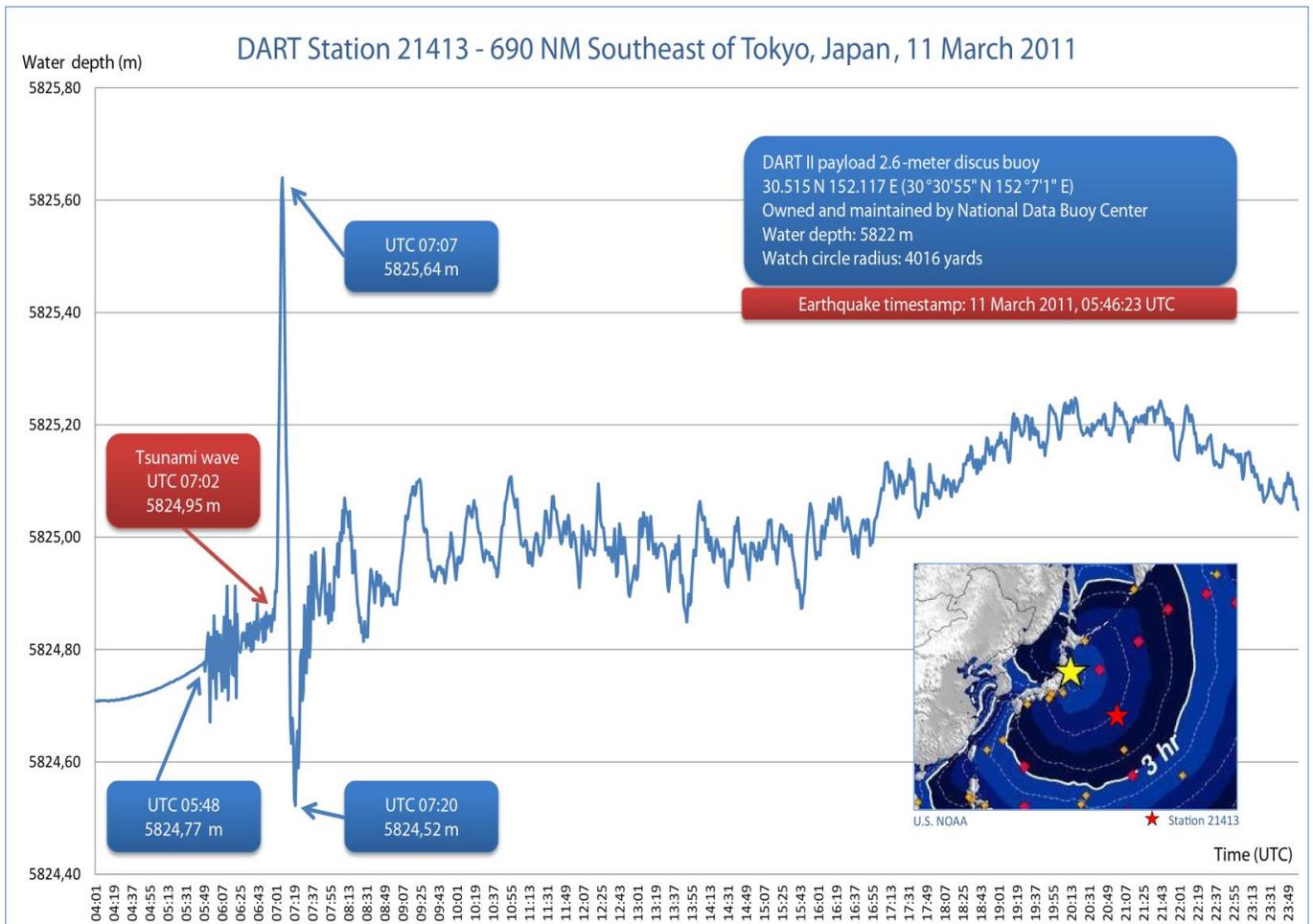
18. How do above two answers compare? If there's a difference, why?



Tsunami Travel Times (travel time contours every 30 mins, beginning from Chiapas 2012 earthquake origin time). NOAA



System used to measure tsunamis in the open ocean (DART). Note two separate components: the tsunameter is anchored to seafloor and measures the pressure of water column above it. The surface buoy is separate. It is tethered to an anchor on seafloor to keep it in place and receives sound waves from the tsunameter, which it then transmits via satellite to NOAA.



Time versus water depth pressure sensor from DART. As tsunami passes, the water depth above the sensor changes. Note: comma is used here instead of decimal point. 5824,52 means 5824.52 m. NOAA.

19. Review the DART station map recording of the Japan, 2011 Tsunami (above). At what depth was the DART station deployed? What height wave was recorded? How does this compare with what you've learned to date about average tsunami height in the open ocean?

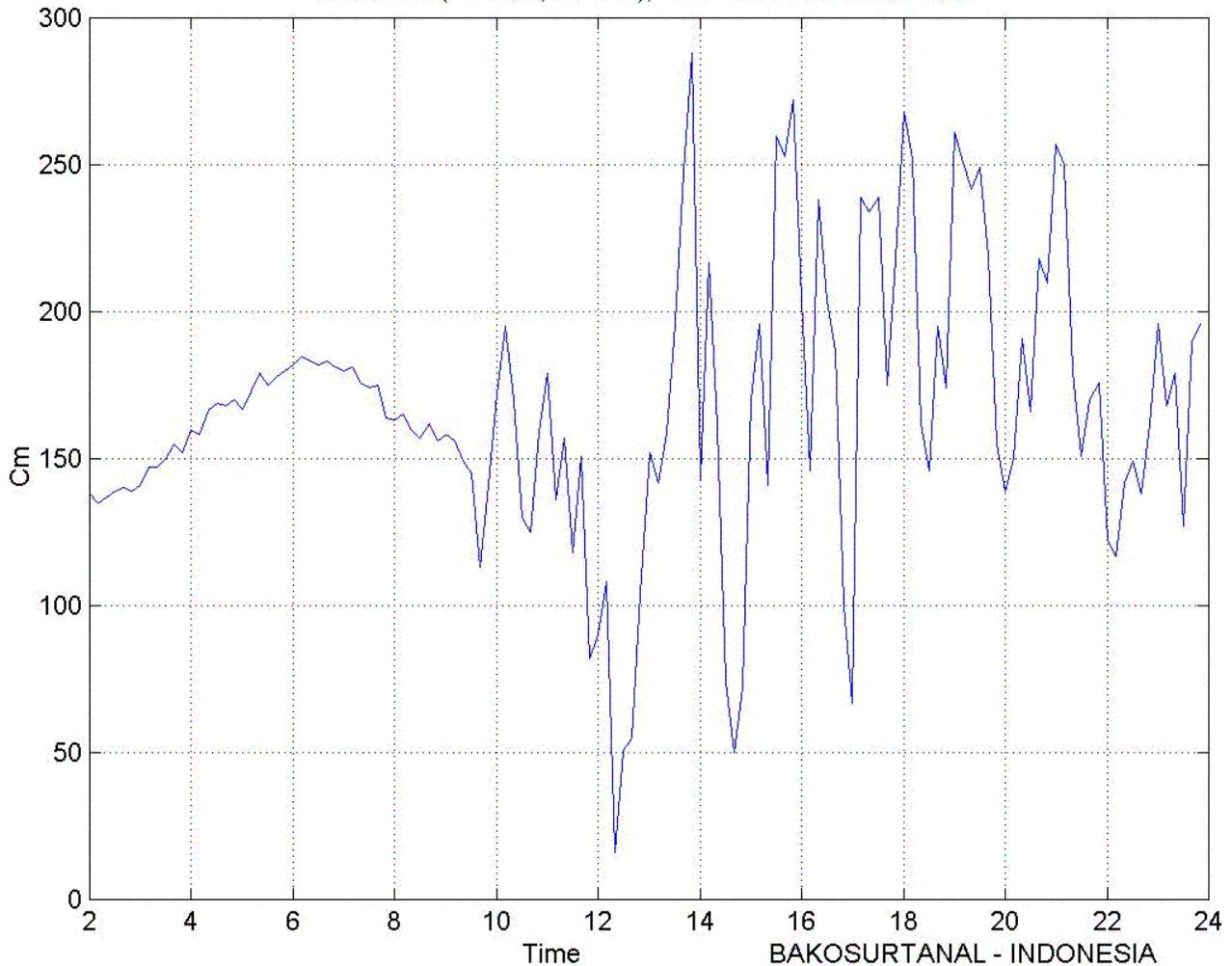
20. How were the data for the above chart gathered and transmitted?

The following pages contain graphs showing water-level data from coastlines around the world during tsunamis. These are real data points from real tsunamis. Questions to consider as you review these data:

- Can you identify when the first tsunami wave appears?
- What kind of water-level changes are happening before the tsunami arrives? What causes those?
- What part of the tsunami waves arrives first? Trough? Crest? Something in between?
- How many waves arrive?
- Are all wave heights the same at a single location? The same for different beaches for the same tsunami?
- If not, which is the highest?
- What's the period?

21. After reviewing these tsunami data come back and answer this question. What new insights do you have about how tsunamis manifest themselves on shorelines? What would you do if you thought you were experiencing a tsunami locally?

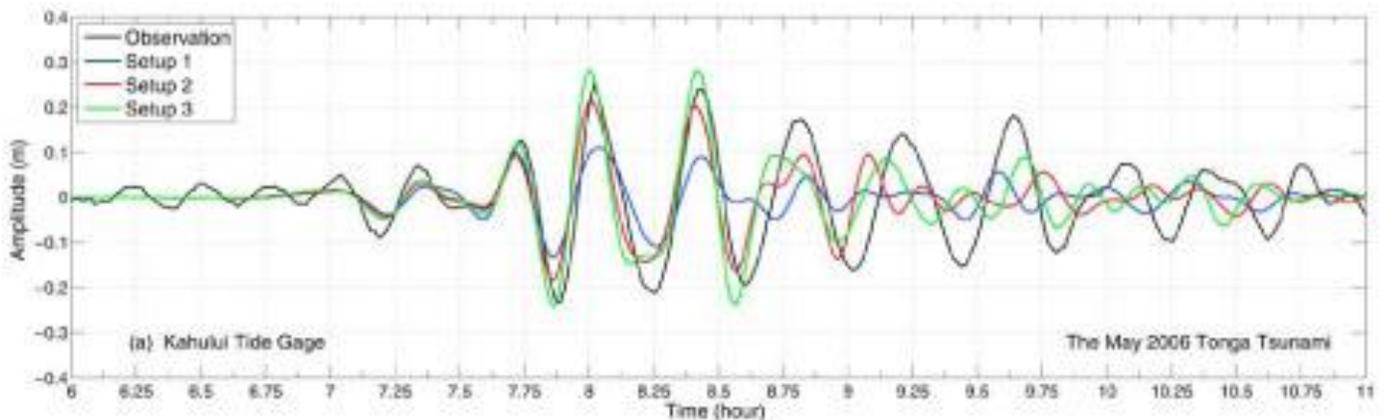
SIBOLGA (01 45N ; 98 46E), 10 min data at 26 Dec 2004



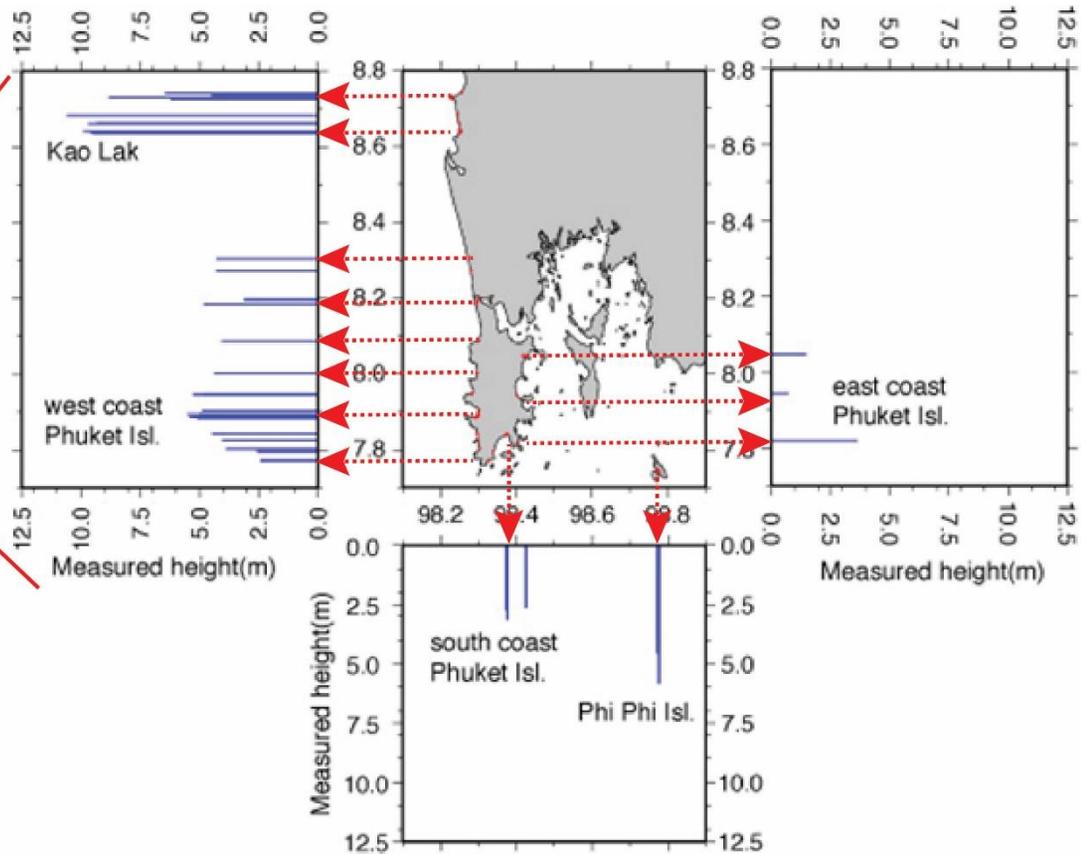
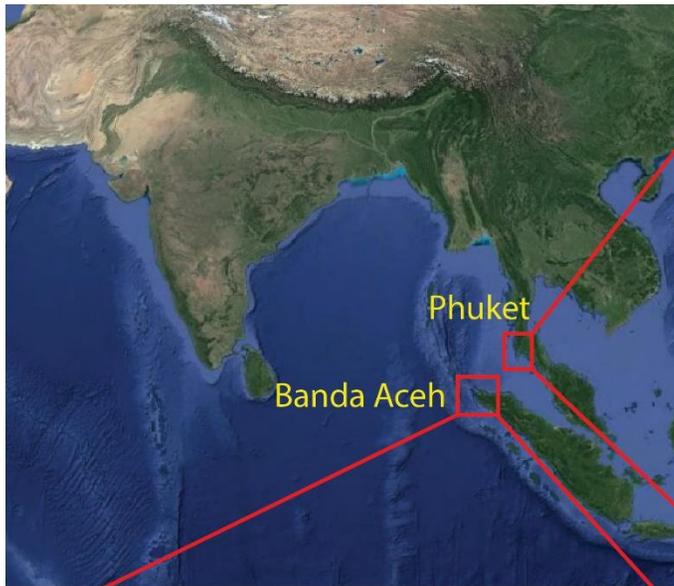
Water level recorded at a coastal tidal gauge station the day of the Indian Ocean 2004 tsunami.

SOURCE: http://www.drs.dpri.kyoto-u.ac.jp/sumatra/obs/t_Sibolga.GIF

Review the above tidal gauge data from SIBOLGA, for the Indian Ocean Tsunami in 2004. First notice that two waves are interfering: a tsunami and a tidal wave (daily tides) which has a period of 12 hrs and 25 minutes (so two would appear in one 24 hour, 50 minute time period).

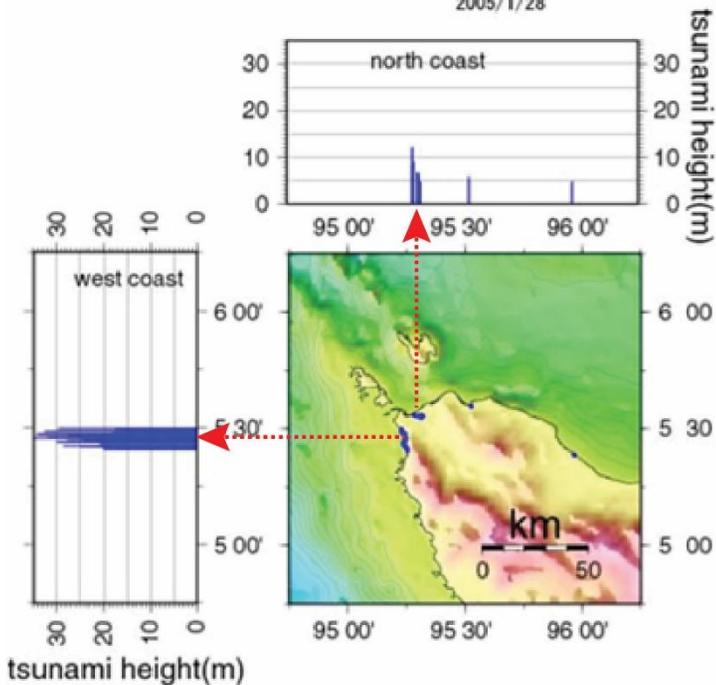


Tsunami wave height as experienced on land in Hawaii during the 2006 Tonga tsunami. Black is the observed wave height. The colors represent modeled behaviors (simulations). NOAA.

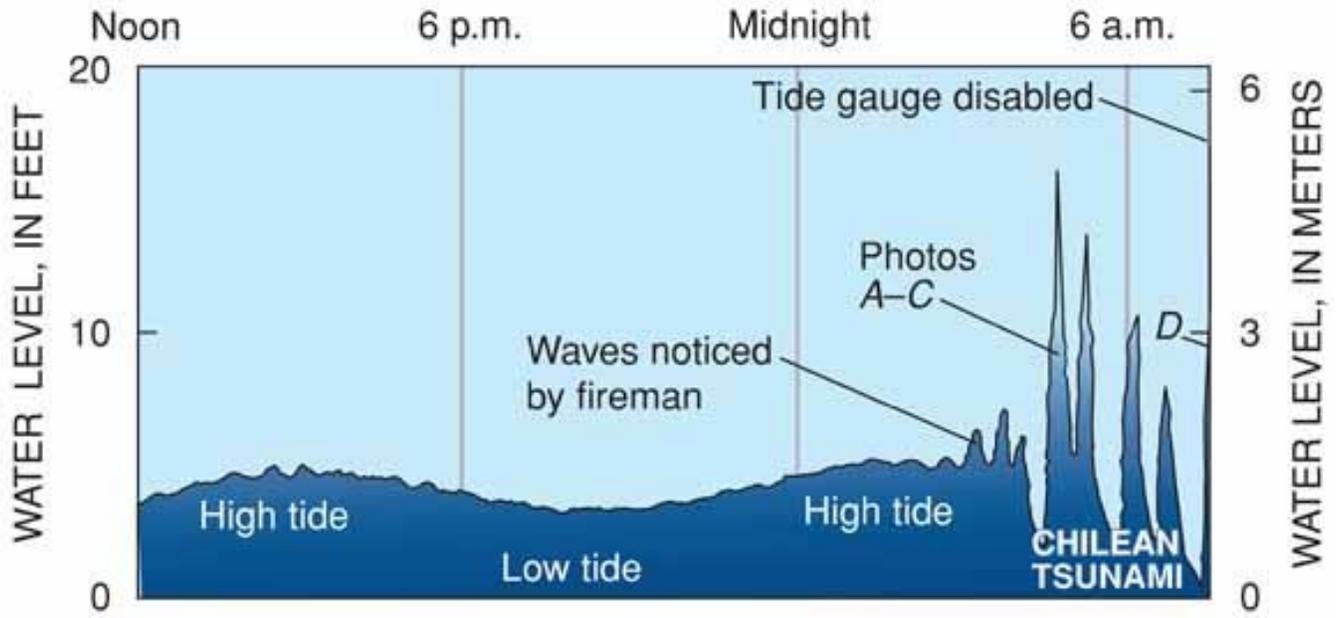


Measured tsunami height(m)

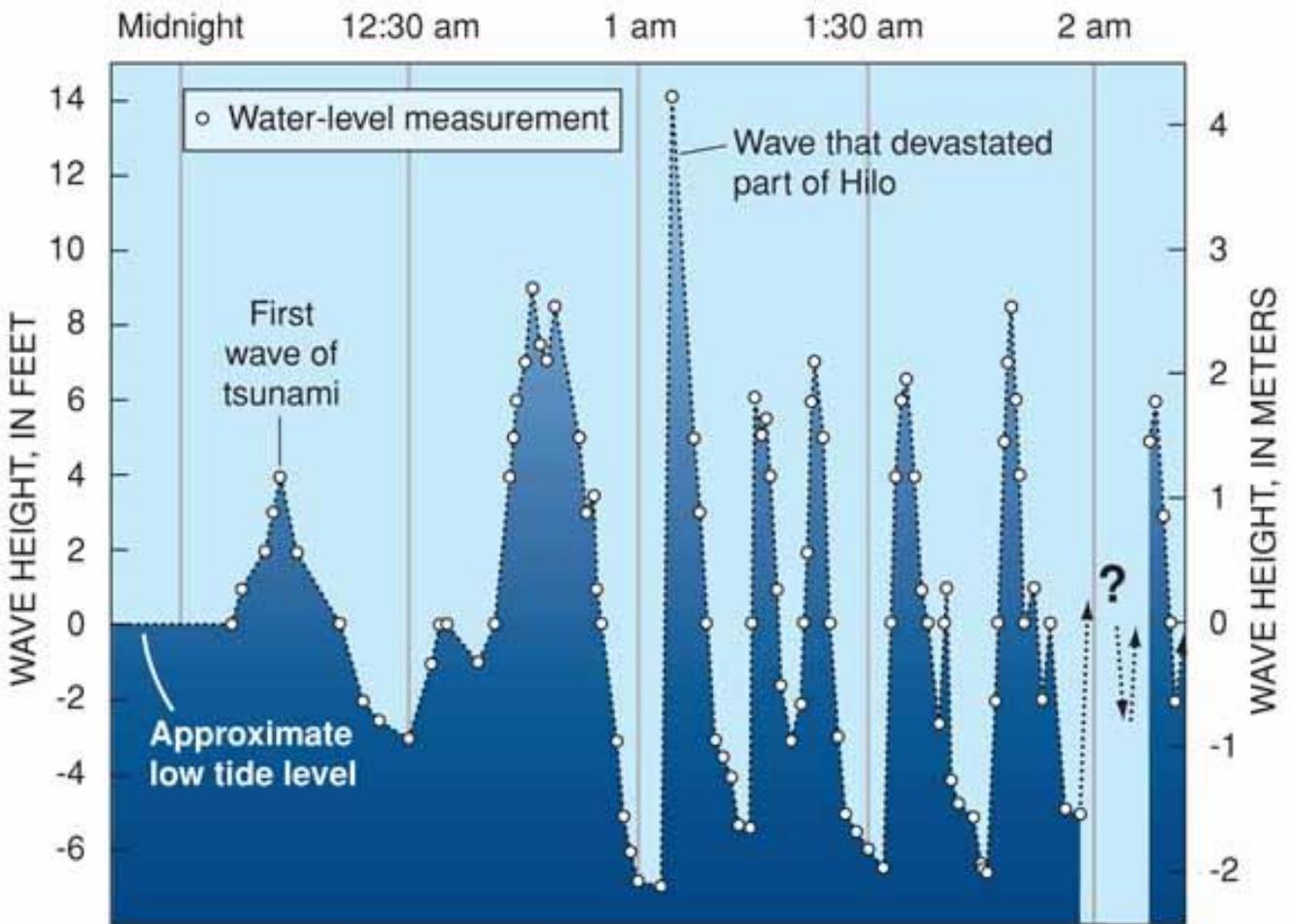
2005/1/28



Tsunami run up height (highest water level rose on the coast) for Banda Aceh, Indonesia and Phuket, Thailand after the 2004 tsunami. Note that each run up graph has its own scale. For example, on the west coast of Banda Aceh, run up height was 35 meters. For the south coast of Phuket island it was 2.5 meters.
Images from USGS.



