CHAPTER 2

CLIMATE AND PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF AUSTRALIA

General description of Australia

This chapter has been prepared by the Bureau of Meteorology, Department of Science and Technology. It is mainly concerned with the climate of Australia, although some geographic comparisons and a summary of landform features influencing climate have been included together with a summary of atmospheric climate controls.

Position and area

Position. Australia, including Tasmania, comprises a land area of 7,682,300 square kilometres. The land lies between latitudes 10° 41 'S. (Cape York) and 43° 39 'S. (South Cape, Tasmania) and between longitudes 113° 09 'E. (Steep Point) and 153° 39 'E. (Cape Byron). The most southerly point on the mainland is South Point (Wilson's Promontory) 39° 08 'S. The latitudinal distance between Cape York and South Point, Wilson's Promontory (South East Cape, Tasmania) is about 3,180 kilometres (3,680 kilometres) respectively and the longitudinal distance between Steep Point and Cape Byron is about 4,000 kilometres.

Area of Australia compared with areas of other countries. The area of Australia is almost as great as that of the United States of America (excluding Alaska), about 50 per cent greater than Europe (excluding U.S.S.R.) and 32 times greater than the United Kingdom. The following table shows the area of Australia in relation to areas of other continents and selected countries.

AREAS OF CONTINENTS AND SELECTED COUNTRIES

('000 square kilometres)

Country	Area	Country	Area
Continental divisions—		Country—	
Europe (a)	4,936	Australia	7,682
Asia (a)	27,532	Brazil	8,512
U.S.S.R. (Europe and Asia)	22,402	Canada	9,976
Africa	30,319	China	9,590
North and Central America and West		Germany, Federal Republic of . . .	248
Indies	24,247	India	3,288
South America	17,834	Indonesia	1,919
Oceania	8,504	Japan	372
		Papua New Guinea	462
		New Zealand	269
		United Kindom	244
		United States of America (b) . . .	9,363
Total, World excluding Arctic and Antarctic continents	135,771		

(a) Excludes U.S.S.R., shown below.   (b) Includes Hawaii and Alaska.

Land forms

The average altitude of the surface of the Australian land mass is only about 300 metres. Approximately 87 per cent of the total land mass is less than 500 metres and 99.5 per cent is less than 1,000 metres. The highest point is Mount Kosciusko (2,228 metres) and the lowest point is Lake Eyre (-15 metres).

Australia has three major landform features: the western plateau, the interior lowlands and the eastern uplands. The western half of the continent consists of a great plateau of altitude 300 to 600 metres. The interior lowlands include the channel country of southwest Queensland (drainage to Lake Eyre) and the Murray-Darling system to the south. The eastern uplands consist of a broad belt of varied width extending from north Queensland to Tasmania and consisting largely of tablelands, ranges and ridges with only limited mountain areas above 1,000 metres.

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The rivers of Australia may be divided into two major classes, those of the coastal plains with moderate rates of fall and those of the central plains with very slight fall. Of the rivers of the northern part of the east coast, the longest are the Burdekin and the Fitzroy in Queensland. The Hunter is the largest coastal river of New South Wales, and the Murray River, with its great tributary the Darling, drains part of Queensland, the major part of New South Wales, and a large part of Victoria, finally flowing into the arm of the sea known as Lake Alexandrina, on the eastern side of the South Australian coast. The total length of the Murray is about 2,520 kilometres, about 650 being in South Australia and about 1,870 kilometres from South Australia to the source. The Darling from its junction with the Murray to its junction with the Culgoa is 1,390 kilometres. The Upper Darling (1,140 kilometres) incorporates the Barwon which commences at the junction of the Culgoa to its junction with the Weir River and the Macintyre River from its junction with the Weir to its source near Maybole. The rivers of the northwest coast of Australia (Western Australia) e.g. the Murchison, Gascoyne, Ashburton, Fortescue, De Grey, Fitzroy, Drysdale, and Ord are of considerable size. So also are those in the Northern Territory, e.g. the Victoria and Daly, and those on the Queensland side of the Gulf of Carpentaria, such as the Gregory, Leichhardt, Cloncurry, Gilbert, and Mitchell. The rivers of Tasmania have short and rapid courses, as might be expected from the configuration of the country.

The 'lakes' of Australia may be divided into three classes; true permanent lakes; lakes which being very shallow, become mere morasses in dry seasons or even dry up, and finally present a cracked surface of salt and dry mud; and lakes which are really inlets of the ocean, opening into a lake-like expanse. The second class, which are a characteristic of the interior lowlands are of considerable extent. The largest are Lake Eyre 9,500 square kilometres, Lake Torrens 5,900 square kilometres and Lake Gairdner 4,300 square kilometres.

For further information on the landforms and the geographical features of Australia earlier issues of the Year Book should be consulted. The list of special articles, etc., at the end of this volume indicates the nature of the information available and its position in the various issues.

Area, coastline, tropical and temperate zones, and standard times. The areas of the States and Territories and the length of the coastline were determined in 1973, by the Division of National Mapping, Department of National Resources, by manually digitising these features from the 1:250,000 map series of Australia. This means that only features of measurable size at this scale were considered. About 60,000 points were digitised at an approximate spacing of 0.5 kilometres. These points were joined by chords as the basis for calculation of areas and coastline lengths by computer.

The approximate high water mark coastline was digitised and included all bays, ports and estuaries which are open to the sea. In these cases, the shoreline was assumed to be where the seaward boundary of the title of ownership would be. In mangroves, the shoreline was assumed to be on the landward side. Rivers were considered in a similar manner but the decisions were rather more subjective, the line being across the river where it appeared to take its true form.

AREA, COASTLINE, TROPICAL AND TEMPERATE ZONES, AND STANDARD TIMES: AUSTRALIA

NOTE. *See* paragraphs above for methods of estimating area and coastline.

| State or Territory | Estimated area | | Length of coastline | Percentage of total area in | | Standard times | |
	Total	Percentage of total area		Tropical zone	Temperate zone	Meridian selected	Ahead of G.M.T. (a)
	km²		km				hours
New South Wales	801,600	10.43	1,900	..	100	150°E	(b)10.0
Victoria	227,600	2.96	1,800	..	100	150°E	(b)10.0
Queensland	1,727,200	22.48	7,400	54	46	150°E	10.0
South Australia	984,000	12.81	3,700	..	100	142°30′E	(b)9.5
Western Australia	2,525,500	32.87	12,500	37	63	120°E	8.0
Tasmania	67,800	0.88	3,200	..	100	150°E	(b)10.0
Northern Territory	1,346,200	17.52	6,200	81	19	142°30′E	9.5
Australian Capital Territory . .	2,400	0.03	35	..	100	150°E	(b)10.0
Australia	**7,682,300**	**100.00**	**36,735**	**39**	**61**	..	..

(a) Greenwich Mean Time.   (b) Because of 'daylight saving' an hour should be added from late October to early March.

Climate of Australia

General

The climate of Australia is predominantly continental but the insular nature of the land mass is significant in producing some modification of the continental pattern.

The island continent of Australia is relatively dry with 50 per cent of the area having a median rainfall of less than 300 millimetres per year and 80 per cent less than 600 millimetres. Extreme minimum temperatures are not as low as those recorded in other continents because of the absence of extensive mountain masses and because of the expanse of ocean to the south. However, extreme maxima are comparatively high, reaching 50°C over the inland, mainly due to the great east-west extent of the continent in the vicinity of the Tropic of Capricorn.

Climatic discomfort, particularly heat discomfort, is significant over most of Australia. During summer, prolonged high temperatures and humidity around the northern coasts and high temperatures over the inland cause physical discomfort. In winter, low temperatures and strong cold winds over the interior and southern areas can be severe for relatively short periods.

Climatic controls

The generally low relief of Australia causes little obstruction to the atmospheric systems which control the climate. A notable exception is the eastern uplands which modify the atmospheric flow.

In the winter half of the year (May–October) anticyclones, or high pressure systems, pass from west to east across the continent and often remain almost stationary over the interior for several days. These anticyclones may extend to 4,000 kilometres along their west-east axes. Northern Australia is then influenced by mild, dry south-east trade winds, and southern Australia experiences cool, moist westerly winds. The westerlies and the frontal systems associated with extensive depressions travelling over the Southern Ocean have a controlling influence on the climate of southern Australia during the winter season, causing rainy periods. Cold outbreaks, particularly in south-east Australia, occur when cold air of Southern Ocean origin is directed northwards by intense depressions having diameters up to 2,000 kilometres. Cold fronts associated with the southern depressions, or with secondary depressions over the Tasman Sea, may produce large day-to-day changes in temperature in southern areas, particularly in south-east coastal regions.
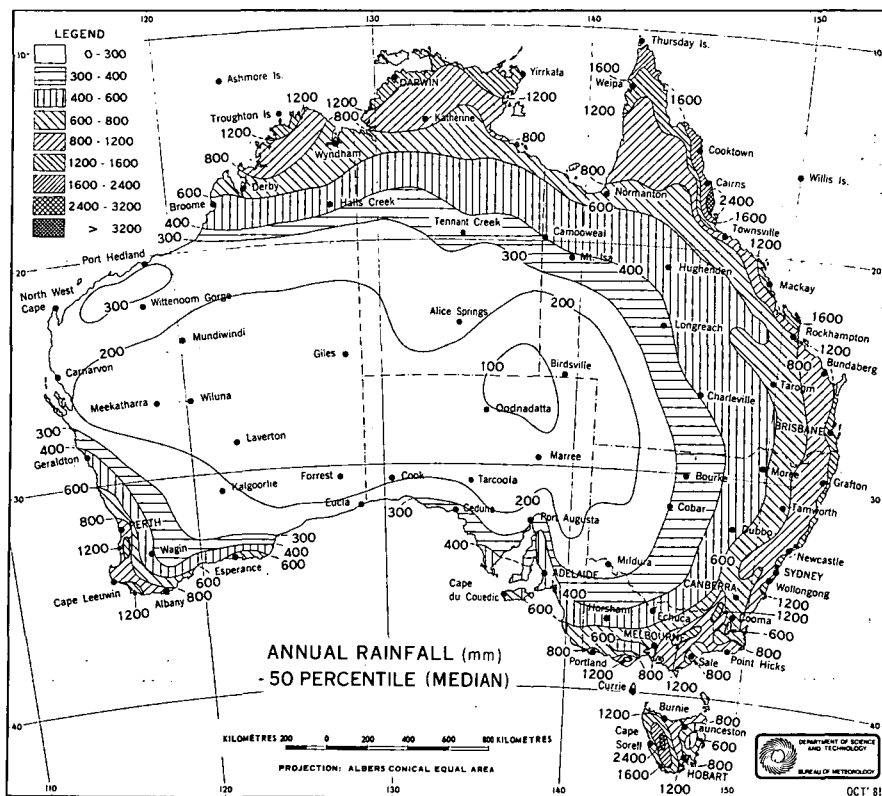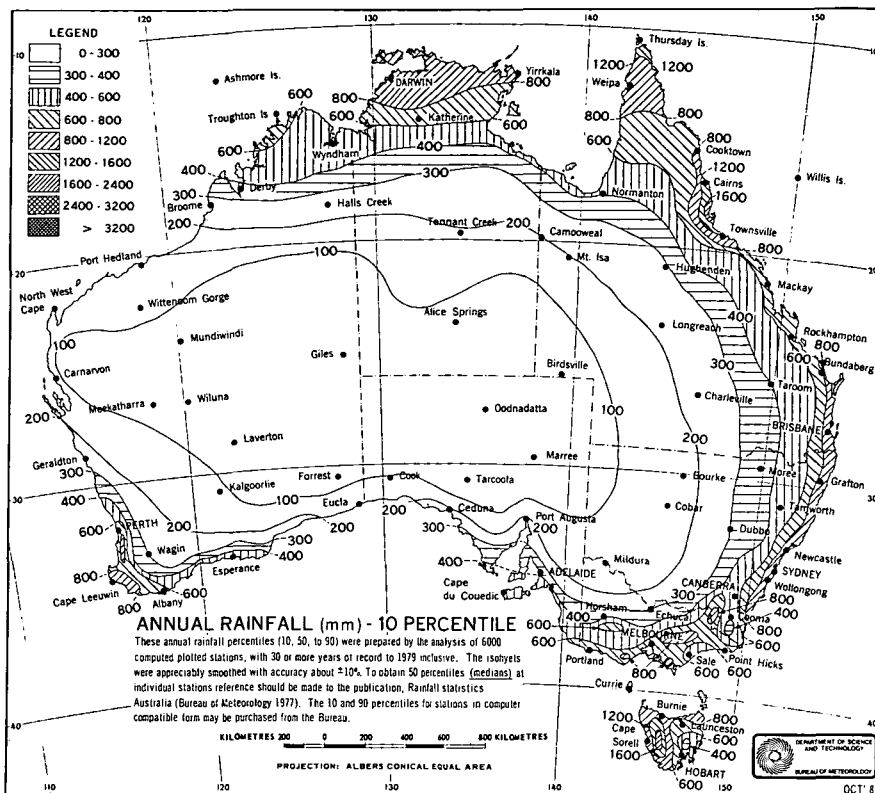
In the summer half of the year (November–April) the anticyclones travel from west to east on a more southerly track across the southern fringes of Australia directing easterly winds generally over the continent. Fine, warmer weather predominates in southern Australia with the passage of each · anticyclone. Heat waves occur when there is an interruption to the eastward progression of the anticyclone (blocking) and winds back northerly and later north-westerly. Northern Australia comes under the influence of summer disturbances associated with the southward intrusion of warm moist monsoonal air from north of the inter-tropical covergence zone resulting in a hot rainy season.

