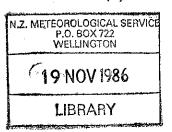
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The climate and weather of the

# SOUTHERN COOK ISLANDS



New Zealand Meteorological Service Wellington, New Zealand

Corrections.

The climate and weather of the Southern Cook Islands. (Misc Pub 188(2)).

Page 8. Table 3. bottom line should read...

Dec Jan Feb Mar Apr Speed Range(knots)
intensifying 2 2 < 34

Page 26. Table 13. should read...

Location	$v_{\mathrm{m}}$	С	Total t	ime betwe <b>n</b>	Wind p	ower
			6 and	30 knots	kWh/m	
			.adO	Est.	Obs.	Est.

THE CLIMATE AND WEATHER

OF

THE SOUTHERN COOK ISLANDS

C. S. Thompson

The climate and weather of the Southern Cook Islands

C.S. Thompson

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#### Note to 188 series

This publication is one in a series on the climate and weather of selected South Pacific island groups.

This series replaces an earlier Meteorological Service series entitled: 'Climatological Notes - South Pacific Region' (N.Z.M.O. Series C), published in 1943.

The following titles have been published, or are in preparation:

- 188(1) Climate and Weather of Niue (published)
- 188(2) Climate and Weather of Southern Cook (published) Islands
- 188(3) Climate and Weather of Northern Cook Islands
- 188(4) Climate and Weather of Tokelau
- 188(5) Climate and Weather of Tonga
- 188(6) Climate and Weather of Tuvalu
- 188(7) Climate and Weather of Western Kiribati
- 188(8) Climate and Weather of Western Samoa

Cover - an outrigger canoe with asymmetrically cross-sectioned hull from the Caroline islands (after a drawing by Louis Choris in 1815).

## THE CLIMATE AND WEATHER OF THE SOUTHERN COOK ISLANDS

C.S. Thompson

#### Summary

The Southern Cook Islands lie on the southern fringe of the persistent trade wind zone of the South Pacific. The mean wind speed of the open ocean area is 13 knots, but wind speeds on the two largest islands, Rarotonga and Mangaia, are influenced by the orography.

While temperatures remain warm all year round, rainfall is a dominant climatic feature of this island group. There is a pronounced wet season (November to April) when about two-thirds of the annual amount falls and a dry season (May to October). This is also related in part to the seasonal movement of the South Pacific Convergence Zone. Rainfall is highly variable from year to year, and the convective nature of the rain enhances this variability. High intensity short period rainfalls are therefore frequent, leading to surface runoff and soil erosion.

High evaporative water demand by vegetation because of high radiation and sunshine levels creates large soil moisture deficits in most years, and these are especially pronounced in the dry season.

Although an average of just one tropical cyclone per year affects the Southern Cook Islands, there are also many cyclone-free seasons.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The Cook Islands (Fig. 1) are situated in the South Pacific Ocean, and include all the islands between latitudes  $8^\circ S-23^\circ S$ , and longitudes  $156^\circ W-167^\circ W$ . The islands take up an area of only  $241~km^2$  in this zone which has a total area of 1.95 million  $km^2$ . There are two clusters of islands, the Northern Cook Islands and the Southern Cook Islands.

The Southern Cook Islands consist of nine main islands, among them Rarotonga, the largest and most populous island of the group. This island has a small surrounding coastal plain, and a mountainous interior with the highest peak, Te Manga, 652 m above sea level. Avarua is the main urban area of Rarotonga as well as being the seat of government of the entire Cook Islands. Mangaia, the second largest island in the Southern

