



CHAPTER 41

GIS in Marine Ecosystem Mapping

In the universe, every phenomenon that occurs has a spatial dimension. An analysis of these phenomena without a spatial dimension is incomplete. Spatial information should form an integral part of the studies leading to the management of living natural resources. The inherent data linkages become more clear when spatial dimension is added. In the past, integration of spatial data to analytical process was not that easy as the required expertise and skill were possessed by very few and software options necessary for the analysis was limited and costly. In the last decade, there has been an explosion in the spatial data realm in terms of software tools, data collection procedure and analysis, human expertise available for handling spatial data and how spatial information is used in the day to day life. Spatial information has been extensively used in almost all the fields of study, be it natural sciences, social sciences, archaeology, surveying, marketing and particularly in fish resource mapping elsewhere in the world. It shows the importance of geographic information system (GIS) in the present world. The strength of GIS is its ability to integrate data from different sources and carryout spatial analysis to arrive at meaningful conclusions which otherwise would not be possible.

GIS is mainly concerned with location of the features as well as properties/attributes of those features. It helps us gather, analyse and visualize spatial data for different purposes. A GIS quantifies the locations of features by recording their coordinates which are the numbers that describe the position of these features on Earth. The uniqueness of GIS is its ability to do spatial analysis. GIS helps us analyse the spatial relationships and interactions. Sometimes, GIS proves to be the only way to solve spatially-related problems and it is one of the most important tools that aid in decision making process. GIS basically helps to answer three questions; How much of what is where? What is the shape and extent of it? Has it changed over time?

Globally, on an average, GIS tools save billions of dollars annually in the delivery of goods and services through proper route planning. GIS regularly help in the day-to-day management of many natural and man-made resources, including sewer, water, power, and transportation networks. GIS help us identify and address environmental problems by providing crucial information on where problems occur and who are affected by them. It also helps us identify the source, location and extent of adverse environmental impacts. GIS enable us to devise practical plans for monitoring, managing, and mitigating environmental damage. Human

impacts on the environment, conflicts in resource use, concerns about pollution, and precautions to protect public health have spurred a strong societal push for the adoption of GIS.

GIS is composed of hardware, software, data, humans and a set of organizational protocols. The selection and purchase of hardware and software is often the easiest and quickest step in the development of a GIS. Data collection and organization, personnel development and the establishment of protocols for GIS use are often more difficult and time consuming endeavours. A fast computer, large data storage capacities and a high quality, large display form the hardware foundation of most GIS. GIS software provides the tools to manage, analyse, and effectively display and disseminate spatial information. GIS as a technology is based on geographic information science and is supported by the disciplines like geography, surveying, engineering, space science, computer science, cartography, statistics etc.

In GIS, we handle the spatial and attribute data sets. Spatial data describes the absolute and relative location of geographic features while the attribute data describes characteristics of the spatial features. These characteristics can be quantitative and/or qualitative in nature. Attribute data is also referred to as tabular data. Vector and raster are two different ways of representing spatial data. Raster data is made up of pixels (or cells), and each pixel has an associated value. A digital photograph is a simple example of a raster dataset where each pixel value corresponds to a particular colour. In GIS, the pixel values may represent elevation above/below sea level, or chemical concentrations, or rainfall etc. The key point is that all of this data is represented as a grid of (usually square) cells. Vector data consists of points, lines, and polygons. The individual points are stored as pairs of (x, y) co-ordinates. The points may be joined in a particular order to create lines, or joined into closed rings to create polygons, but all vector data fundamentally consists of lists of co-ordinates that define vertices, together with rules to determine whether and how those vertices are joined.

As with many other systems, GIS basically works on the principle of '*GIGO*' that is *garbage in garbage out*. Hence the quality of data that you feed into GIS is very important and it determines the quality of the end products. But, when used wisely, GIS can help us live healthier, wealthier, and safer lives.

The following paragraphs throw some light on how GIS could be used to analyse how the climate change has affected the SST over Barents Sea and to calculate Oceanic Niño Index (ONI).

Hands on:

Monitoring of SST over Barents Sea

The northern Barents Sea to the north of Scandinavia and east of the remote archipelago of Svalbard is known as the Arctic warming hotspot. This region has warmed extremely rapidly; by 2.7 degrees Fahrenheit just since the year 2000. Using timeseries SST data, we would analyse how the SST varied during the period 1891 to 1900 and 2000 to 2018 taking the climatic mean monthly SST for the period 1981-2010 as the base value. We could also see how the mean Arctic Ocean SST has changed over the said periods.

Task 1: Monitoring the changes in SST over Barents Sea.

Software Required: QGIS 2.18.14 and Microsoft Excel

Data sets required:

Climatic (1981-2010) monthly mean SST (1_JAN.tif, 2_FEB.tif, 3_MAR.tif, 4_APR.tif, 12_DEC.tif)

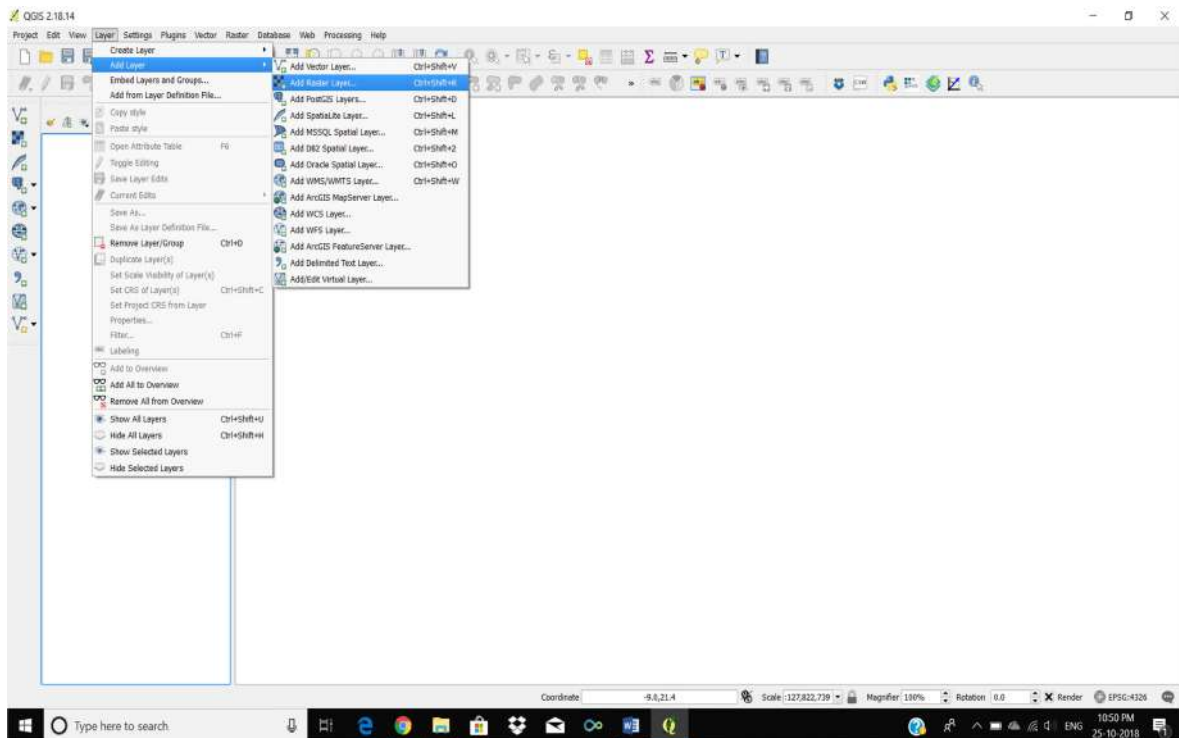
Actual monthly mean SST: Set 1 (1891_JAN.tif, 1891_FEB.tif, 1891_MAR.tif, 1900_DEC.tif)

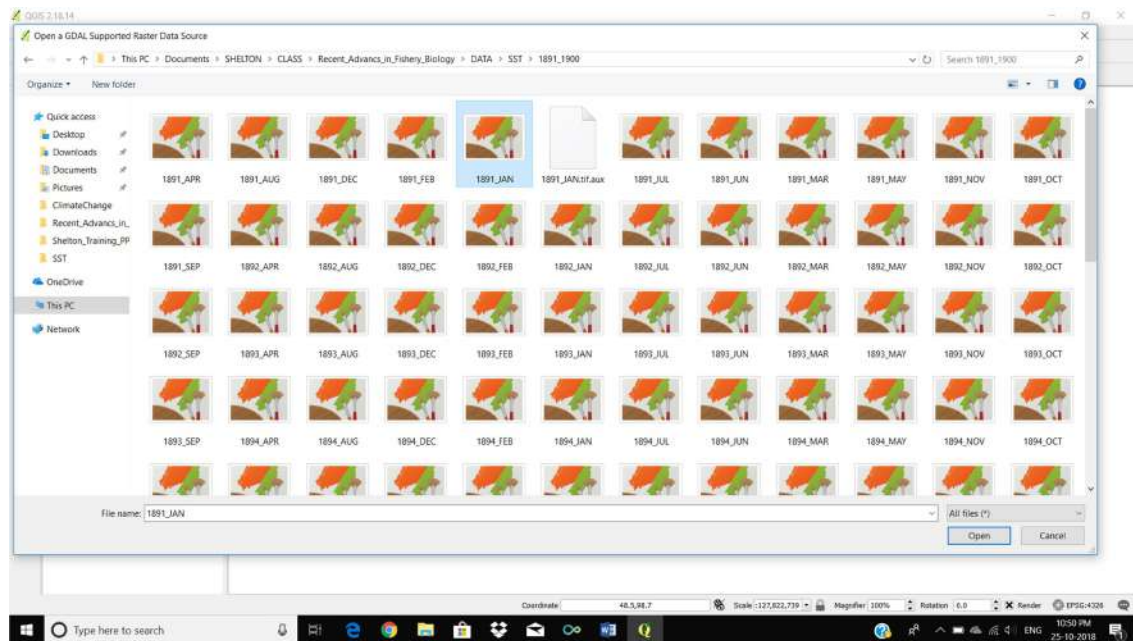
Actual monthly mean SST: Set 2 (2000_JAN.tif, 2000_FEB.tif, 2000_MAR.tif, 2018_SEP.tif)

Shape file for Barents Sea: BarentsSea.shp

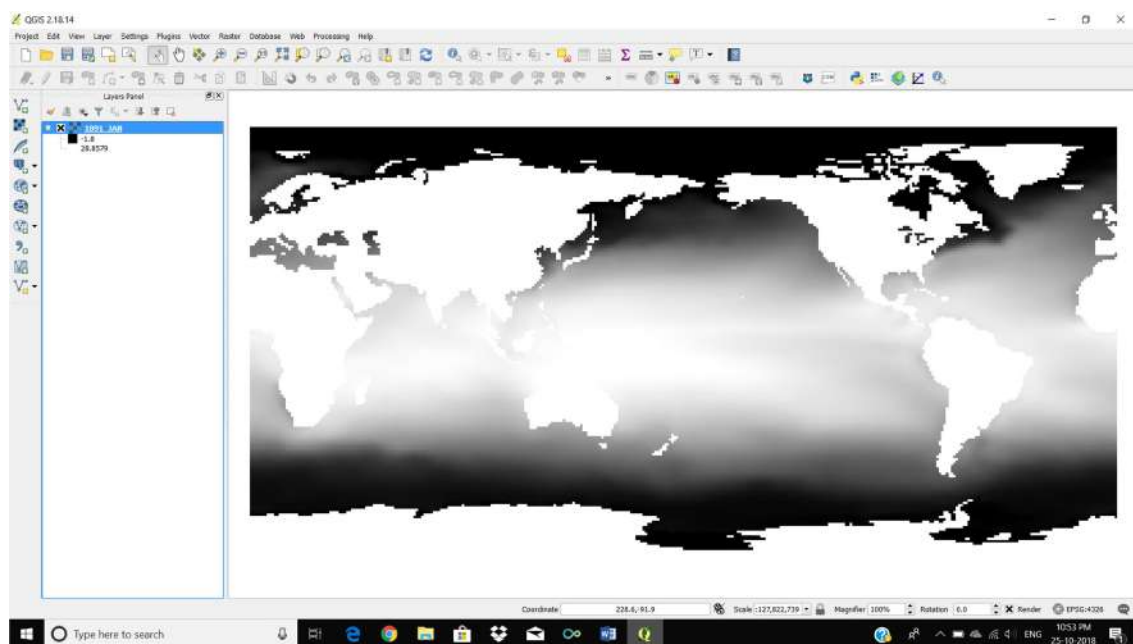
Loading SST data into QGIS:

Open QGIS -> Go to Layer menu -> Add raster layer -> Browse to the folder location -> Select the file -> 1891_JAN.tif and load the file into the map view.