Onagawa Harbor water levels after Chilean tsunami arrived. NOAA



TSUNAMI OF MAY 23, 1960, ON THE ISLAND OF HAWAII

1960 Tsunami Wave Height on big island of Hawaii. NOAA

Weekly Reflection

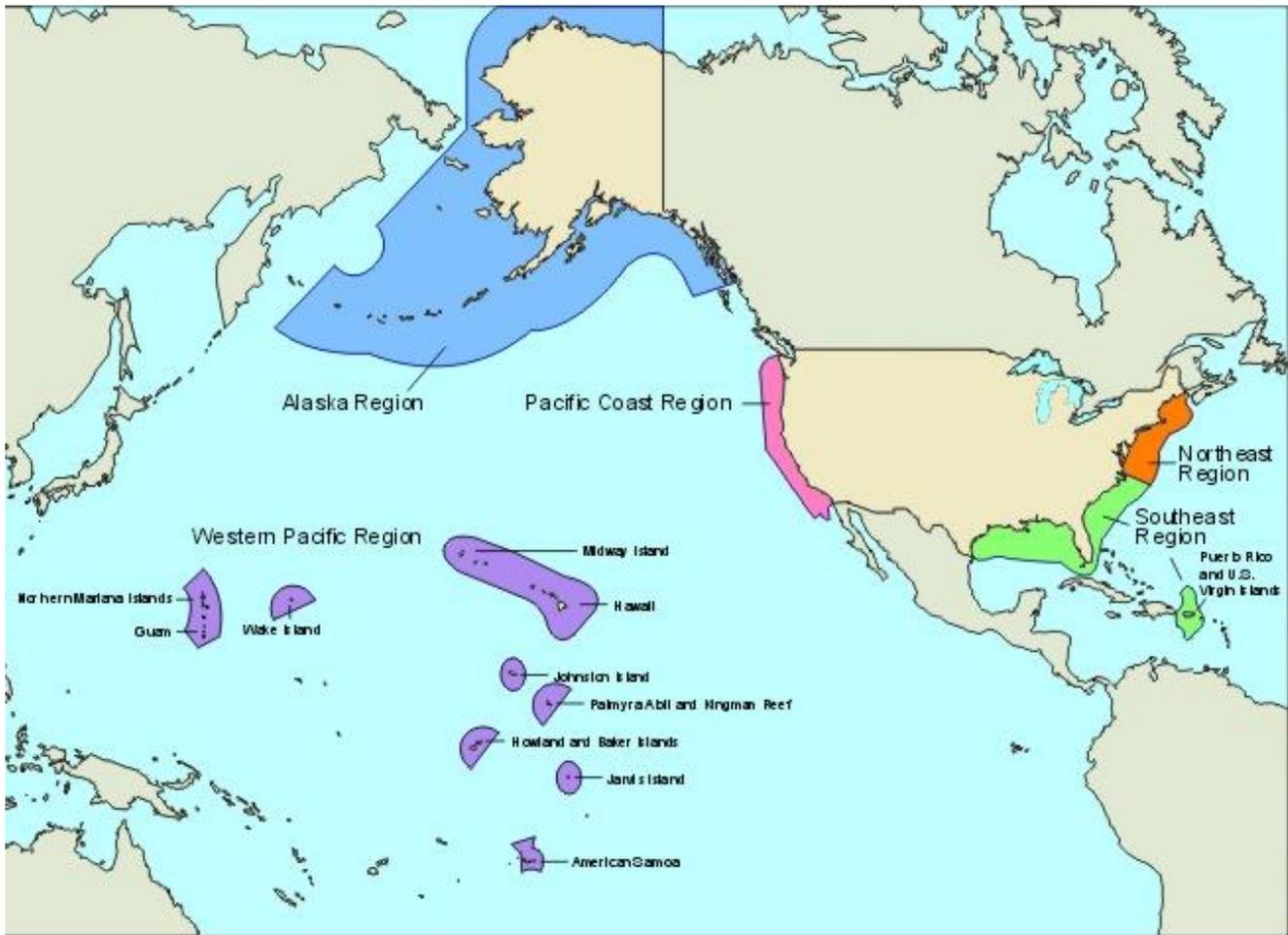
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week's objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Compare and contrast erosional and depositional processes at work on the shoreline, including their causes and impacts.	A B C D F	
Evaluate the sources, sinks, and transport mechanisms for sand along the shoreline, including seasonal changes to this system.	A B C D F	
Review the causes for global (eustatic) sea level change and the impacts to the shoreline, especially in San Francisco, during the last 2 million years of fluctuating ice ages.	A B C D F	

AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you've always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

MARINE POLLUTION



US Exclusive Economic Zone. Image: NOAA

Biomagnification, Bioaccumulation, and Mercury

Modified from material found at:

- Woods Hole: <http://www.whoi.edu/oceanus/>
- USGS <http://wi.water.usgs.gov/mercury/mercury-cycling.html>
- EPA <http://www.epa.gov/hg/>

Forms of mercury:

Hg – elemental mercury

Hg²⁺ -- ionized mercury (lost two electrons – thus reactive and ready to combine with sulfur, oxygen, and other reactive materials in the environment)

MMHg – monomethyl mercury (or methylated mercury), which is highly toxic to living organisms.

“Alkali and metal processing, incineration of coal, and medical and other waste, and mining of gold and mercury contribute greatly to mercury concentrations in some areas, but atmospheric deposition is the dominant source of mercury over most of the landscape. Once in the atmosphere, mercury is widely disseminated and can circulate for years, accounting for its wide-spread distribution. Natural sources of atmospheric mercury include volcanoes, geologic deposits of mercury, and volatilization from the ocean. Although all rocks, sediments, water, and soils naturally contain small but varying amounts of mercury, scientists have found some local mineral occurrences and thermal springs that are naturally high in mercury.”

Sunlight ionizes Hg in the atmosphere – producing Hg²⁺ -- which deposits in surface sediments and waters through rainfall. About 80% of the deposited Hg²⁺ in the ocean converts back to Hg and evaporates. Some of the Hg²⁺ remaining in the ocean adheres to organic particles and falls to the ocean floor, where bacteria convert it to MMHg.

“Studies have shown that bacteria that process sulfate (SO_4^-) in the environment take up Hg, and through metabolic processes convert it to MMHg. The conversion of Hg to MMHg is important for two reasons: (1) MMHg is much more toxic than Hg, and (2) organisms require considerably longer to eliminate MMHg. MMHg-containing bacteria may be consumed by the next higher level in the food chain, or the bacteria may release the MMHg to the water where it can quickly adsorb to plankton, which are also consumed by the next level in the food chain.” (USGS)

MMHg is thought to be produced by bacteria living in oxygen-poor sediments, such as in wetlands, and possibly even in open ocean water at the oxygen-minimum zone (about 400 to 1000 m below the surface).

“The concentration of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and pH have a strong effect on the ultimate fate of mercury in an ecosystem. Studies have shown that for the same species of fish taken from the same region, increasing the acidity of the water (decreasing pH) and/or the DOC content generally results in higher body burdens in fish. Many scientists currently think that higher acidity and DOC levels enhance the mobility of mercury in the environment, thus making it more likely to enter the food chain.” (USGS)

Bioaccumulation happens when an organism ingests a toxin at rates faster than their bodies eliminate them. As a result, continued eating/ingesting means they accumulate each day, more and more. Biomagnification is what happens when these toxins move up the food chain. For example, imagine phytoplankton that have accumulated 10,000 times more MMHg than the seawater around them. Concentrations magnify (biomagnification) ten times for every trophic level of the food chain. (Zooplankton end up with 100,000 times the surrounding mercury levels; herring 1,000,000 times. And so on...)

“MMHg affects the immune system, alters genetic and enzyme systems, and damages the nervous system, including coordination and the senses of touch, taste, and sight. MMHg is particularly damaging to developing embryos, which are five to ten times more sensitive than adults. Exposure to MMHg is usually by ingestion, and it is absorbed more readily and excreted more slowly than other forms of mercury. Hg, the form released from broken thermometers, causes tremors, gingivitis, and excitability when vapors are inhaled over a long period of time. Although it is less toxic than MMHg, Hg may be found in higher concentrations in environments such as gold mine sites, where it has been used to extract gold. If Hg is ingested, it is absorbed relatively slowly and may pass through the digestive system without causing damage.” (USGS)

Hg and Bacteria

(Modified from information provided by Woods Hole): The toxic form of mercury (Hg) is monomethyl mercury – MMHg – which is produced by bacteria in oxygen-poor sediments. These bacteria respire anaerobically (without oxygen) through a process that reduces sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) to sulfide (S^{2-}). A byproduct of that respiration process (which is done to release energy for use by the bacteria), is the entrance of Hg into the cells of the bacterial and the methylation of it within the cell (MMHg). The process:

1. Ionized mercury (Hg^{2+}) in seawater and sediments does not enter bacterial cells.
2. In low-oxygen environments, bacteria respire (get energy from sugars, for use in metabolic processes) anaerobically. In the process sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) in the surrounding water is brought into the cell and reduced to sulfide (S^{2-}), which is then expelled.
3. Sulfide (S^{2-}) combines with ionized mercury (Hg^{2+}) to form mercuric sulfide (HgS).
4. Mercuric sulfide CAN enter (through diffusion) bacterial cells.
5. Inside cells, more chemical reactions replace the S^{2-} in the mercuric sulfide with a methyl group (CH_3), producing MMHg.
6. MMHg can diffuse out of bacterial cells into the seawater, where it is available for uptake by phytoplankton and then accumulate and magnify up the food chain.

*Bacterial reduction (per above process) happens in sediments in shallow and deep water within the ocean.

San Francisco Bay and Hg

In San Francisco Bay, we have a problem with Mercury (Hg). The Hg came from the old gold mining days and is trapped in the sediment at the bottom of the bay. When it is processed by vegetation it becomes methylated and is a huge toxin problem for all organisms. Another problem: when old sediment is mixed up, the Hg enters the water column.

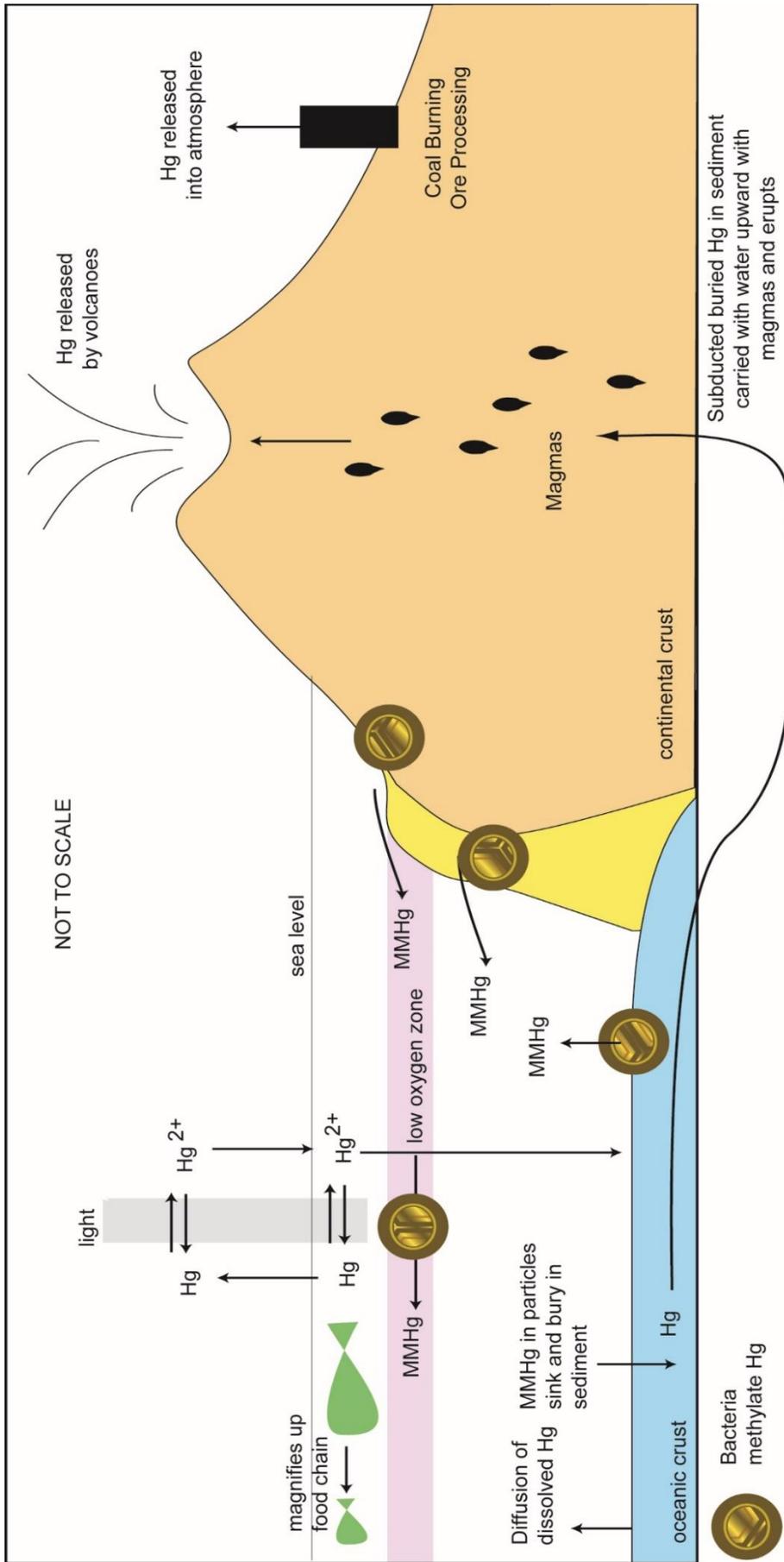


Diagram showing the movement of mercury (Hg) through the global ecosystem. Image modified from materials from Woods Hole (<http://www.whoi.edu/oceanus/>)

Marine Pollution Chapter Worksheet

1. Which of the following are considered pollution ?	CIRCLE: Natural oil seeps Oil spills (from ships or platforms) Oil from roads Hot water from electrical plants Pesticides from agricultural runoff Fertilizer from agricultural runoff Plastic bags caught in wind or water Detergents from roads Drugs (prescription and otherwise) from urine
2. What are some other types of marine pollution?	
3. What types of marine pollution last the longest? How long?	
4. What types of marine pollution last the least amount of time? How long?	
5. Which of the following is true of hypoxic zones ?	CIRCLE: high oxygen moderate oxygen low oxygen commonly found at: CIRCLE: river mouths where nutrients are high zones of upwelling
6. What are the primary results of increased carbon dioxide dissolved in the oceans?	
7. Wetland is an area alternately exposed by low tide and covered by high tide. How often does this cycle repeat?	
8. How do wetlands benefit the coastal environment?	
9. What % of San Francisco Bay wetlands have been lost? Why?	
10. Through what methods do exotic species (biological invaders) enter a region? What are the negative effects?	
11. What happens to bycatch in the fishing industry?	
12. California State Waters extend 3 nautical miles offshore. Federal Territorial Waters extend 12 n.mi (22 km). What is the standard width/extension of the shoreline for the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) ?	
13. Nations also have rights to the seabed on their continental shelf out how far?	
14. What are the political consequences of the EEZ? What do countries have control over in this zone?	
15. Where does mercury in the San Francisco Bay Area come from?	
16. Methylated mercury (Hg) is a difficult chemical for organisms to pass. It remains in the body for a long time. As a result, if an organism eats Hg-laden food at a faster rate than it is eliminated, it will accumulate in the body, reaching toxic levels. This process is called?	
17. Furthermore, organisms at the top of the food chain will magnify the problem by eating organisms that have already accumulated Hg in their systems. This process is called?	
18. What are some of the challenges that San Francisco Bay has endured since humans arrived?	

Marine Pollution Concept Sketch

Pick one of the many forms of marine pollution you studied and draw a concept sketch below (or on a separate page) that address the following questions:

- What are the sources of this pollution?
- What are the impacts to marine organisms and humans from this pollution? (Be sure to include time scales here for how long this pollution lasts.)
- What can we do to mitigate the negative impacts of this type of marine pollution?
- What about this pollution is of most interest to you, personally? Why did you pick it?

****Note: You will need to do some research before producing your concept sketch.** The expectation is that you will learn additional information beyond what's found in the course materials. Therefore you must reference other sources (reliable, preferably community reviewed sources that involve multiple scientists). Some sample good sources include: NOAA, USGS, NASA, National Geographic, Monterey Bay Aquarium, and Peer-reviewed science journals like Nature. Be sure you carefully cite your sources.