Tropical cyclones develop over the seas to the north-west and the north-east of Australia in summer between November and April. Their frequency of occurrence and the tracks they follow vary greatly from season to season. On the average, about three cyclones per season directly affect the Queensland coast, and about three affect the north and north-west coasts. Tropical cyclones approaching the coast usually produce very heavy rain in coastal areas. Some cyclones move inland, losing intensity but still producing widespread heavy rainfall. Individual cyclonic systems may control the weather over northern Australia for periods extending to three weeks.

Rainfall

Annual. The annual 10, 50 and 90 percentile* rainfall maps are shown on Plates 3–5 respectively. The area of lowest rainfall is east of Lake Eyre in South Australia, where the median (50 percentile) rainfall is only about 100 millimetres. Mulka has a median annual rainfall of 81 millimetres (57 years of record to 1980 inclusive). Another very low rainfall area is in Western Australia in the Giles-Warburton Range region, which has a median annual rainfall of about 150 millimetres. A vast region extending from the west coast near Shark Bay across the interior of Western Australia and South Australia to south-west Queensland and north-west New South Wales has a median annual rainfall of less than 200 millimetres. This region is not normally exposed to moist air masses for extended periods and rainfall is irregular, averaging only one or two days per month. However, in favourable synoptic situations, which occur infrequently over extensive parts of the region, up to 400 millimetres of rain may fall within a few days and result in widespread flooding.

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* The amounts that are not exceeded by 10, 50 and 90 per cent of all recordings are the 10, 50 and 90 percentiles or the first, fifth and ninth deciles respectively. The 50 percentile is usually called the median.

ANNUAL RAINFALL (mm) - 10 PERCENTILE
These annual rainfall percentiles (10, 50, to 90) were prepared by the analysis of 6000 computed plotted stations, with 30 or more years of record to 1979 inclusive. The isohyets were appreciably smoothed with accuracy about ±10%. To obtain 50 percentiles (medians) at individual stations reference should be made to the publication, Rainfall statistics Australia (Bureau of Meteorology 1977). The 10 and 90 percentiles for stations in computer compatible form may be purchased from the Bureau.

KILOMETRES 200   0   200   400   600   800 KILOMETRES

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

ANNUAL RAINFALL (mm) - 50 PERCENTILE (MEDIAN)

KILOMETRES 200   0   200   400   600   800 KILOMETRES

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA
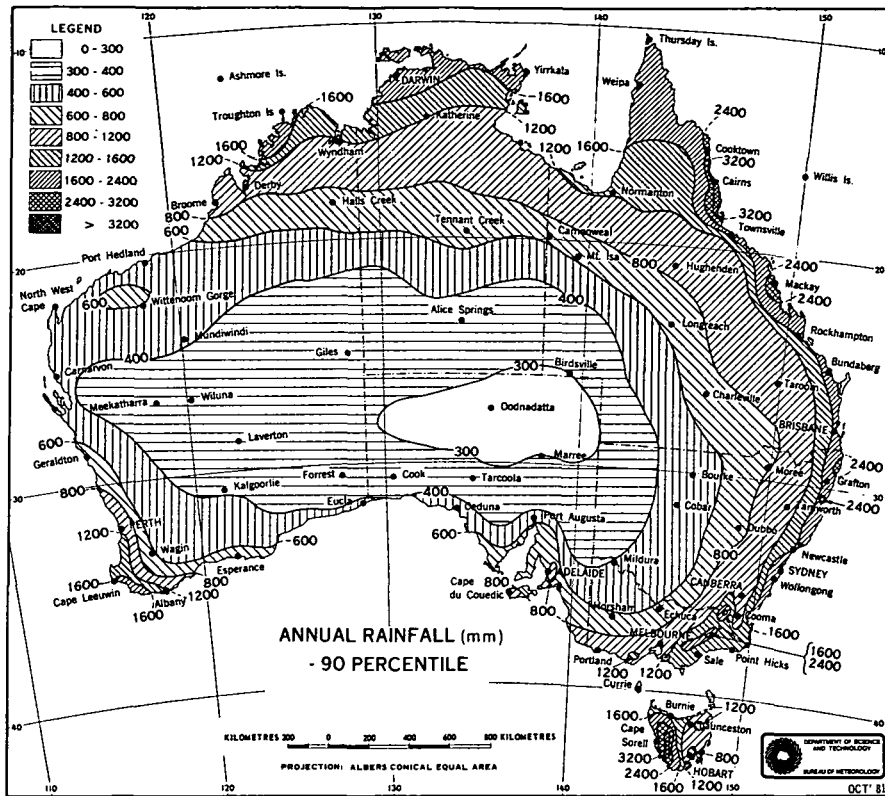
PLATES 2 and 3

PLATE 4

The region with the highest median annual rainfall is the east coast of Queensland between Cairns and Cardwell, where Tully has a median of 4,203 millimetres (56 years to 1980 inclusive). The mountainous region of western Tasmania also has a high annual rainfall, with Lake Margaret having a median of 3,575 millimetres (68 years to 1980 inclusive). In the mountainous areas of north-east Victoria and some parts of the east coastal slopes there are small pockets with median annual rainfall greater than 2,500 millimetres, but the map scale is too small for these to be shown.

The Snowy Mountains area in New South Wales also has a particularly high rainfall. The highest median annual rainfall isohyet drawn for this region is 3,200 millimetres, and it is likely that small areas have a median annual rainfall approaching 4,000 millimetres on the western slopes above 2,000 metres elevation.

The following table shows the area distribution of the median annual rainfall.

AREA DISTRIBUTION OF MEDIAN ANNUAL RAINFALL: AUSTRALIA

(Per cent)

Median annual rainfall	N.S.W.(a)	Vic.	Qld	S.A.	W.A.	Tas.	N.T.	Aust.
Under 200 mm . . .	8.0	..	10.2	74.2	43.5	..	15.5	29.6
200 to 300 „ . . .	20.3	6.3	13.0	13.5	29.6	..	35.6	22.9
300 „ 400 „ . . .	19.0	19.2	12.3	6.8	10.5	..	9.0	11.2
400 „ 500 „ . . .	12.4	11.8	13.5	3.2	4.3	..	6.6	7.6
500 „ 600 „ . . .	11.3	14.1	11.6	1.8	3.1	12.2	5.8	6.6
600 „ 800 „ . . .	15.1	24.5	20.5	0.5	4.6	18.2	11.6	10.7
800 „ 1,200 „ . .	11.3	17.7	12.6	..	3.7	25.0	9.6	7.7
Above 1,200 „ . .	2.6	6.4	6.3	..	0.7	44.6	6.3	3.7
Total . . .	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) Includes Australian Capital Territory.

Seasonal. As outlined under the heading of Climatic controls, the rainfall pattern is strongly seasonal in character with a winter rainfall regime in the south and a summer regime in the north.

The dominance of rainfall over other climatic elements in determining the growth of specific plants in Australia has led to the development of a climatic classification based on two main parameters. These parameters are median annual rainfall and seasonal rainfall incidence. Plate 5, page 15, is a reduced version of the seasonal rainfall zones arising from this classification (*see* Bureau of Meteorology publication *Climatic Atlas of Australia, Map Set 5, Rainfall,* 1977).

Evaporation and the concept of rainfall effectiveness are taken into account to some extent in this classification by assigning higher median annual rainfall limits to the summer zones than the corresponding uniform and winter zones. The main features of the seasonal rainfall are:

   (a)   marked wet summer and dry winter of northern Australia;
   (b)   wet summer and relatively dry winter of south-eastern Queensland and north-eastern New South Wales;
   (c)   uniform rainfall in south-eastern Australia—much of New South Wales, parts of eastern Victoria and in southern Tasmania;
   (d)   marked wet winter and dry summer of south-west Western Australia and (to a lesser extent) of much of the remainder of southern Australia directly influenced by westerly circulation;
   (e)   arid area comprising about half of the continent extending from the north-west coast of Western Australia across the interior and reaching the south coast at the head of the Great Australian Bight.

The seasonal rainfall classification (*Climatic Atlas, Map Set 5*) can be further reduced to provide a simplified distribution of seven climatic zones shown in Plate 7.

Variability. The adequate presentation of rainfall variability over an extensive geographical area is difficult. Probably the best measures are found in tables compiled for a number of individual stations in some of the Climatic Survey districts. These tables show the percentage chances of receiving specified amounts of rainfall in monthly, seasonal or annual time spans. Statistical indexes of rainfall variation based on several techniques have been used to compile maps showing main features of the variability of annual rainfall over Australia.

One index for assessing the variability of annual rainfall is given by the ratio of the 90–10 percentile range to the 50 percentile (median value) i.e. Variability Index = $\dfrac{90 - 10}{50}$ percentiles.

Variability based on this relationship (Gaffney 1975) is shown in Plate 7, page 17. The region of high to extreme variability shown in Plate 7, lies mostly in the arid zone with summer rainfall incidence, AZ(S), defined on Plate 5, page 15. In the winter rainfall zones the variability is generally low to moderate as exemplified by the south-west of Western Australia. In the tropics, random cyclone visitations cause extremely great variations in rainfall from year to year: at Onslow (Western Australia), annual totals varied from 15 millimetres in 1912 to 1,085 millimetres in 1961 and, in the four consecutive years 1921 to 1924, the annual totals were 566, 69, 682 and 55 millimetres respectively. At Whim Creek (Western Australia), where 747 millimetres have been recorded in a single day, only 4 millimetres were received in the whole of 1924. Great variability can also occur in the heavy rainfall areas: at Tully (Queensland), the annual rainfalls have varied from 7,898 millimetres in 1950 to 2,486 millimetres in 1961.

Rainday frequency. The average number of days per year with rainfall of 0.2 millimetres or more is shown in Plate 8, page 17.

The frequency of rain-days exceed 150 per year in Tasmania (with a maximum of over 200 in western Tasmania), southern Victoria, parts of the north Queensland coast and in the extreme south-west of Western Australia. Over most of the continent the frequency is less than 50 rain-days per year. The area of low rainfall with high variability, extending from the north-west coast of Western Australia through the interior of the continent, has less than 25 rain-days per year. In the high rainfall areas of northern Australia the number of rain-days is about 80 per year, but heavier falls occur in this region than in southern regions.

Intensity. The highest rainfall intensities for some localities are shown in the first table on page 18. These figures represent intensities over only small areas around the recording points because turbulence and exposure characteristics of the measuring gauge may vary over a distance of a few metres. The highest rainfall measured for one hour is 330 millimetres at Deeral, Queensland, 13 March 1936. The highest 24-hour (9 a.m. to 9 a.m.) falls are listed by States in the second table on page 18. Most of the very high 24-hour falls (above 700 millimetres) have occurred in the coastal strip of Queensland, where a tropical cyclone moving close to mountainous terrain provides ideal conditions

for spectacular falls. The highest 24-hour fall (1,140 millimetres) occurred at Bellenden Ker (Top Station) on 4 January 1979. Bellenden Ker (Top Station) has also recorded the highest monthly rainfall in Australia (5,387 millimetres in January 1979).

The highest annual rainfalls are listed by States in the following table.

HIGHEST ANNUAL RAINFALLS
(All years to 1980 inclusive)

State	Station	Year	Amount
			mm
New South Wales	Tallowwood Point	1950	4,540
Victoria	Mt Buffalo Chalet	1917	3,342
Queensland	Bellenden Ker (Top Station)	1979	11,251
South Australia	Aldgate State School	1917	1,851
Western Australia	Karnet	1964	2,601
Tasmania	Lake Margaret	1948	4,504
Northern Territory	Elizabeth Downs	1973	2,966

SEASONAL RAINFALL ZONES
AUSTRALIA

PLATE 5

CLASSIFICATION

- SUMMER RAINFALL – TROPICAL
- SUMMER RAINFALL – SUBTROPICAL
- UNIFORM RAINFALL – TEMPERATE
- WINTER RAINFALL (MODERATE TO HEAVY) – TEMPERATE
- WINTER RAINFALL (MAINLY MODERATE) – TEMPERATE
- ARID (MAINLY SUMMER RAIN) – SUBTROPICAL
- ARID (WINTER/NON SEASON RAIN) – SUBTROPICAL TO WARM TEMPERATE

CLIMATIC ZONES AUSTRALIA

KILOMETRES 200   0   200   400   600   800 KILOMETRES

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

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BUREAU OF METEOROLOGY

CLASSIFICATION	SEASONAL CHARACTERISTICS	
	SUMMER	WINTER
Summer Rainfall – Tropical	Heavy periodic rains (heavier in coastal & highland areas) Hot generally Humid in coastal areas	Generally rainless Mild to warm Dry
Summer Rainfall – Subtropical	Heavy periodic rains (heavier in coastal & highland areas) Mainly hot Humid in highlands & coastal areas	Some significant rain Mild
Uniform Rainfall – Temperate	Mainly reliable rain Warm to hot	Mainly reliable rain Cool to cold
Winter Rainfall (moderate to heavy) – Temperate	Irregular rain, mostly light Warm to hot	Reliable rain (moderate to heavy) Cool to mild

CLASSIFICATION	SEASONAL CHARACTERISTICS	
	SUMMER	WINTER
Winter Rainfall (mainly moderate) – Temperate	Mostly light irregular rain Warm to hot	Reliable rain (mainly moderate) Cool to cold
Arid (mainly summer rain) – Subtropical	Variably rain Hot to extreme Very dry	Mainly irregular light rain Mild to warm Dry
Arid (winter or non-seasonal rain) – Warm Temperate to Subtropical	Very irregular rain Hot to extreme Very dry	Variable rain, mainly light Cool to mild Dry

[Reference:- Climatic Atlas of Australia, Map set 5, Bureau of Meteorology 1975]