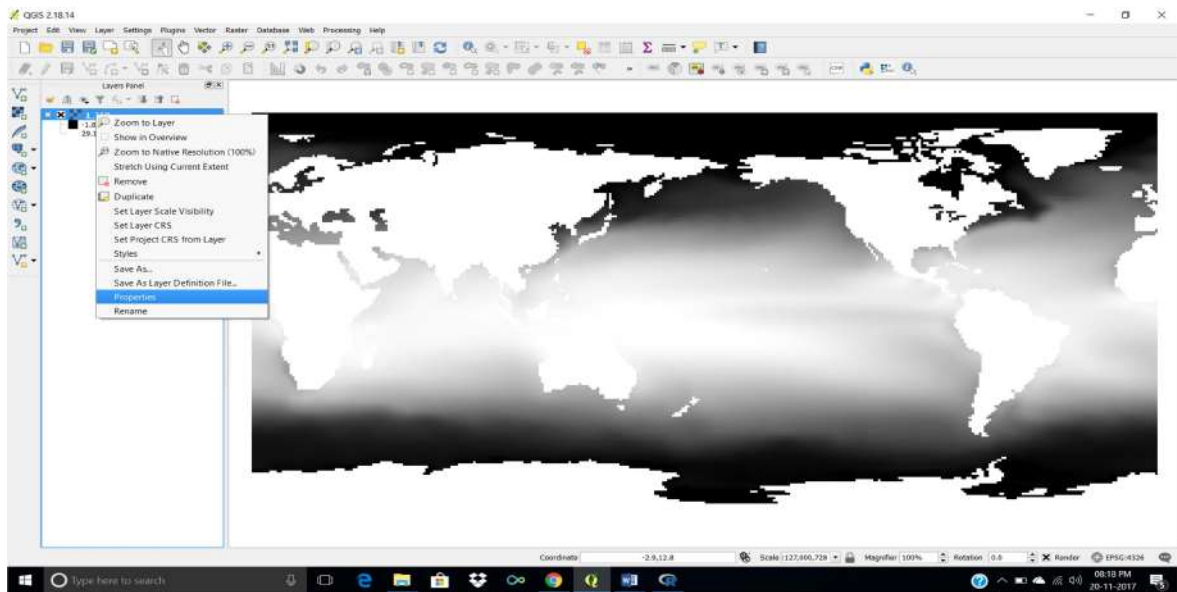




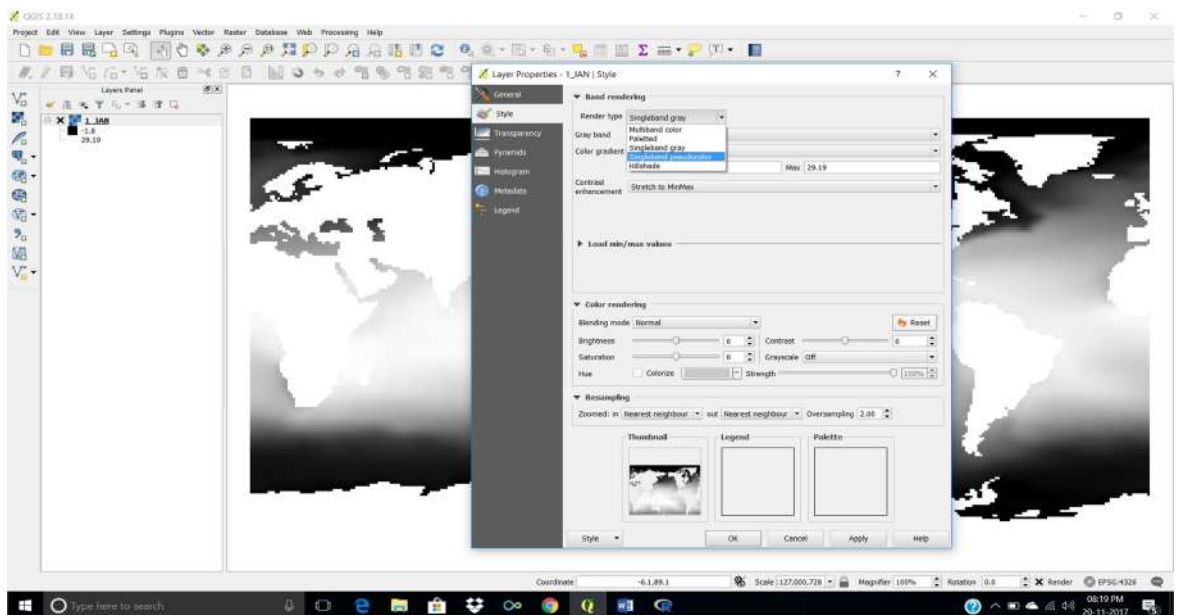
Now you get the SST data for 1891 January loaded on to the Map view as shown below



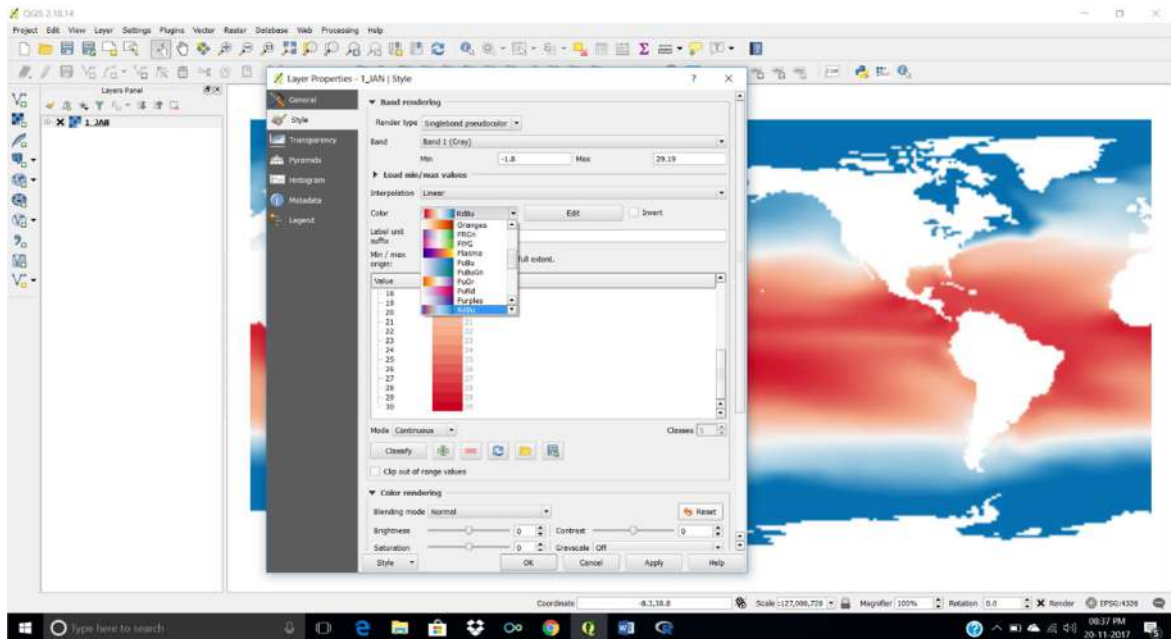
Now, to get a clear visual effect of the temperature variation, change the grey scale of the map to pseudo colour rendering. For that, right click the file name on the Layers panel (left side of the main view panel) and select the properties.



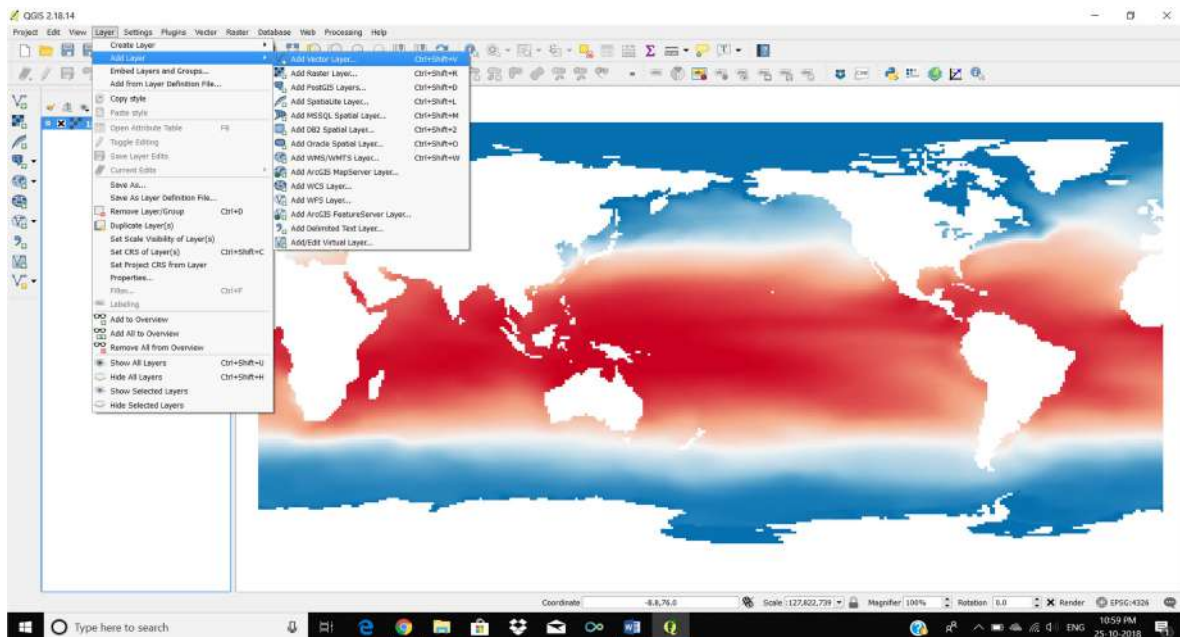
From the Layer Properties pane, go to style tab and change the band render type to ‘Single band pseudo colour’.