Weekly Reflection

Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week's objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Evaluate the variety of changes humans have made to the coastal and global ocean environment, including the results of human-built coastal structures, pollution, overfishing, damming of rivers, diversion of river water, and wetland destruction.	A B C D F	
Analyze the Exclusive Economic Zone and its political impacts on the oceans.	A B C D F	

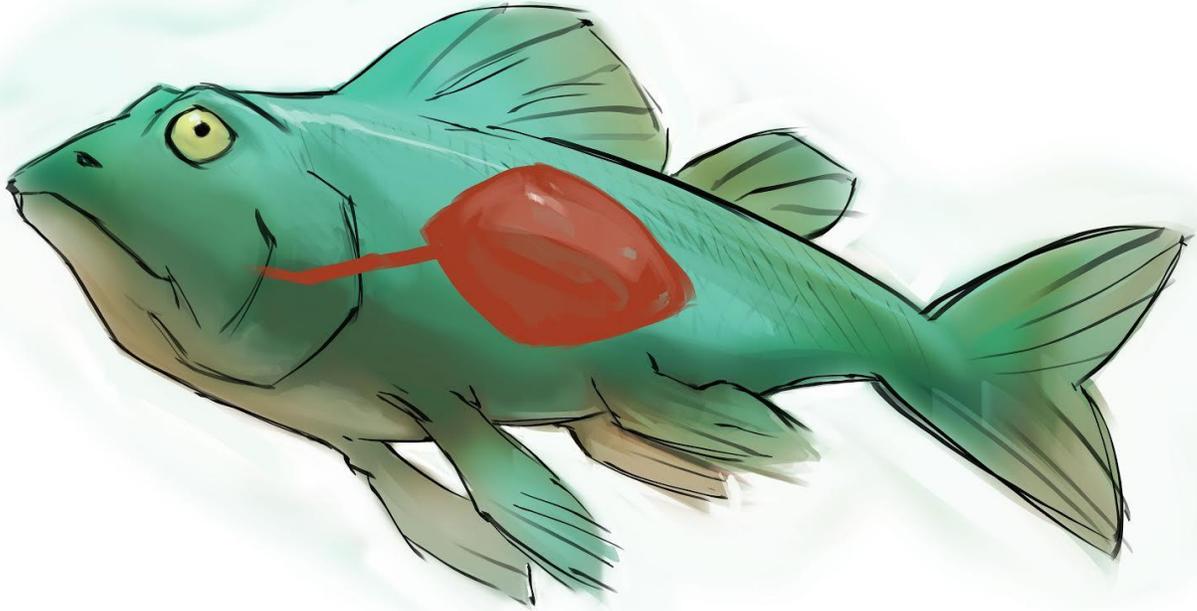
AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you've always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

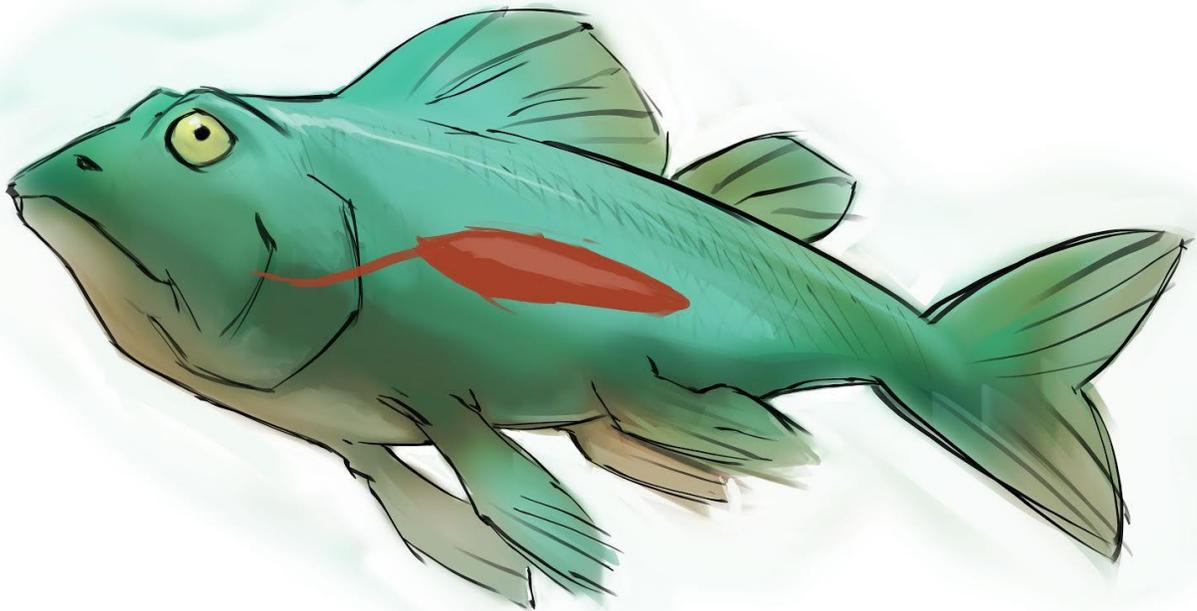
LIVING OCEAN & MARINE ORGANISMS CLASSIFICATION

SWIM BLADDERS

Swim bladders are flexible, cigar-shaped gas-containing organs used by most bony fish to maintain neutral buoyancy at any depth. Unlike more rigid gas containers, they can't be crushed – and the fish can travel as deep as necessary. However, they are slow to adjust to changes in pressure, so fish must rise or sink slowly in water. If they rise too quickly (before they can remove enough gas to equalize pressure), the swim bladder will blow up like a bag of potato chips carried to the mountains. If they drop too quickly (before the fish can add gas to equalize pressure), the swim bladder will be crushed, like a water bottle brought from the mountains down to sea level.



ABOVE IMAGE: Swim bladder muscles relax; more gas fills bladder (from blood flow – arteries); fish is less dense and can rise upward and equilibrate to new pressure while still maintaining neutral buoyancy. Image: Matt Lao © used with permission.



ABOVE IMAGE: Swim bladder muscles tighten, gas leaves bladder (goes into blood flow – arteries); fish is denser and can sink downward and equilibrate to new pressure while still maintaining neutral buoyancy. Image: Matt Lao © used with permission.

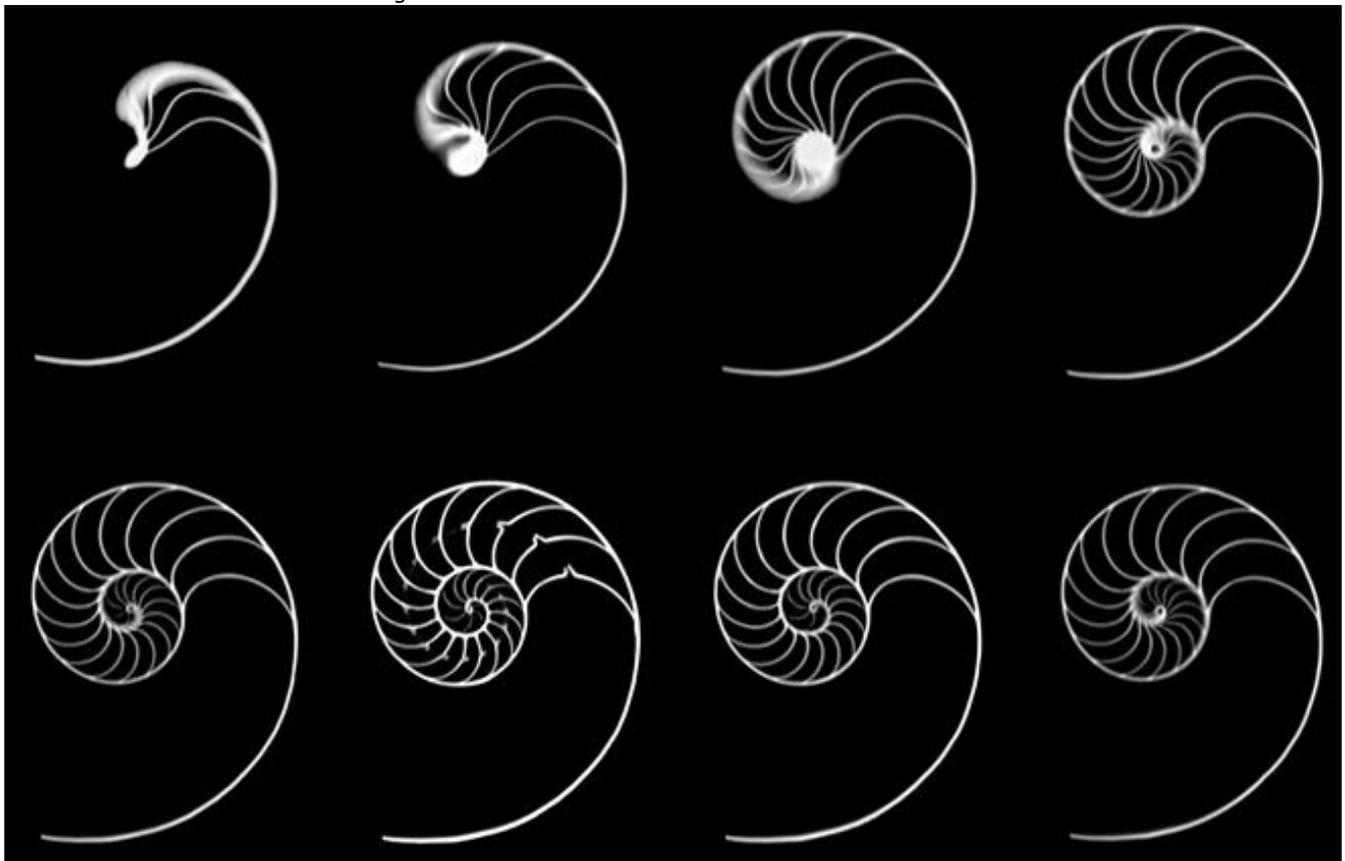
GAS CONTAINERS

Gas containers are rigid containers (like chambers in a shell) that contains gas. They are used to help an organism achieve neutral buoyancy. However, they work only for relatively shallow depths. If an organism with a rigid gas container travels too deep in the oceans, the high pressures will crush the container. On the other hand, organisms with rigid gas containers can rise and fall within the water column quickly, because they do not rely on internal gas equilibration to maintain the shape of the container.



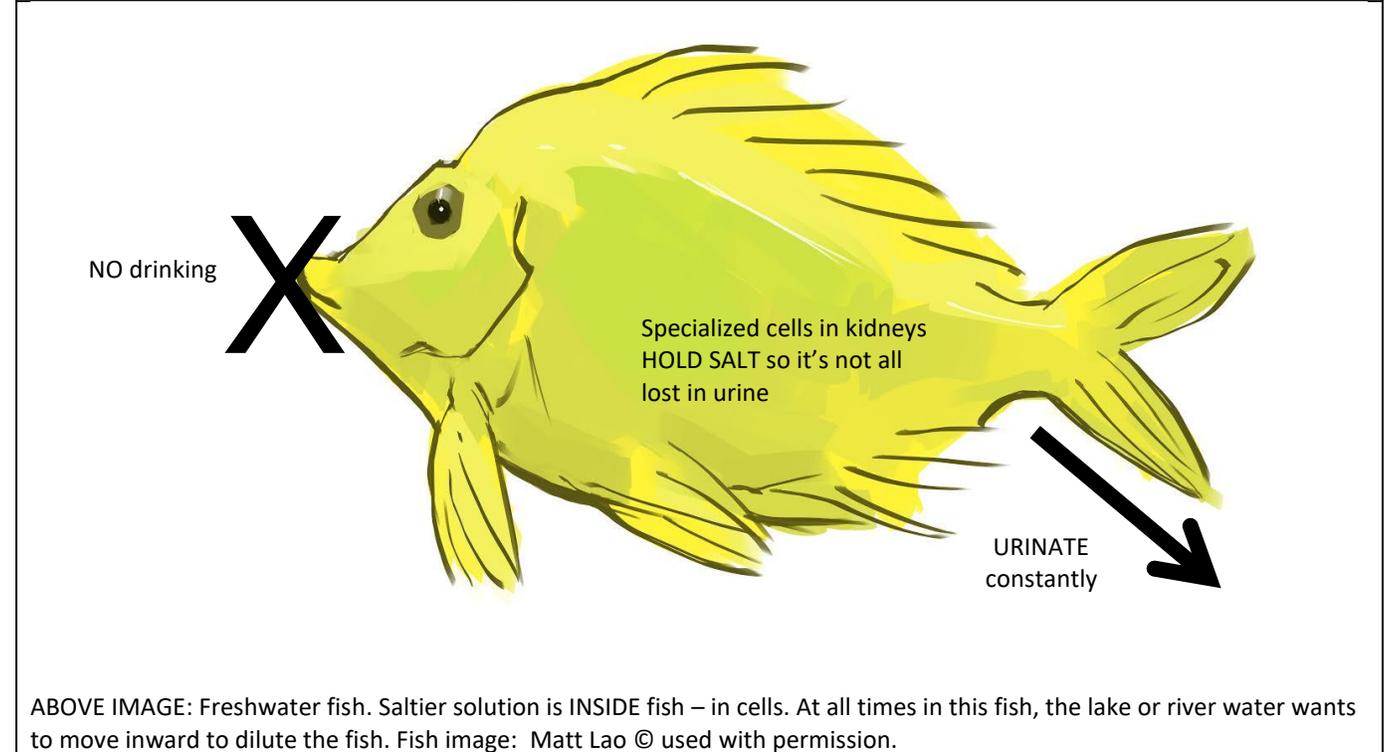
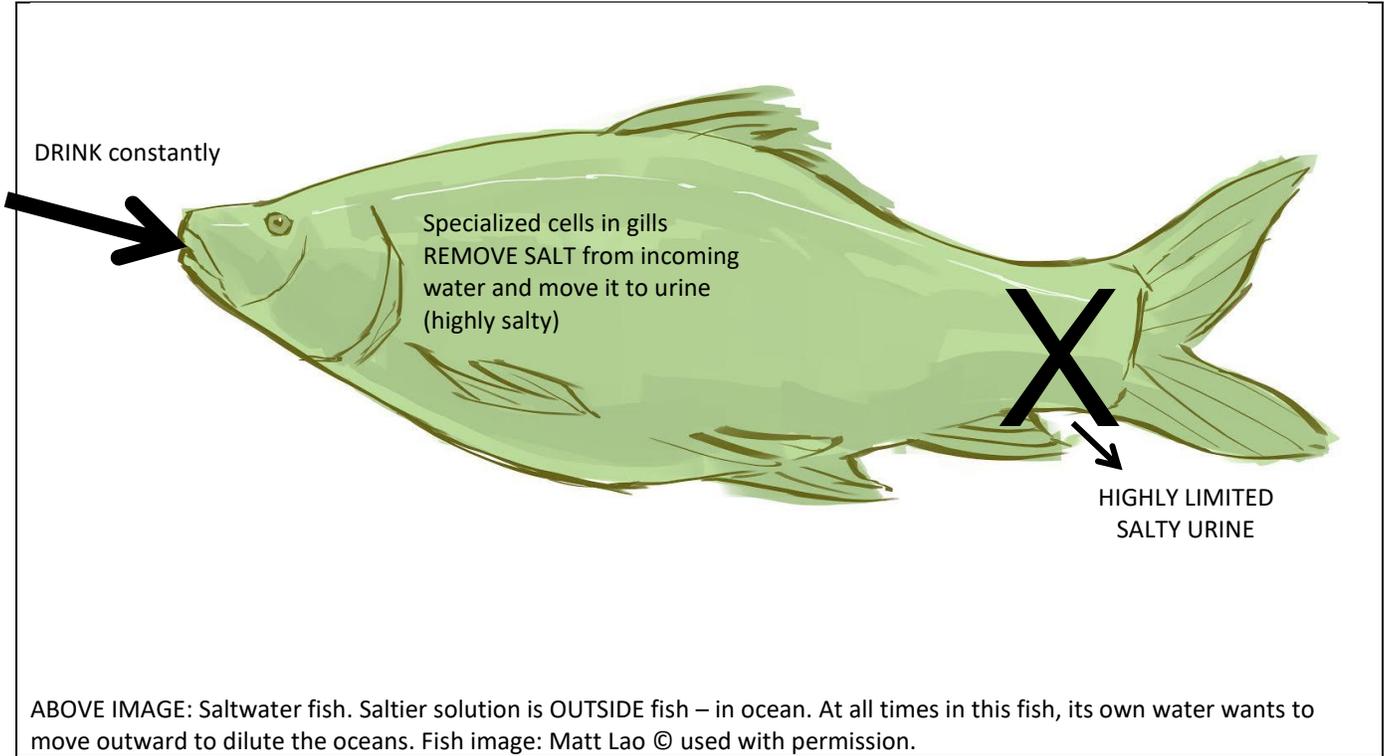
Chambered Nautilus from Palau. These organisms have chambers within their shell (see image below of the cross-sections through a variety of chambered nautilus shells). Above image: CC BY-SA 3.0 – Attribution: Manuae.

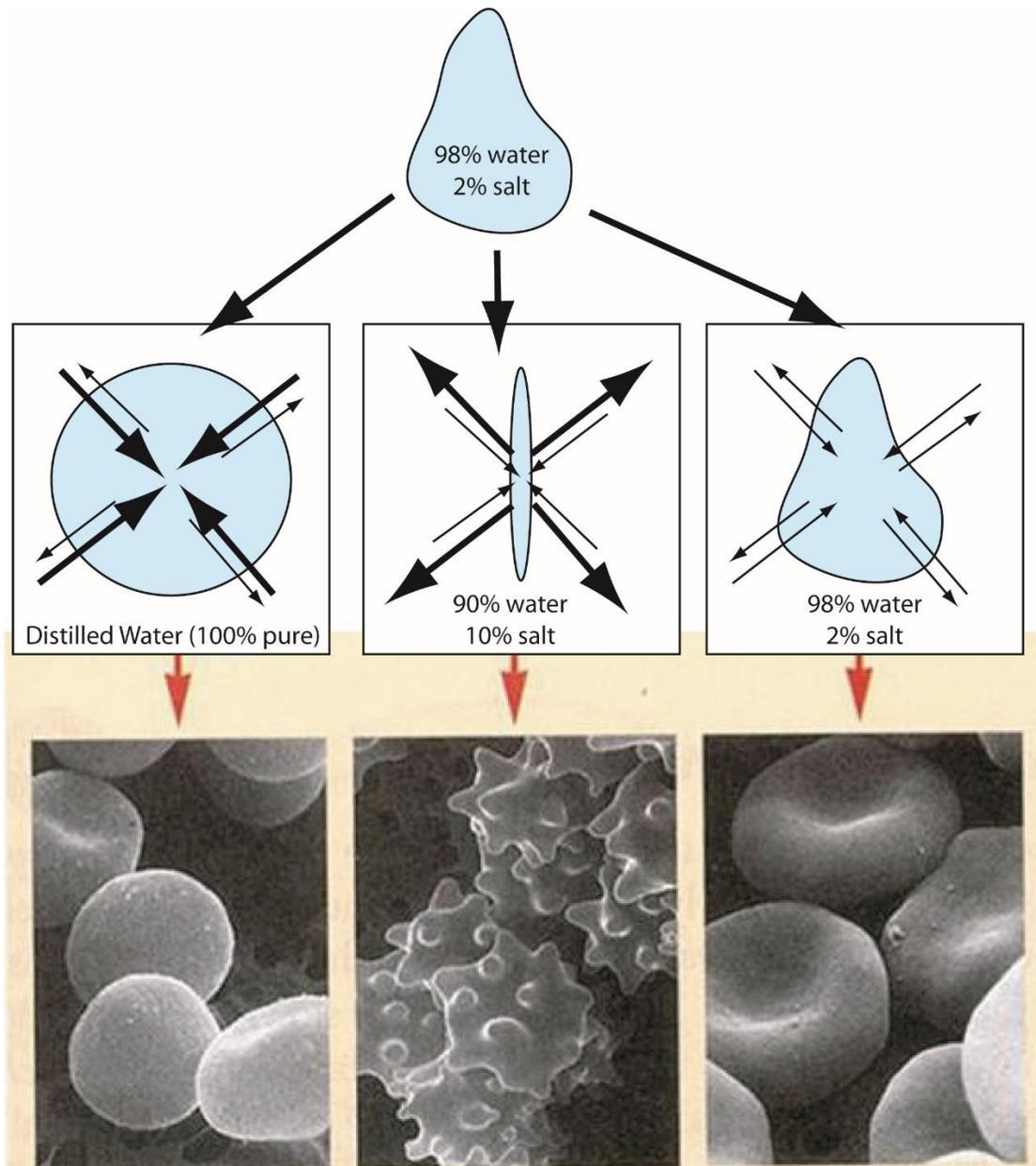
Lower image: CC BY-SA 4.0 – Attribution: Forian Elias Rieser.



FISH & OSMOSIS

Bottom line: during osmosis, only water moves across a cell wall/membrane. It moves in the direction that has the highest dissolved ion concentration. Think of it as “Water follows salt.” Or... water moves in the direction it needs to go to dilute the saltier side, so the two sides have the same salinity.



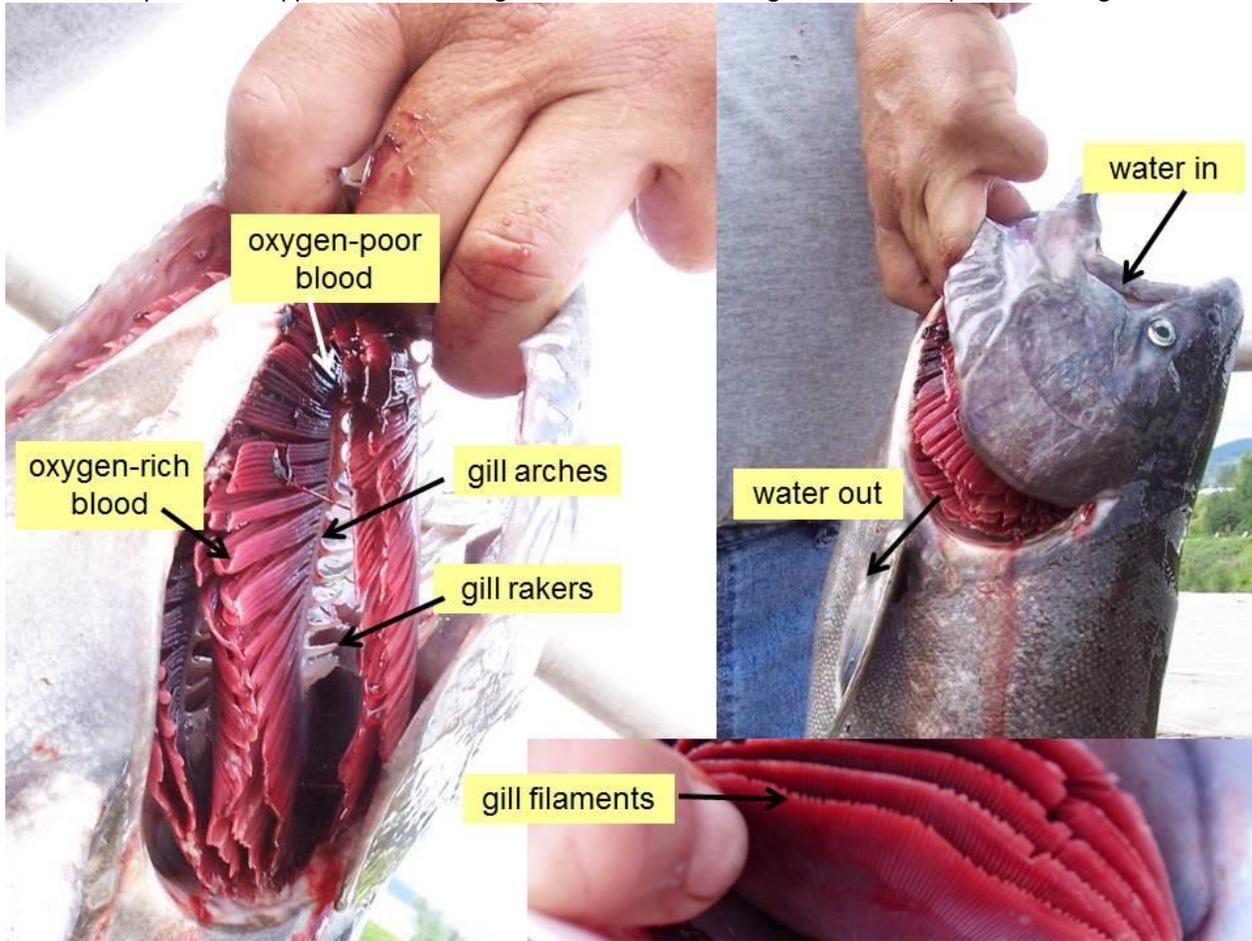


Causes and effects of osmosis in cells. Image modified from original unknown source.