PLATE 6

ANNUAL RAINFALL VARIABILITY
(Based on records of 6000 rainfall stations with 30 or more years of record to 1979 inclusive)
Variability index computed from annual rainfall
percentiles (90, 50 and 10%)
Variability index = $\frac{90\% - 10\%}{50\%}$
AUSTRALIA

RAIN–DAYS
AVERAGE ANNUAL FREQUENCY
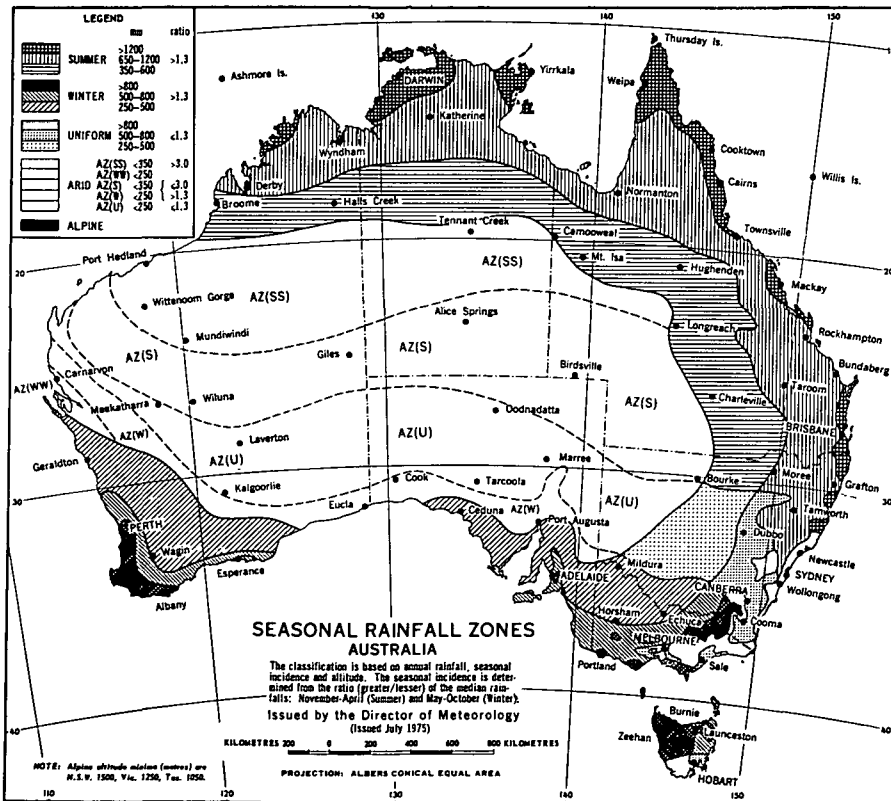AUSTRALIA
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PLATES 7 and 8

HIGHEST RAINFALL INTENSITIES IN SPECIFIED PERIODS

(millimetres)

(*Source:* Pluviograph records in Bureau of Meteorology archives.)

Station	Period of record	Years of complete records	Period in hours				
			1	3	6	12	24
			mm	mm	mm	mm	mm
Adelaide	1897–1980 . . .	80	69	133	141	141	141
Alice Springs . .	1951–1980 . . .	28	75	77	87	108	150
Brisbane	1911–1980 . . .	67	88	144	182	265	327
Broome	1948–1979 . . .	32	112	157	185	313	351
Canberra	1932–1979 . . .	44	51	68	71	89	139
Carnarvon . . .	1956–1979 . . .	24	32	63	83	95	108
Charleville . . .	1953–1980 . . .	28	42	66	75	111	142
Cloncurry . . .	1953–1975 . . .	20	59	118	164	173	204
Darwin (Airport) .	1953–1980 . . .	25	88	138	214	260	277
Esperance . . .	1963–1979 . . .	15	23	45	62	68	79
Hobart	1911–1980 . . .	67	28	56	87	117	168
Meekatharra . .	1953–1979 . . .	25	33	67	81	99	112
Melbourne . . .	1878–1980 . . .	90	79	83	86	97	130
Mildura	1953–1977 . . .	23	49	60	65	65	91
Perth	1946–1980 . . .	33	32	38	47	64	93
Sydney	1913–1979 . . .	63	97	135	166	190	282
Townsville . . .	1953–1980 . . .	26	88	158	235	296	319

HIGHEST DAILY RAINFALLS

(All years to July 1981)

State	Station	Date	Amount
			mm
New South Wales . .	Dorrigo	21.2.1954	809
	Cordeaux River	14.2.1898	574
Victoria	Balook	18.2.1951	275
	Hazel Park	1.12.1934	267
Queensland	Bellenden Ker (Top Station) .	4.1.1979	1,140
	Crohamhurst	3.2.1893	907
	Finch Hatton	18.2.1958	878
	Mount Dangar	20.1.1970	869
South Australia . .	Stansbury	18.2.1946	222
	Stirling	17.4.1889	208
Western Australia .	Whim Creek	3.4.1898	747
	Kilto	4.12.1970	635
	Fortescue	3.5.1890	593
Tasmania	Cullenswood	22.3.1974	352
	Mathinna	5.4.1929	337
Northern Territory .	Roper Valley	15.4.1963	545
	Groote Eylandt	28.3.1953	513

Thunderstorms and hail. A thunder-day at a given location is a calendar day on which thunder is heard at least once. Plate 9, page 19 shows isopleths (isobronts) of the average annual number of thunder-days which varies from 80 per year near Darwin to less than 10 per year over parts of the southern regions. Convectional processes during the summer wet season cause high thunderstorm incidence in northern Australia. The generally high incidence (40–60 annually) over the eastern upland areas is produced mainly by orographic uplift of moist air streams.

Hail, mostly of small size (less than 10 millimetres diameter), occurs with winter/spring cold frontal activity in southern Australia. Summer thunderstorms, particularly over the uplands of eastern Australia, sometimes produce large hail (greater than 10 millimetres diameter). Hail capable of piercing light gauge galvanised iron occurs at irregular intervals and sometimes causes widespread damage.

Snow. Generally, snow covers much of the Australian Alps above 1,500 metres for varying periods from late autumn to early spring. Similarly, in Tasmania the mountains are covered fairly frequently above 1,000 metres in these seasons. The area, depth and duration are highly variable and in the altitude range 500–1,000 metres no snow falls in some years. Snowfalls at levels below 500 metres are occasionally experienced in southern Australia, particularly in the foothill areas of Tasmania and Victoria, but falls are usually light and short-lived. In some seasons parts of the eastern uplands above 1,000 metres from Victoria to south-eastern Queensland have been covered with snow for several weeks. In ravines around Mt Kosciusko (2,228 metres) small areas of snow may persist through summer but there are no permanent snowfields.
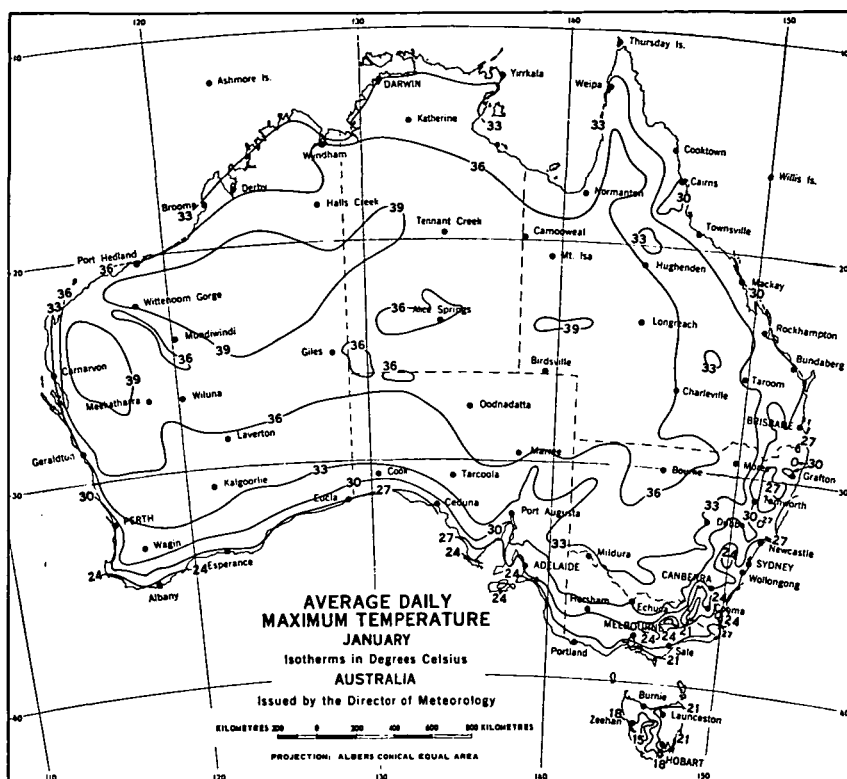
AVERAGE ANNUAL THUNDER-DAY MAP

AUSTRALIA

(Means based on 10 years 1954 - 63 inclusive)
Isopleths in days

Issued by the Director of Meteorology

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

AVERAGE ANNUAL
TEMPERATURE
Isotherms in Degrees Celsius

AUSTRALIA

Issued by the Director of Meteorology

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

PLATES 9 and 10
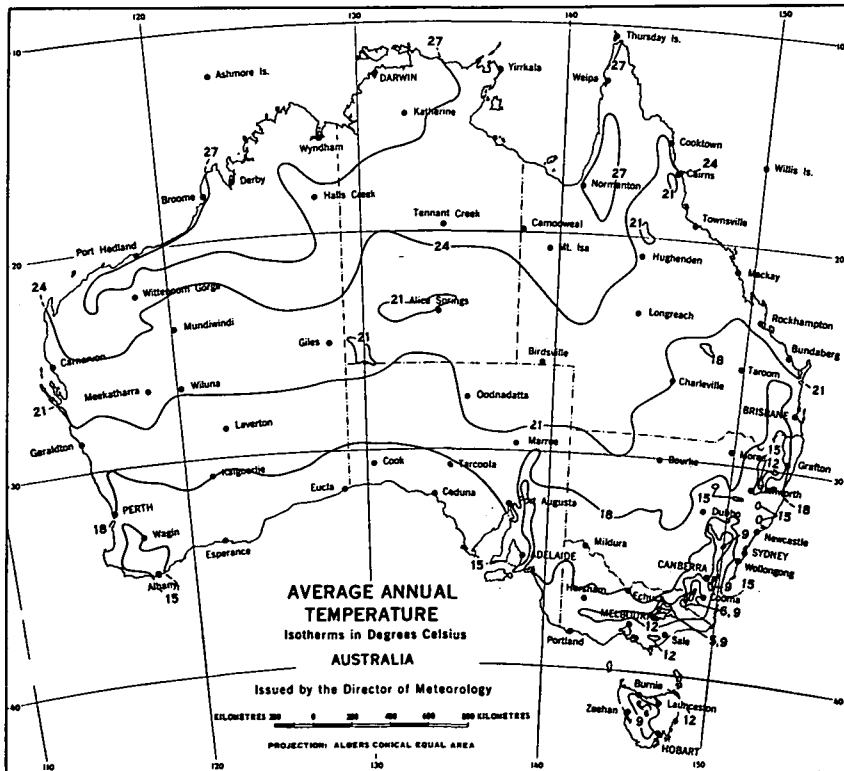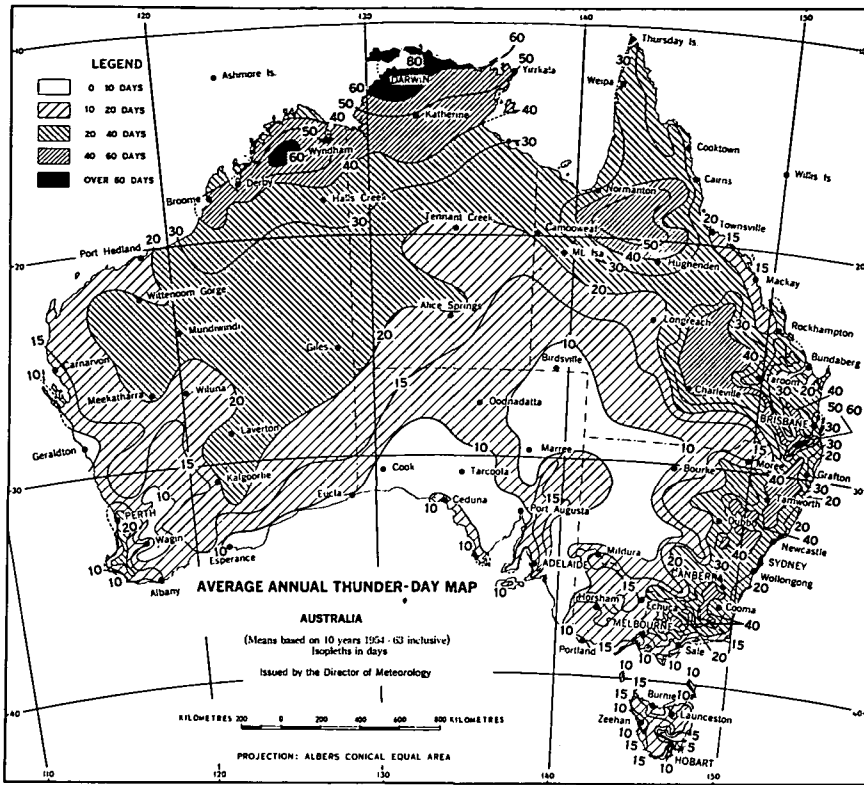
PLATE 11

Temperature

Average temperatures. Average annual air temperatures as shown in Plate 10, page 19 range from 28° C along the Kimberley coast in the extreme north of Western Australia to 4° C in the alpine areas of south-eastern Australia. Although annual temperature may be used for broad comparisons, monthly temperatures are required for detailed analyses.