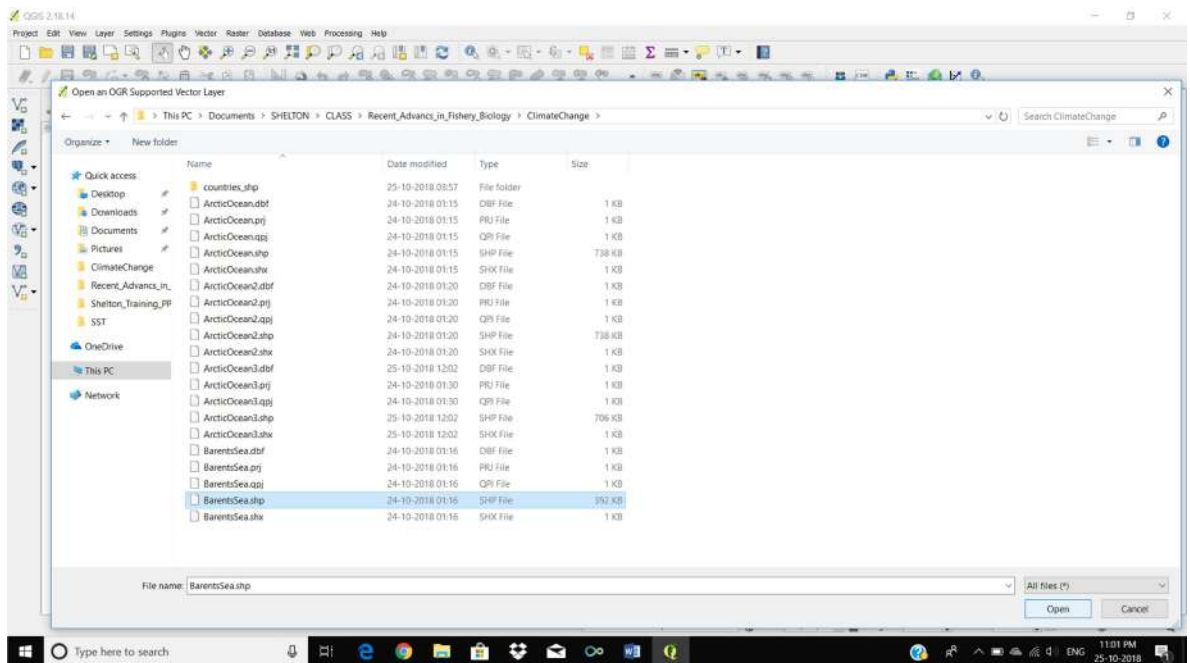
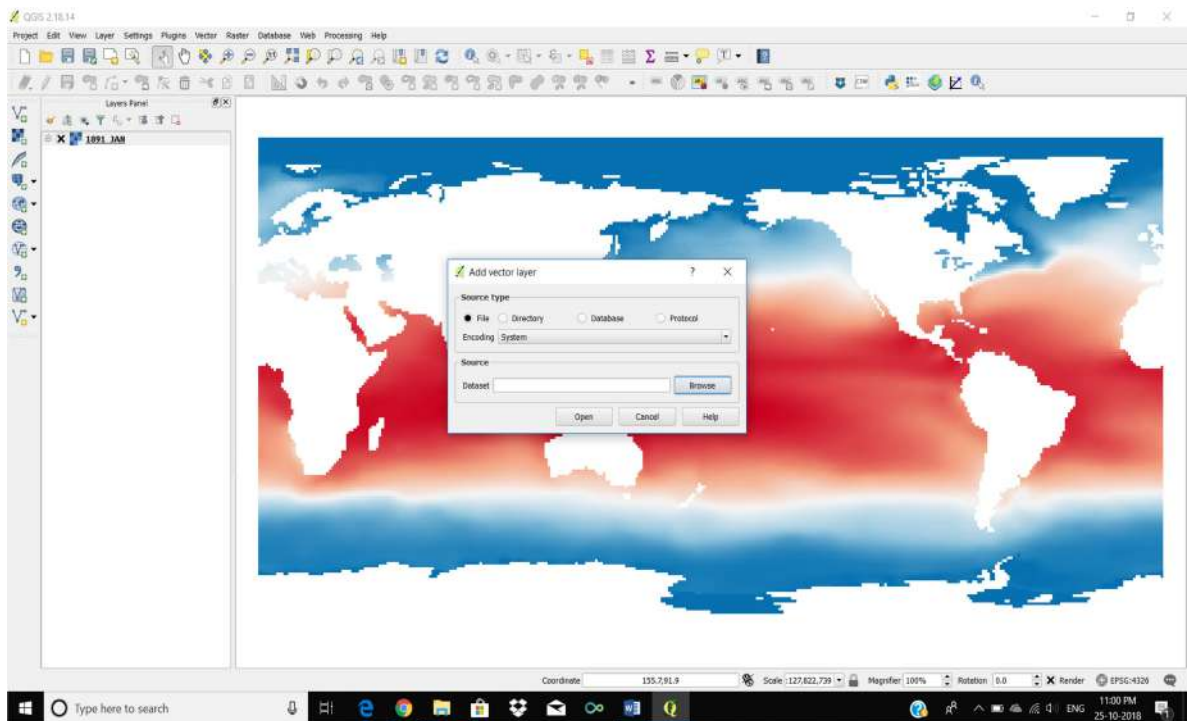
Then choose a ‘Colour’ band. Change the ‘Mode’ to ‘Equal interval’, set ‘Classes’ to ‘30’ and press the ‘Classify’ button. The display will change to pseudo colour gradient as per the SST variations.

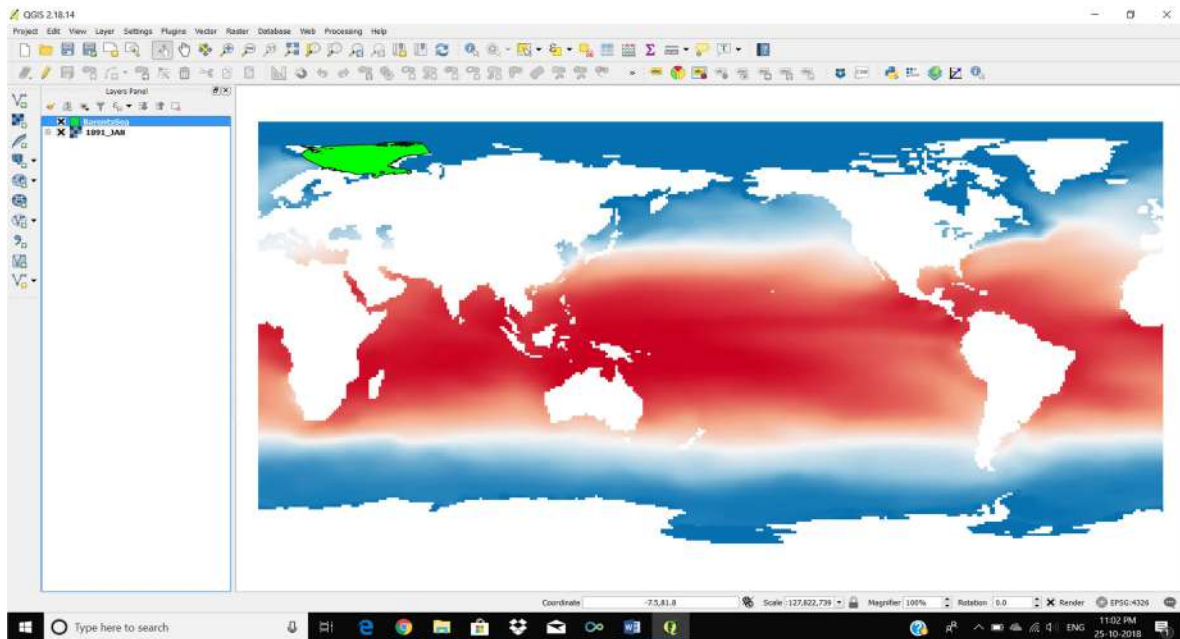


As explained above, add all the SST layers for the period 1891 to 1900 (total 120 layers). Now, load the Barents Sea shape file into QGIS. For that Go to Layers menu -> Add Layers -> Add Vector Layer.



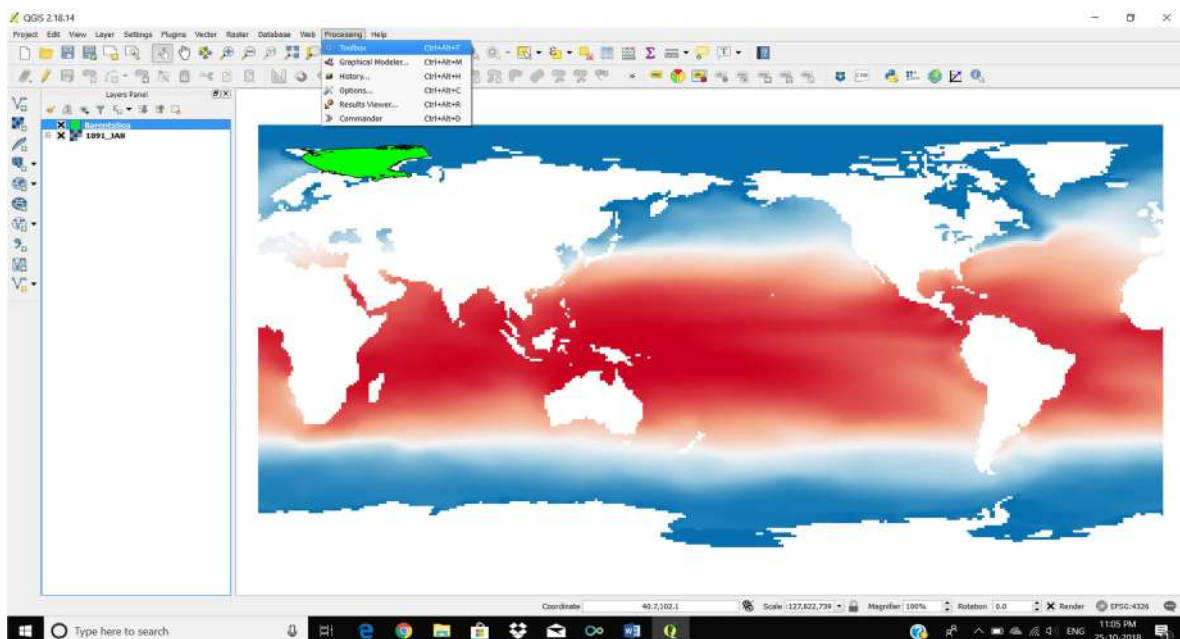
Navigate to the required folder and open the file BarentsSea.shp

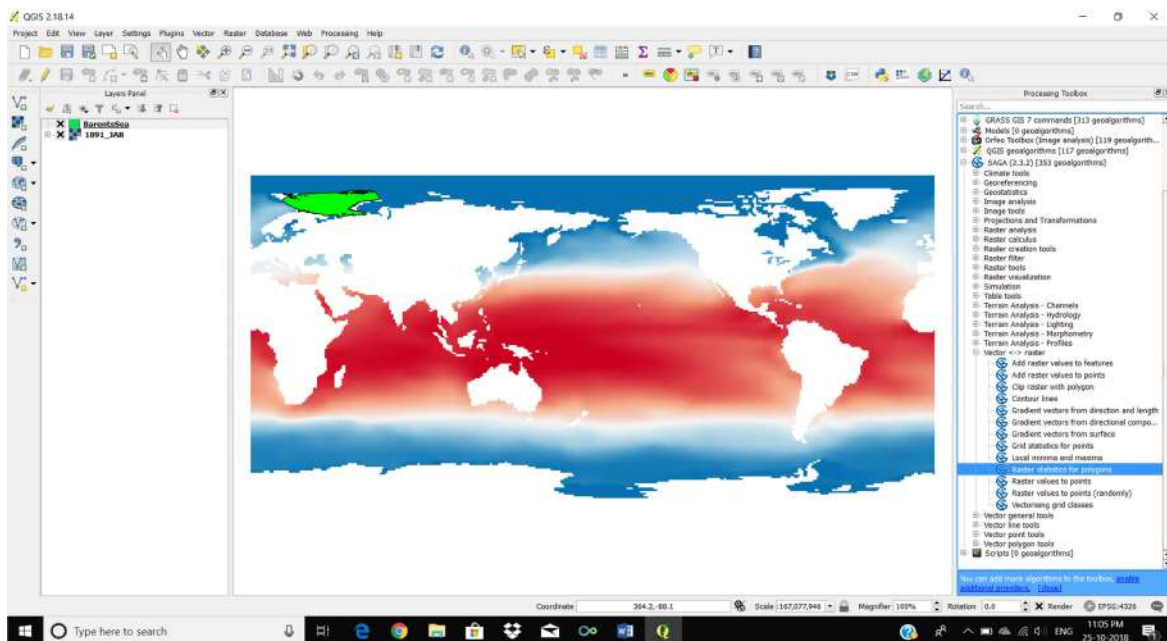
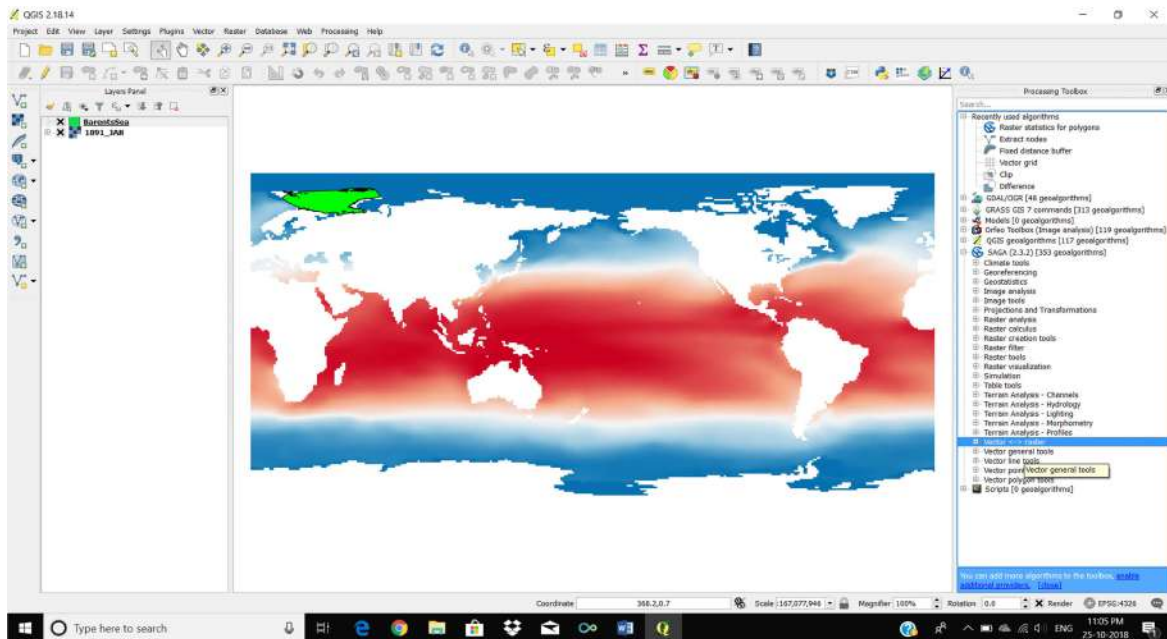