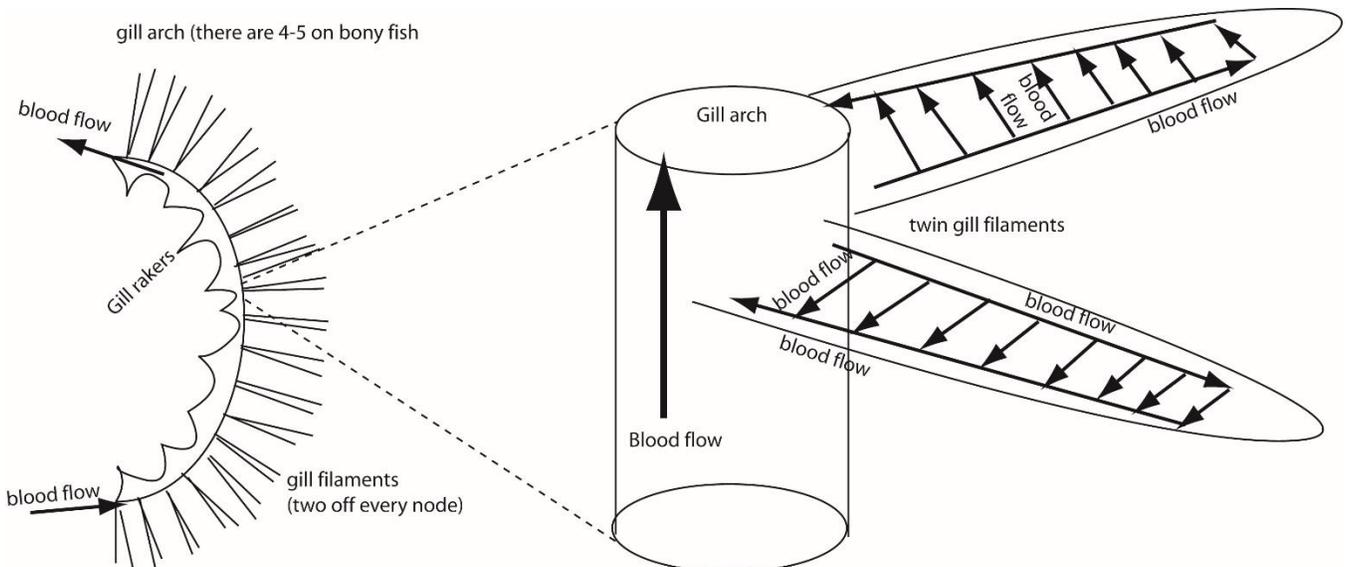
	Salt-water fish	Fresh-water fish
OSMOGREG- ULATION STRATEGIES	Body fluids less salty than surroundings. Uses gills to excrete excess salt; drinks a lot of water and urinates little.	Body fluids more salty than surroundings. Body's cells absorb salt; drinks little water and urinates a lot.
RESULTS IF DOESN'T WORK?	Loses body's water to surroundings, so could desiccate.	Body gains water from surroundings, so could swell and burst.

FISH & GILLS

Fish use gills to exchange gases – bringing in oxygen used for metabolic cellular respiration and removing carbon dioxide produced as a byproduct. Cartilaginous fish have gill slits – Bony fish, an operculum, a single flap that is attached to the mouth and open on the opposite side allowing water that enters through the mouth to pass over the gills and out.



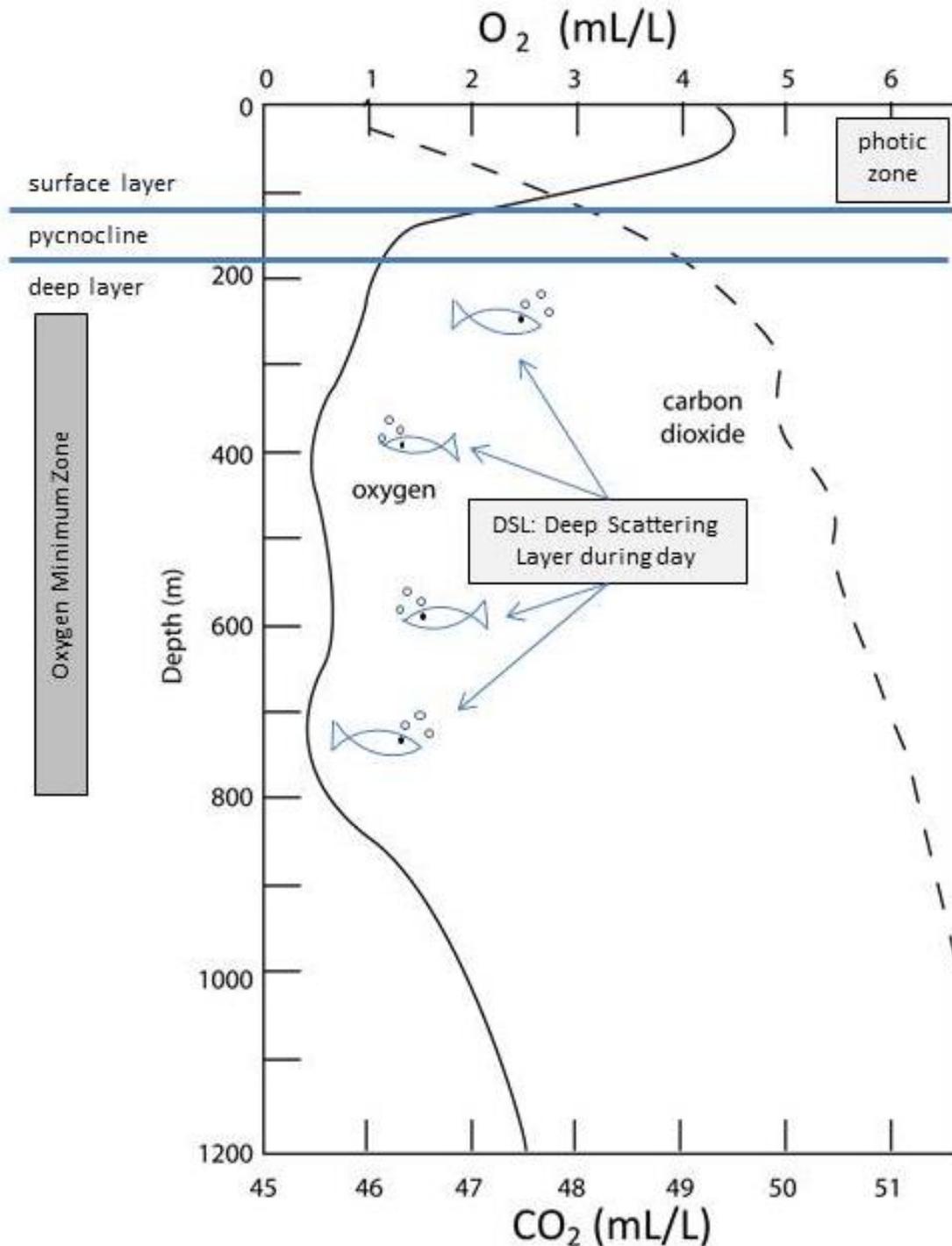
Gills of a salmon, caught in the Bulkley River, British Columbia. NOTE: operculum is flap that covers gills:



Schematic of blood flow through gill arches and filaments. As water moves across the filaments, oxygen diffuses into the blood and carbon dioxide out. 85% of the oxygen available in the water surrounding the gills can be captured by the gills, thanks to their incredibly large surface area.

DEEP SCATTERING LAYER

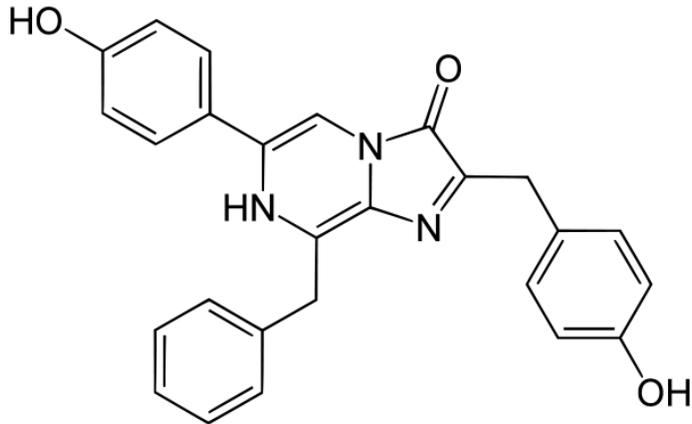
The deep scattering layer (DSL) is the large population of marine heterotrophs like krill, copepods, jellyfish, and small fish that hang out below the photic zone during the day to hide in the safety of darkness from their predators. They deplete oxygen at this depth due to their respiration (and no oxygen sources or even mixing with surface waters – as they are below the pycnocline). They return to the surface at night to feed, again, in the safety of darkness. The autotrophs on which they feed hang out exclusively in the photic zone where there's enough light during the day for photosynthesis. The base of the photic zone is defined as the depth at which only 1% of surface light remains. At that depth, net productivity = 0, which means that the amount of sugar produced through photosynthesis matches exactly the sugar needed for a given organism to survive (but no growth). Below this depth, while there's still enough light for photosynthesis, there's not enough light for autotrophs to meet their own needs. As such, the base of the photic zone is also called the **compensation depth for photosynthesis**.



HOW BIOLUMINESCENCE WORKS

Luciferins are a class of substrates that are naturally present in bioluminescent organisms. We call the luciferin a substrate because it acts as a site for a chemical reaction. First, the enzyme **luciferase** attaches to the outside of the luciferin molecule, which then gives oxygen an attachment site as well. When all three are attached, a chemical reaction produces light, the luciferase is released, and oxyluciferin is the final product.

There are a number of luciferins used by a variety of marine and terrestrial organisms. Bacterial luciferin is found in bacteria, some of which live in colonies within specialized organs in squid and fish species. The light produced by these organisms is actually produced by the bacteria living within them. *Coelenterazine* is a luciferin found in organisms such as radiolarians, cnidarians, squid, copepods, fish, and shrimp. It emits blue light. Dinoflagellate luciferin is a derivative of chlorophyll and is found in dinoflagellates as well as some types of euphausiid shrimp. (Content from Wikipedia.)



Coelenterazine (public domain license)

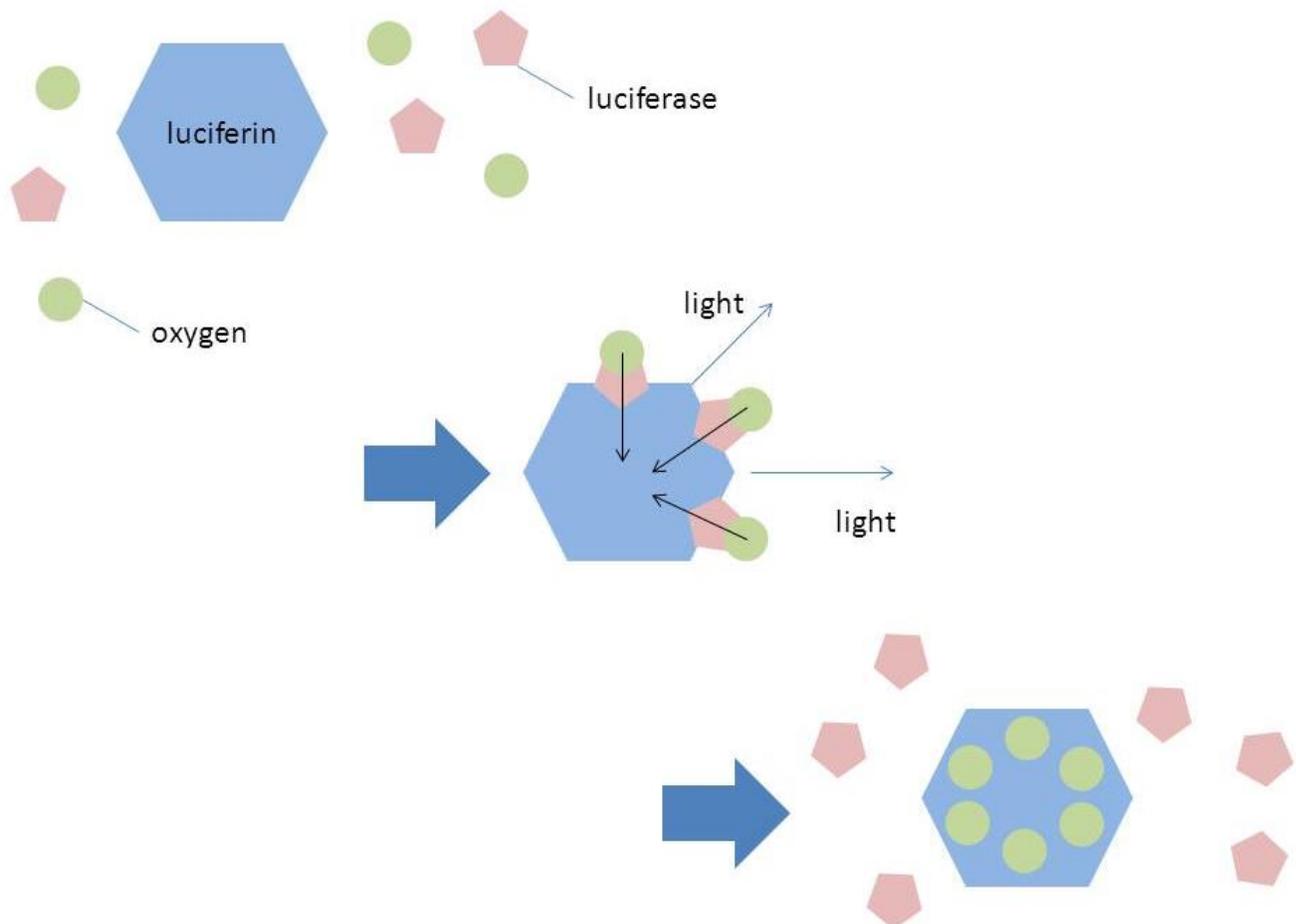
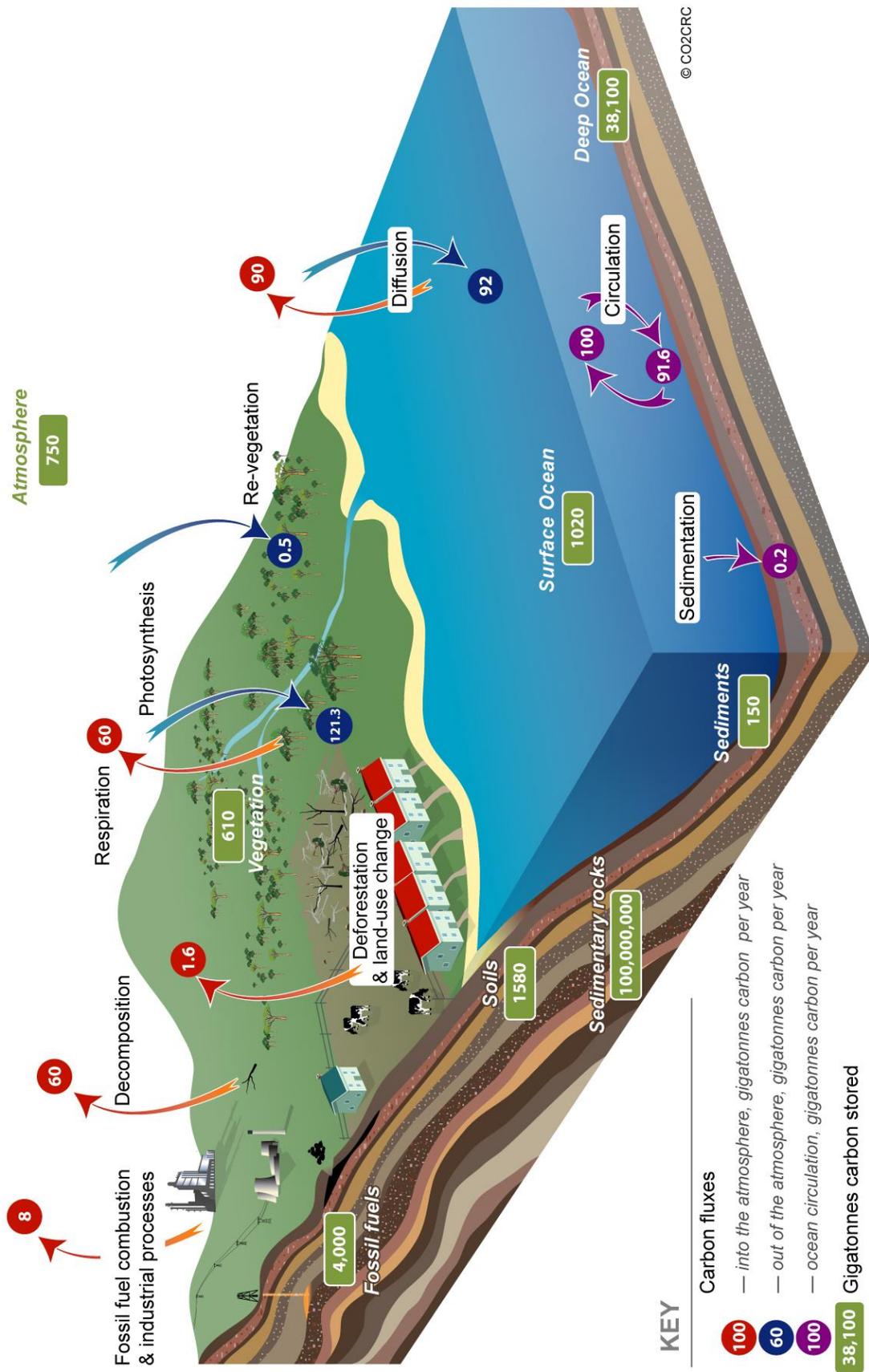


Diagram depicting the chemical process behind bioluminescence.



The average CO₂ storage in a variety of reservoirs (shown with numbers in green squares) and exchanges of CO₂ between different reservoirs. Image source: CO2CRC (used with permission)

Living Organisms Chapter Worksheet

1. What is the size of the smallest organism in the ocean?	2. What is that organism?
3. What is the size of the largest organisms in the ocean?	4. What is that organism?
5. Pelagic organisms that cannot swim faster than currents are (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton) 6. Organisms that live in or on the sea bottom are (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton) 7. Organisms that swim freely from one location to another are (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton) 8. Salmon: (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton) 9. Clams, oysters, mussels: (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton) 10. Seaweed stuck to a rock: (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton) 11. Sargassum weed that floats in currents the Sargasso Sea: (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton) 12. Whales: (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton) 13. Jellyfish: (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton) 14. Diatoms, coccolithophores, radiolarian, foraminifera: (CIRCLE: benthos nekton plankton)	
15. REVIEW: What is the definition of viscosity ?	
16. What type of water is most viscous? (CIRCLE: hot cold fresh salty)	
17. What type of water do microscopic plankton prefer? (CIRCLE: high viscosity low viscosity) Why?	
18. What are some adaptations plankton have developed to help them stay afloat?	
19. Some nekton and plankton use swim bladders or gas containers to help stay afloat. Which of these allows for swift migration up and down the water column without fear of bodily harm? CIRCLE: swim bladder gas container	
20. Which of these is soft and takes time to regulate? CIRCLE: swim bladder gas container	
21. Which types of marine organisms are least likely to be able to handle increasing pressures and thus are absent from the deep ocean? Why?	
22. REVIEW: How much light remains at the base of the photic zone	23. REVIEW: What color of light is absorbed first in seawater?
24. REVIEW: What color of light is absorbed last in open-ocean seawater?	25. REVIEW: What color of light is absorbed last in coastal seawater?
26. What is the name of the base of the photic zone?	
27. What types of organisms reside in the Deep Scattering Layer (DSL) ?	
28. Where and when does the Deep Scattering Layer (DSL) migrate and why?	
29. What is a major consequence of the Deep Scattering Layer (DSL) ? Where? Why?	