July is the month with the lowest average temperature in all parts of the continent. The months with the highest average temperature are January or February in the south and December in the north (except in the extreme north and north-west where it is November). The slightly lower temperatures of mid-summer in the north are due to the increase in cloud during the wet season.

Average monthly maxima. Maps of average maximum and minimum temperatures for the months of January and July are shown in Plates 11-14 inclusive, pages 20-22.

In January, average maximum temperatures exceed 35° C over a vast area of the interior and exceed 40° C over appreciable areas of the north-west. The consistently hottest part of Australia in terms of summer maxima is around Marble Bar, Western Australia (150 kilometres south-east of Port Hedland) where the average is 41° C and daily maxima during summer may exceed 40°C consecutively for several weeks at a time.

The marked gradients of isotherms of maximum temperature in summer in coastal areas, particularly along the south and west coasts, are due to the penetration inland of fresh sea breezes initiated by the sharp temperature discontinuities between the land and sea surfaces. There are also gradients of a complex nature in south-east coastal areas caused primarily by the uplands.

In July a more regular latitudinal distribution of average maxima is evident. Maxima range from 30°C near the north coast to 5° C in the alpine areas of the south-east.

Average monthly minima. In January average minima range from 27° C on the north-west coast to 5° C in the alpine areas of the south-east. In July average minima fall below 5° C in areas south of the tropics (away from the coasts). Alpine areas record the lowest temperatures; the July average is as low as –5° C.
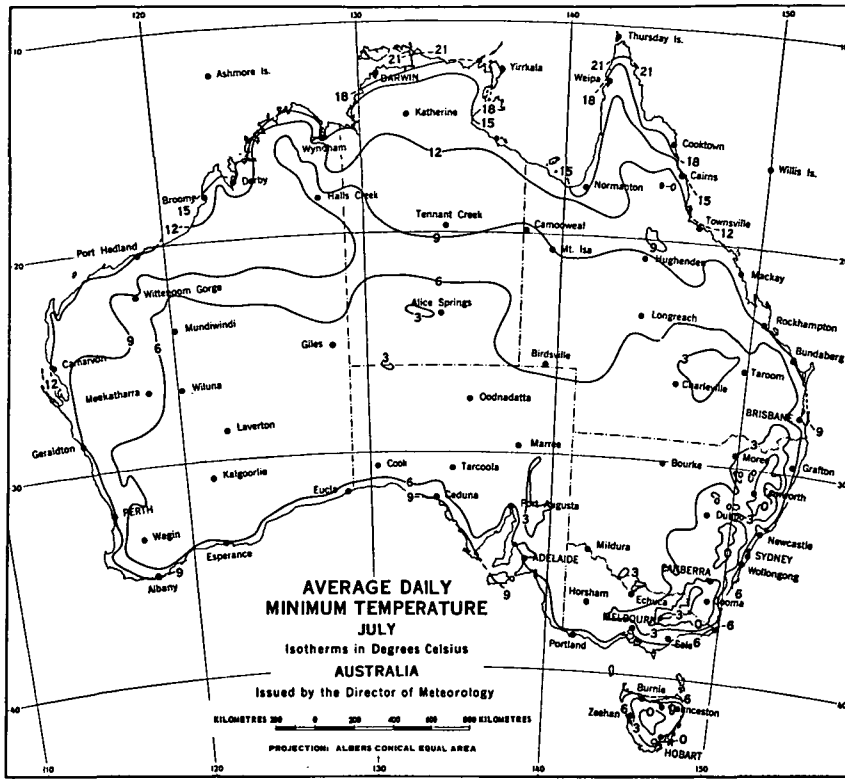
AVERAGE DAILY
MAXIMUM TEMPERATURE
JULY
Isotherms in Degrees Celsius
AUSTRALIA
Issued by the Director of Meteorology

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

AVERAGE DAILY
MINIMUM TEMPERATURE
JANUARY
Isotherms in Degrees Celsius
AUSTRALIA
Issued by the Director of Meteorology

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

PLATES 12 and 13
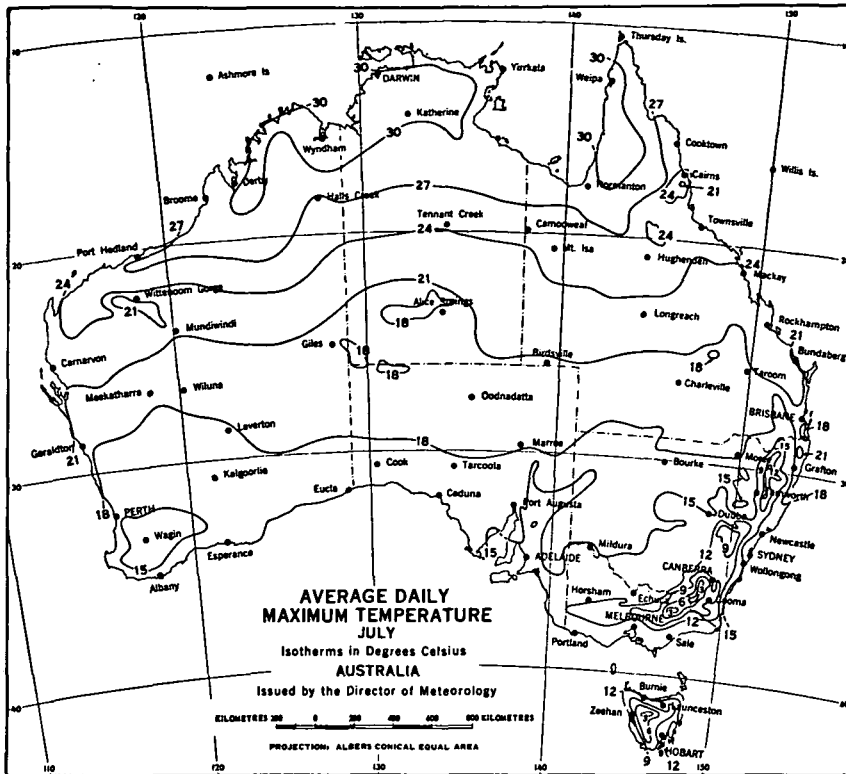
PLATE 14

Extreme maxima. Temperatures have exceeded 45°C at nearly all inland stations more than 150 kilometres from the coast and at many places on the north-west and south coasts. Temperatures have exceeded 50°C at some inland stations and at a few near the coast. It is noteworthy that Eucla on the south coast has recorded 50.7°C, the highest temperature in Western Australia. This is due to the long trajectory over land of hot north-west winds from the Marble Bar area. Although the highest temperature recorded in Australia was 53.1°C at Cloncurry (Queensland), more stations have exceeded 50°C in western New South Wales than in other areas due to the long land trajectory of hot winds from the north-west interior of the continent.

Extreme maximum temperatures recorded at selected stations, including the highest recorded in each State, are shown in the table below.

EXTREME MAXIMUM TEMPERATURES

(All years to July 1982)

Station	°C	Date	Station	°C	Date
New South Wales—			Western Australia—		
Bourke	52.8	17.1.1877	Eucla	50.7	22.1.1906
Walgett	50.1	2.1.1903	Mundrabilla	49.8	3.1.1979
Wilcannia	50.0	11.1.1939	Forrest	49.8	13.1.1979
Victoria—			Madura	49.4	7.1.1971
Mildura	50.8	6.1.1906	Tasmania—		
Swan Hill	49.4	18.1.1906	Bushy Park	40.8	26.12.1945
Queensland—			Hobart	40.8	4.1.1976
Cloncurry	53.1	16.1.1889	Northern Territory—		
Winton	50.7	14.12.1888	Finke	48.3	2.1.1960
Birdsville	50.0	24.12.1972	Jervois	47.5	3.1.1978
South Australia—			Australian Capital Territory—		
Oodnadatta	50.7	2.1.1960	Canberra (Acton)	42.8	11.1.1939
Kyancutta	49.3	9.1.1939			

Extreme minima. The lowest temperatures in Australia have been recorded in the Snowy Mountains, where Charlotte Pass (elevation 1,760 metres) has recorded -22.2°C on 14 July 1945 and 22 August 1947. Temperatures have fallen below -5°C at most inland places south of the tropics and at some places within a few kilometres of southern coasts. At Eyre, on the south coast of Western Australia, a minimum of -3.9°C has been recorded, and at Swansea, on the east coast of Tasmania, the temperature has fallen as low as -4.4°C.

In the tropics, extreme minima below 0°C have been recorded at many places away from the coasts as far north as Herberton, Queensland (-3.3°C). Even very close to the tropical coastline temperatures have fallen to 0°C, a low recording being -0.8°C for Mackay.

The next table shows extreme minimum temperatures recorded at specified stations, including the lowest recorded in each State.

EXTREME MINIMUM TEMPERATURES

(All years to July 1982)

Station	°C	Date	Station	°C	Date
New South Wales—			Western Australia—		
Charlotte Pass	-22.2	14.7.1945	Booylgoo	-6.7	12.7.1969
		22.8.1947	Wandering	-5.7	1.6.1964
Kiandra	-20.6	2.8.1929	Tasmania—		
Kosciusko Hotel	-14.4	3.7.1929	Shannon	-13.0	30.6.1983
		6.7.1939	Butlers Gorge	-13.0	30.6.1983
Cooma	-11.2	13.7.1898	Tarraleah	-13.0	30.6.1983
Victoria—			Northern Territory—		
Mount Hotham	-12.8	13.8.1947	Alice Springs	-7.5	12.7.1976
Omeo	-11.7	15.6.1965	Tempe Downs	-6.9	24.7.1971
Bairnsdale	-7.2	16.8.1896	Australian Capital Territory—		
Queensland—			Canberra	-10.0	19.7.1924
Stanthorpe	-11.0	4.7.1895			11.7.1971
Mitchell	-9.4	15.8.1979			
Nanango	-9.3	16.7.1918			
South Australia—					
Yongala	-8.2	20.7.1976			
Yunta	-7.7	19.7.1976			

Heat waves. Periods with a number of successive days having a temperature higher than 40°C are relatively common in summer over parts of Australia. With the exception of the north-west coast of Western Australia, however, most coastal areas rarely experience more than three successive days of such conditions. The frequency increases inland, and periods of up to ten successive days have been recorded at many inland stations. This figure increases in western Queensland and north-western Western Australia to more than twenty days in places. The central part of the Northern Territory and the Marble Bar-Nullagine area of Western Australia have recorded the most prolonged heat waves. Marble Bar is the only station in the world where temperatures of more than 37.8°C (100°F) have been recorded on as many as 161 consecutive days (30 October 1923-7 April 1924).

Heat waves are experienced in the coastal areas from time to time. During 11-14 January 1939, for example, a severe heat wave affected south-eastern Australia: Adelaide had a record of 47.6°C on the 12th, Melbourne a record of 45.6°C on the 13th and Sydney a record of 45.3°C on the 14th.

The Kimberley district of Western Australia is the consistently hottest part of Australia in terms of annual average maximum temperature. Wyndham, for example, has an annual average maximum of 35.5°C.

Frost

For details *see* Year Book No. 63, pages 23 to 25.

Humidity

Australia is a dry continent in terms of the water vapour content or humidity of the air and this element may be compared with evaporation to which it is related (*see* page 27). Humidity is measured at Bureau of Meteorology observational stations by a pair of dry and wet bulb thermometers mounted in a standard instrument screen. These measurements enable moisture content to be expressed by a number of parameters, two of which are vapour pressure and relative humidity.

Vapour pressure is an actual quantitative measure whereas relative humidity is a ratio (expressed as a percentage). Both of these are included here showing their respective applications but more detailed treatment is given to relative humidity because of its wider usage.

Vapour pressure. Vapour pressure is defined as the pressure exerted by the water vapour in the air; and it is a measure of the actual amount of water vapour present. The amount of water vapour does not normally vary greatly during the day, although afternoon sea breezes at coastal stations may bring in moisture to increase the vapour pressure temporarily by amounts up to 5 millibars. The 9 a.m. vapour pressure may be taken to approximate the mean value for the day.

The table on page 27 contains average 9 a.m. vapour pressures for selected stations. The annual averages range from 9.5 millibars at Hobart to 27.9 millibars at Thursday Island. At the high level station Kiandra (1,400 metres) the annual average is 7.9 millibars. Excluding Kiandra, monthly averages range from 6.7 millibars at inland stations in winter months to 30.9 millibars at Broome in February.

Vapour pressure together with corresponding air temperature have been used to measure climatic discomfort affecting human beings. Comfortable conditions are generally accepted as being within the vapour pressure range 7–17 millibars with respective air temperatures in the range 15–30°C. Above these limits heat discomfort increases and below them cold discomfort increases. The wet bulb temperature may also be used as a simple measure of heat discomfort when this temperature rises above 20°C.

Relative humidity. Relative humidity at a given temperature is the ratio (expressed as a percentage) of actual vapour pressure to the saturated vapour pressure at that temperature. As a single measure of human discomfort relative humidity is of limited value because it must be related to the temperature at the time.

Since the temperature at 9 a.m. approximates the mean temperature for the day (24 hours), the relative humidity at 9 a.m. may be taken as an estimate of the mean relative humidity for the day. Relative humidity at 3 p.m. occurs around the warmest part of the day on the average and is representative of the lowest daily values. Relative humidity on the average is at a maximum in the early morning when air temperature is minimal.

