On Sept. 8th 1900 Galveston was struck by a hurricane struck causing incredible damage.

The city of Galveston was a hub of businesses with a population of about 36,000 people. It has a natural harbor which helped its growth. It was built basically on a sandbar, with highest point being some 8.7 feet above sea level. Some concerned citizens had suggested the building of a seawall (a wall on the beach basically) to protect the city but the majority of the population thought it unnecessary and so one was not built. There had been a good deal of building going on in the city which led to the destruction of sand dunes to fill in low areas of the city and in this way what protection there was destroyed. There had been storms before which the city had survived which led to some complacency. Isaac Cline of the weather bureau thought it would not be possible for the city to be struck by a hurricane. The weather service at that time had little information about weather at sea and relied on reports from ships.

Cuba forecasters were predicting the storm that they were experiencing, would head toward San Antonio, but the US weather bureau argued that the storm would curve and strike Florida. Isaac Cline's role and that of his meteorologist brother Joseph have been a bone of contention with some people crediting them with giving a hurricane warning before the central office approved it, while others claim their role was negative in that they resisted the idea of building the sea wall.

When the storm surge hit, the waters rose over 15 feet - almost twice the depth of the highest piece of land. The entire island was submerged and over 3,600 hundred buildings were destroyed. Estimates of the death toll rose to somewhere between 6,000 and 12,000 people (official reports claim 8,000) making it the greatest natural disaster to strike the U.S. Disposing of the dead was a major problem and bodies were weighted and placed on barges and dumped at sea. The currents brought many of the bodies back to shore and the survivors were reduced to building funeral pyres and burning the bodies. This went on day and night for weeks after the storm.

It is reported that there were more people killed in this storm than in all the other cyclones to have struck the US.

CURRENTS:

Currents are moving water. Major currents are driven by wind and tides and differences in density. As a result currents can be on the surface or under water

So how does the wind operate? Hot air at the equator rises and starts to move north in the N. hemisphere and south in the southern hemisphere. At about 30 degrees from the equator, the air has cooled enough and become dense enough to sink down to the ground. Since the cool air is denser than the warm air toward the equator, the pressure gradient moves the air south.

Currents also operate as heat transport.

So how does the wind operate? Hot air at the equator rises and starts to move north in the N. hemisphere and south in the southern hemisphere. At about 30 degrees from the equator, the air has cooled enough and become dense enough to sink down to the ground. Since the cool air is denser than the warm air toward the equator, the pressure gradient moves the air south.



At the poles, the cold air over the poles sinks and moves south towards the warmer air. As it moves south it heats and rises at about 60 degrees from the equator. The air between the Hadley Cell and the Polar cell is moved like a gear between the two.

As the air on the surface of the earth moves north and south, the Coriolis Effect takes over and the winds in both directions veer off to the right.



coriolis

This gives the general global wind patterns.



Hadley cells

As a result, ocean currents follow the pattern of the winds



surface_currents_lg

Gulf Stream (surface) and Polar conveyer belt transport (under water) You should note at this point that there are currents that run on the surface of the ocean and those that run deep in the ocean. These have great importance in weather



convection-current



conveyor belt

In the polar regions, the water starts to freeze and sheds salts and also becomes denser and sinks. The cold water moves along the bottom of the ocean where it ultimately meets more cold water coming from the Antarctic. Some of this is pushed upwards and mixes with the warmer water above. At the surface, this water is pushed in a northerly direction in the north and a southerly direction in the south. The north moving waters, affected by Coriolis move to the right and bring warm tropical waters across toward Europe in the Gulf Stream.

This accounts for relatively warmer climates in Europe at the same latitudes where it is colder in the US and Canada.



Polar currents

RIP CURRENTS (are not tides) Danger to swimmers who do not understand them





PROBLEMS OF A TWO LAYERED OCEAN

While we have looked at how the ocean is divided into zones going out from the shore- littoral or intertidal, neritic (over the continental shelf) and pelagic (deep ocean) as well as in depth – epipelagic (Euphotic), mesopelagic (Dysphotic) Bathypelagic (aphotic) and Hadalpelagic, we have not discussed many of the changes which occur that are important in understanding how the ocean works.