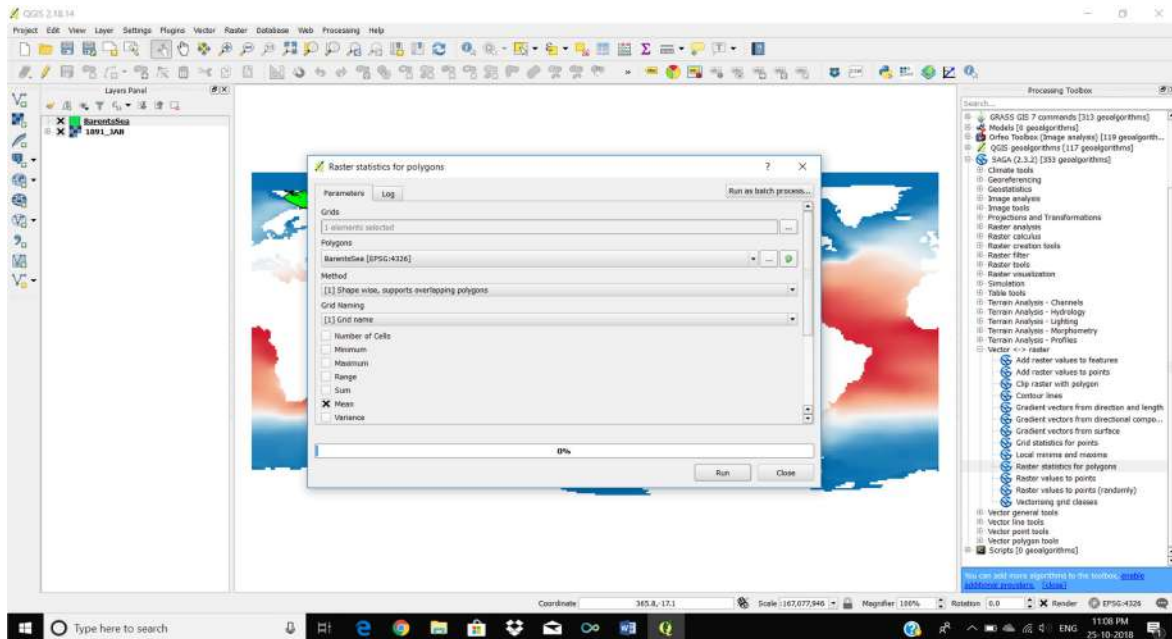
To extract the mean SST value from the 120 layers of SST, we have to use the ‘SAGA’ tool ‘Raster Statistics for Polygons’.

Go to ‘Processing’ menu -> select ‘Toolbox’. On right side of the Main window, tools panel will get displayed. In the tool box, under SAGA tools, go to Vector<->Raster sub group and select the tool ‘Raster Statistics for Polygons’.

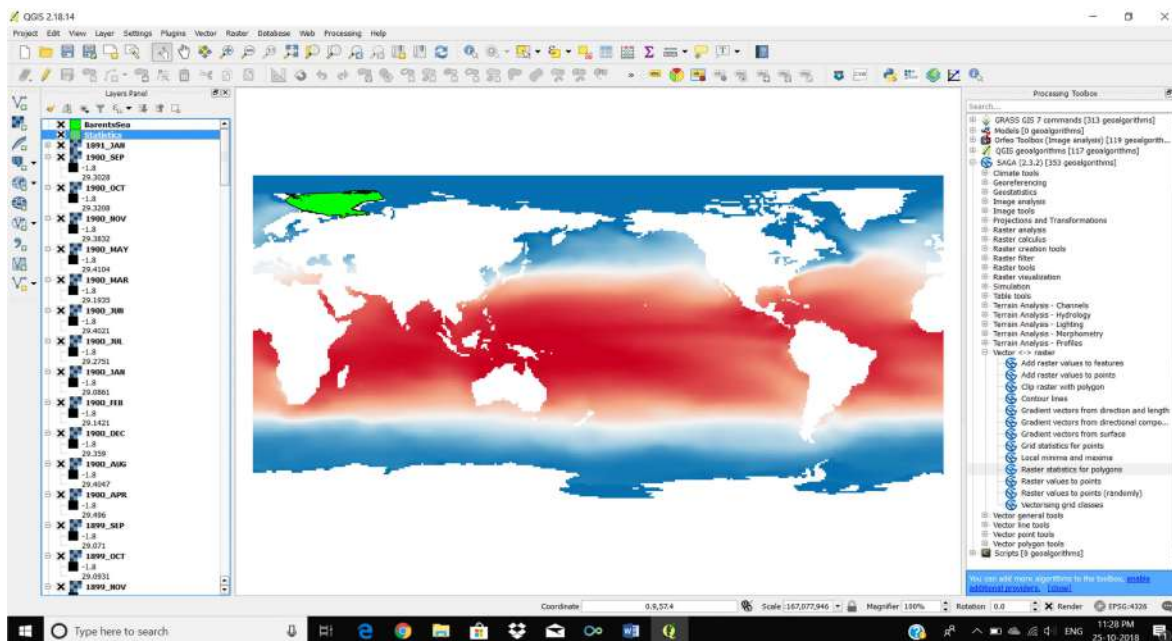




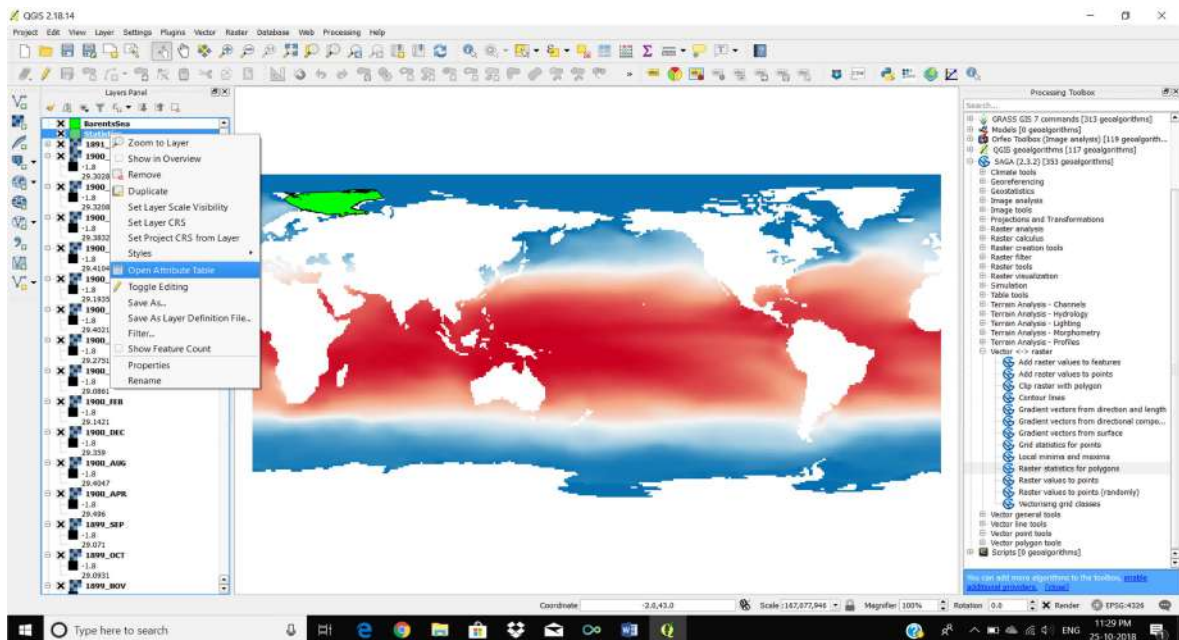
In the 'Raster Statistics for Polygons' tool panel, in the Grids option, select the SST datasets. For 'Polygons' select BarentsSea.shp', Method-> Standard, Grid Naming -> Grid Name, tick mark 'Mean' and press 'Run'.



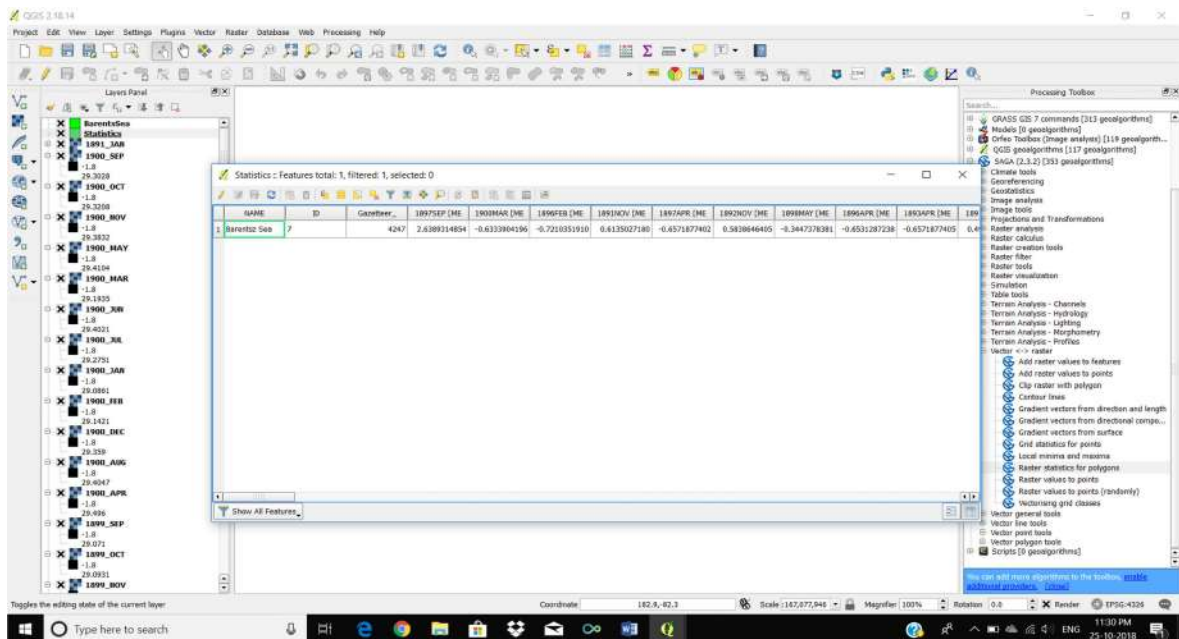
Now, you will get a 'Statistics' vector layer in the 'Layers Panel'.