Relative humidity isopleths for January and July at 9 a.m. and 3 p.m. are shown in Plates 15–18 on pages 25–26, extracted from the *Climatic Atlas of Australia, Map Set 6, Relative Humidity*, 1978.
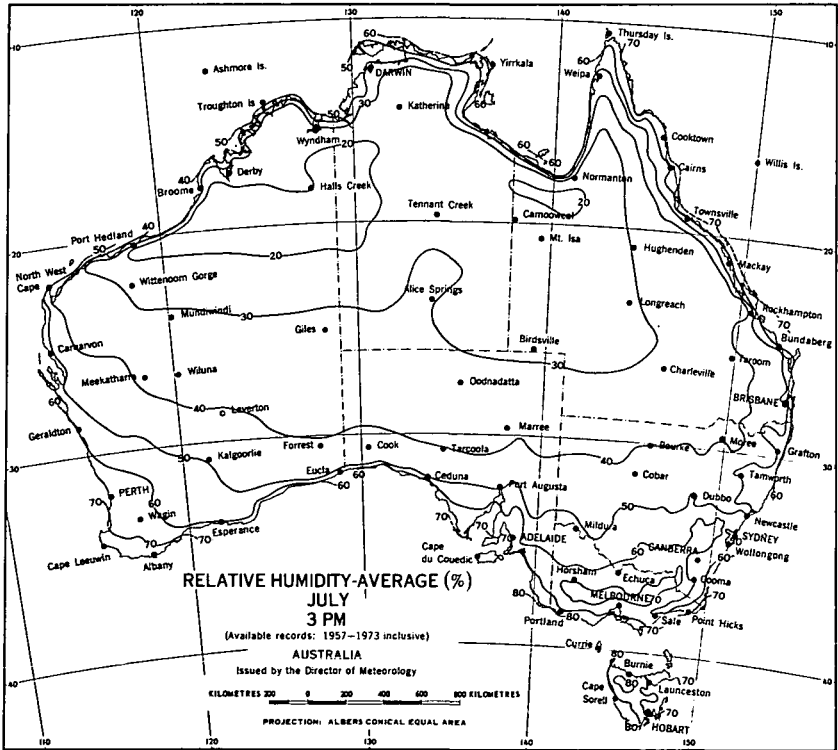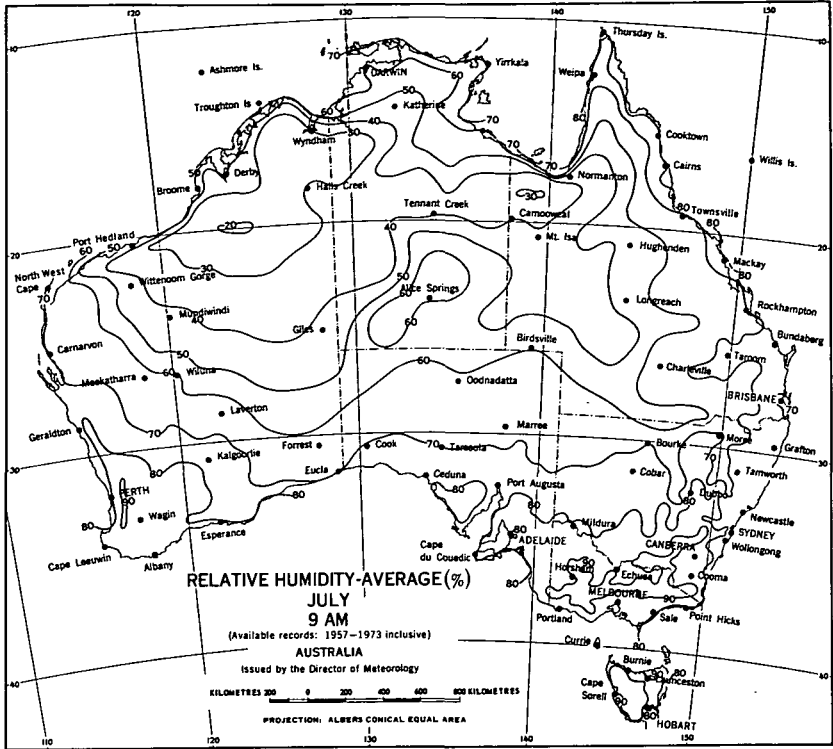
The main features of the relative humidity pattern are:
  (a) over the interior of the continent there is a marked dryness during most of the year, notably towards the northern coasts in the dry season (May–October);
  (b) the coastal fringes are comparatively moist, although this is less evident along the north-west coast of Western Australia where continental effects are marked;
  (c) in northern Australia the highest values occur during the summer wet season (December–February) and the lowest during the winter dry season (June–August);
  (d) in most of southern Australia the highest values are experienced in the winter rainy season (June–August) and the lowest in summer (December–February).
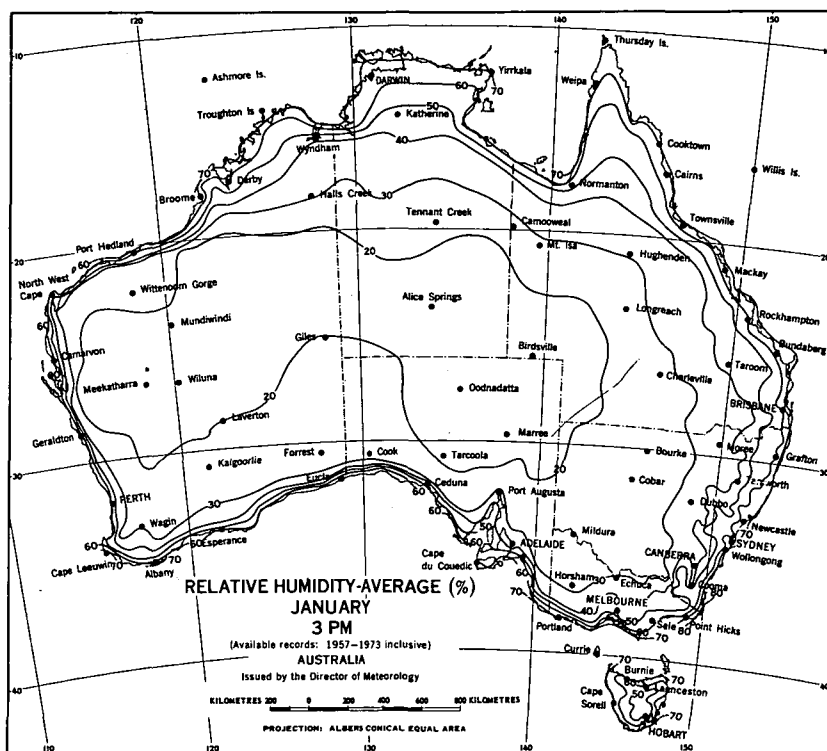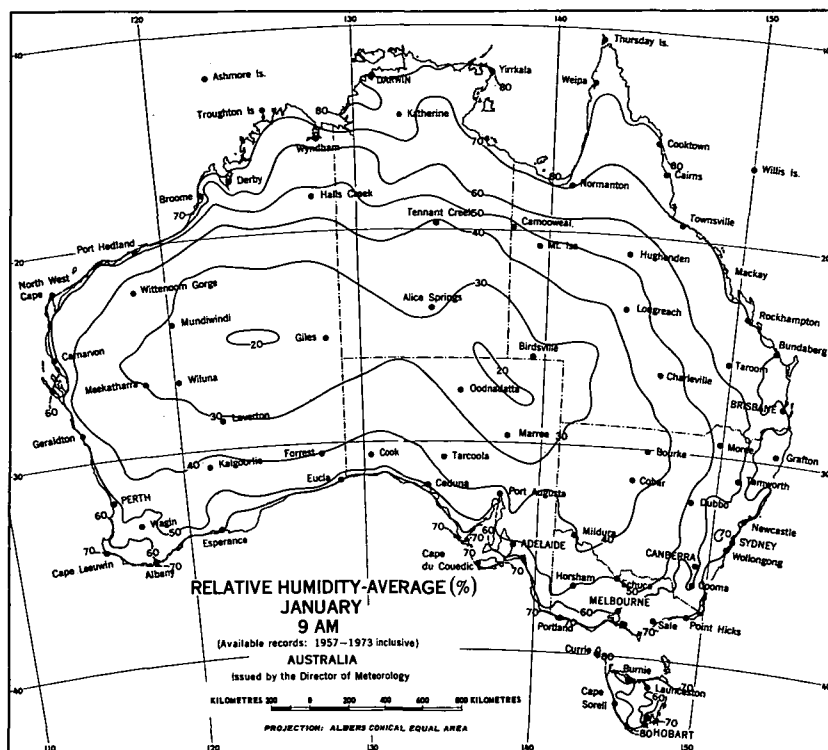
The table on page 27 contains average relative humidity at 9 a.m. for the year and for each month. Average annual figures on the table range from 34 per cent at Mundiwindi and Marble Bar to 79 per cent at Thursday Island illustrating the range of average relative humidity over Australia. Adelaide has the lowest value for a capital city with an annual average of 60 per cent, compared with Melbourne 69 per cent and Darwin 73 per cent.

Monthly averages shown in the table range from 23 per cent at Mundiwindi in November to 89 per cent at Katanning in June and July. At Alice Springs monthly averages vary from 30 per cent in November to 66 per cent in the winter month of June when low temperatures have the effect of raising relative humidity over the interior. Broome varies from 46 per cent in August to 73 per cent in February, which is a marked seasonal change for a coastal station.

The pattern of variation of relative humidity differs from that of vapour pressure particularly in southern Australia. This is due to the difference in variation of the two parameters with temperature. If the amount of moisture in the air remains constant, vapour pressure decreases slightly with falling temperatures, whereas relative humidity increases. Perth for example has an average 9 a.m. vapour pressure of 14.7 millibars in January and 11.0 in August; and the respective average relative humidity figures (51 and 74 per cent respectively) show a reverse change.

RELATIVE HUMIDITY-AVERAGE (%)
JULY
9 AM
(Available records: 1957–1973 inclusive)
AUSTRALIA
Issued by the Director of Meteorology

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

RELATIVE HUMIDITY-AVERAGE (%)
JULY
3 PM
(Available records: 1957–1973 inclusive)
AUSTRALIA
Issued by the Director of Meteorology

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

PLATES 15 and 16

PLATES 17 and 18

AVERAGE VAPOUR PRESSURE AT 9 A.M.

(millibars)

NOTE. The averages in this and the next table may differ from previously published averages derived from average monthly and annual dry and wet bulb temperatures respectively. This is mainly due to the nature of psychometric formulae and also to differences in the period of record.

Station	Period of record	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Adelaide . . .	1955–78	13.1	13.6	12.9	11.7	10.9	9.9	9.6	9.6	9.8	10.4	10.9	11.9	11.2
Alice Springs . .	1940–78	12.8	13.7	11.7	9.9	8.8	7.9	7.0	6.7	7.0	8.5	9.5	11.0	9.6
Armidale . . .	1957–78	15.6	15.8	14.4	11.8	9.2	7.8	6.7	7.5	8.6	10.5	11.9	13.7	11.1
Brisbane . . .	1951–78	21.7	22.2	21.3	18.1	14.1	11.9	10.7	11.1	13.1	15.5	17.7	19.8	16.4
Broome	1939–78	30.2	30.9	29.6	22.6	16.2	13.5	12.5	13.1	16.6	21.2	25.3	28.7	21.7
Canberra . . .	1939–78	13.5	14.2	13.1	10.6	8.6	7.3	6.7	7.2	8.4	10.0	10.9	12.1	10.2
Carnarvon . . .	1945–78	20.9	21.9	20.0	17.0	14.2	13.6	12.5	12.2	12.4	13.4	15.7	18.3	16.0
Ceduna	1939–78	14.0	14.5	13.8	12.4	11.2	9.9	9.4	9.8	10.4	10.8	11.6	12.9	11.7
Charleville . . .	1942–78	17.3	18.4	16.4	12.9	10.7	9.5	8.3	8.3	9.1	11.1	12.0	14.7	12.4
Cloncurry . . .	1939–75	21.2	22.8	18.7	13.8	11.0	9.4	8.0	7.7	8.6	11.2	13.2	17.3	13.6
Darwin . . .	1941–78	30.4	30.5	30.2	26.8	21.5	17.8	17.4	20.1	24.4	27.2	28.9	29.9	25.4
Esperance . . .	1957–69	16.1	16.9	15.8	14.7	12.8	12.1	11.1	11.0	11.8	12.6	13.5	14.8	13.6
Halls Creek . .	1944–78	21.7	22.2	18.6	13.0	10.8	8.8	7.5	7.4	8.4	11.5	14.4	18.7	13.5
Hobart . . .	1944–78	11.3	11.6	11.2	10.0	9.0	8.1	7.7	7.7	8.2	9.0	9.6	10.7	9.5
Kalgoorlie . . .	1939–78	13.6	14.3	13.7	12.3	10.9	9.9	9.1	9.1	9.2	10.0	11.1	12.3	11.3
Katanning . . .	1957–78	13.6	14.4	13.6	12.9	11.5	10.6	9.7	10.0	10.4	10.9	11.2	12.2	11.7
Kiandra	1957–74	11.6	11.1	10.5	7.9	6.2	5.6	5.0	5.3	5.7	7.3	8.3	10.3	7.9
Marble Bar . .	1957–78	22.1	21.8	19.0	13.3	10.3	10.0	8.5	8.1	8.2	10.0	11.7	17.2	13.3
Melbourne . . .	1955–78	13.7	14.7	13.8	11.9	10.5	9.5	8.8	9.0	9.7	10.6	11.4	12.4	11.3
Mildura	1946–78	13.5	14.3	13.4	11.8	10.6	9.3	8.7	9.1	9.8	10.7	11.2	12.1	11.2
Mundiwindi . .	1957–78	14.0	14.8	13.0	11.0	9.0	8.8	7.7	7.2	6.8	8.0	8.9	11.1	10.0
Perth	1942–78	14.7	15.2	14.7	13.6	12.4	11.9	11.1	11.0	11.4	11.2	12.4	13.6	12.8
Sydney	1955–78	19.1	20.0	18.8	15.1	11.8	10.5	9.0	9.6	11.0	13.1	14.9	17.2	14.2
Thursday Island .	1950–78	30.5	30.7	30.6	29.5	28.3	26.1	24.7	24.7	25.1	26.6	28.3	29.9	27.9
Townsville . . .	1939–78	27.2	27.7	26.3	22.4	18.8	15.6	15.2	15.9	17.7	20.7	23.5	25.5	21.4

AVERAGE RELATIVE HUMIDITY AT 9 A.M.