WHY THIS IS IMPORTANT

For all life on earth, the point of origin will be the organisms that are able to create their own food from either the sunlight or some chemical source. Most of this takes place through PHOTOSYNTHESIS in which water and carbon dioxide in the presence of sunlight produce sugar which ultimately turn this into energy. However nutrients are needed to move the results of the photosynthesis around the organism. There are nutrients. How this happens in the ocean needs to be understood so that it is possible to see where problems develop and how some of them are solved.

We identified the layers of light because of the ability of autotrophs that need sunlight to photosynthesize. Words like euphotic and dysphotic are based on questions of photosynthesis. Obviously the actual depth at which light fades away is a function of turbidity – how much sediment is mixed in the water. The more sediment, the less the depth to which the light can penetrate. Light clearly penetrated air much more easily that it penetrates water.



From the diagram, it is clear that light (in general) will start to fall off immediately and at about a depth pf 50 meters it is close to gone. By 1000 meters it is gone altogether.

The temperature of the ocean also falls off, but in a slightly different pattern.



The temperature in the ocean from the surface to about 50 meters remains pretty constant and then suddenly becomes colder. Any place where there is this kind of "sudden" change is called a "cline". So where the temperature drops off suddenly, it is called a "thermocline".

The water near the top of the ocean is heated by the sunlight and there is sufficient water movement from waves and such to keep temperatures up to 50 meters fairly constant, but at the 50 meter mark, things change and the water becomes colder. The polar current, also traveling toward the ocean bottom helps in this as well.

Salinity, or salt content is another variable to be considered.



This graph shows the changes in salinity for high latitudes. In low latitudes, it reverses. Most of the processes that have an impact on salinity occur on or near the surface and have little impact on the deep levels of the ocean. In higher latitudes, melting icebergs for example, put fresh water into the ocean at the surface keeping the salinity lower. Precipitation, run off from the land, melting sea ice, sea ice forming, evaporation, all contribute to the lessening of salt in the higher latitudes and the decreasing salinity in the lower latitudes.

This "cline" is called the "halocline".

Light Intensity	Temperature	Salinity
A	В	c
100		
Thus .		
500		
1080		0.11
		N
1		

The temperature and a salinity taken together are known as thermohalocline!

Density is next and as one might expect, the deeper one does the more dense the water becomes.



The change matches quite nicely with the thermocline – colder water becomes denser.



The next two measurements, nutrients and oxygen are especially important if we are considering life forms, since both are necessary for primary producers.

Nutrients may seem an odd inclusion here, because we tend to thlnk that primary producers perform photosynthesis and as a result make all the food they need, but this is not the case. In addition to the sugar produced by photosynthesis, organisms also need mineral nutrients which are defined here as "any small inorganic molecule needed for growth of phytoplankton that is not itself a reactant in photosynthesis". Since water and carbon dioxide are involved in photosynthesis, they are excluded from the definition whereas iron, nitrogen, phosphorous and silicon are not excluded.

Sea water contains (a) Ammonia in the form of ammonium ion HN^{4+} a source of nitrogen; (b) Nitrate NO_3 - also a source of nitrogen; (c) Phosphate PO_4^{3-} (a source of phosphorous) (d) Silicic acid (Si(OH)₄. Iron is also found in the ocean.

The Idea of a limiting factor

Because all nutrients are NOT available in limitless or equal quantities, those that are scarce limit the amount of activity they are needed for. Suppose for example that you want to make cakes. Each cake requires 2¹/₄ cups of flour,

1½ cups of sugar, 3 teaspoons of baking powder, 1 teaspoon of salt, ½ cup soft shortening, 1-cup milk, 1½ teaspoons flavoring and 2 eggs. You have available 100 pounds of flour, 50 pounds of sugar, 10 pounds of baking powder, 5 pounds salt, 5 pounds of soft shortening, 5 gallons of milk, 1 gallon of flavoring and 4 eggs. How many cakes can you make? Answer 2. Since there are only 4 eggs and you need 2 per cake, the eggs becoming the limiting factor.

The problems here are with nitrogen which is the "limiting factor" – the one that is least available. The problem is that nitrogen by itself is in great quantities but few organisms can use it in this form. It needs to be "fixed" – that is to be made into a form that is usable. This happens as a result of CYANOBACTERIA – a form of bacteria that is able to "fix" nitrogen so it can be used. It does this by making ammonia. What is important here is the recognition that the production of fixed nitrogen is on the ocean floor.