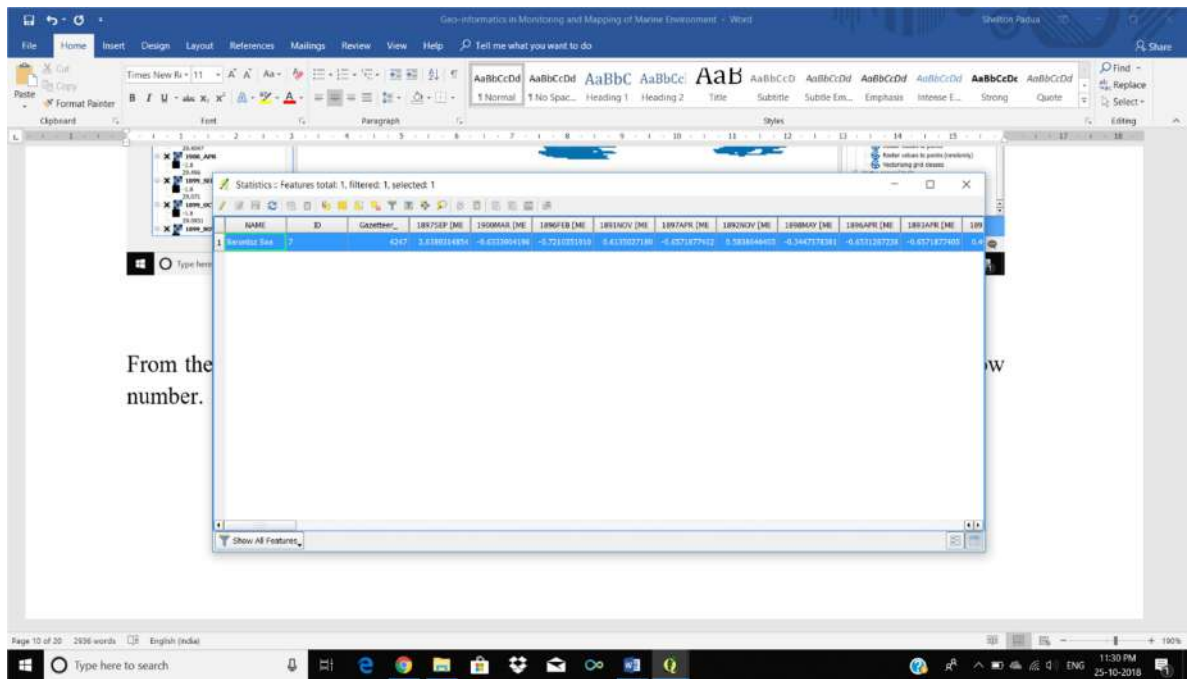


Right click on the layers panel and open the 'Open Attribute Table' by double clicking the Open Attribute Table icon. This will open up the attribute table.

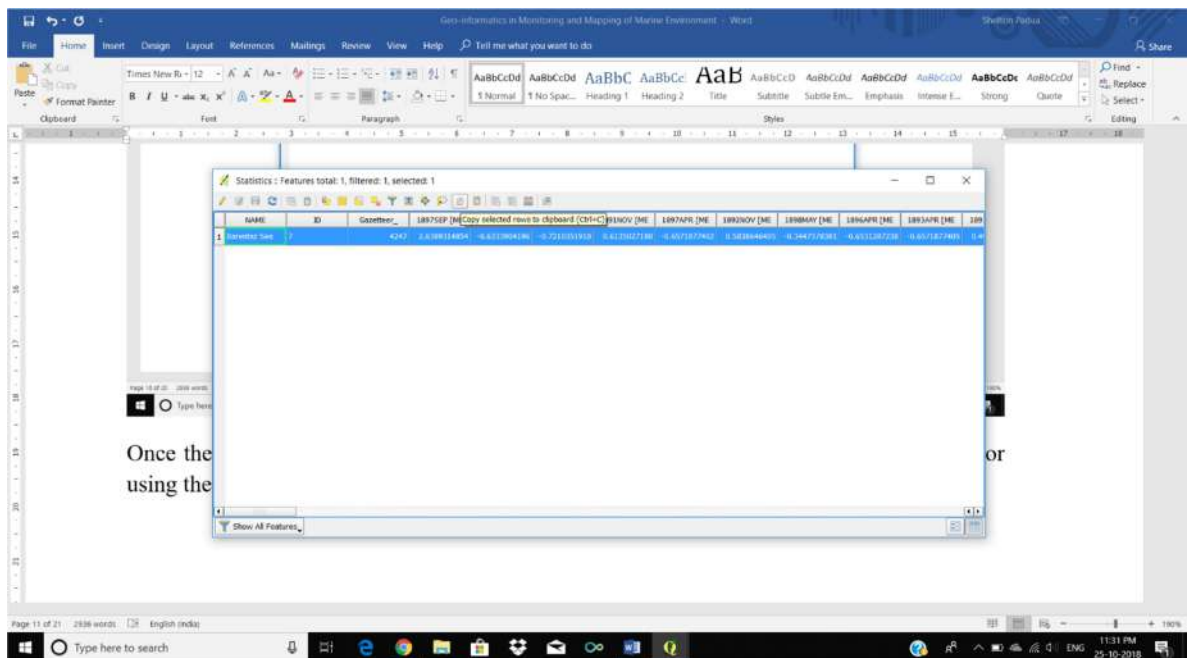


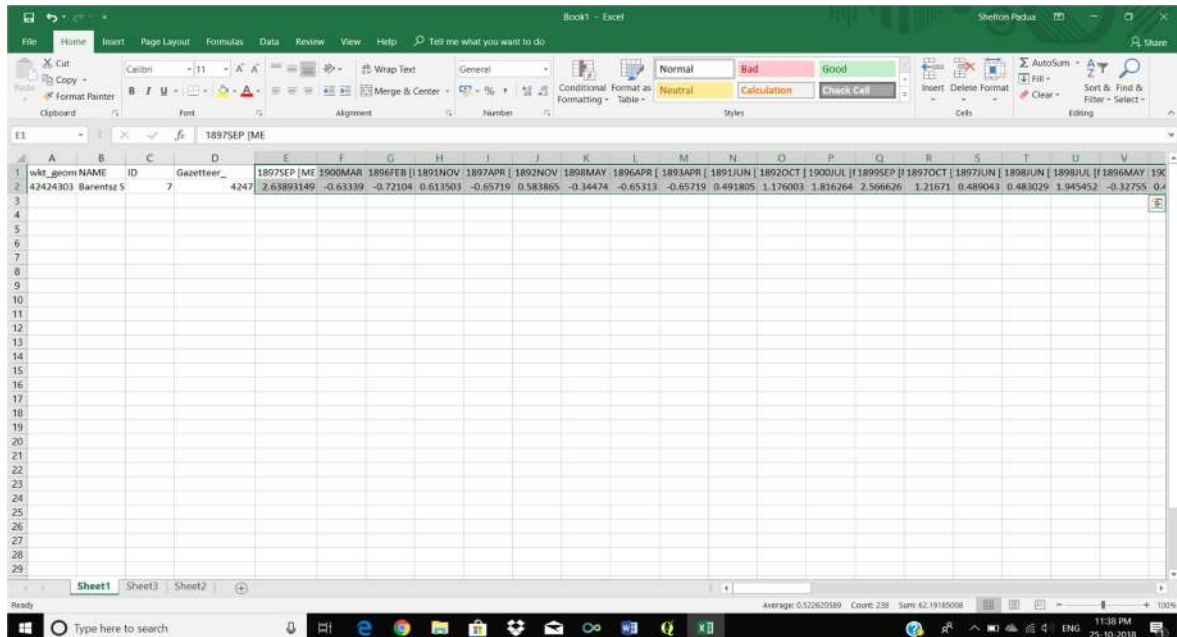
From the attribute table, select the row of attributes by ‘left clicking’ the corresponding row number.





Once the row is highlighted, copy the records to clipboard by clicking the ‘Copy’ button or using the keys ‘ctrl+c’. Now open a Microsoft Excel sheet and paste the copied values.





Repeat the same procedure for both climatic (1881-2010) monthly mean SST data (1_JAN to 12_DEC) and actual monthly mean SST data (2000_JAN to 2018_SEP).
Do the line plot in Excel and for SST in Barents Sea region for the periods 1891-1900, 2000 to 2018 and compare with climatic monthly mean SST and report the results.

Task 2: Monitoring the changes in SST over Arctic Ocean.

Software Required: QGIS 2.18.14 and Microsoft Excel

Data sets required:

Climatic (1881-2010) monthly mean SST (1_JAN.tif, 2_FEB.tif, 3_MAR.tif, 4_APR.tif, 12_DEC.tif)

Actual monthly mean SST: Set 1 (1891_JAN.tif, 1891_FEB.tif, 1891_MAR.tif, 1900_DEC.tif)

Actual monthly mean SST: Set 2 (2000_JAN.tif, 2000_FEB.tif, 2000_MAR.tif, 2018_SEP.tif)

Shape file for Arctic Ocean: ArcticOcean.shp

As explained in task 1, load different SST layers in to QGIS and extract the mean value of SST over Arctic Ocean using the shape file provided, for the study period.

Load these extracted values in to Excel and compare with the climatic mean monthly SST of the Arctic Ocean region and report the results.

Mapping the Progress of El Nino/La Nina using ONI

El Niño and La Niña are the two phases of the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) cycle. The ENSO cycle describes the fluctuations in temperature between the ocean and atmosphere in the east-central Equatorial Pacific. La Niña is referred to as the cold phase of ENSO and El Niño as the warm phase of ENSO. These deviations from normal sea surface temperatures can have large-scale impacts not only on ocean processes, but also on global weather and climate. El Niño and La Niña episodes typically last nine to 12 months, but some prolonged events may last for years. The frequency of El Niño and La Niña episodes can be quite irregular, but El Niño and La Niña events occur on average every two to seven years. Typically, El Niño occurs more frequently than La Niña.

El Niño

El Niño means The Little Boy, or Christ Child in Spanish. El Niño was originally recognized by fishermen off the coast of South America in the 1600s, with the appearance of unusually warm water in the Pacific Ocean around December. The term El Niño refers to the large-scale ocean-atmosphere climate interaction linked to a periodic warming in sea surface temperatures across the central and east-central Equatorial Pacific. Typical El Niño effects are likely to develop over North America during the upcoming winter season. Those include warmer-than-average temperatures over western and central Canada, and over the western and northern United States. Wetter-than-average conditions are likely over portions of the U.S. Gulf Coast and Florida, while drier-than-average conditions can be expected in the Ohio Valley and the Pacific Northwest. The presence of El Niño can significantly influence weather patterns, ocean conditions, and marine fisheries across large portions of the globe for an extended period of time.

La Niña

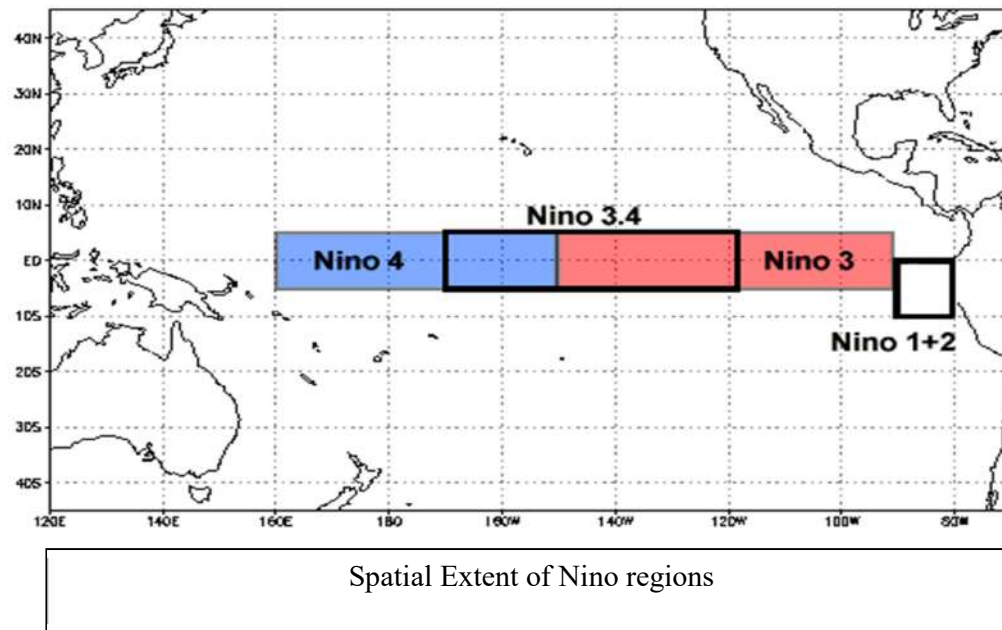
La Niña means The Little Girl in Spanish. La Niña is also sometimes called El Viejo, anti-El Niño, or simply "a cold event." La Niña episodes represent periods of below-average sea surface temperatures across the east-central Equatorial Pacific. Global climate La Niña impacts tend to be opposite those of El Niño impacts. In the tropics, ocean temperature variations in La Niña also tend to be opposite those of El Niño.