(per cent)

Station	Period of record	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Adelaide . . .	1955–78	49	51	54	59	69	73	75	71	63	56	53	51	60
Alice Springs . .	1940–78	36	41	42	46	57	66	61	50	36	33	30	31	44
Armidale . . .	1957–78	67	71	72	73	78	80	75	72	64	59	58	59	69
Brisbane . . .	1951–78	67	68	70	69	68	69	66	62	60	59	58	60	64
Broome	1939–78	70	73	69	55	51	50	49	46	48	54	58	64	57
Canberra . . .	1939–78	60	65	68	74	81	84	84	78	72	65	60	56	70
Carnarvon . . .	1945–78	60	60	58	57	60	70	70	63	54	52	55	58	59
Ceduna	1939–78	55	59	62	68	77	82	81	77	66	56	54	54	65
Charleville . . .	1942–78	49	54	54	54	63	71	66	56	45	41	37	41	52
Cloncurry . . .	1939–75	53	61	53	45	47	50	45	37	31	30	32	41	43
Darwin	1941–78	82	84	83	76	67	63	64	68	71	70	73	77	73
Esperance . . .	1957–69	62	67	66	71	76	81	82	76	71	65	62	62	70
Halls Creek . .	1944–78	51	55	44	33	36	35	31	25	22	25	30	40	35
Hobart . . .	1944–78	58	62	65	69	75	78	78	73	65	62	60	55	67
Kalgoorlie . . .	1939–78	48	54	56	62	70	76	75	68	56	50	46	45	58
Katanning . . .	1957–78	59	65	69	77	85	89	89	87	82	70	60	57	74
Kiandra	1957–74	67	68	73	75	83	86	86	85	72	67	63	65	74
Marble Bar . .	1957–78	47	48	41	33	35	41	37	30	24	24	24	34	34
Melbourne . . .	1955–78	61	65	67	71	77	81	80	75	69	64	62	61	69
Mildura	1946–78	50	56	61	70	82	88	86	79	68	59	53	49	66
Mundiwindi . .	1957–78	32	37	35	37	41	50	47	39	28	25	23	25	34
Perth	1942–78	51	53	57	65	72	78	78	74	68	50	54	51	63
Sydney	1955–78	68	71	72	70	70	73	68	66	63	61	62	65	67
Thursday Island .	1950–78	83	85	85	82	81	80	79	78	75	73	73	77	79
Townsville . . .	1939–78	73	76	74	69	67	66	66	63	60	61	64	66	67

Global radiation

For details *see* Year Book No. 63, pages 25 and 26.

Sunshine, cloud and fog

Sunshine. Sunshine as treated here refers to bright or direct sunshine. Australia receives relatively large amounts of sunshine although seasonal cloud formations have a notable effect on its spatial and temporal distribution. Cloud cover reduces both incoming and outgoing radiation and thus affects sunshine, air temperature and other climatic elements at the earth's surface.

Average daily sunshine (hours) in January and July based on all available data to August 1974 is shown in plates 19 and 20, pages 29–30. Sunshine for April and October and annual amounts are included in the *Climatic Atlas, Map Set 4*. In areas where there is a sparsity of data, estimates of sunshine derived from cloud data were used. Most of the continent receives more than 3,000 hours of sunshine a year, or nearly 70 per cent of the total possible. In central Australia and the mid-west coast of Western Australia totals slightly in excess of 3,500 hours occur. Totals of less than 1,750 hours occur on the west coast and highlands of Tasmania; this amount is only 40 per cent of the total possible per year (about 4,380 hours).

In southern Australia generally the duration of sunshine is greatest about December when the sun is at its highest elevation and lowest in June when the sun is lowest. In northern Australia sunshine is generally greatest about August-October prior to the wet season and least about January-March during the wet season. The table below gives the 20, 50 and 80 percentiles of daily bright sunshine for the months of June and December at selected stations. These values give an indication of the variability of daily sunshine hours. Perth, for example, has a high variability of daily sunshine hours in the wet month of June (160 per cent) and a low variability in the dry month of December (30 per cent). Darwin has a low variability in the dry season month of June (15 per cent) and a high variability in the wet season month of December (85 per cent).*

BRIGHT SUNSHINE, VARIABILITY OF DAILY HOURS, JUNE AND DECEMBER
(20, 50 and 80 percentile values)

Station	Period of record	June Percentile			December Percentile		
		20	50	80	20	50	80
Adelaide	1955–71	1.0	3.5	7.5	4.0	9.0	12.5
Alice Springs	1954–71	5.5	9.5	10.0	6.5	11.0	12.5
Brisbane	1951–71	2.5	8.0	9.5	4.0	8.5	11.5
Canberra	1957–71	2.0	5.0	7.0	4.0	9.5	12.0
Darwin	1951–71	9.0	10.0	10.5	3.5	7.5	10.0
Hobart	1955–71	0.5	3.0	6.0	2.5	7.0	10.5
Melbourne	1955–70	0.5	2.5	6.0	3.0	7.5	11.5
Perth	1945–71	1.0	4.0	7.5	8.5	11.0	12.0
Sydney	1955–71	0.5	6.0	8.0	1.5	7.5	11.0
Townsville	1957–71	4.5	9.0	10.0	5.0	9.5	11.0

Cloud. Seasonal changes in cloudiness vary with the distribution of rainfall. In the southern parts of the continent, particularly in the coastal and low lying areas, the winter months are generally more cloudy than the summer months. This is due to the formation of extensive areas of stratiform cloud and fog during the colder months, when the structure of the lower layers of the atmosphere favours the physical processes resulting in this type of cloud. Particularly strong seasonal variability of cloud cover exists in northern Australia where skies are clouded during the summer wet season and mainly cloudless during the winter dry season. Cloud coverage is greater near coasts and on the windward slopes of the eastern uplands of Australia and less over the dry interior.

Darwin has the least average daily coverage of 3.2 eighths and Hobart the highest daily average of 5.0 eighths. The highest daily average for any month occurs at Darwin (5.9 eighths for January) and the lowest daily average is also at Darwin (1.1 eighths for August).

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* Variability is given by $\dfrac{80\ \ 20}{50}$ (percentiles) expressed as a percentage

Fog. The formation of fog depends on the occurrence of favourable meteorological elements—mainly temperature, humidity, wind and cloud cover. The nature of the local terrain is important for the development of fog and there is a tendency for this phenomenon to persist in valleys and hollows. The incidence of fog may vary significantly over distances as short as one kilometre.

Fog in Australia tends to be greater in the south than the north, although parts of the east coastal areas are relatively fog prone even in the tropics. Incidence is much greater in the colder months, particularly in the eastern uplands. Fog may persist during the day but rarely until the afternoon over the interior. The highest fog incidence at a capital city is at Canberra which has an average of 46 days per year on which fog occurs, 28 of which are in the period May to August. Brisbane averages 22 days of fog per year, 17 of which occur between April and September. Darwin averages only 3 days per year, June to September.
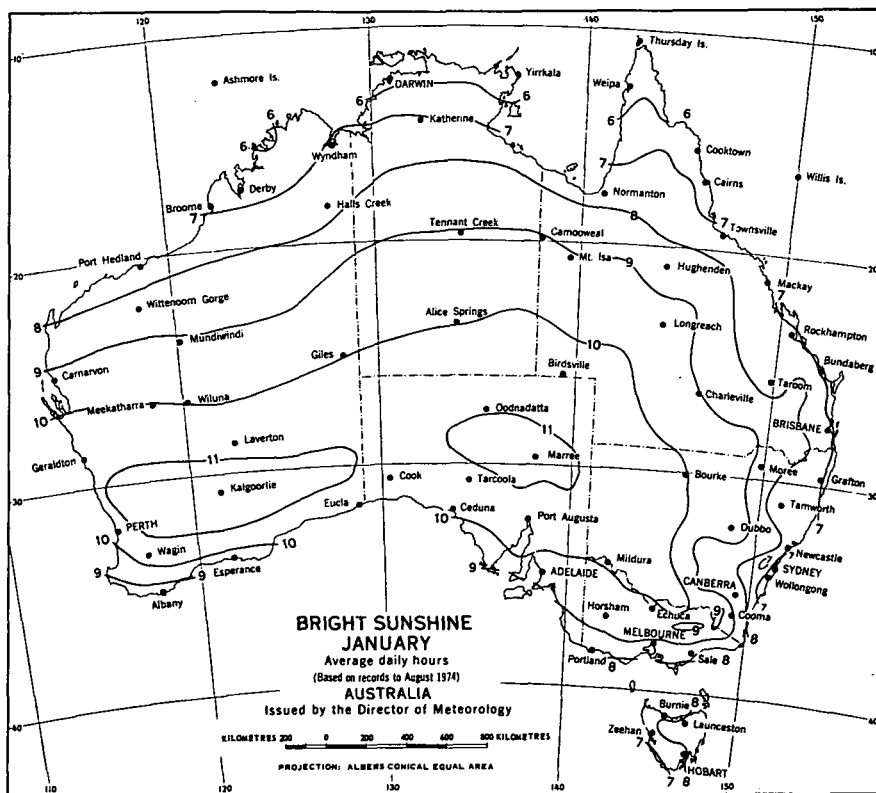

BRIGHT SUNSHINE
JANUARY
Average daily hours
(Based on records to August 1974)
AUSTRALIA
Issued by the Director of Meteorology

PLATE 19

Winds

The mid-latitude anticyclones are the chief determinants of Australia's two main prevailing wind streams. In relation to the west-east axes of the anticyclones these streams are easterly to the north and westerly to the south. The cycles of development, motion and decay of low pressure systems to the north and south of the anticyclones result in diversity of wind flow patterns. Wind variations are greatest around the coasts where diurnal land and sea breeze effects are important.

Wind roses for the months of January and July at 9 a.m. and 3 p.m. at selected stations are shown in Plates 21–24 inclusive, pages 31–32, extracted from *Climatic Atlas of Australia, Map Set 8*, 1979. The wind roses show the percentage frequency of direction (eight points of compass) and speed ranges of winds.

Orography affects the prevailing wind pattern in various ways such as the channelling of winds through valleys, deflection by mountains and cold air drainage from highland areas. An example of this channelling is the high frequency of north-west winds at Hobart caused by the north-west south-east orientation of the Derwent River Valley.
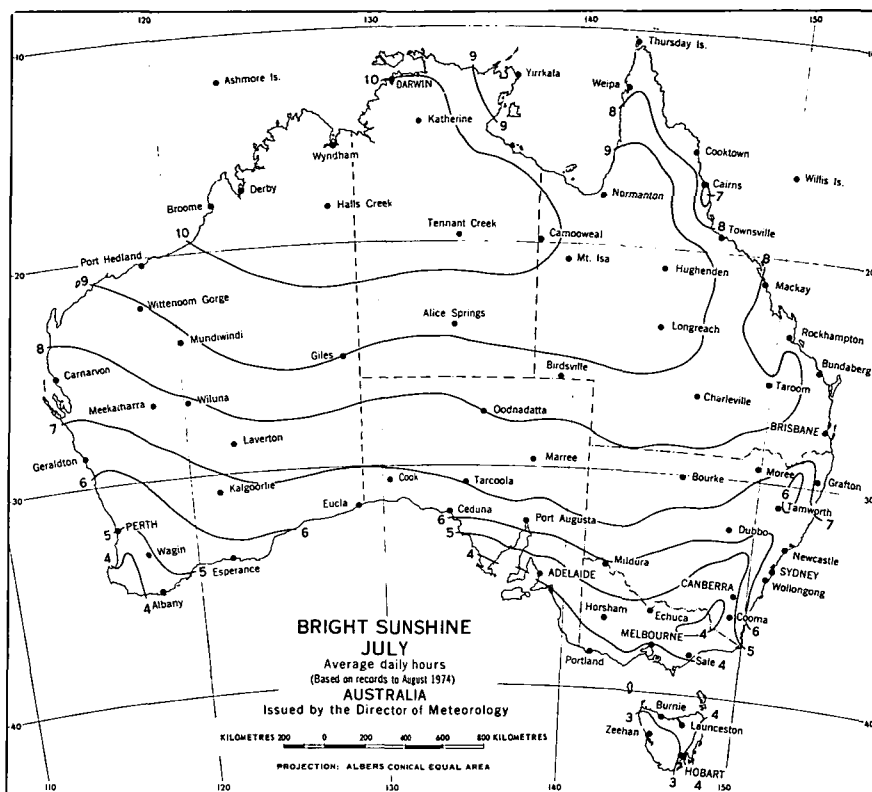
BRIGHT SUNSHINE
JULY
Average daily hours
(Based on records to August 1974)
AUSTRALIA
Issued by the Director of Meteorology

KILOMETRES 200   0   200   400   600   800 KILOMETRES

PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

PLATE 20

Perth is the windiest capital with an average wind speed of 15.6 kilometres per hour; Canberra is the least windy with an average speed of 5.8 kilometres per hour.