30. What are the various reasons that marine organisms use bioluminescence ?		
31. In bioluminescence , how is the light created? (<i>review description in preceding image pages</i>)		
32.	Endothermic	Ectothermic
Definition: internal body temperature set how?		
Food requirements	HIGH Medium LOW	HIGH Medium LOW
Affected by local temp	HIGH Medium LOW	HIGH Medium LOW
Ability to travel widely	HIGH Medium LOW	HIGH Medium LOW
33. What does increased temperature do to ectothermic organisms?		
34. What does decreased temperature do to ectothermic organisms?		
35. What do ectothermic organisms do when the surrounding temperature changes substantially?		
36. Give an example of one kind of organism that benefits from ocean currents , and explain why.		
37. Give an example of one kind of organism that suffers from ocean currents , and explain why.		
38. Diffusion is a type of molecular transport that works quickly across small distances but takes longer across large distances. Molecules move FROM (CIRCLE: high concentration low concentration) TO (CIRCLE high concentration low concentration). Equilibrium is reached when what is true?		
39. Diffusion happens in the lungs of blue whales, the gills of fish, and the cell walls of single-celled organisms. What substance diffuses into the blood from the lungs (or into the blood from the water, in gills)?		
40. What substance diffuses out of the blood into the lungs (or out of the blood into the water, in gills)?		
41. Which organ is the most efficient (allows for the greatest gas transfer)? CIRCLE: Lungs Gills		
42. What is the name of the part of a bony fish that covers its gill filaments?		
43. Which substances would diffuse in or out of a single-celled marine organism? CIRCLE: oxygen carbon dioxide Silica Calcium Waste Nutrients Toxins Pollutants Water		
44. Which substances transfer across a cell wall/membrane during osmosis? CIRCLE: oxygen carbon dioxide Silica Calcium Waste Nutrients Toxins Pollutants Water		
45. What direction does salt move across your body's cell walls during osmosis when you're swimming in seawater? CIRCLE: into the body out of the body neither		
46. What direction does water move across your body's cell walls during osmosis when you're swimming in seawater? CIRCLE: into the body out of the body neither		
47. What direction does salt move across your body's cell walls during osmosis when you're swimming in freshwater? CIRCLE: into the body out of the body neither		
48. What direction does water move across your body's cell walls during osmosis when you're swimming in freshwater? CIRCLE: into the body out of the body neither		

49. REVIEW: Which of the following are sources for the carbon cycle? CIRCLE: volcanic outgassing respiration shell deposition fossil fuel burning rice paddy methane production buried vegetation atmosphere decomposition methane hydrates trapped on sea bottom methane hydrates released (melted) photosynthesis weathering of rocks/shells <i>**Methane hydrates are ice crystals made of water and methane. Formed when methane gas percolates out of marine sediment in deep ocean.</i>			
50. REVIEW: Which of the following are sinks for the carbon cycle? CIRCLE: volcanic outgassing respiration shell deposition fossil fuel burning rice paddy methane production buried vegetation atmosphere decomposition methane hydrates trapped on sea bottom methane hydrates released (melted) photosynthesis weathering of rocks/shells			
51. REVIEW: Where is carbon dioxide gas most abundant in the oceans? Why? CIRCLE: Surface near pycnocline at depth			
52. REVIEW: Where is carbon dioxide gas least abundant in the oceans? Why? CIRCLE: Surface near pycnocline at depth			
53. REVIEW: Which of the following are sources for the oxygen cycle? CIRCLE: photosynthesis decomposition atmosphere respiration burial and sedimentation			
54. REVIEW: Which of the following are sinks for the oxygen cycle? CIRCLE: photosynthesis decomposition atmosphere respiration burial and sedimentation			
55. REVIEW: Where is oxygen gas most abundant ? Why? CIRCLE: Surface near pycnocline at depth			
56. REVIEW: Where is oxygen gas least abundant ? Why? CIRCLE: Surface near pycnocline at depth			
57.	Commensalism	Mutualism	Parasitism
Effect on host?	Benefit Harm Neither	Benefit Harm Neither	Benefit Harm Neither
Effect on symbiont?	Benefit Harm Neither	Benefit Harm Neither	Benefit Harm Neither
Examples:			
58. Which type of symbiosis describes a mixotroph (such as coral that have a garden of algae living within them; the coral feed off their garden and their waste goes directly into fertilizing/providing nutrients to the algae)? CIRCLE: commensalism mutualism parasitism			

Marine Taxonomic Classification Activity

Review the following Taxonomic Classification information, and use it to answer the following questions.

Taxonomic Classification of A SUBSET OF Marine Organisms

(Modified from Garrison T, *Oceanography: An Invitation to Marine Science*, 5th edition, Appendix VI, pp. 475-476)

While you should know the classifications for all the organisms listed here, the **BOLDED TERMS** are the classification levels you are responsible for on exams. Also, please note that this list is a **SUBSET** of marine organisms – there are many more animal phylum, especially various worm phyla, than listed below.

PROKARYOTES (no nucleus, no sexual reproduction) (first evolved 3.8 Ga)

KINGDOM BACTERIA: Single-celled prokaryotes with a single chromosome that reproduce asexually and exhibit high metabolic diversity. Some roles in oceans: base of food chain, converters of nitrogen gas into useful forms for organisms, decomposers. Some species are heterotrophs; some are autotrophs. *Cyanobacteria (stromatolites)*.

KINGDOM ARCHAEA: Superficially similar to bacteria, but with genes capable of producing different kinds of enzymes. Often live in extreme environments. Some species are heterotrophs; some are autotrophs.

***NOTE: Some classifications combine the two kingdoms above into one: MONERA**

+++++

EUKARYOTES (nucleus, sexual reproduction) (first evolved 2.0 Ga)

KINGDOM PROTISTA: Eukaryotic single-celled, colonial, and multicellular autotrophs and heterotrophs.

- single celled
 - PHYLUM CHRYSOPHYTA. Single-celled autotrophs with SiO₂ or CaCO₃ shells:
Diatoms (SiO₂ shells) with two separate valves (halves); coccolithophores (CaCO₃ shells); silicoflagellates.
 - PHYLUM PYRROPHYTA. *Dinoflagellates, zooxanthellae.* Mostly single-celled flagellates with two dissimilar flagella. Heterotrophic and autotrophic forms.
 - PHYLUM SARCODINA. Amoebas and their relatives.
 - Class Rhizopodea. *Foraminiferans.*
 - Class Actinopodea. *Radiolarians.*
- multicelled
 - PHYLUM **BROWN ALGAE** (PHAEOPHYTA). Brown algae, kelps. *Kelps (oakblade kelp, feather boa kelp, giant kelp, bullwhip kelp), sea palms, rockweed.*
 - PHYLUM **RED ALGAE** (RHODOPHYTA). Red algae, encrusting and coralline forms. *Encrusting and articulated coralline algae, brillo pad algae, Neptune's washcloth, sea sacs, iridescent algae, nori.*
 - PHYLUM **GREEN ALGAE** (CHLOROPHYTA). Multicellular green algae. *Sea strings, sea lettuce, ocean pin cushion.*

KINGDOM FUNGI: *Fungi, mushrooms, molds, lichens;* mostly land, freshwater, or highest supratidal organisms; heterotrophic – live in food and digest outside their body.

KINGDOM PLANTAE: Covered seeds. Photosynthetic multicellular autotrophs that evolved from Green algae. Primarily terrestrial. Roots, leaf-bearing shoots; gas exchange through leaves. Waxy coating on leaves prevents excessive water loss. Hardening of cell walls of woody tissues for support on land.

Only division found in marine environment is

DIVISION ANTHOPHYTA. Flowering plants (angiosperms). Most species are freshwater or terrestrial. Marine species include: *eelgrass, manatee grass, surf grass, turtle grass, salt marsh grasses, mangroves.*

KINGDOM ANIMALIA: Multicellular heterotrophs that ingest their food.

KINGDOM ANIMALIA

INVERTEBRATES:

PHYLUM **PORIFERA**. *Sponges*. Simplest of all marine animals. Sessile. Porous. Filter feeders. No nervous, digestive, respiratory, or circulatory system. Diffusion of wastes, nutrients, gases in and out cell walls. (Separate holes for in/out.) Water drawn into pores by beating of flagellated cells inside body. Body walls supported by spicules (SiO₂ or CaCO₃). Filters 3000x body volume/day.

PHYLUM **CNIDARIA**. Jellyfish and their kin; all are equipped with stinging cells; 9,000 species. Radial symmetry. Mouth, the only opening, is shaped like hollow pouch: tentacles line opening. Hollow = digestive cavity. Diffusion moves wastes and gases between mouth and body. No excretory or circulatory system. Reproduce by fission of polyps (sessile; mouth up) usually creating colonies or produce medusae (planktonic; mouth down) forms, which swim away, produce sperm and eggs, which combine to create polyp. (Some species do both.) Carnivores, save rare types with zooxanthellae.

Class Hydrozoa. Polyp-like animals that often have a medusa-like stage in their life cycle, such as *Portuguese man-of-war*, *Hydroids*, *Siphonophores*.

Class Scyphozoa. Jellyfish with no (or reduced) polyp stage in life cycle. *Sea Nettles*, *Moon Jellies*.

Class Cubozoa. *Sea wasps*.

Class Anthozoa. Medusa stage absent. Polyps only. *Sea anemones*, *coral*.

PHYLUM **ECHINODERMATA**. Spiny-skinned, benthic, radially symmetrical, as adults (bilaterally as larvae) most with a water-vascular system: a network of hydraulic canals branching into extensions called tube feet that are used to move, feed, and exchange gases. Internal and external parts radiate from center, often as five spokes. Thin skin covers endoskeleton of hard calcareous plates. Most prickly from skeletal bumps and spines. Digestion with mouth and anus on opposite sides of body. 6000 species. Lack eyes or brain.

Class Asteroidea. *Sea stars*.

Class Ophiuroidea. *Brittle stars*, *basket stars*.

Class Echinoidea. *Sea urchins*, *sand dollars*, *sea biscuits*.

Class Holothuroidea. *Sea cucumbers*.

PHYLUM **BRYOZOA**. Common, small, encrusting colonial marine forms. Most widespread and numerous sessile marine animals. Live inside conjoined calcite square boxes. LOPHOPHORES (all have circular structure spirally wound and lined around entire perimeter with ciliated tentacles). U-shaped digestive tract. No head. Filter feeders.

PHYLUM **MOLLUSCA**. Mollusks. (58,000 marine species). Soft bodied, usually protected by a hard CaCO₃ shell. Three parts to body: muscular foot, usually used for movement; visceral mass containing most internal organs; mantle: a fold of tissue that drapes over visceral mass and secretes shell if one present. Many have toothed radula used for digging holes in rocks, removing algae from rocks, etc. Most have gills, anus, and excretory pores. Obvious heads, flow-through digestion, well-developed nervous system (with brains). Most have separate sexes with gonads (ovaries or testes). U-shaped digestive tract, with incurrent siphon and excurrent siphons.

Class **Polyplacophora**. Shell with eight plates (articulated). Head reduced. *Chitons*.

Class **Gastropoda**. Asymmetric body plan, usually with coiled shell. Foot cannot attach to sand or mud. Grazers, suspension feeders, predators, some planktonic. Radula rasped across rocks, kelp stipes, or surfaces. 43,000 sp. *Snails*, *limpets*, *abalones*, *pteropods*, *sea slugs (nudibranchs; no shells)*, *sea hares*, *whelks*.

Class **Bivalvia**. Enclosed in twin shells. Head reduced. Filter feeders. Paired gills. Dig with foot. Mantle forms siphons that extend to obtain water and eject waste. 13,000 sp. *Clams*, *oysters*, *scallops*, *mussels*, *shipworms*.

Class **Cephalopoda**. Head surrounded by foot, divided into tentacles. Stiff adhesion discs on tentacles (suction cups) catch prey. Sharp beaks tear and bite. Shells reduced, absent, or internal. Locomotion by jet propulsion using siphon made from mantle. 450 species. *Squid*, *octopus*, *nautilus*, *cuttlefish*.

PHYLUM **ANNELIDA**. Segmented bilaterally symmetrical worms. Each segment has its own circulatory, excretory, nervous, muscular, and respiratory systems. Some are specialized, such as the head. 5400 species. Primary Class: Polychaetes (many bristles). Brightly colored or iridescent with pairs of bristly projections extending from each segment. Can be herbivores, carnivores, deposit feeders, filter feeders (tube dwellers). *Feather Duster worm*.

PHYLUM **ARTHROPODA**. Segmented. Body of two or three parts. Three or more pairs of legs. Jointed appendages (pincers, mouthparts, walking legs, and swimming appendages; and two pairs of sensory antennae). Bilateral symmetry. Exoskeleton. Striated muscles. Head with pair of eyes. Flow-through linear digestive tract. Most successful of all animal phyla.

Subphylum Crustacea. Jaw like mandibles (30,000 species). *Copepods*, *barnacles*, *krill*, *isopods*, *amphipods*, *shrimp*, *lobsters*, *crabs*.

Subphylum Chelicerata. Claw like feeding appendages. *Horseshoe crabs*, *sea spiders*.

PHYLUM **CHORDATA**. (45,000 species); four structures appear at some point during lifetime: notochord, dorsal, hollow nerve chord, gill slits, muscular, post anal tail.

Subphylum **Urochordata**. Notochord disappears in adult stage. U-shaped digestion with incurrent and excurrent siphons. Mostly sessile. Filter feeders. Some colonial. Covered by tunic with 2 openings: water in and water out. *Sea squirts, tunicates, salps*.

VERTEBRATES:

Subphylum **Vertebrata**. Notochord or backbone present throughout lifecycle. Flow-through linear digestive tract.

Class **Jawless fishes** (Agnatha). 50 species. Cartilaginous skeleton. Gill slits. Rasping tongue. Notochord. No paired appendages to swim. External fertilization. *Lampreys, hagfishes*.

Class **Cartilaginous fishes** (Chondrichthyes). Cartilaginous skeleton and jaws with teeth. Respiration through gills. Internal fertilization (eggs or live birth); acute senses including lateral line. Paired fins. No swim bladder. Gill slits instead of operculum. *Sharks, skates, rays, sawfish, chimeras*.

Class **Bony fishes** (Osteichthyes). Hard, strong, light-weight bony skeletons and jaws. Operculum covers gills. Most have external fertilization and lay large numbers of eggs. Respiration through gills. Many have swim bladder. *Salmon, pike, parrot fish, barracuda, tuna, eels, sea horses, sea dragons*

Class **Reptilia**. Tetrapods with scaly skin; respiration via lungs; lay amniotic shelled eggs or give live birth. Ectotherms. Special salt glands concentrate and excrete excess salts from body fluids. Except for one turtle, require warm waters. *Sea snakes* (50 species). *Marine crocodile* (1 species): lives in mangrove swamps and reef islands. *Sea turtles*: small streamlines hells without space to retract head or limbs. No predators as adults, save humans.

Class **Birds** (Aves). Tetrapods with feathers. Forelimbs modified as wings. Respiration through lungs. Internal fertilization. Breed on land. Lay eggs on land. Shelled amniotic eggs. Acute vision. Endotherms. *Penguins* (No ability to fly. Use wings to swim. Great maneuverability.) *Gulls*. 115 species. *Pelicans*. // *Albatross, petrels. Tubenoses*. (Beak: sense airspeed, smells, and ducting for removing saline water from glands.)

Class **Mammalia**. Warm-blooded tetrapods with young nourished from mammary glands of females. Hair. Diaphragm that ventilates lungs. Amniotic sac. Most: live birth. 4300 marine species (evolved from land mammals returning to sea 30-40 Ma).

Order **Cetacea**. 79 species. Fish-shaped bodies; paddle-like forelimbs and no hind limbs. Thick layer of insulating blubber.

Suborder Odontoceti: **Toothed whales**; *Pilot whales, belugas, killer whales, bottlenose dolphins. Porpoise. Sperm whale. Narwhales*.

Suborder Mysticeti: **Baleen whales** *Gray whales*. Short baleen. Can sieve bottom seds. // *Humpback, fin, sei, blue, Bryde's, minke*. Dorsal fins and grooved distensible throats expand like balloons. Swallowers. // *Black right whale, bowheads*. Lack grooved throats and dorsal fins. Largest baleen. Skimmers.//

Order **Sirenia**. Herbivores. Possess finlike forelimbs and no hind limbs. *Manatees, Dugongs (sea cows)*.

Order **Carnivora**. Two marine families. Carnivorous. Possess sharp, pointed canine teeth and molars for shearing. Clawed toes.

Suborder Pinnipedia. Flipper-footed. Can safely come out on land to rest, breed, and give birth. Thick, insulating blubber.

Family Phocidae: True seals; No external ear (hole only). Crawl on land because front flippers are small, and hind flippers cannot rotate forward. Swimming power from large, almost fan-like rear flippers. *Harbor seals, elephant seals*.

Family Otariidae: External ear. Rotatable rear flippers: can walk on land. Swimming power from large front flippers. *Fur seal, sea lion*.

Family Odobenidae: Two long tusks. No external ear. Rotatable rear flippers: can walk on land. Two large air pouches extend from each side of the pharynx; inflate to hold head above water when sleeping, or used as resonance chambers for underwater sounds. *Walrus*.

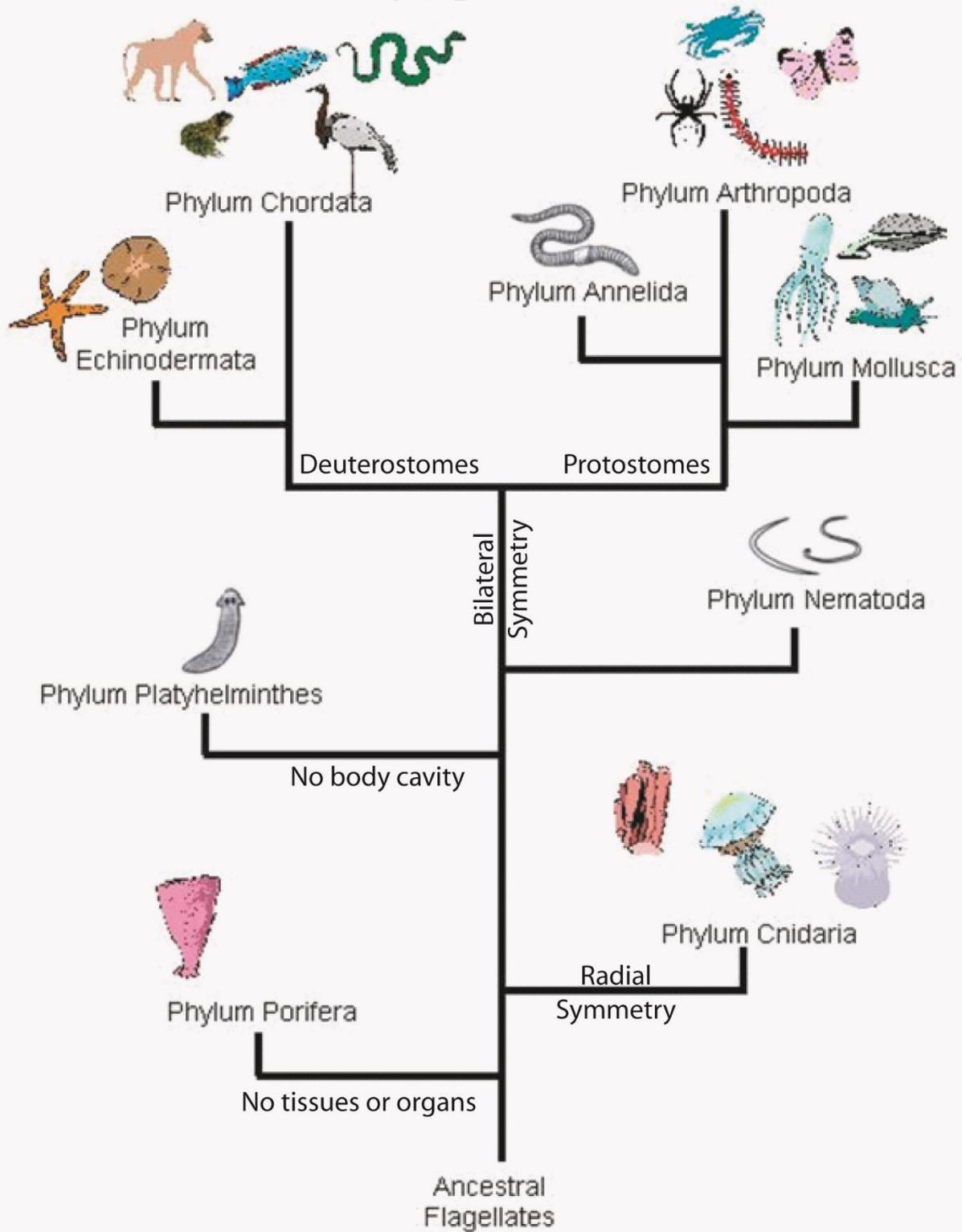
Suborder Fissipedia. Toe-footed carnivores (usually land animals). No blubber – warmth comes from fur.

Family Mustelidae: Smallest marine mammals. Usually do not inhabit the open ocean. Live among coastal kelp beds, where they dive and hunt for a variety of shellfish and marine invertebrates. Exceptionally thick dark fur; a longer tail; no true flippers. *Sea otters*.

Family Ursidae: Bear family. Only marine species: *Polar bear*. Carnivorous. Depends on the ocean for a majority of food. Large head, heavily built body. Stocky legs terminate in paws, with hairy soles, and five claws. Spend most of the winter asleep in a den living off stored fat reserves.

Order Primates. One family that regularly enters the ocean.