ENSO events are thought to have been occurring for thousands of years. Modern day research and reanalysis techniques have found that at least 26 El Niño events since 1900 with the 1982-83, 1997-98 and 2015-16 events among the strongest on record.

Different countries have different criteria to determine what constitutes an El Niño / La Niña event, which is tailored to their specific interests. For example, the Australian Bureau of Meteorology looks at the trade winds, Southern Oscillation Index (SOI), weather models and sea surface temperatures in the Niño 3 and 3.4 regions, before declaring an El Niño. However, the Japan Meteorological Agency declares that an El Niño event has started when the average five-month sea surface temperature deviation for the Niño 3 region, is over 0.5 °C (0.90 °F) warmer for 6 consecutive months or longer. The Peruvian government declares that an El Niño is under way, if the sea surface temperatures in the Niño 1 and 2 regions, equal or exceed +0.4 °C for at least 3 months.

The Oceanic Niño Index (ONI) is the standard used by NOAA for identifying El Niño (warm) and La Niña (cool) events in the tropical Pacific. It is the running 3-month mean SST anomaly for the Niño 3.4 region (i.e., 5°N-5°S, 120°-170°W). The events are defined as 5 consecutive overlapping 3-month periods at or above the +0.5°C anomaly for warm (El Niño)

events and at or below the -0.5°C anomaly for cold (La Niña) events. The threshold is further... categorized as Weak (with a 0.5 to 0.9 SST anomaly), Moderate (1.0 to 1.4), Strong (1.5 to 1.9) and Very Strong (≥ 2.0) events.



It has been found that necessary condition for the development and persistence of deep convection (enhanced cloudiness and precipitation) in the Tropics develops when the local SST is 28°C or greater. Once the pattern of deep convection has been altered due to anomalous SSTs, the tropical and subtropical atmospheric circulation adjusts to the new pattern of tropical heating, resulting in anomalous patterns of precipitation and temperature that extend well beyond the region of the equatorial Pacific. An SST anomaly of $+0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the Niño 3.4 region is sufficient to reach this threshold from late March to mid-June. During the remainder of the year a larger SST anomaly, up to $+1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ in November-December-January, is required in order to reach the threshold to support persistent deep convection in that region.

Task 3: Categorize the years into El Nino/La Nina or normal year based on ONI.

Software Required: QGIS 2.18.14 and Microsoft Excel

Data sets required:

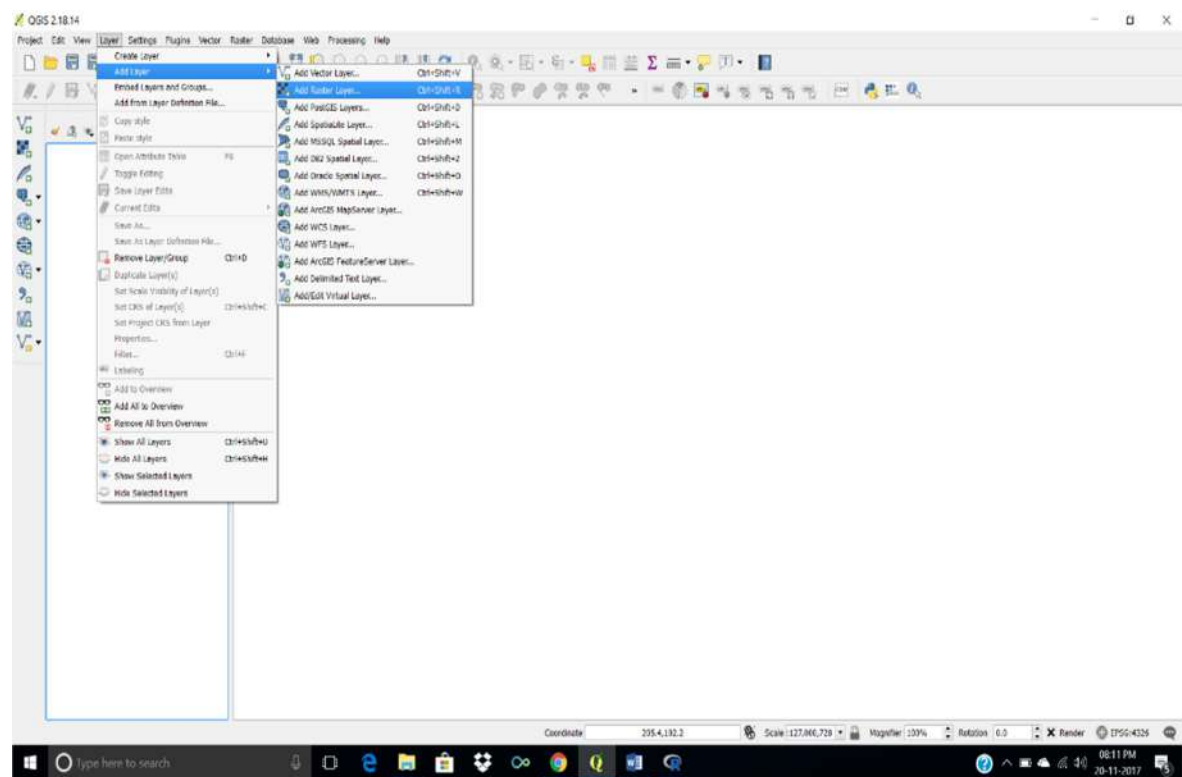
Climatic (1981-2010) monthly mean SST (1_JAN.tif, 2_FEB.tif, 3_MAR.tif, 4_APR.tif, 12_DEC.tif)

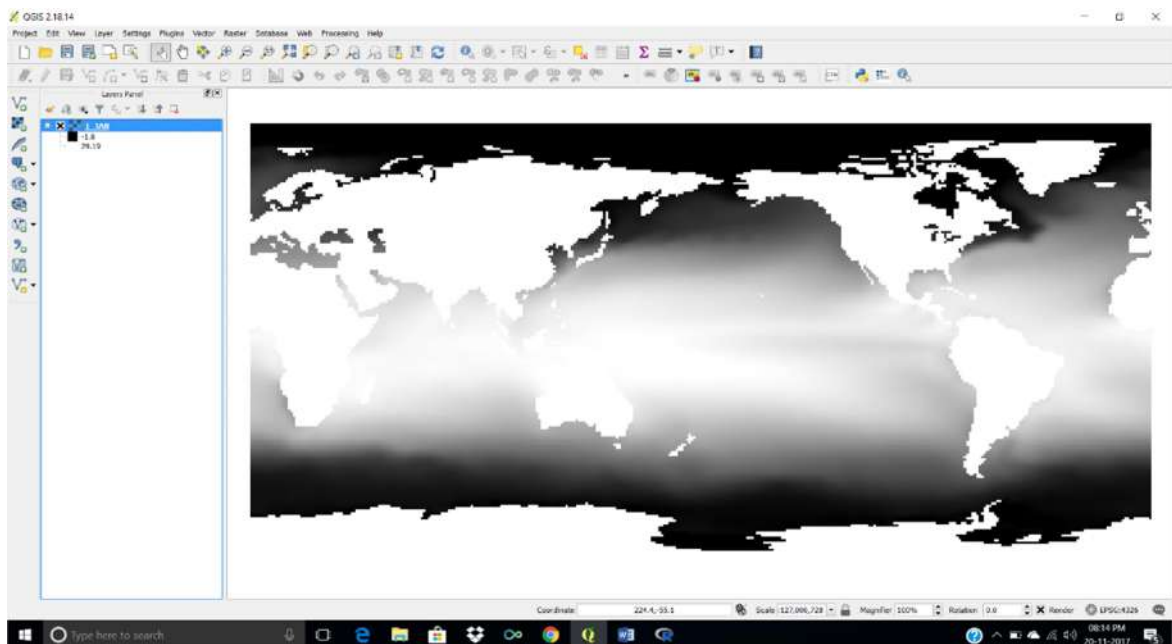
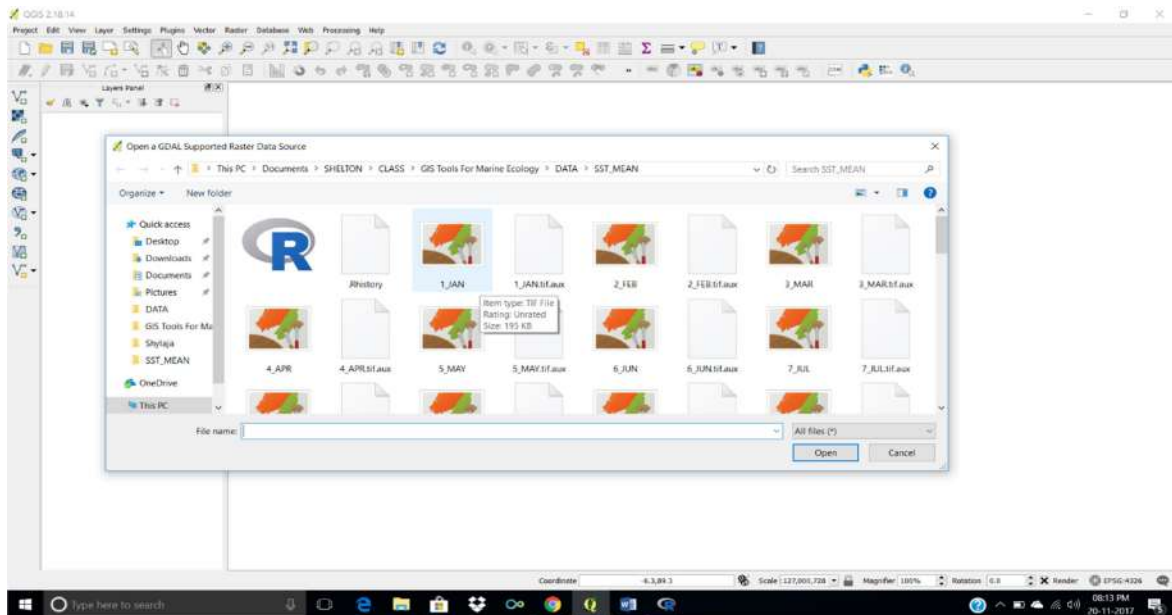
Actual monthly mean SST (2015_JUN.tif, 2015_JUL.tif, 2015_AUG.tif, 2017_OCT.tif)

Shape file for Nino 3.4 region: NiNo_3.4_Poly.shp

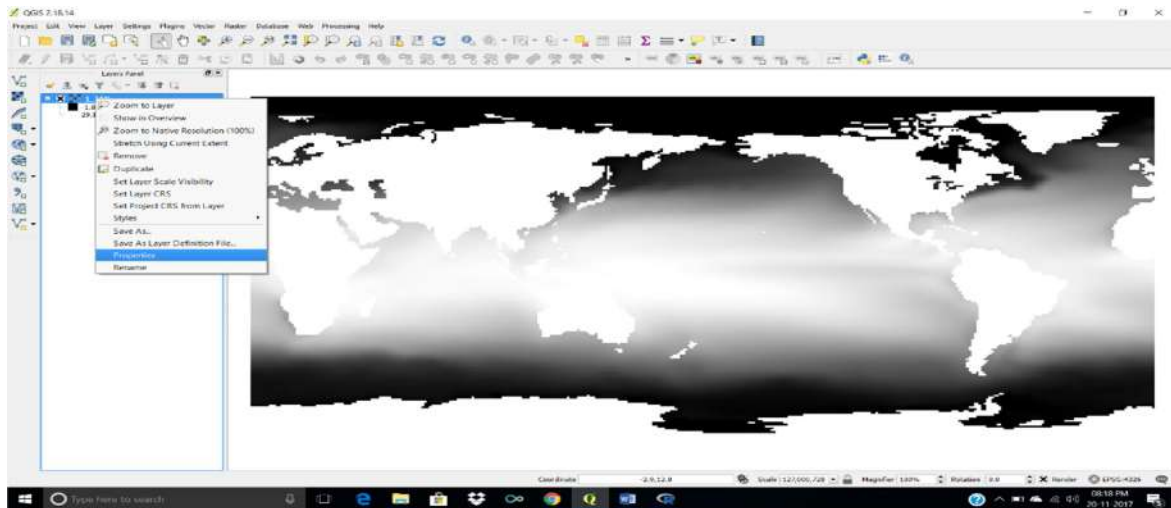
Loading SST data into QGIS:

Open QGIS -> Go to Layer menu -> Add raster layer -> Browse to the folder location -> Select the file -> 1_JAN.tif and load the file into the map view.