The highest wind speeds and wind gusts recorded in Australia have been associated with tropical cyclones. The highest recorded gust was 246 kilometres per hour during a cyclone at Onslow, Western Australia on 19 February 1975 and gusts reaching 200 kilometres per hour have been recorded on several occasions in northern Australia with cyclone visitations. The highest gusts recorded at Australian capitals were 217 kilometres per hour at Darwin and 156 kilometres per hour at Perth.
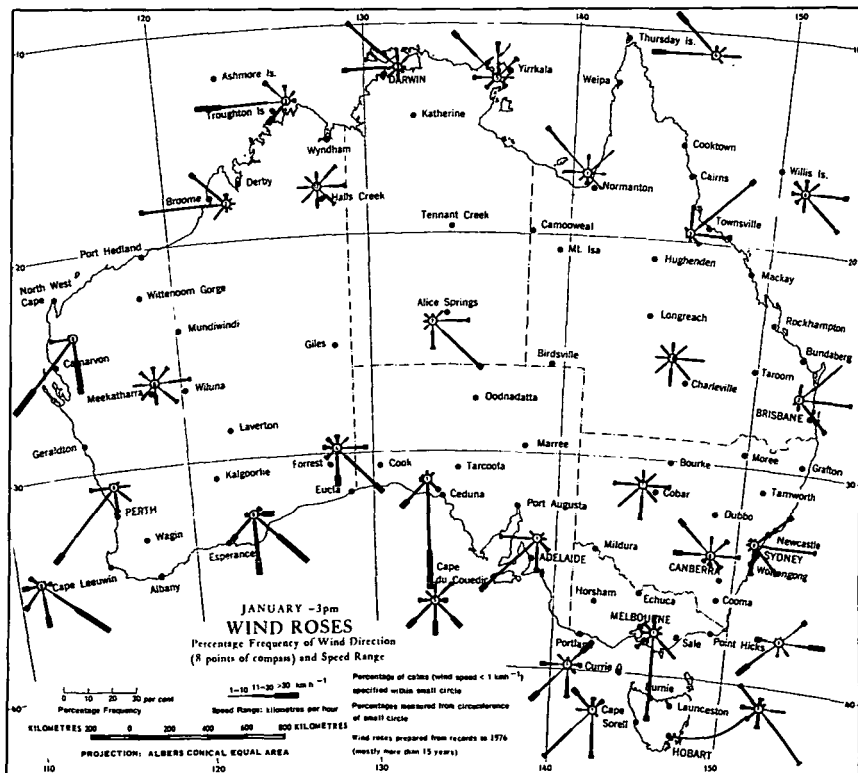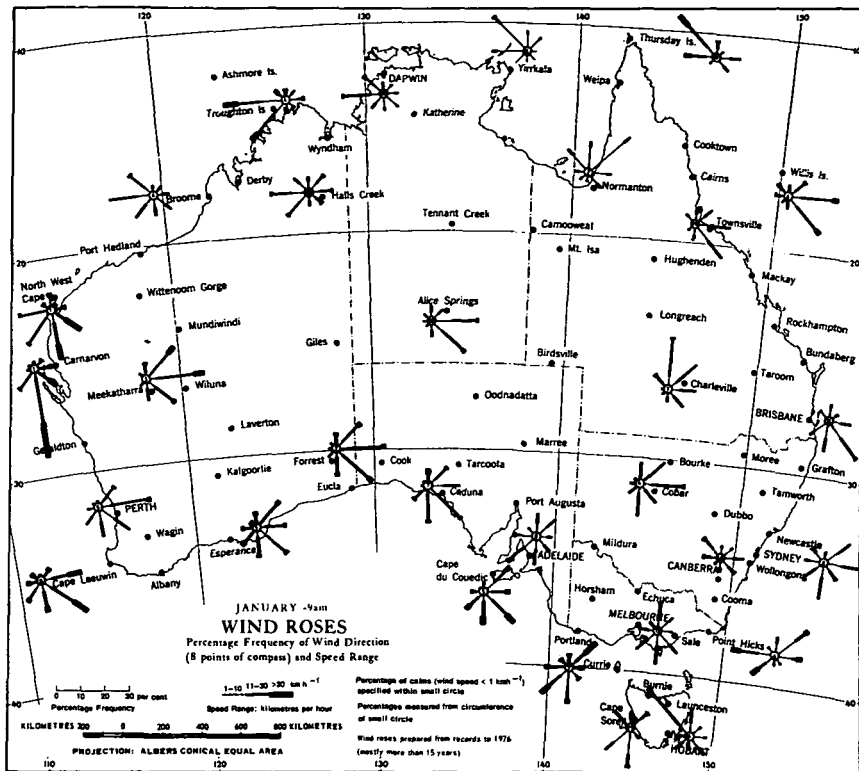
Estimates of the extreme wind gust expected in a given return period* have been derived for places through Australia (Whittingham, 1964). On this basis, for example, Darwin would have an extreme gust for a return period of 10 years of 140 kilometres per hour, Melbourne 135 and Perth 130.
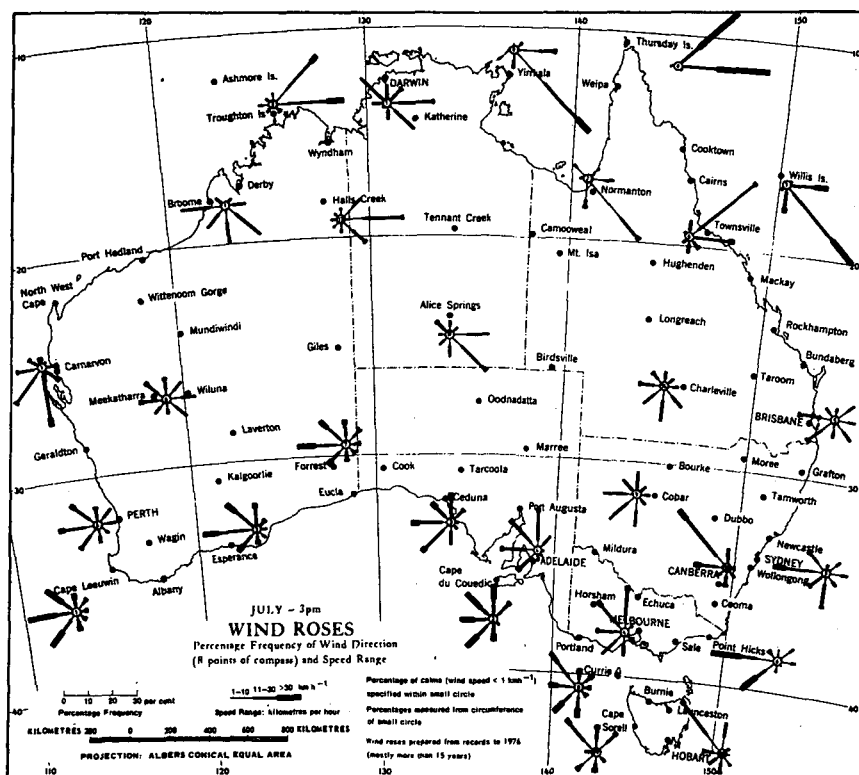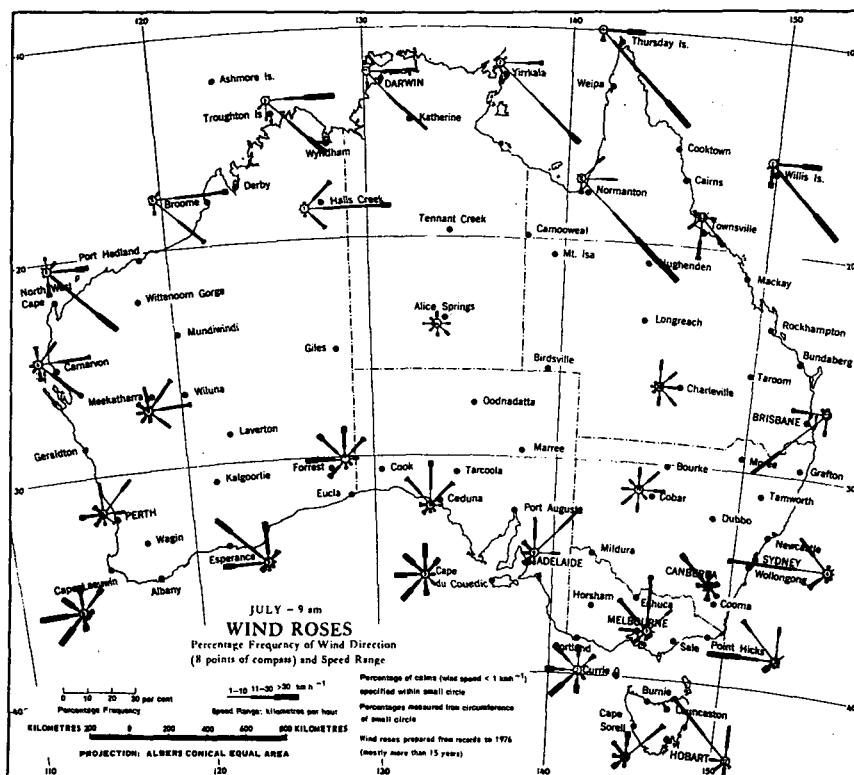
Floods

Widespread flood rainfall may occur anywhere in Australia but it has a higher incidence in the north and in the eastern coastal areas. It is most economically damaging along the shorter streams flowing from the eastern uplands eastward to the seaboard of Queensland and New South Wales. These flood rains are notably destructive in the more densely populated coastal river valleys of New South Wales—the Tweed, Richmond, Clarence, Macleay, Hunter and Nepean-Hawkesbury—all of which experience relatively frequent flooding. Although chiefly summer rains, they may occur in any season.

The great Fitzroy and Burdekin river basins of Queensland receive flood rains during the summer wet season. Much of the run-off due to heavy rain in north Queensland west of the eastern uplands flows southward through the normally dry channels of the network of rivers draining the interior lowlands into Lake Eyre. This widespread rain may cause floods over an extensive area, but it soon seeps away or evaporates, occasionally reaching the lake in quantity. The Condamine and other northern

*Return period is the average period between successive occurrences equal to, or greater than, a given speed. For example the extreme wind gust for a return period of 10 years can be expected to occur once in 10 years on the average.

PLATES 21 and 22

JULY – 9 am
WIND ROSES
Percentage Frequency of Wind Direction
(8 points of compass) and Speed Range

JULY – 3pm
WIND ROSES
Percentage Frequency of Wind Direction
(8 points of compass) and Speed Range

PLATES 23 and 24

tributaries of the Darling also carry large volumes of water from flood rains south through western New South Wales to the Murray and flooding occurs along their courses at times.

Flood rains occur at irregular intervals in the Murray-Murrumbidgee system of New South Wales and Victoria, the coastal streams of southern Victoria and the north coast streams of Tasmania.

Droughts

Drought, in general terms, refers to an acute water shortage. This is normally due to rainfall deficiency but with other parameters contributing to the actual water availability. The best single measure of water availability in Australia is rainfall; although parameters such as evaporation and soil moisture are significant, or even dominant, in some situations.

Foley (1957) for the period from the commencement of rainfall records in Australia (about 1830) to 1955 lists seven major widespread droughts affecting extensive areas. The drought of 1895–1903 was probably the most disastrous of these in its effects on primary industry. Foley also distinguishes another five droughts affecting wide areas, but of lesser intensity (Foley, pp 204–5).

Gibbs and Maher (1967), having defined a drought year at a specified station as one with the year's rainfall in the first decile range, concluded that the occurrence of areas in the first decile range on annual decile maps for the period 1885–1965 corresponded rather well with drought areas discussed by Foley (1957).

The Bureau of Meteorology commenced the issue of statements on drought in June 1965. These *Drought Reviews* based on rainfall decile criteria are issued monthly when serious or severe deficiencies occur in any of the Australian rainfall districts.

A review of droughts in Australia to 1968 is included in Year Book No. 54, 1968. That review contained a description of the severe drought of 1958–68, making use of the analysis of rainfall deciles. This drought which affected much of eastern Australia was one of the most widespread in recorded Australian history.

Since 1968 there have been a number of severe droughts defined by rainfall deficiencies based on decile analyses (*see Drought Review, Australia* series, 1968–81). Notable of these were the 1970-73 drought over the north-eastern goldfields and adjacent areas of Western Australia, the 1975-76 drought over a large part of south-eastern Australia, and the 1982 drought over Eastern Australia.

One method of assessing the incidence of rainfall deficiency is the analysis of the distribution of annual rainfalls less than the median (Gaffney 1975). The range between the 50 percentile (median) and the 10 percentile gives a measure of the variation in magnitude of annual rainfalls less than the median. The ratio of this range to the 30 percentile value may be used as an index of rainfall deficiency incidence or drought incidence, i.e.:

$$\text{Index of drought incidence} = \frac{50-10}{30} \text{ percentile}$$

For example, the indexes for Onslow (north-west coast of Western Australia) and similarly, for Cape Otway (south coast of Victoria) are derived thus:

$$\text{Index for Onslow} = \frac{201-65}{141} \text{ mm} = 0.96$$

$$\text{Index for Cape Otway} = \frac{884-723}{813} \text{ mm} = 0.19$$

Plate 25 shows the distribution of the index of drought incidence over Australia. The extension of high index values from the interior across New South Wales is significant; and another extension of high index across central Queensland is also notable. In Western Australia the high index over the interior is extensive; and the high values on the north-west coast are chiefly due to the dependence of rainfall on random cyclone tracks.

Climatic discomfort

In Australia climatic discomfort is significant in most areas. During the summer half of the year (November–April) prolonged high temperatures and humidity around the northern coasts and high temperatures over the inland cause physical stress. In winter, low temperatures and strong cold winds over the interior and southern areas can be severe for relatively short periods. However, cold stress does not cause prolonged physical hardship in Australia at altitudes lower than 1,000 metres, that is, over more than 99 per cent of the continent.