While some nitrogen fixing does go on, on coral reefs closer to the surface, about 85% happens in deep water.



So you can see where you have light, you have little nutrients. Where you have nutrients, you have little light!



Because the upper levels are low in nutrients, photosynthetic forms have trouble growing here.

The lower level, which has the nutrients doesn't have the light needed for photosynthesis so there seems to be a real problem here. Photosynthesis requires carbon dioxide, but respiration requires oxygen. Photosynthetic organisms usually produce enough oxygen for respiration. Heterotrophs require oxygen which they do not produce. Hence it is only with the appearance of photosynthetic organisms that much life as we know it is possible. There was a time in the history of the earth where life forms did not use oxygen and there was little to no free oxygen in the world. When organisms began to produce oxygen it was lethal to many organisms and is believed in part responsible for a major extinction event. In effect, oxygen was a lethal pollutant. It is still in large quantities dangerous to animals and can be fatal. It is something divers have to worry about because in commercial diving, the amount of oxygen is changed upward from 21% (mixed gasses)



So what happens with the oxygen levels start out fairly constant, then drop off and then rebound!

The problem here is that many of the small organisms cannot swim but are plankton. They are also negatively buoyant as adults and tend to sink slowly. As they sink, the move into the dysphotic zone and can no longer produce food and die. (Some reproduce near the surface and the young start the cycle all over again). As they (and other organisms die) they begin to decay and the bacteria that do that respire and use up the oxygen in the water. So the oxygen levels fall off. Finally we reach a level where all that can decay has basically done so. Below this level is the thermocline circulation – the cold water (aerated) moving along the bottom of the ocean. It brings more oxygen with it, raising the level of oxygen.



So the graphs all show, how there are serious changes, starting at about 50 meters and continuing down about another 50. These changes are referred to as the "thermocline" and refers to the changes in all these forms not just temperature.

Remember though, that the actual depth of the thermocline changes both seasonally and in different areas.

So how is it the oceans work at all in terms of life forms? The answer is part "upwelling". Upwelling occurs when minerals are brought up from the bottom, usually caused by a "tilt" in the thermocline.



This diagram shows a "tilt" in the thermocline caused by two pressures of air and the Walker Cell (the cell in which the winds move from east to west here) – one low pressure in Asia and one corresponding high pressure in South America. As a result of a pressure differential, air flows from an area of high pressure (over South America) towards one of low pressure (over Asia). This flow of air moves water from the eastern Pacific (SA) towards the western Pacific causing water to begin to "pile up" in the western part. This depresses the thermocline so there is a "tilt" in which the thermocline is deeper in the west than the east.

The warm water in the west heats the air and causes it to rise, whereas cooling air descends over SA and cools the water. Ultimately, the temperatures will start to even off and more and more cool water moves west. This will ultimately cause a stoppage in the Walker cell circulation and a reversal of direction.

Whether the air or the water is the primary cause is fought about. But the change is not.

When the water moved along the bottom from west to east it finally encounters the shore of SA and must move both up and then north and south (along with the thermocline), which is what it does. The movement up, brings nutrients up from the bottom to the surface and all is well. We now have nutrients and sunlight both at the surface. This movement of nutrients up from the bottom is called "UPWELLING"

Once the change happens and the winds and water reverse direction, the thermocline that was higher in the east, now begins to descend and the upwelling slows or comes to a halt.



This shift between high and low pressure and rising and falling thermoclines was known to both meteorologists and oceanographers for quite some time. One group referred to it as the "Southern Oscillation" the other as "El Niño". Now that it has been realized this is the same phenomenon it tends to be referred to as "ENSO" (short for "El Niño Southern Oscillation")





The appearance of an ENSO brings about many changes. The upwelling stops, and the photosynthetic organisms at the surface no longer get nutrients the way they did before. This causes small fish like anchovies to

have less food and so there numbers drop considerably. Birds, other fish and mammals which eat anchovies then start to decline in number. So there is a rising death toll among many animals.