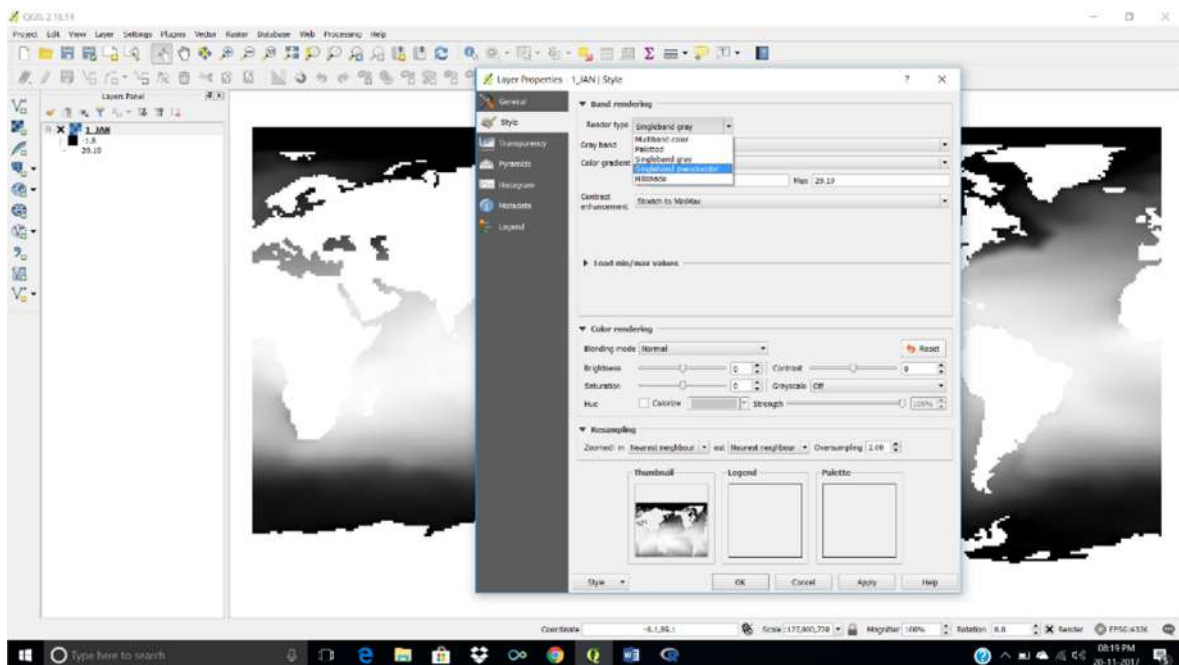




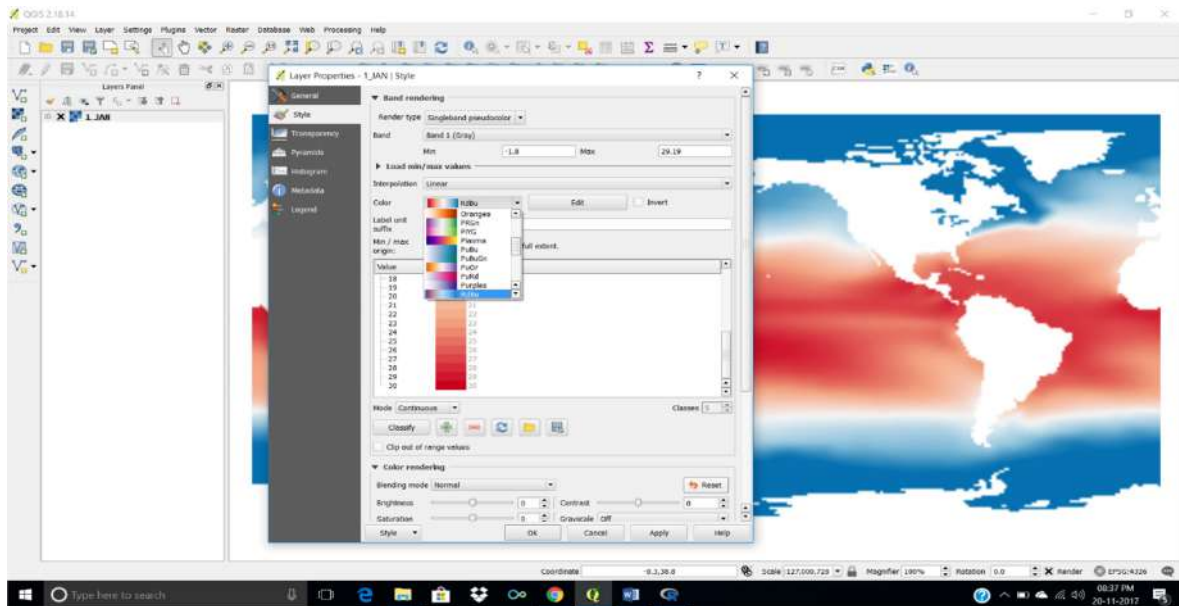
Now, to get a clear visual effect of the temperature variation, change the grey scale of the map to pseudo colour rendering. For that, right click the file name on the Layers panel (left side of the main view panel) and select the properties.



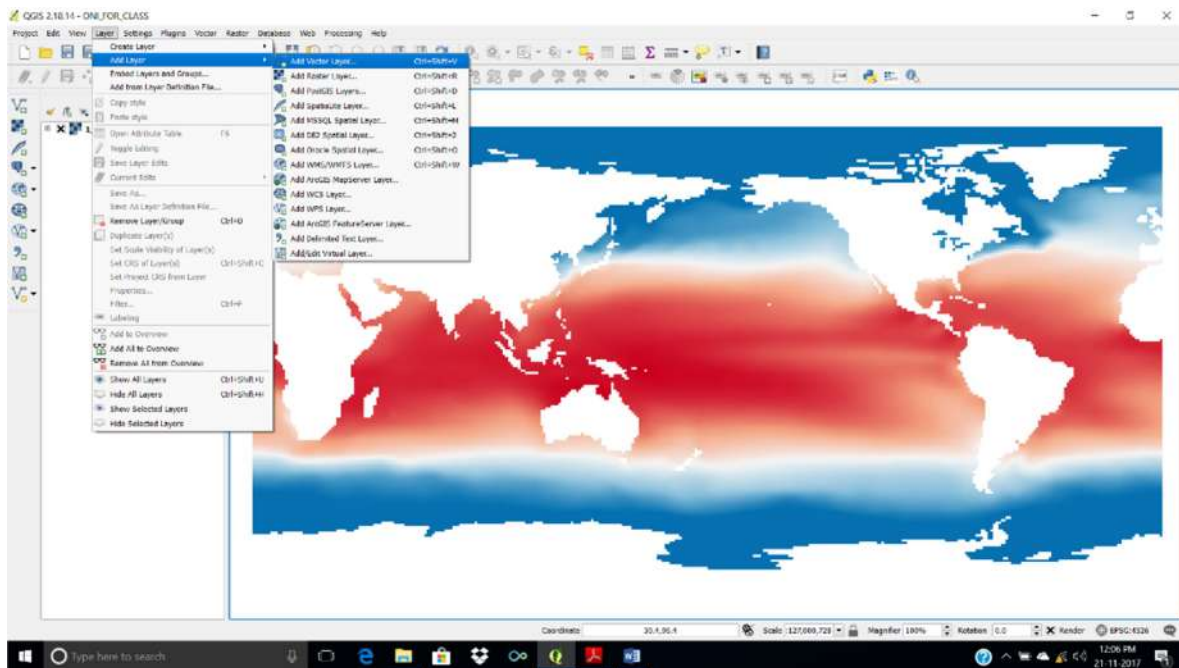
From the Layer Properties pane, go to style tab and change the band render type to ‘Single band pseudo colour’.



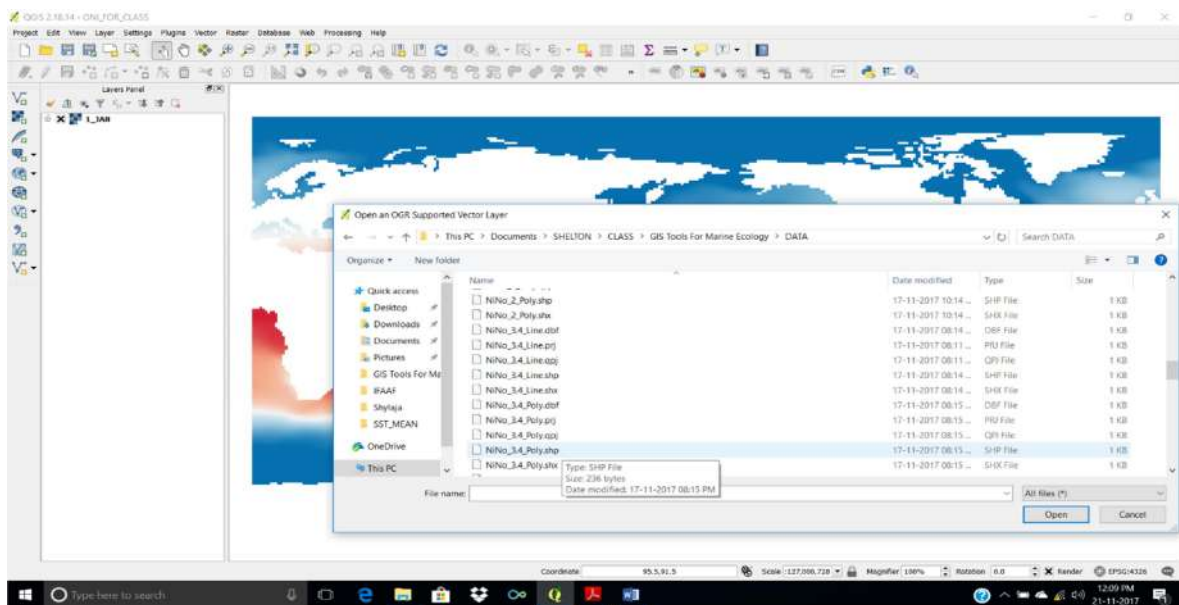
choose a ‘Colour’ band. Change the ‘Mode’ to ‘Equal interval’, set ‘Classes’ to ‘30’ and press the ‘Classify’ button. The display will change to pseudo colour gradient as per the SST variations. Likewise, load all the SST layers.



Now, we have to load the shape file for Nino 3.4 region. Go to Layers menu -> Add Layers -> Add Vector Layer.

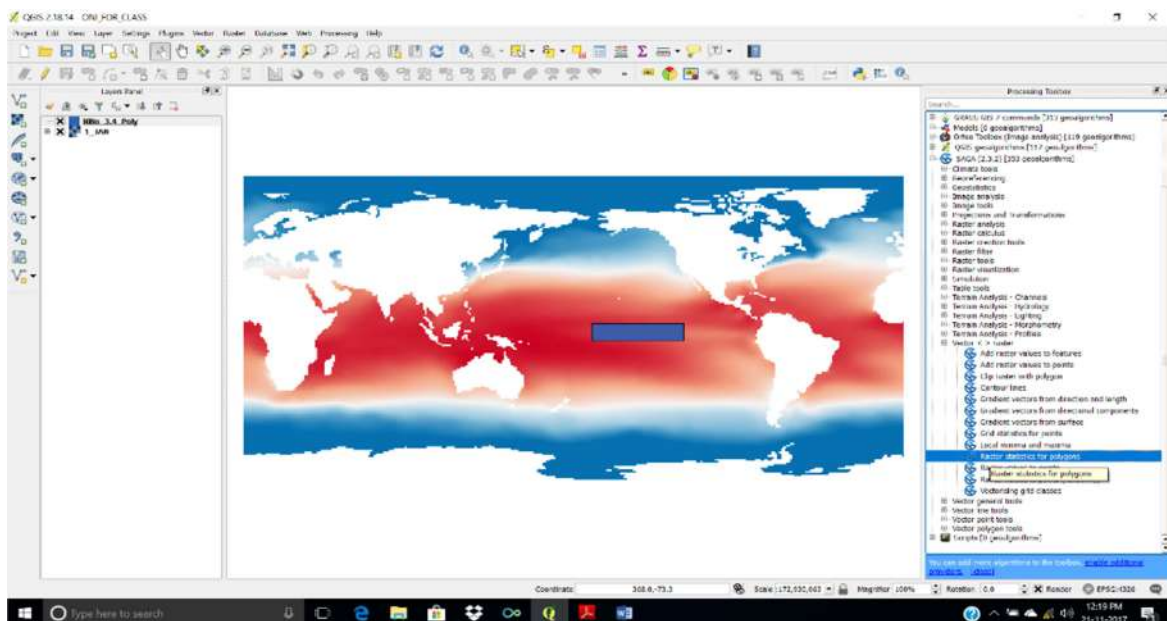


Browse to the file 'NiNo_3.4_Poly.shp' and open it.