DROUGHT INCIDENCE

DROUGHT INCIDENCE	
EXTREME	> 0.9
SEVERE	0.8 – 0.9
HIGH TO SEVERE	0.7 – 0.8
HIGH	0.6 – 0.7
MODERATE TO HIGH	0.5 – 0.6
MODERATE	0.4 – 0.5
LOW TO MODERATE	0.3 – 0.4
LOW	< 0.3

Method of Analysis

These isolines were prepared by the analysis of computer plotted charts.

The isolines were appreciably smoothed in the analysis and the Index of Drought Incidence at a specific station may be more accurately calculated from annual rainfall percentiles for that station available from the Bureau of Meteorology.

DROUGHT INCIDENCE
(Based on records of 6000 rainfall stations with 30 or more years of record to 1979 inclusive)
Index of Drought Incidence (Rainfall Deficiency) computed from rainfall percentiles (50,30 and 10%)

Drought Incidence index = $\dfrac{50\% - 10\%}{30\%}$

AUSTRALIA

KILOMETRES 200   0   200   400   600   800 KILOMETRES

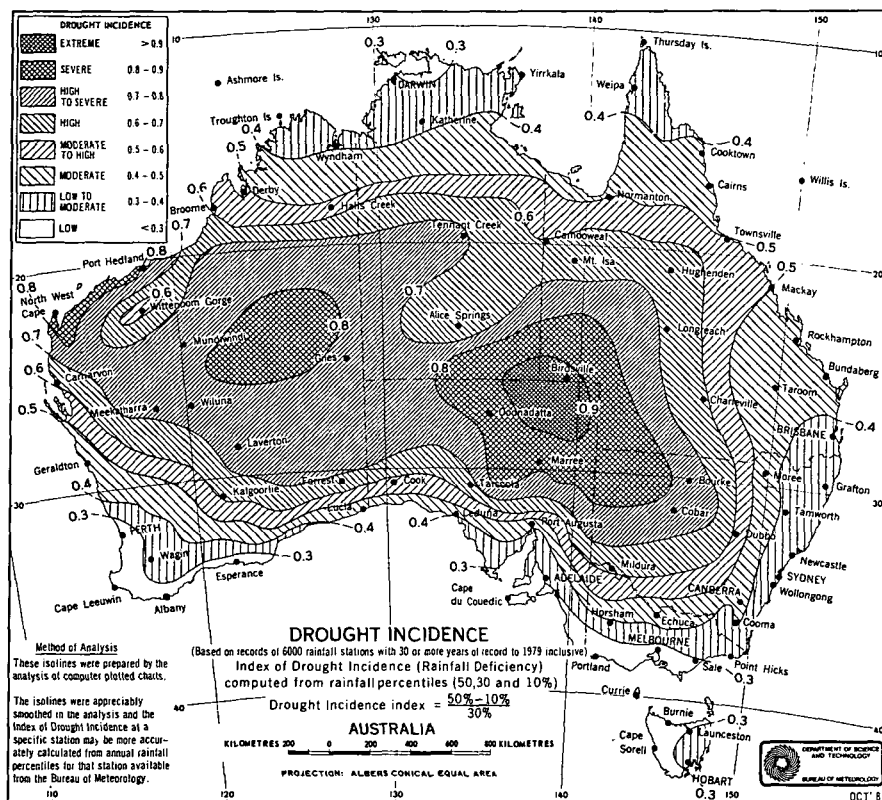PROJECTION: ALBERS CONICAL EQUAL AREA

OCT' 81

PLATE 25

The climatic variables determining physical discomfort are primarily air temperature, vapour pressure and wind. The complete assessment of physical discomfort also requires analyses of such parameters as thermal conductivity of clothing, vapour pressure at the skin and the metabolic heat rate arising from activity of the human body. The cooling system of the human body depends on evaporation of moisture to keep body temperature from rising to lethal levels as air temperature rises. Defining criteria of discomfort is difficult because personal reactions to the weather differ greatly according to a number of variables including health, age, clothing, occupation and acclimatisation (Ashton 1964). However, climatic strain has been measured experimentally and discomfort indexes based on the average response of subjects under specified conditions have been derived.

Effective Temperature. The effective temperature with respect to any environmental combination of temperature, humidity and wind is defined as the temperature of still, saturated air in which a normally clothed sedentary worker would feel the same level of comfort or discomfort.

Environment studies carried out at the research laboratories of the American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air Conditioning Engineers established values of effective temperature corresponding to various combinations of temperature, humidity and air movement. The results were published as a series of research reports commencing in 1923, and have been widely used to measure climatic discomfort (*see* 1960 report of the Society).

Normally clothed sedentary workers are mostly comfortable within a range of effective temperatures between 15°C and 27°C (air movement 5–8 metres per minute). At effective temperatures greater than 27°C, the majority of people feel heat discomfort and when less than 15°C they feel cold discomfort.

The table below contains the annual average frequency of effective temperature at 3 p.m. within specified limits at selected stations. The figures provide comparisons of daily occurrence of afternoon discomfort for the given environmental conditions.

CLIMATIC DISCOMFORT: EFFECTIVE TEMPERATURE

Annual average frequency of days when effective temperature at 3 p.m. is lower than 15°C (cold discomfort), within 15–27°C (comfort), and higher than 27°C (heat discomfort). Indoors, normally clothed sedentary workers, air movement 5–8 metres per minute.

Station	Period of record	Average days per year		
		Less than 15°C	15–27°C	Greater than 27°C
Adelaide	1955–72	128	234	3
Albury	1962–71	141	220	4
Alice Springs	1955–67	39	300	26
Brisbane	1951–70	6	356	3
Broome	1941–71	0	225	140
Canberra	1940–72	172	192	1
Carnarvon	1945–72	1	345	19
Ceduna	1955–71	77	279	9
Charleville	1942–72	28	316	21
Cloncurry	1940–72	1	268	96
Darwin	1955–69	0	225	140
Hobart	1944–67	239	126	0
Kalgoorlie	1940–72	66	281	18
Marble Bar	1957–71	0	220	145
Melbourne	1955–71	155	207	3
Mildura	1946–72	95	258	12
Perth	1944–71	57	302	6
Rockhampton	1940–72	2	337	26
Sydney	1955–72	69	295	1
Townsville	1941–69	0	333	32
Woomera	1954–72	73	279	13

Heat discomfort, on this index, is greatest in the north-west, where Marble Bar averages 145 days of high heat discomfort annually, and least in the south-east, where Hobart has only one day every five years. Cold discomfort is least in the north, where Townsville has one day of cold discomfort in ten years, and the greatest in the south-east, where Hobart has 239 days annually when the effective temperature is sufficiently low to cause discomfort. By the suitable choice of clothing discomfort can be decreased significantly on cold days. On cold days also, workers tend to take opportunities to move around, thus increasing metabolic heat rates.

Effective temperature is a useful index but its application is limited because available criteria relate only to indoor workers in sedentary occupations. Futhermore, at lower air temperatures the effective temperature gives excessive weight to humidity.

Relative strain index. The relative strain index derived by Lee and Henschel (1963) has been applied in Australia to measure heat discomfort (Department of National Development and Energy). The results obtained with Australian data are useful for purposes of comparison but interpretation of the actual results is tentative until empirical environmental studies are carried out in this region. In addition to temperature, humidity and air movement the relative strain index has facilities for incorporation of metabolic heat rate, net radiation and insulation of clothing. It has the advantage of being applicable to manual workers under shelter and expending energy at various metabolic heat rates.

The discomfort map plate 26, page 36, shows the average number of days per year when the relative strain index exceeds 0.3 discomfort level at 3 p.m. assuming standard conditions as defined (see table). Maximum discomfort generally occurs around 3 p.m. on days of high temperature.

A notable feature is the lower frequency of days of discomfort in Queensland coastal areas in comparison with the northern coastal areas of Western Australia. This is due to the onshore winds prevailing on the Queensland coast and the cooling effect of the adjacent eastern uplands. Lower frequencies on the Atherton Plateau in the tropics near Cairns show the advantage of altitude. Relatively low heat discomfort frequencies are evident in upland and coastal areas of south-east Australia. Tasmania is entirely in the zone of least discomfort, experiencing on the average less than one day of heat discomfort per year. In Western Australia most of the Kimberley region in the north lies in the highest discomfort zone with the frequencies decreasing southwards to a strip of lowest discomfort towards the south-west coast. A steep gradiant of discomfort frequency on the west coast shows the moderating effect of sea breezes.

The average annual frequency of days when the relative strain index at 3 p.m. exceeds specified discomfort levels is shown in the table opposite. The Sydney frequencies were derived from observations at the Regional Office of the Bureau of Meteorology, which is representative of eastern coastal suburbs; frequencies are higher in western suburbs. The Melbourne frequencies were derived from observations at the Bureau's Regional Office, which may be taken as fairly representative of inner northern and eastern suburbs; frequencies are lower in bayside suburbs. Similarly, in other capital city areas significant variations occur with distance from the coast.
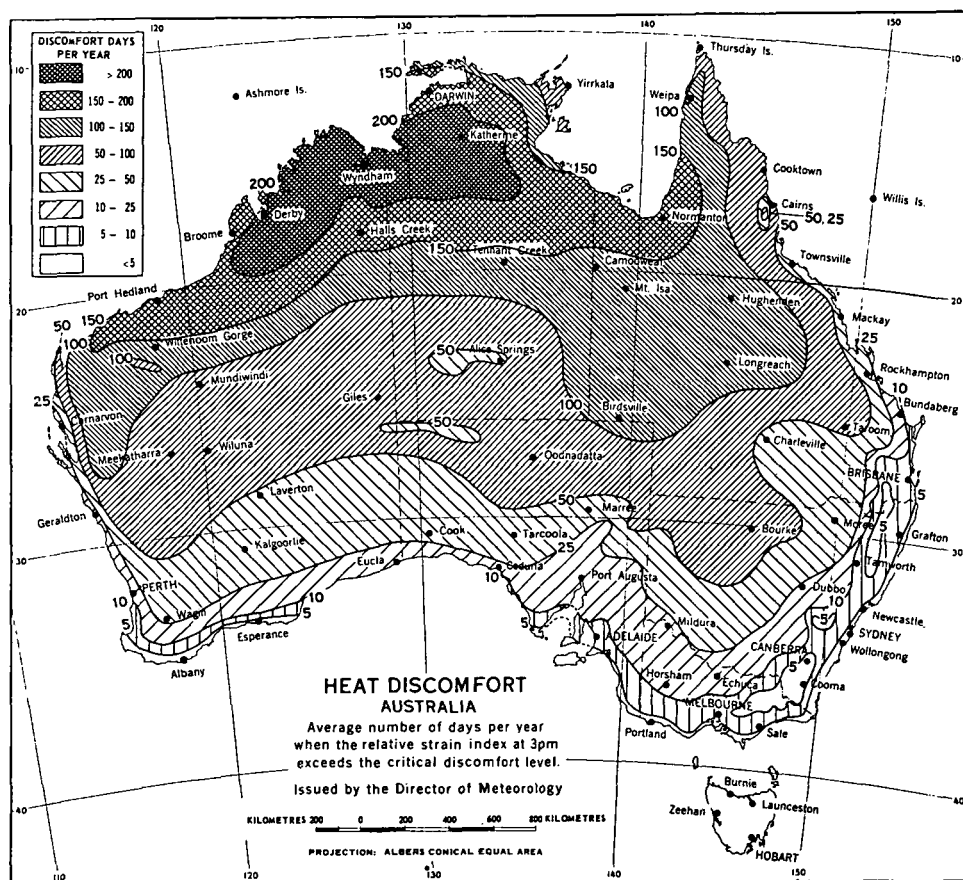

PLATE 26

At inland places, relatively low night temperatures have recuperative effects after hot days. Marble Bar, Western Australia (150 km south-east of Port Hedland) for example, has median minima night minimum temperatures 5–10°C lower than Darwin, except in December-February. Even in this latter period, although median minima at both stations are around 25°C, Marble Bar has median vapour pressures and relative humidities much lower than Darwin (by 10 millibars and 30 per cent respectively).

Acclimatised people would suffer discomfort less frequently than shown by the relative strain index figures. For example, Australians living in the north evidently experience less discomfort at high air temperatures than those in the south, if humidities are comparable.

Both direction and speed of prevailing winds are significant for the ventilation of buildings. In the tropics, for instance, windward slopes allow optimal air movement enabling more comfortable ventilation to be obtained. Regular sea breezes such as those experienced at Perth reduce discomfort although on some days their full benefit may not be experienced until after 3 p.m.

HEAT DISCOMFORT

Average number of days per year when relative strain index (RSI) at 3 p.m. exceeds 0.3 (discomfort) and 0.4 (high discomfort) under standard conditions (indoors, manual activities, light clothing, air movement 60 metres per minute).

Station	Peroid of record	Greater than	
		0.3 RSI	0.4 RSI
Adelaide	1955–72	7	1
Albury	1962–71	8	1
Alice Springs	1955–67	50	4
Brisbane	1951–69	6	<1
Broome	1940–72	155	48
Canberra	1940–72	2	<1
Carnarvon	1945–72	23	3
Ceduna	1955–71	16	3
Charleville	1942–72	42	3
Cloncurry	1940–72	126	28
Darwin	1955–69	165	23
Hobart	1944–67	<1	<1
Kalgoorlie	1939–72	30	5
Marble Bar	1957–71	173	69
Melbourne	1955–71	6	1
Mildura	1946–72	19	3
Perth	1944–72	12	1
Rockhampton	1940–72	33	5
Sydney	1955–72	2	<1
Townsville	1941–69	36	4
Woomera	1954–72	25	3

Climatic data for capital cities
See Year Book No. 67 pages 58 to 65.

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