Phylogenetic Tree



Evolutionary progression of major marine life forms. Image: modified from original unknown source

PART I: MARINE ORGANISMS CHARACTERISTICS

1. REVIEW: The first organisms to exist on planet Earth: (CIRCLE: eukaryotes prokaryotes) When did they first exist?	
2. REVIEW: Organisms with a nucleus: (CIRCLE: eukaryotes prokaryotes) Organisms with sexual reproduction: (CIRCLE: eukaryotes prokaryotes) Organisms with the highest oxygen needs: (CIRCLE: eukaryotes prokaryotes)	
Kingdoms/Domains	
3. Organisms with roots and covered seeds	CIRCLE: Animals Archaea&Bacteria Fungi Plants Protista
4. Prokaryotes	CIRCLE: Animals Archaea&Bacteria Fungi Plants Protista
5. Eukaryotes	CIRCLE: Animals Archaea&Bacteria Fungi Plants Protista
6. Single-celled autotrophs	CIRCLE: Animals Archaea&Bacteria Fungi Plants Protista
7. Single-celled heterotrophs	CIRCLE: Animals Archaea&Bacteria Fungi Plants Protista
8. Multi-celled autotrophs	CIRCLE: Animals Archaea&Bacteria Fungi Plants Protista
9. Multi-celled heterotrophs	CIRCLE: Animals Archaea&Bacteria Fungi Plants Protista
Animal phyla	
10. Simplest animals – just a body supported by glass spicules and covered in pores (no mouth or digestive tract) CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
11. 5-radiating body structure, water vascular system, tube feet, and spiny extrusions covering endoskeleton CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
12. No brain CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
13. Makes its own stinging cells, radial symmetry, mouth is only opening CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
14. Usually has a shell of some kind, a foot, a mantle, and internal organs including u-shaped digestive tract CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
15. U-shaped digestive tract, lives in calcium carbonate houses conjoined into encrusting or branching forms. CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
16. Worms with identical segments (but with specialized head) and flow-through digestion. CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
17. Segmented body, flow-through digestion, paired appendages and antennae, striated muscles, exoskeleton CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
18. Most complex of all animals – most recently evolved – advanced nervous system with nerve chord CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
19. Eyes CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera Chordata	
Mollusk classes	
20. Chitons – shells made of 8 articulated plates	CIRCLE: Polyplacophora Gastropod Bivalve Cephalopod
21. Snails, limpets, abalone – just one shell	CIRCLE: Polyplacophora Gastropod Bivalve Cephalopod
22. Mussels, clams, oysters, scallops – two hinged shells CIRCLE: Polyplacophora Gastropod Bivalve Cephalopod	
23. Octopus, squid, cuttle fish, nautilus – most intelligent of all invertebrates CIRCLE: Polyplacophora Gastropod Bivalve Cephalopod	
24. Chordata subphyla Loses back bone after larval stage	CIRCLE: Urochordata Vertebrata
Vertebrata classes	
25. Endotherms	CIRCLE: Birds Bony fish Cartilaginous fish Jawless fish Mammals Reptiles
26. Have jaws	CIRCLE: Birds Bony fish Cartilaginous fish Jawless fish Mammals Reptiles
27. Lay eggs	CIRCLE: Birds Bony fish Cartilaginous fish Jawless fish Mammals Reptiles
28. External fertilization	CIRCLE: Birds Bony fish Cartilaginous fish Jawless fish Mammals Reptiles
29. Cartilaginous skeletons	CIRCLE: Birds Bony fish Cartilaginous fish Jawless fish Mammals Reptiles
30. Lungs – breathe air	CIRCLE: Birds Bony fish Cartilaginous fish Jawless fish Mammals Reptiles
Mammal orders	
31. Four limbs – spend some time on land	CIRCLE: Carnivora Cetacea Sirenia
32. Live in mangrove swamps and eat sea grasses	CIRCLE: Carnivora Cetacea Sirenia
33. Have hair or fur	CIRCLE: Carnivora Cetacea Sirenia
34. At least some have NO blubber	CIRCLE: Carnivora Cetacea Sirenia

PART II: MARINE ORGANISMS MATCHING

Move the following marine organisms to their correct taxonomic classification row below. Abalone, Barnacle, Blue Whale, Branching Bryozoan, California Gray Whale, Chiton, Clam, Copepod, Coral, Crab, Crocodile, Dolphin, Feather Duster Worm, Giant Green Sea Anemone, Great White Shark, Hagfish, Harbor Seal, Killer Whale, Krill, Lamprey, Limpet, Lobster, Manatee, Moon Jelly, Moray Eel, Mussel, Nautilus, Octopus, Pelican, Penguin, Salmon, Sand Dollar, Scallop, Sea Cow, Sea Cucumber, Sea Gull, Sea Horse, Sea Lion, Sea Otter, Sea Snail, Sea Star, Sea Turtle, Sea Urchin, Shrimp, Snail, Sperm Whale, Sponges, Squid, Sting Ray, Tuna, Tunicate, Walrus. **Example shown for sponges.**

PORIFERA <i>sponges</i>			
CNIDARIA			
ARTHROPOD			
BRYOZOANS			
MOLLUSCA	Polyplacophora		
	Gastropod		
	Bivalve		
	Cephalopod		
ANNELID			
ECHINODERM			
CHORDATA	Urochordata		
	Vertebrata	Jawless fish	
		Cartilaginous fish	
		Bony fish	
		Reptile	
		Aves	
	Mammal	Cetacea	Toothed whale
			Baleen whale
		Sirenia	
		Carnivora	

Weekly Reflection

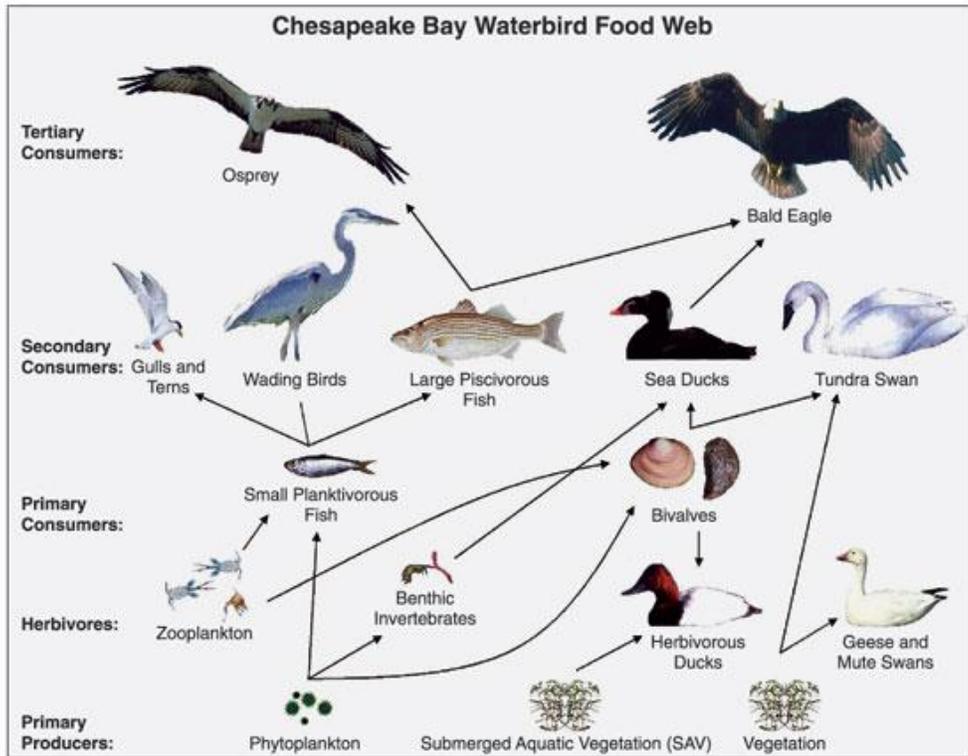
Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week’s objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Evaluate the similarities, differences, and evolutionary progression of marine organisms by classifying them by taxonomy, location, energy needs, and behaviors.	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast the variable impacts of ocean viscosity, light availability, currents, and pressures on the marine organism behavior and distribution, including adaptations developed to maximize success in a variety of environments.	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast the processes of osmosis and diffusion and their uses by and impacts on marine life.	A B C D F	
Evaluate the sources, sinks, transport mechanisms, and distribution of carbon and oxygen gases and nutrients in the oceans.	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast symbiotic relationships among marine organisms.	A B C D F	

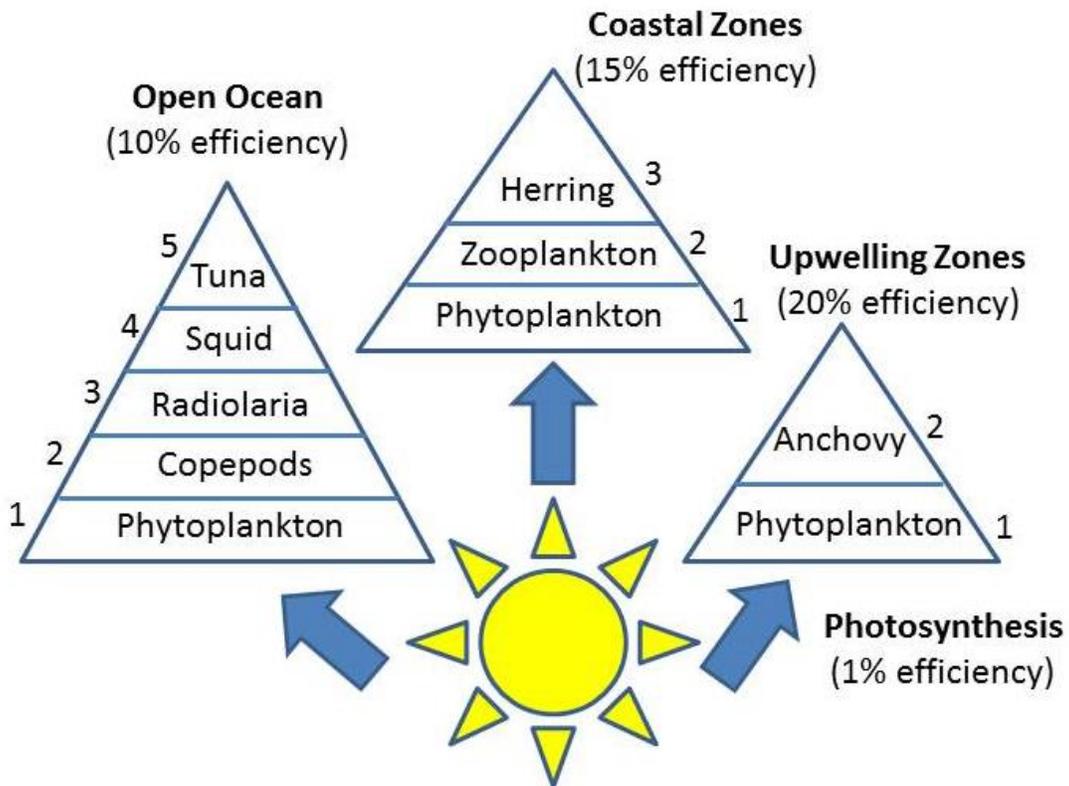
AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you’ve always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

PRODUCTIVITY & PLANKTON



Chesapeake Water bird Food Web – USGS – Energy transfer efficiency is 1% from sunlight to photosynthesizers, and approximately 10% from trophic level 1 (producers) to trophic level 2 (and subsequent levels as well). Note that a single organism might eat at multiple levels. For example: bivalves are filter feeders. They filter all plankton out of the water – zooplankton and phytoplankton – when eat the former, they are at trophic level 3; the latter, trophic level 2.



Energy flow through sample food pyramids. (Trophic Levels noted with numbers.)

Marine Autotrophs

PROKARYOTES (no nucleus, no sexual reproduction) (first evolved 3.8 Ga)

KINGDOM BACTERIA: Single-celled prokaryotes with a single chromosome that reproduce asexually and exhibit high metabolic diversity. Some roles in oceans: base of food chain, converters of nitrogen gas into useful forms for organisms, decomposers. Some species are heterotrophs; some are autotrophs. *Cyanobacteria (stromatolites)*.

KINGDOM ARCHAEA: Superficially similar to bacteria, but with genes capable of producing different kinds of enzymes. Often live in extreme environments. Some species are heterotrophs; some are autotrophs.

EUKARYOTES (nucleus, sexual reproduction) (first evolved 2.0 Ga)

KINGDOM PROTISTA: Eukaryotic single-celled, colonial, and multicellular autotrophs and heterotrophs.

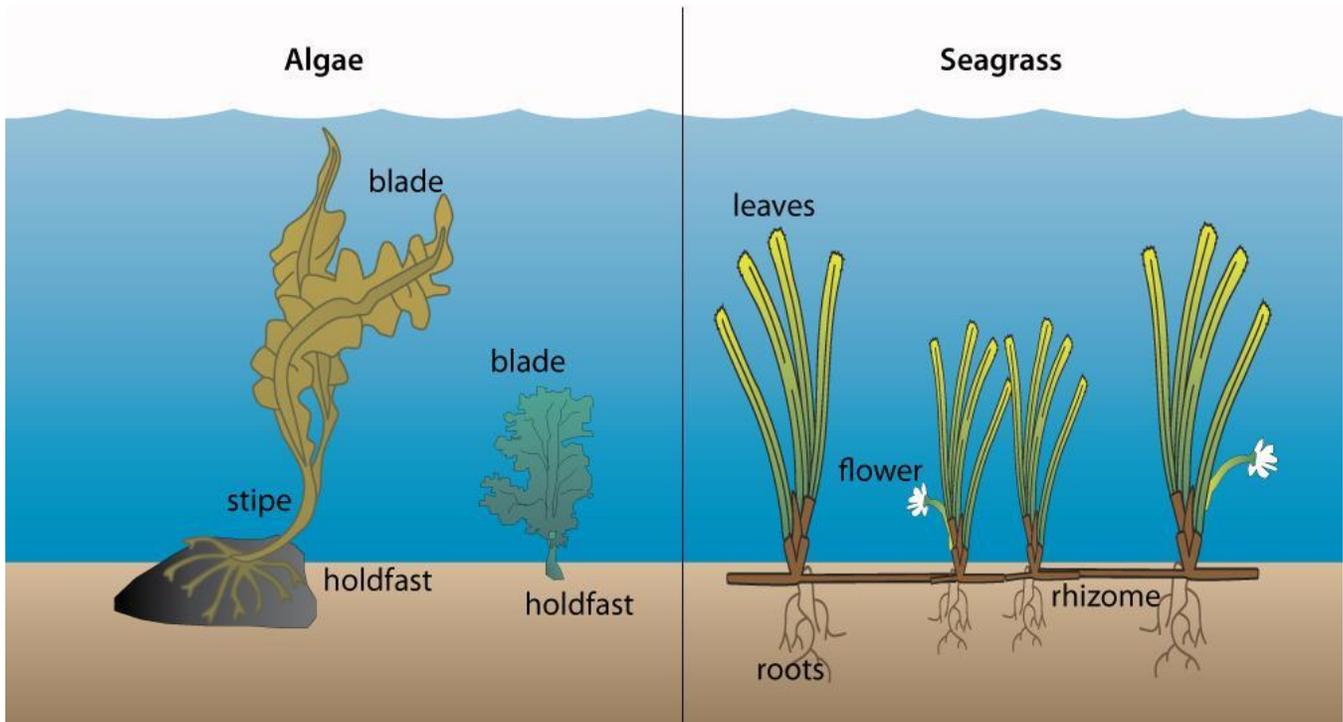
- | | | |
|---------------|---|--|
| single celled | { | PHYLUM CHRYSOPHYTA. Single-celled autotrophs with SiO ₂ or CaCO ₃ shells:
<i>Diatoms (SiO₂ shells) with two separate valves (halves); coccolithophores (CaCO₃ shells); silicoflagellates.</i> |
| | | PHYLUM PYRROPHYTA. <i>Dinoflagellates, zooxanthellae.</i> Mostly single-celled flagellates with two dissimilar flagella.
Heterotrophic and autotrophic forms. |
| multicelled | { | PHYLUM BROWN ALGAE (PHAEOPHYTA). Brown algae, kelps. <i>Kelps (oakblade kelp, feather boa kelp, giant kelp, bullwhip kelp), sea palms, rockweed.</i> |
| | | PHYLUM RED ALGAE (RHODOPHYTA). Red algae, encrusting and coralline forms. <i>Encrusting and articulated coralline algae, brillo pad algae, Neptune's washcloth, sea sacs, iridescent algae, and nori.</i> |
| | | PHYLUM GREEN ALGAE (CHLOROPHYTA). Multicellular green algae. <i>Sea strings, sea lettuce, ocean pin cushion.</i> |

KINGDOM PLANTAE: Covered seeds. Photosynthetic multicellular autotrophs that evolved from Green algae. Primarily terrestrial.

Roots, leaf-bearing shoots; gas exchange through leaves. Waxy coating on leaves prevents excessive water loss. Hardening of cell walls of woody tissues for support on land.

Only division found in marine environment is

DIVISION ANTHOPHYTA. Flowering plants (angiosperms). Most species are freshwater or terrestrial. Marine species include: *eelgrass, manatee grass, surf grass, turtle grass, salt marsh grasses, mangroves.*



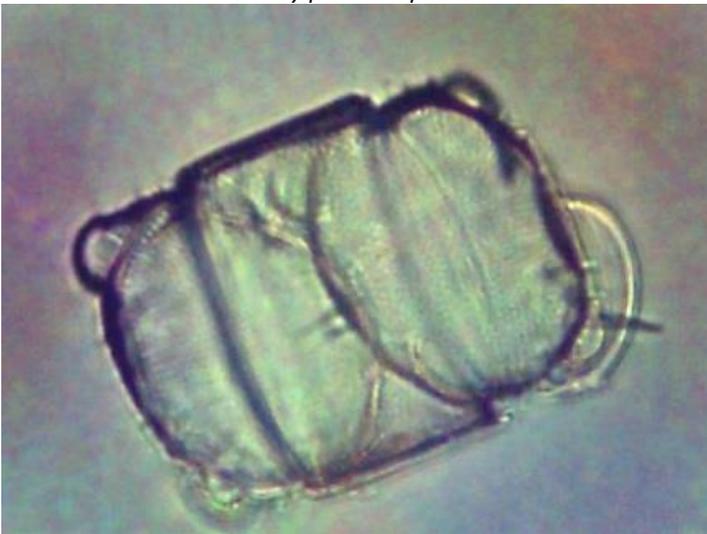
Kelp (Protista, Brown Algae) vs Seagrass (Plants). Note that with plants, nutrients and water needed by plant are gathered through roots. In algae, any part of the body can absorb both water and nutrients in the water. Image courtesy of the Integration and Application Network (ian.umces.edu), University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science



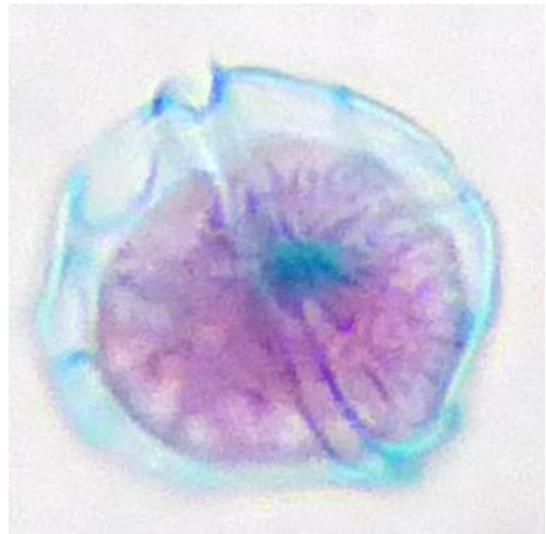
Chain Diatoms – SF Bay plankton photo – Melissa DuBose



Dinoflagellate, Noctiluca (bioluminescent)



Diatom, Rhizosolenia, Pillow-shaped species (Sediment)



Dinoflagellate – false color



Arthropod, Copepod, Calanoid, 2 mm, Melissa DuBose



Copepod larvae ~1 mm (nauplius) M. DuBose

Global Productivity Patterns

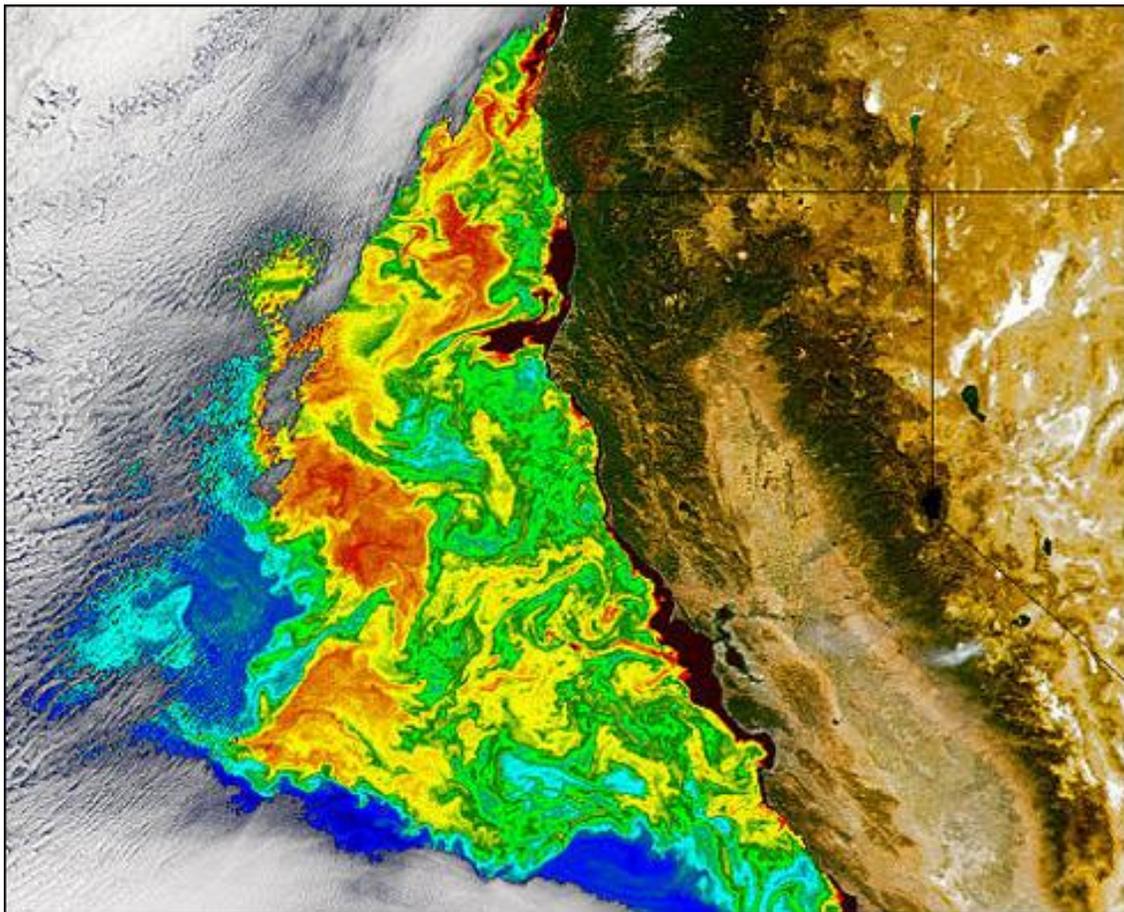
Seas	Highest productivity?	Lowest productivity?	Why?
Polar seas	Summer	Winter	Nutrients always high, because no thermocline, but sunlight insufficient until summer.
Temperate seas	Spring and Fall	Summer and Winter	Winter no sunlight; Summer no nutrients because of thermocline.
Equatorial & tropical seas	Never	Always	Always a thermocline.