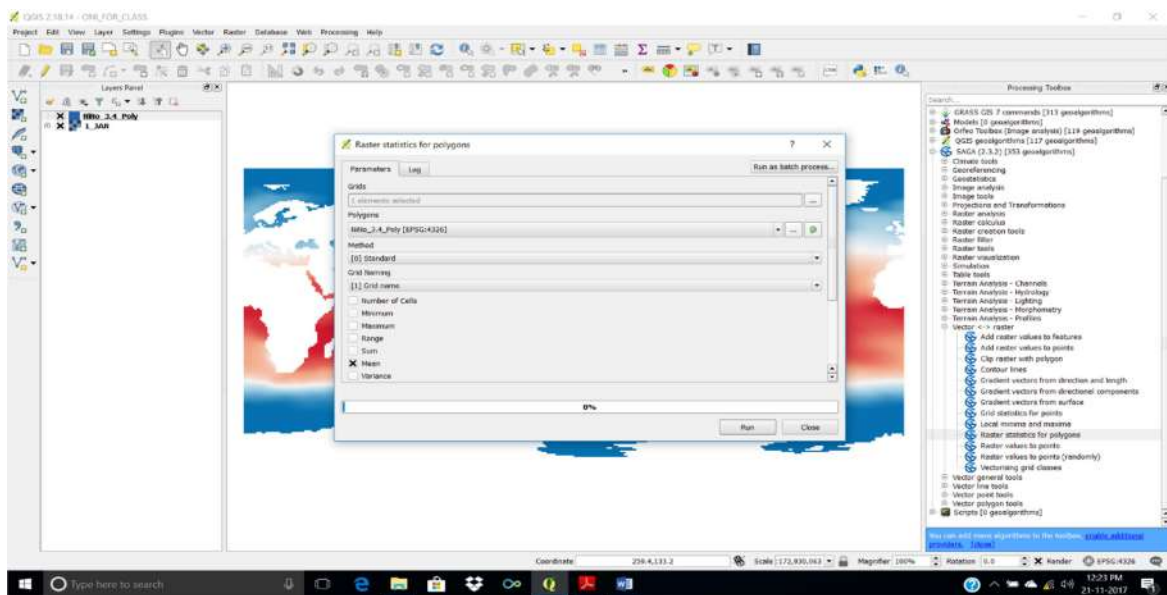


Now, we have to extract the mean value of SST from the NiNo 3.4 region. For that we have to use the 'SAGA' tool 'Raster Statistics for Polygons'.

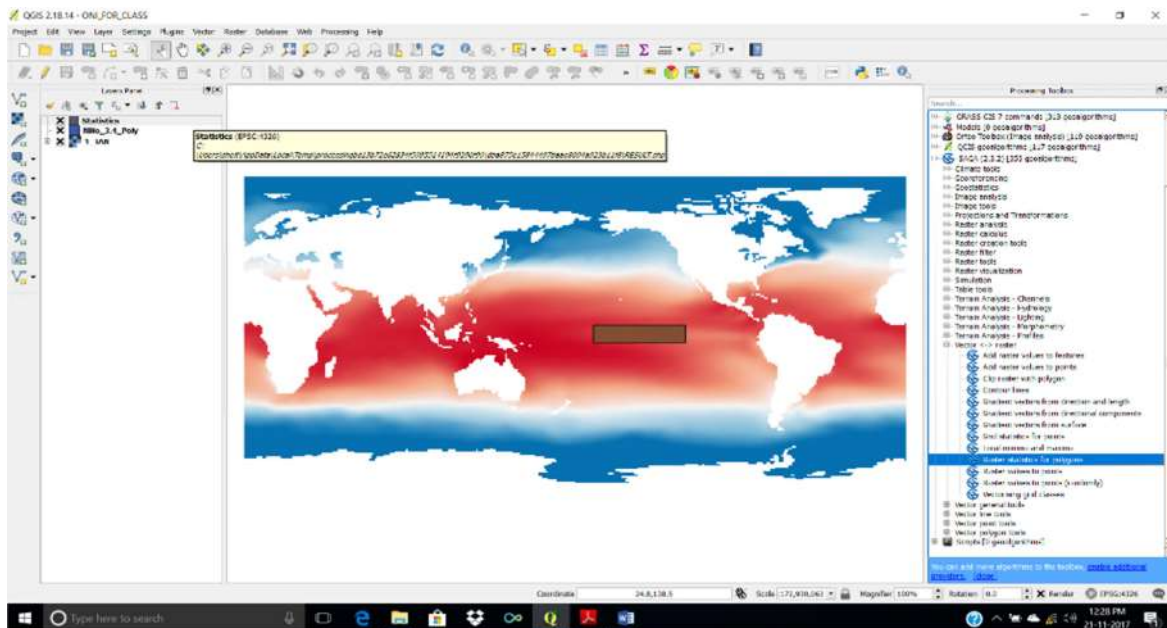
Go to 'Processing' menu -> select 'Toolbox'. On right side of the Main window, tools panel will get displayed. In the tool box, under SAGA tools, go to Vector->Raster sub group and select the tool 'Raster Statistics for Polygons'.



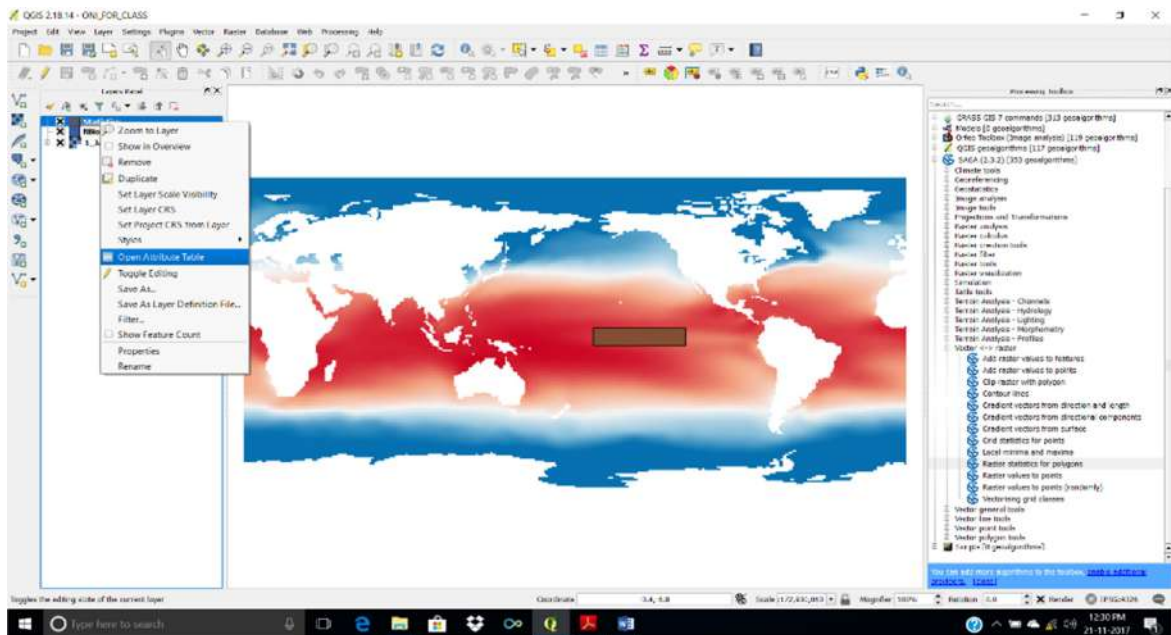
In the 'Raster Statistics for Polygons' tool panel, in the Grids option, select the SST datasets. For 'Polygons' select 'NiNo_3.4_Poly.shp', Method-> Standard, Grid Naming -> Grid Name, tick mark 'Mean' and press 'Run'.



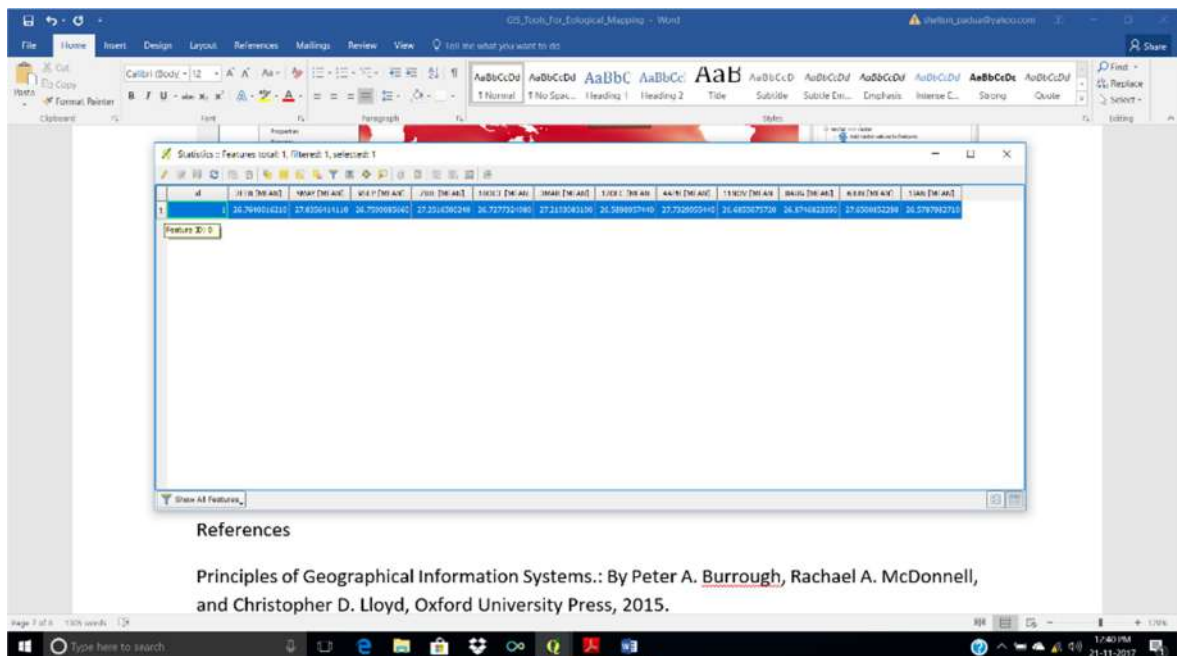
Now, you will get a 'Statistics' vector layer in the 'Layers Panel'.



Right click on the layers panel and open the 'Open Attribute Table' button. This will open up the attribute table.



From the attribute table, select the row of attributes by 'left clicking' the corresponding row number.



Once the row is highlighted, copy the records to clipboard by clicking the 'Copy' button or using the keys 'ctrl+c'. Now open a Microsoft Excel sheet and paste the copied values. Do the procedure for both climatic monthly mean SST data (1_JAN to 12_DEC) and actual monthly mean SST data (2015_JUN to 2017_OCT).

Calculate the three months running mean from 2015_JUN to 2017_OCT and three months climatic running means. Now, find the SST anomaly (difference between these two sets of running means).

Season	JJA	JAS	ASO	SON	OND	NDJ	DJF	JFM	FMA	MAM	AMJ	MJJ
Mean	27.25881	26.96208	26.78744	26.72438	26.66771	26.61807	26.64423	26.85404	27.23877	27.59598	27.73957	27.57913
2015-16	28.85611	28.84679	28.96496	29.20078	29.34831	29.34636	29.16441	28.98581	28.8917	28.60983	28.18264	27.49225
Anomaly	1.6	1.9	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.5	2.1	1.7	1.0	0.4	-0.1

Now, see if the SST anomaly qualifies for El Nino/La Nina or normal year as per the criteria and report accordingly.

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