In addition, anchovies are used in making fish meal. As the anchovies decrease in number so does the amount of fish meal. Fish meal is used in feeding chickens, so as the price of fish meal rises, farmers who raise chickens switch to soy meal which is then somewhat less expensive than fish meal (although when anchovies are plentiful it is not). The rising cost of fishmeal brings about an increased demand for soy meal. Soy meal prices start to rise with the demand and so the price of chickens and eggs starts to rise as well.

Additionally, wheat farmers see that it is more profitable to plant soy than wheat which leads to a decrease wheat production and a rise in the cost of bread which in some places leads to starvation conditions.

As the dry high pressure over the western Pacific continues, the lack of rain causes crop failure (increasing food problems) and soon forest fires start to rise in number as the vegetation becomes very dry. The fires produce carbon dioxide a greenhouse gas which adds to the problems of the changing climate.

Similar oscillations happen in the North Pacific, North Atlantic and Polar region as well. The most well-known perhaps is the one in the Indian Ocean which causes the Monsoons, although the process here is a bit different.

The Indian Ocean lies largely in the Southern hemisphere, unlike the Atlantic and Pacific both of which are divided into a Northern and Southern half. This is largely because the currents in the Northern and Southern parts of the ocean have differing currents, thanks to the Coriolis Effect.

In the Indian Ocean, there is a huge land mass sitting in the Northern hemisphere. This heats and cools at a different rate than the waters of the Indian Ocean. In winter, (October to April) cold heavy air sits over the continent and lighter warm moist air rises over the ocean. The pressure gradient brings the winds from Northeast the land onto the ocean. This is sometimes called "the dry monsoon". As summer appears (from May until Sept.) and the land mass begins to warm, the air from the Southwest over the land begins to rise and the air now moves in from the ocean bringing the heavily water laden air which produces tremendous rainfall as it moves over the continent. This is the "wet monsoon" or more frequently just called "the monsoon"

So as we can see, the ocean and the atmosphere operate together to bring very different kinds of weather around the world at different times of the year.

LIFE IN THE OCEAN

The earth forms about 4.5 billion years ago. The geological evolution of the earth. Life appears about 3.8 billion years ago. The history of life on Earth is rather long. Since then life has undergone many changes and different kinds of organism have come and gone. Organisms range from extremely small microscopic animals to huge dinosaurs like the Titanosaurs – the largest animal that we know of. The blue whale is the largest animal in the world today.

CLASSIFICATION SYSTEMS

Classification systems are ways of bringing together different individuals and groups into ever larger groups. This is done by selecting some characteristic that each individual member shares with others individuals and using that characteristic to lump them together into a group. So we might find ourselves lumping together individual male and female lions into group we would call "lions". Obviously every lion is different but they share many traits in common. Lions also share much more in common with tigers (another group) than they do with bears. So another category "Felis" meaning "cat" is created and lions and tigers are put together into that category.

The classification is always imposed on the individuals and should be done for some purpose. In biology the classification systems are constructed largely to indicate how various living things are put related to one another.

So while lions and tigers can be put together to form a category "cats", "cats" and "dogs" and many other animals can be grouped together into a larger category "mammals". This process can continue as far as one likes.

Classification systems can be based on all manner of things. Sometimes by belief systems (Catholics, Baptists, Protestants etc. which make up a larger

category "Christian" which then can contrast with "Muslim", "Jewish" and so on.

It can also be based on biological categories – we could group together (and label) people with blue eyes vs. those with brown eyes. (We don't really do that) but we do group people on whether they have type A, B, O or AB blood usually for the purposes of transfusions. Racial categories are ostensibly based on biological characteristic (hair types, skin tones and so on) whereas "ethnic groups" are supposed to be based on non-biological criteria since the bases is some cultural pattern.

The point here is that categorization is usually made for some purpose. With the biological classification systems it is to understand how organisms are related to one another.

The problem is that one system we will discuss (Linnaean) tends to use "gross morphology" that is body structure while a more recent one "cladistics" relies more heavily on genetics.

The Linnaean system worried about homology and analogy – were some aspects of two animals similar because they shared a common ancestor, or because they evolved the same organ separately (independent evolution). This systems defines terms like "species" whereas cladistics is more interest in genomes and does not define species the same way that the Linnaean system does. Having two systems with different orientations often makes them harder to deal with.