Sample Zooplankton

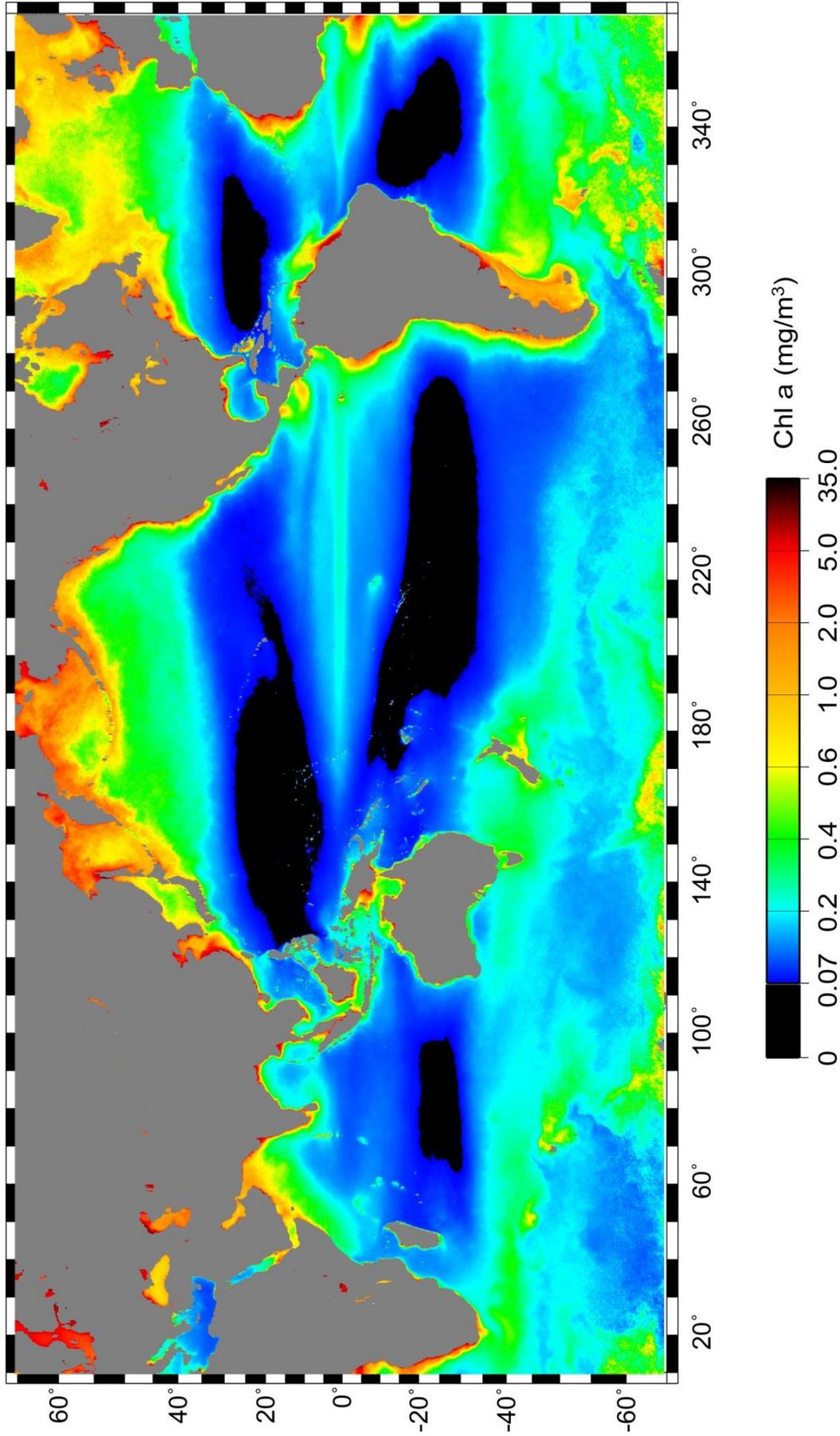
Radiolaria	Foraminifera	Copepod	Jellyfish
Single-celled heterotrophic protista that moves and feeds by cellular extensions. Shells made of SiO ₂ . PROTISTA – Sarcodina – Actinopodea.	Single-celled heterotrophic Protista that moves and feeds by cellular extensions. Shells made of CaCO ₃ . PROTISTA – Sarcodina – Rhizopodea.	Multicelled heterotroph with exoskeleton that molts. Filter feeder. ARTHROPOD	Multicelled heterotroph with stinging cells on tentacles surrounding mouth. Suspension feeder. CNIDARIAN

Sample Phytoplankton

Diatom	Dinoflagellate	Coccolithophores
Single-celled autotroph with SiO ₂ shell. PROTISTA – Chrysophyta	Single-celled autotroph (usually, some species are heterotrophic) with no shell, but two flagella. PROTISTA – Pyrrophyta	Single-celled autotroph with CaCO ₃ shells (like pineapple rings). VERY small. 2 flagella and a haptoneme. PROTISTA – Chrysophyta



“The ocean areas of the above image (collected on 6 October 2002) are color coded to show chlorophyll concentrations. A bright rainbow of colors are mapped to the amount of chlorophyll concentrations in the ocean off the coast of California. Bright reds indicate high concentrations and blues indicate low concentrations. Since phytoplankton moves with the ocean currents, the pattern of chlorophyll concentrations reveal intricate patterns of ocean currents.” NASA



*Global chlorophyll – a measurement of productivity – averaged over 1 years’ time on the planet. NOAA
 NASA can measure chlorophyll-bearing phytoplankton remotely with satellites, because chlorophyll reflects predominantly green light into space.*

Productivity & Plankton Chapter Worksheet

1.	What types of organisms account for 90% to 96% of the ocean's primary productivity?
2.	Chlorophyll: CIRCLE: is essential to photosynthesis is a pigment is a sunlight collector CIRCLE: is present in some photosynthesizing autotrophs is present in all photosynthesizing autotrophs CIRCLE: reflects all light but green reflects green light only reflects no light reflects all light
3.	A red accessory pigment (all by itself) will absorb which colors? CIRCLE: Red Orange Yellow Green Blue Violet None
4.	A red accessory pigment WITH chlorophyll will absorb which colors? CIRCLE: Red Orange Yellow Green Blue Violet None
5.	REVIEW: What color of light is the only one remaining at the base of the coastal photic zone?
6.	Which pigments would NOT be useful for photosynthesis in this zone? Why not?
7.	What are the three main roles of bacteria in the world's oceans?
8.	What happens during nitrogen fixation? By whom?
Marine Autotrophs	
9.	Photosynthesizing species in this classification all contain chlorophyll CIRCLE: Archaea/Bacteria Brown algae Green Algae Red algae Protista (other phyla) Plants
10.	Most evolved CIRCLE: Archaea/Bacteria Brown algae Green Algae Red algae Protista (other phyla) Plants
11.	Have holdfasts, stipes, and blades CIRCLE: Archaea/Bacteria Brown algae Green Algae Red algae Protista (other phyla) Plants
12.	Kelp CIRCLE: Archaea/Bacteria Brown algae Green Algae Red algae Protista (other phyla) Plants
13.	Roots and covered seeds CIRCLE: Archaea/Bacteria Brown algae Green Algae Red algae Protista (other phyla) Plants
14.	Contain single-celled organisms CIRCLE: Archaea/Bacteria Brown algae Green Algae Red algae Protista (other phyla) Plants
Phytoplankton	
15.	Has flagella CIRCLE: Coccolithophore Diatom Dinoflagellate
16.	Has shell of SiO ₂ CIRCLE: Coccolithophore Diatom Dinoflagellate
17.	Has shell of CaCO ₃ CIRCLE: Coccolithophore Diatom Dinoflagellate
18.	Has no shell, so doesn't contribute to deep-sea muds and oozes CIRCLE: Coccolithophore Diatom Dinoflagellate
19.	Photosynthesizing autotroph CIRCLE: Coccolithophore Diatom Dinoflagellate
20.	The amount of sugar or food produced by autotrophs living in an area MINUS the amount they use up daily to supply their own respiration needs: CIRCLE: gross primary productivity net primary productivity
21.	What are the two limiting factors for marine productivity?
22.	REVIEW: What ARE nutrients? Give definition and some examples.

23. Which of the following are sources for the nutrient cycle? CIRCLE: rivers rock weathering decomposition bacterial fixation of N ₂ gas nodule/sediment deposition organism growth and ingestion
24. Which of the following are sinks for the nutrient cycle? CIRCLE: rivers rock weathering decomposition bacterial fixation of N ₂ gas nodule/sediment deposition organism growth and ingestion
25. Where are nutrients most abundant when there is a pycnocline? Why? CIRCLE: Surface near pycnocline sea bottom
26. Where are nutrients least abundant when there is a pycnocline? Why? CIRCLE: Surface near pycnocline sea bottom
27. At what latitudes are nutrients always abundant at the surface? Why?
28. At what latitudes are nutrients never abundant at the surface? Why?
29. At what latitudes are nutrients seasonally abundant at the surface? When? Why?
30. Nutrients are also abundant at the surface in the area of what two latitude-independent phenomena/features?
31. Which of the following is true of the compensation depth ? Circle all that apply: base of the photic zone net primary productivity = 0 Photosynthesizing organisms can survive below this depth Photosynthesis can still happen below this depth, but not enough to supply energy needs of individual
32. Where/when in the oceans is productivity high at the surface? Why?
33. Where/when in the ocean is productivity low at the surface? Why?
34. What types of organisms can cause harmful algal blooms (those that produce neurotoxins).
35. What are the primary results of these kinds of harmful algal blooms ?
36. What are the primary causes of these kinds of harmful algal blooms ?
37. The effects of a harmful algal bloom as described above (species of algae produce neurotoxins) are different from the effects of a regular plankton bloom in an enclosed waterway (as discussed in the Marine Environmental Challenges Video Tutorial). What are the effects of this latter type of bloom?

Biological Productivity Activity

<p>1. What are the sources and sinks that impact the amount of dissolved nutrients present at the surface of the oceans? (Remember: nutrients are dissolved ions like nitrates and phosphates – the building blocks of cells – which heterotrophs get from their food, but which autotrophs must pull from the water if they are to grow.)</p>	
<p>Nutrient (include Nitrate) SOURCES</p>	<p>Nutrient (including Nitrate) SINKS</p>
<p>2. Look in your workbook at the last figure in the Currents chapter, where you see the average global sea surface nitrate levels (nutrients). What patterns do you see? Describe what the data show about where there's high vs low nitrate levels. Then based on known sources and sinks, explain the reasons for the nutrient patterns you see in that image.</p>	
<p>OBSERVATIONS</p>	<p>EVALUATIONS</p>
<p>3. How would you expect variations in surface NUTRIENTS to impact marine life?</p>	
<p>RESULTS OF TOO-HIGH NUTRIENTS</p>	<p>RESULTS OF TOO-LOW NUTRIENTS</p>
<p>4. Based on what you know about biological productivity globally, and the factors that impact it locally, how would you expect productivity to vary throughout the year?</p>	
<p>Processes that would make biological productivity INCREASE</p>	<p>Processes that would make biological productivity DECREASE</p>
<p>5. Look in your workbook at the figures for Biological Productivity, where you see the average global sea surface chlorophyll levels. Since chlorophyll exists only in photosynthesizing organisms, we can measure chlorophyll to determine total biological productivity in an area. What patterns do you see? Describe what the data show about where there's high vs low chlorophyll levels. Based on known sources and sinks, explain below the reasons for the biological productivity patterns you see in that image.</p>	
<p>OBSERVATIONS</p>	<p>EVALUATIONS</p>
<p>6. How do we measure chlorophyll from satellites?</p>	

7. Based on what you know about biological productivity globally, and the factors that impact it locally, sketch below the pattern for productivity variation throughout the year in the northern hemisphere off a coast **near the poles**.



Biological Productivity Increasing

Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec

8. Sketch below the pattern for productivity variation throughout the year in the northern hemisphere off a coast **near the equator with no upwelling**.



Biological Productivity Increasing

Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec

9. Sketch below the pattern for productivity variation throughout the year in the northern hemisphere off a coast **at mid-latitudes with no upwelling**.



Biological Productivity Increasing

Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec

Weekly Reflection

Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week’s objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Compare and contrast the variety of marine autotrophs that collectively contribute to marine productivity , including their relative abundance, behaviors, impacts, distribution, and classifications.	A B C D F	
Recognize, compare, contrast, and classify a variety of marine plankton by feeding method, life cycles, and distribution .	A B C D F	
Compare and contrast food webs and trophic pyramids and evaluating the movement of energy through these systems.	A B C D F	
Evaluate the causes and impacts of harmful algal blooms .	A B C D F	

AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you’ve always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

NEKTON & BENTHOS



mostly shelled organisms

SPRAY ZONE
(periwinkle snails, limpets)

Spring High Tide

HIGH TIDE ZONE
(periwinkle snails, limpets, buckshot barnacles)

Neap High Tide

MIDDLE TIDE ZONE
(mussels, sea lettuce, chitons, limpets, hermit crab, rockweed, acorn barnacles, abalone, goose-necked barnacles, aggregating anemone)

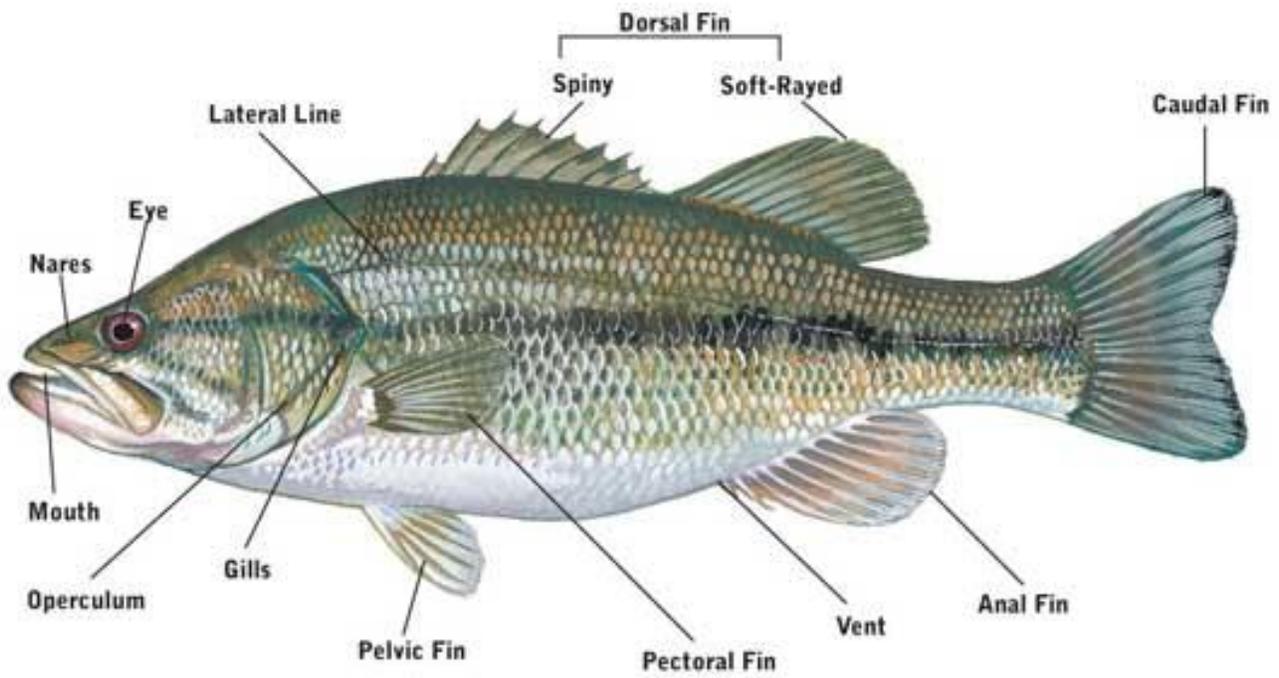
Neap Low Tide

LOW TIDE ZONE
(sea urchin, feather boa kelp, sea palm kelp nudibranchs, gumboot chitons, octopus, sea stars, sea anemone, sea cucumber sponges)

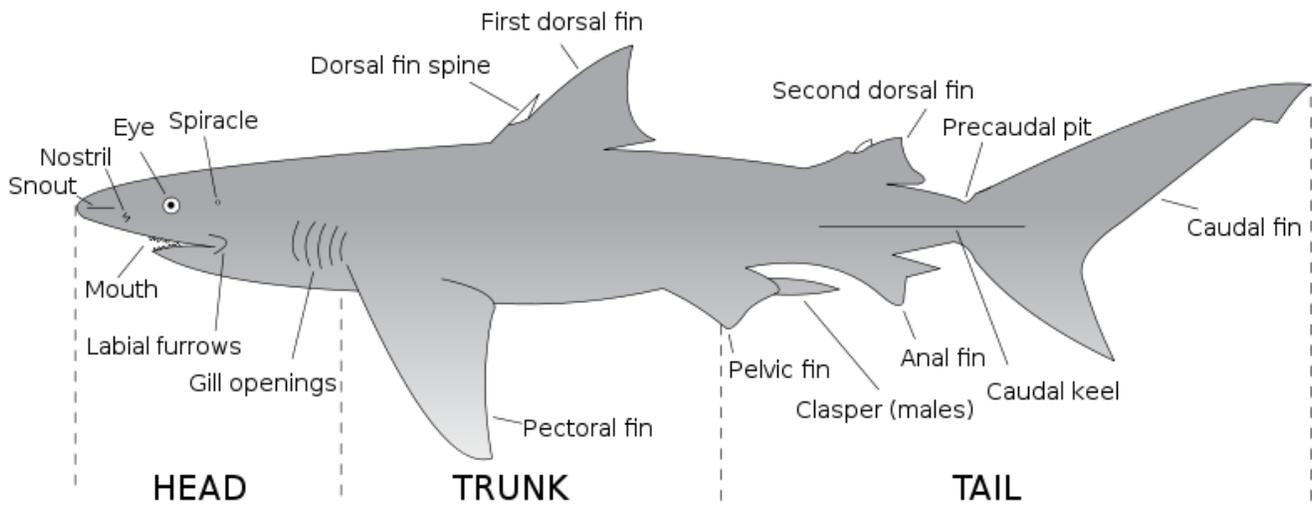
Spring Low Tide

SUBTIDAL ZONE
(octopus, giant kelp, bullwhip kelp and more...)

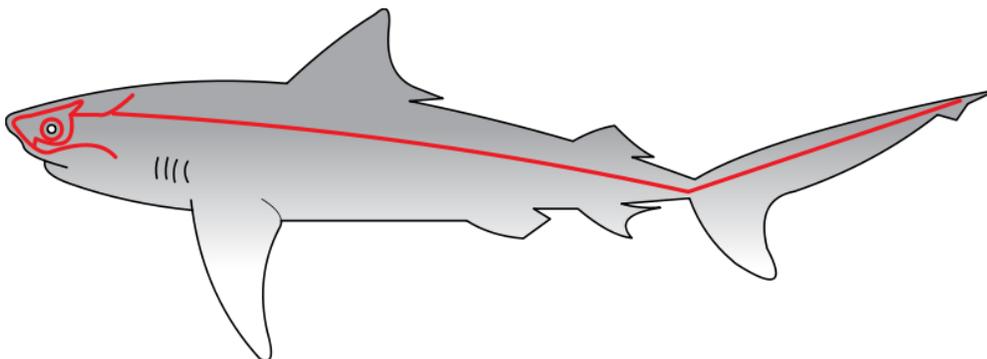
mostly soft-bodied organisms



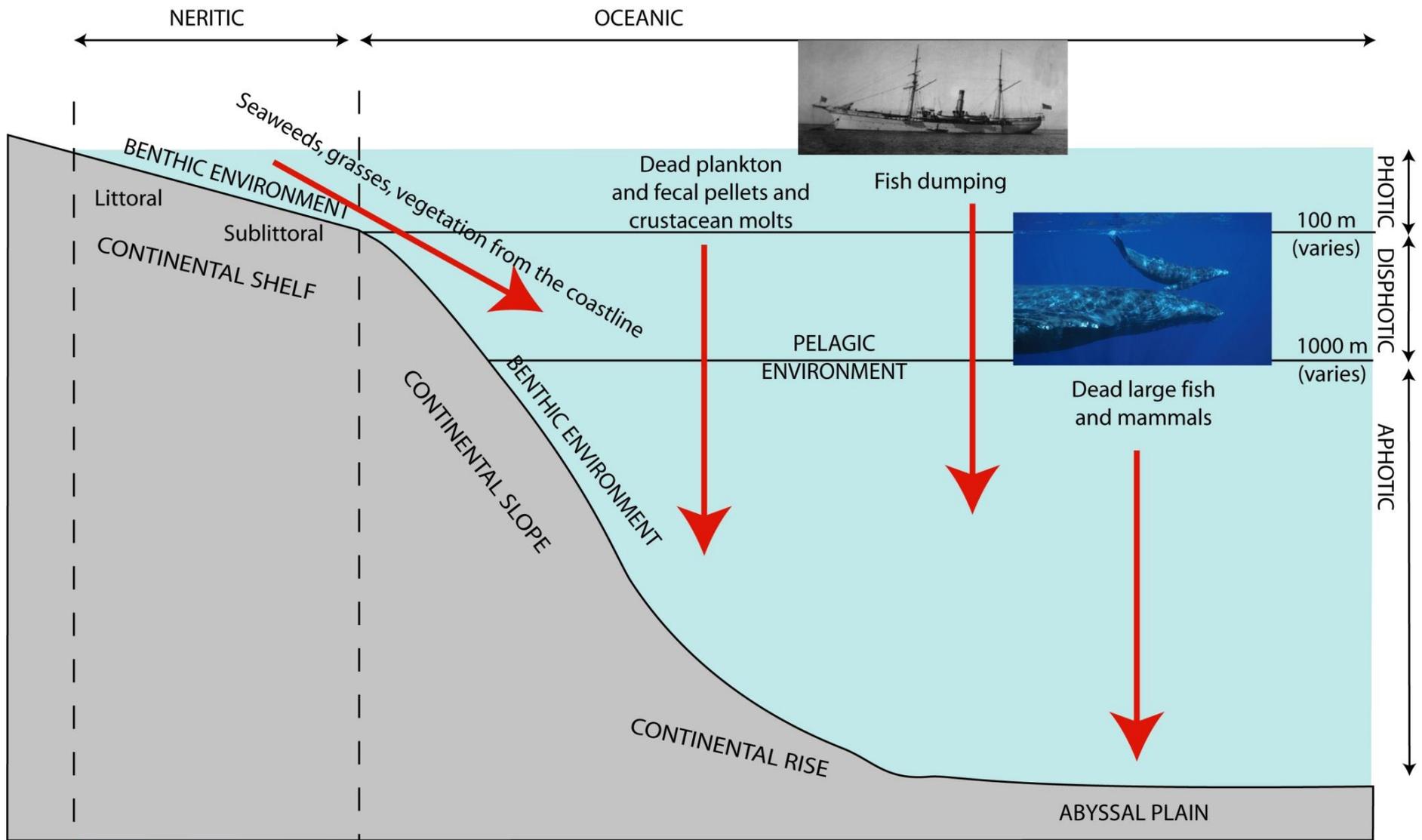
Bony fish fins and morphology. Image: South Carolina Department of Natural Resources



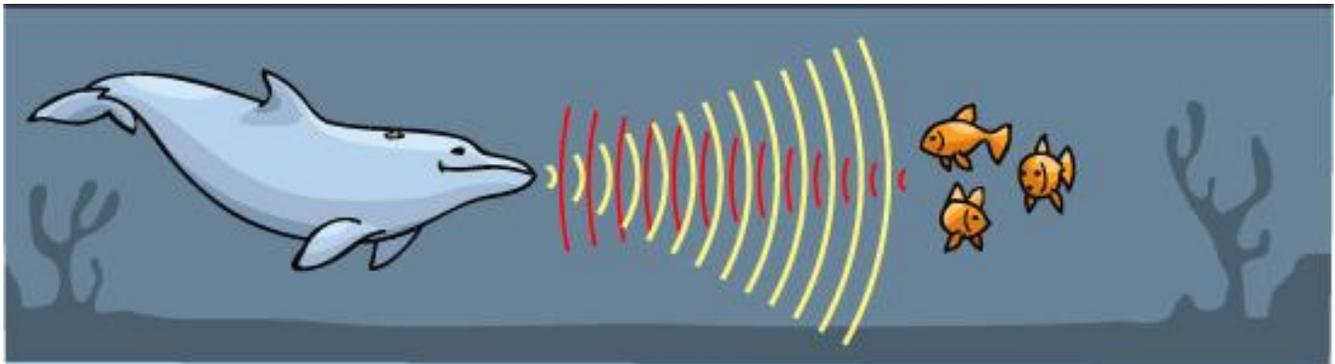
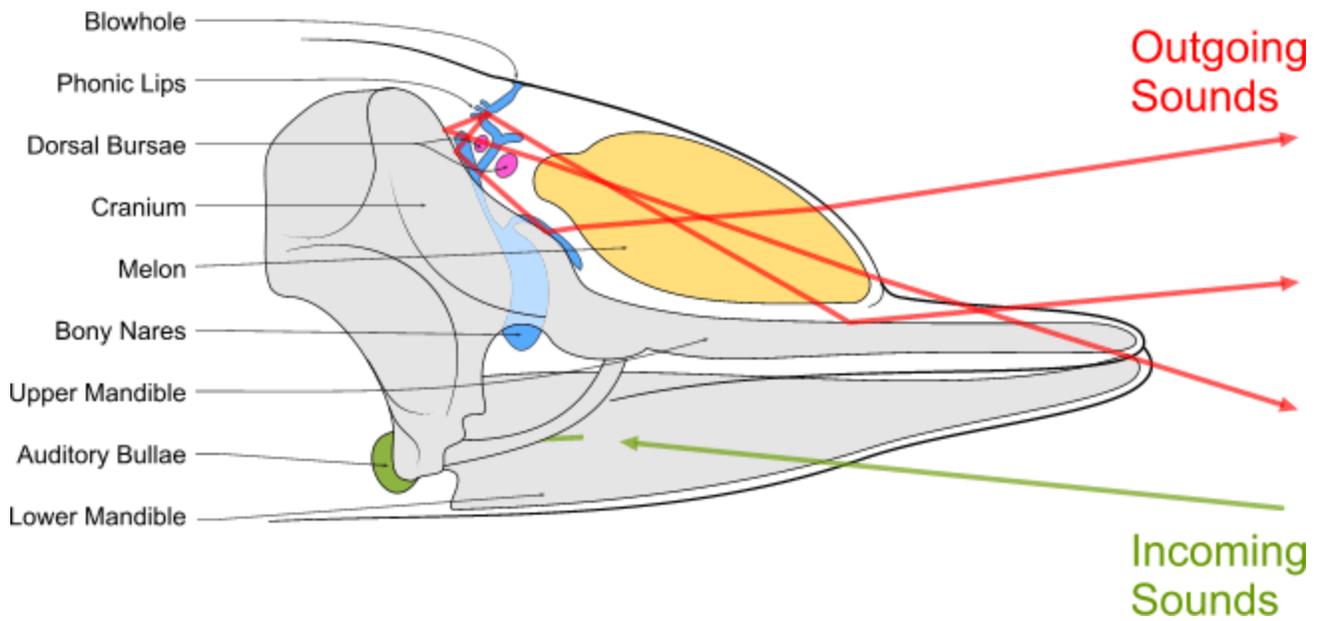
Shark (cartilaginous fish) fins and morphology. Image: Public Domain



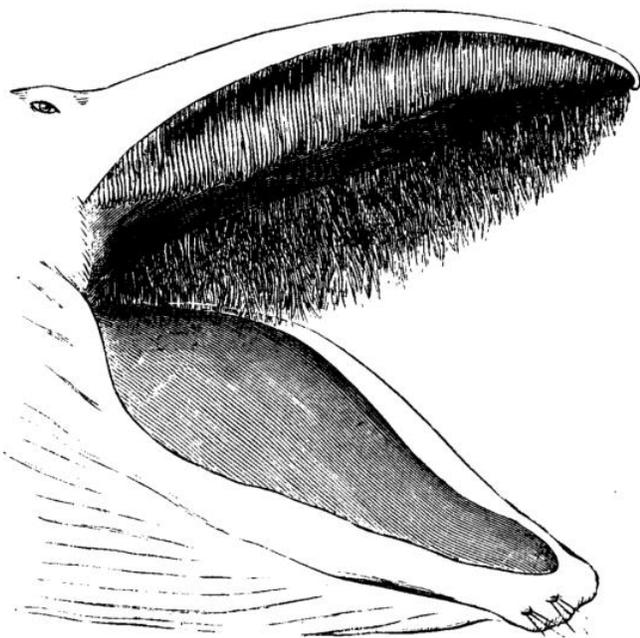
Shark lateral line image: Public Domain



Detritus sources to abyssal plain. Comparison of Benthic (seafloor) and Pelagic (water column) environments and the Neritic (near shore – over the continental shelf) and Oceanic (offshore – deeper than the continental shelf) provinces. Photoc zone is depths where sunlight is still available at least 1% of surface values. Disphotoc zone is where available light is between zero and 1% of surface light. The Aphotic zone has no light available.



Echolocation in dolphin (toothed whales). Sound waves are produced through blowhole, reflected off skull, focused by melon to project outward in a particular direction. Reflected sound waves return to the dolphin and are felt as vibrations in the jaw bone, which are then interpreted by the brain. Images by *Emoscope (top)* and *Ask a Biologist (bottom)* – CC BY-SA 3.0,



Baleen whale – closeup of mouth with distensible grooved throat for gulping large amounts of water (like filling a balloon), and baleen plates hanging from the upper jaw. When jaw is closed, the water is squeezed out through the baleen plates, and anything larger than the baleen filter is trapped inside the mouth. A large tongue wipes across the inner baleen plates, and the food is swallowed. Image: Public Domain – Wikimedia.

Hot Vent Community

Occupants: <i>Tube worms, clams, mussels, crabs, shrimp, microbial mats, chemosynthetic bacteria</i>	
Dynamics: Hot water rich in sulfide minerals percolates out of ground. Chemosynthesis of the H ₂ S gas and sulfide minerals = base of food chain. Limited life span for organisms (vents disappear after a while or heat up more and fry the surrounding critters). Chimneys around vents are made of precipitated Cu, Zn, Ag sulfides.	Location: 3000-1000 m deep along rift valleys at seafloor spreading centers

Cold Seep Communities

Occupants: <i>microbial mats, sea stars, shrimp, crab, clams, mussels, limpets, snails, brittle stars, anemones, tube worms.</i>

Hypersaline Seep

Dynamics: Brines with normal water temp, but salinity as high as 46.2 ppt. Bottom of food chain is chemosynthesis of H ₂ S and CH ₄ .	Location: Below 3000 m depth at base of continental slope, seeping onto abyssal plain.
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Subduction Zone Seep

Dynamics: Gas from underlying sedimentary structures seeps upward through ocean sediments and to the sea bottom. Same water temp as surroundings, but with lots of CH ₄ (methane gas), which buried sediments produced. Bottom of food chain are methane oxidizers (chemosynthesis)	Location: 1300-5500 m depth. Japan Trench, Cascadia Subduction Zone, Peru Chile Trench
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Hydrocarbon Seep

Dynamics: Oil and gas seeps through ocean sediment (similar seep process as above, but liquids seeping upward instead of gas). Bottom of food chain chemosynthesize CH ₄ or H ₂ S.	Location: Gulf of Mexico – shallow on the shelf, near oil and gas deposits.
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Challenge	Adaptations
Desiccation at low tide	Seek shelter or withdraw into shells; thick skin or shell to prevent water loss. <i>Sea slugs, snails, crabs</i>
Strong wave activity	Strong holdfasts to prevent being washed away; strong attachment threads, muscular foot, or tube feet to allow to attach firmly to bottom. <i>Sea stars, mussels, kelp, snails, limpets, chiton</i>
Low tide predators	Firm attachment, Stinging cells, Camouflage, Inking response, Regenerative limbs. <i>Sea stars, mussels, octopus, anemones, sea slugs</i>
Difficulty finding mates for attached species	Release of large numbers of egg/sperm into water. <i>Abalones, urchins</i>
Rapid changes in T, salinity, pH, and O ₂	Ability to withdraw into shells to minimize exposure to rapid changes. Ability to exist in varied temperatures, salinity, etc. (euryhaline, eurythermal, etc.) <i>Snails, barnacles</i>
Lack of abundant attachment sites	Organisms attach to others. <i>Bryozoans, corals, anemones</i>

Feeding method (Definition & Examples)
Deposit feeder: Organisms that feed directly off sediment – removing the food items from the sediment. <i>Sea cucumbers, worms, sand crabs, shrimp, lobster</i>
Grazer: Organisms that feed directly on autotrophs – going to the source. <i>Some snails, Limpets, Chitons, some urchin</i>
Filter feeder: Organisms that feed off primarily plankton filtered out of the water column. Filter feeders actively move themselves or a body part through the water to trap organisms. <i>Copepods, Whales, Sand dollars, Sponges, Tunicates, Barnacles, Bryozoans, Feather Duster Worm</i>
Suspension feeder: Organisms that have tentacles or spikes that lie in wait until another organism impales itself or is caught. Suspension feeders cannot control their motion quickly enough to catch prey. <i>Corals, Jellyfish, Anemones, Radiolarian, Foraminifera</i>
Predators: Organisms that hunt and eat live animals. <i>Fish, Carnivora, Reptiles, Birds, some urchin, some snails, cephalopods</i>

Nekton & Benthos Chapter Worksheet

Feeding methods	
1. Jellyfish and anemones	CIRCLE: Grazer Deposit Feeder Filter Feeder Suspension Feeder Predator
2. Scavengers	CIRCLE: Grazer Deposit Feeder Filter Feeder Suspension Feeder Predator
3. Gastropods that scrape algae off rocks	CIRCLE: Grazer Deposit Feeder Filter Feeder Suspension Feeder Predator
4. Sea stars that pry mussels apart and feast on the insides	CIRCLE: Grazer Deposit Feeder Filter Feeder Suspension Feeder Predator
5. Killer whale	CIRCLE: Grazer Deposit Feeder Filter Feeder Suspension Feeder Predator
6. Blue whale	CIRCLE: Grazer Deposit Feeder Filter Feeder Suspension Feeder Predator
7. California Gray Whales	CIRCLE: Grazer Deposit Feeder Filter Feeder Suspension Feeder Predator
8. Which of the following items can be found in detritus ?	CIRCLE: shells feces dead carcasses sunken decomposing seaweeds molts plastic styrofoam
9. What types of organisms feed almost exclusively on detritus ?	benthos nekton nektobenthos plankton
10. Which of the following is true of baleen ?	CIRCLE: made of the same material as teeth made of the same material as fingernails used by all cetacean used by only some cetacean can be used to filter feed can be used to bottom feed can be used to hunt individual prey
11. Echolocation	CIRCLE: requires a melon or spermaceti organ uses jaw bone as a reflected wave collector used by toothed whales used by baleen whales uses sound waves uses light waves can be used to determine distances to objects can be used to determine density of object
12. Which of the following organisms are migrants?	CIRCLE: gray whales great white sharks tuna lobster arctic terns eels DSL harbor seals albatross salmon corals anemones
13. Why do organisms migrate?	
14. In the pelagic zone (NOT benthic) on what do deep-sea fishes feed?	
15. What are some adaptations deep-sea fish have developed to aid them in survival?	
16. Which fish have the most sensitive lateral lines?	CIRCLE: Bony Fish Cartilaginous Fish Jawless Fish
17. Which of these are valid reasons why fish school?	CIRCLE: protection in masses easier to hunt confuse predators (look big) easier to find mates swim faster communication
18. What do we call the process where a favored species can outcompete other species for resources, driving the unfavored species to extinction and reducing the diversity of a community?	
Intertidal zonation	
19. Between High Spring and High Neap Tides	CIRCLE: High Tide Zone Low Tide Zone Middle Tide Zone Spray Zone Subtidal Zone
20. Between Low Spring and Low Neap Tides	CIRCLE: High Tide Zone Low Tide Zone Middle Tide Zone Spray Zone Subtidal Zone
21. Highest zone on a beach:	CIRCLE: High Tide Zone Low Tide Zone Middle Tide Zone Spray Zone Subtidal Zone
22. Highest portions of this zone are rich in mussels	CIRCLE: High Tide Zone Low Tide Zone Middle Tide Zone Spray Zone Subtidal Zone
23. Where kelp live:	CIRCLE: High Tide Zone Low Tide Zone Middle Tide Zone Spray Zone Subtidal Zone
24. Where organisms live that can handle the least amount of water	CIRCLE: High Tide Zone Low Tide Zone Middle Tide Zone Spray Zone Subtidal Zone
25. Where organisms live that can handle the least amount of exposure	CIRCLE: High Tide Zone Low Tide Zone Middle Tide Zone Spray Zone Subtidal Zone

26. Intertidal stresses – How are these organisms adapted to handle the following intertidal challenges?		
	Barnacles	Sea stars
Desiccation during low tide		
Strong wave activity		
Low tide predators		
Difficulty finding mates for attached species		
Rapid changes in temp, salinity, pH, and O ₂		
Lack of abundant attachment sites		
27. Which phylum of organisms is most likely to molt?		
28. Why and how do they molt?		
29. Which of the following is true of hermatypic coral reefs ? CIRCLE: found only where no rivers are nearby requires nearby rivers CIRCLE: requires warm waters requires cool waters can't survive really hot waters CIRCLE: must have hard substrate to grow on can grow on sands and muds CIRCLE: requires clear salty water can survive in all types of salinity can survive in all types of clarity CIRCLE: requires no wave activity requires mild wave activity to provide O ₂ requires high wave activity CIRCLE: Free floating Sessile Polyps		
30. Which of the following is true of coral bleaching ? CIRCLE: means coral are dead means coral are in danger CIRCLE: represents loss of zooxanthellae represent infestation with zooxanthellae CIRCLE: means coral have no food source means coral have limited food sources		
31. Through what methods do hermatypic corals feed? CIRCLE: Grazer Deposit Feeder Filter Feeder Suspension Feeder Predator		
32. What is the animal phylum that contains corals? CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Chordata Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera		
33. Nudibranchs steal stinging cells from what other animal phylum? CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Chordata Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera		
34. They do so by eating which type of organism from that phylum? CIRCLE: free floating sessile polyps		
35. Nudibranchs are themselves part of what animal phylum? CIRCLE: Annelid Arthropod Bryozoa Chordata Cnidarian Echinoderm Mollusk Porifera		
36. Which of the following seeps/vents are cold? CIRCLE: hydrocarbon seeps hydrothermal vents hypersaline seeps subduction zone seeps		
37. Which of the following seeps/vents are hot? CIRCLE: hydrocarbon seeps hydrothermal vents hypersaline seeps subduction zone seeps		
38. Which of the following seeps/vents are found at seafloor spreading centers? CIRCLE: hydrocarbon seeps hydrothermal vents hypersaline seeps subduction zone seeps		

Nekton and Benthos Coral Reef Bleaching Watch

Concept Sketch

Visit the **NOAA Coral Watch website** (links on class website). Orient yourself to the purpose of this website and the data provided. Then, follow the links on the website to look at the trends over the past 90 days in one of these locations: the Indian Ocean, the Coral Triangle, The Caribbean Sea, Florida, or Hawaii. Choose the one that most interests you..

Draw a concept sketch of coral bleaching and include the answers to these questions:

- What location did you choose and why?
- What is this location's coral bleaching warning stage, and what was the 90-day range you viewed?
- What has been happening to sea surface temperatures over the past 90 days and how does this compare with the trend you would expect to see for normal seasonal changes during this same time?
- What is coral bleaching?

Weekly Reflection

Take a moment to reflect on your comfort level and mastery of the week’s objectives and describe an action plan for how you will practice or improve on anything that challenged you.

Weekly objective	Self-assessment of mastery level	Action plan for improvement
Compare and contrast the physical environmental challenges of a number of different ocean locations and the consequent distribution, adaptations, and interrelationships of marine organisms within these zones (including the intertidal zone, coral reefs, cold seeps, hot vents, and the deep sea).	A B C D F	
Compare, contrast, and classify nekton and benthos (especially whales, fish, crabs, corals, and more) by feeding methods and behaviors .	A B C D F	
Evaluate the migratory habits of a variety of marine organisms including causes and impacts, both to those who migrate and those who don't.	A B C D F	

AHA! Moments

What content from this week really resonated with you, helped you understand something you’ve always wondered about, or made you think about the world with new eyes?

APPENDICES

SEMESTER-LONG REVIEW SHEET

Distances (in kilometers or meters only!)
1. What is the elevation of Mount Everest ?
2. What is the average elevation of land ?
3. What is the depth sea level would fall during an ice age ?
4. What do we call the feature that represents that depth?
5. What is the depth of the Marianas Trench ?
6. What is the average depth of the oceans ?
7. What is the radius of the planet ?
8. What is the average wavelength of a tsunami ?
9. What is the height of the tallest tidal wave on the planet?
Time
10. What is the age of the Earth ?
11. When did the oceans first form ?
12. When did life first evolve ?
13. When did life move onto land ?
14. What is the age of the oldest ocean crust currently in the oceans?
15. What's the period of a semidiurnal tidal wave?
16. What's the period of spring tides ?
17. What is the mixing time of the oceans?
Other values (provide correct units!)
18. What is the composition of Earth's atmosphere (components and %) ?
19. What is the average salinity of seawater ?
20. What is the average pH of the oceans ?
21. What is the maximum density of freshwater at 4°C ?
22. What is the specific heat of freshwater ?
Equations
23. Write the equation for photosynthesis .
24. Write the buffering equation.

Drawings and more	
25. Draw a water molecule with correct shape, size, and partial charges:	26. Explain why the Earth has seasons .
27. What makes air rise ?	What happens to rising air as it rises? CIRCLE: VOLUME: increases decreases stays the same TEMPERATURE: increases decreases stays the same WATER CAPACITY: increases decreases stays the same RELATIVE HUMIDITY: increases decreases stays the same PRESSURE ON EARTH'S SURFACE AS A RESULT: high low average
28. What makes air sink ?	What happens to rising air as it sinks? CIRCLE: VOLUME: increases decreases stays the same TEMPERATURE: increases decreases stays the same WATER CAPACITY: increases decreases stays the same RELATIVE HUMIDITY: increases decreases stays the same PRESSURE ON EARTH'S SURFACE AS A RESULT: high low average
29. Describe what happens to temperature with depth in the subtropical oceans.	Why?
Subtropic surface CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 1 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 4 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low	
30. Describe what happens to oxygen with depth in the subtropical oceans. Why?	Why?
Subtropic surface CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 1 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 4 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low	
31. Describe what happens to carbon dioxide with depth in the subtropical oceans. Why?	Why?
Subtropic surface CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 1 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 4 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low	
32. Describe what happens to salinity with depth in the subtropical oceans. Why?	Why?
Subtropic surface CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 1 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 4 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low	
33. Describe what happens to nutrient content with depth in the subtropical oceans. Why?	Why?
Subtropic surface CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 1 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low Subtropic 4 km depth CIRCLE: high medium low	