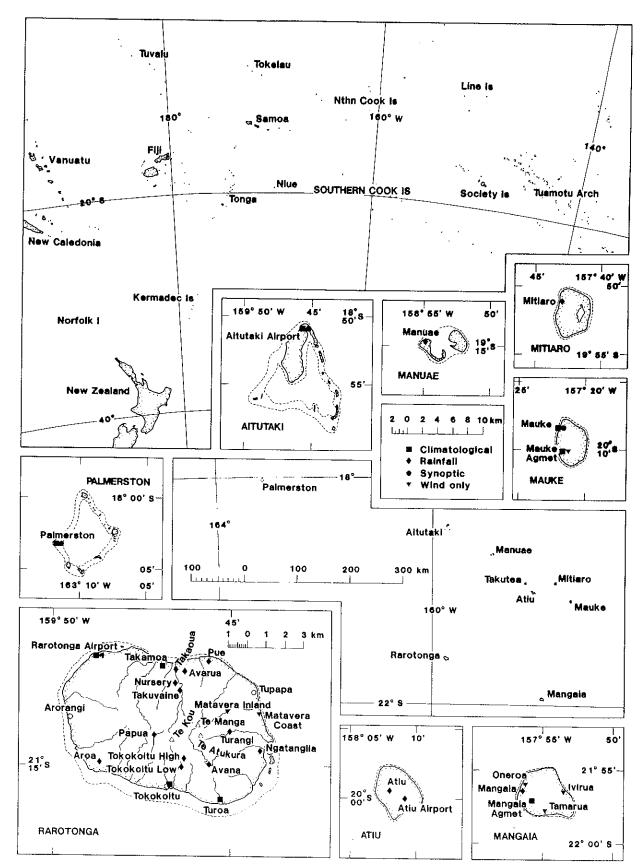


Fig. 1. Location map

Cook Group, is a hilly island reaching 169 m above sea level. Aitutaki is a part volcanic and part coral atoll. It is triangular in shape and the volcanic main island reaches a height of 124 m. The other main islands are Atiu, Mauke, Manuae, Mitiaro, Takutea and Palmerston Atoll. These are low-lying atolls with Mauke having the highest point at 29 m.

The Cook Islands economy is based on the export of primary produce, namely bananas, copra, pineapples and citrus (Carter, 1981), of which 80 percent is exported to New Zealand. Tourism and the sale of stamps and coins are also major sources of revenue in the islands' economy.

Data used in this publication, where not otherwise indicated, were obtained from the New Zealand Meteorological Service's archives. Rainfall records for Rarotonga have been kept since 1899 in the Avarua/Airport area. There are currently 28 stations (climatological, rainfall and wind) in operation, 15 of which have been opened since 1980.

## 2. GENERAL CIRCULATION OF THE TROPICAL SOUTH PACIFIC

While there is much variability in the general circulation of the tropical South Pacific on both seasonal and even shorter time-scales, the time-averaged state is characterised by four main features:

## (i) Sub-tropical high pressure zone

A belt of high pressure spanning the South Pacific is centred on latitudes  $25\,^\circ\text{S}-30\,^\circ\text{S}$ . Within this zone in the eastern South Pacific is a large semi-permanent anticyclone near longitudes  $90\,^\circ\text{W}-100\,^\circ\text{W}$ . On the western margin of the belt of high pressure, anticyclones move eastwards into the Pacific region from the Australia-Tasman Sea region.

## (ii) <u>Trade winds</u>

On the northern side of the high pressure belt is an extensive belt where the winds blow consistently from the same general direction. These are the trade winds. They blow from the easterly quarter but some in the western South Pacific have a more southerly component due to the eastward migration of anticyclones (Revell, 1981). Between the permanent anticyclone to the east and the migratory ones to the west is a region of convergence, the South Pacific Convergence Zone.

An important feature of the trade winds is the frequent presence of strong temperature inversions between  $1200-2500~\rm m$ . Over the Southern Cook Islands the inversion height varies seasonally, being  $1800-2500~\rm m$  in the wet season and  $1200-1800~\rm m$  during the dry season. Above the inversion, westerly winds predominate, with dry subsiding air. Consequently the growth of convective clouds to high altitudes is inhibited as cloud tops

rarely penetrate the inversion and showers become less likely. Surface wind strengths are normally moderate, although speeds may reach 25-30 knots\* at times. Scattered showers on windward slopes of mountainous islands (e.g., Rarotonga) are likely. Clouds are often aligned in bands parallel to the wind direction.

## (iii) Equatorial doldrum belt and intertropical convergence zone

The Equatorial Doldrum Belt (EDB) is a region of relatively light winds that is present all year round in the western Pacific Ocean. Lying within about 50 of the Equator, the doldrum belt is a zone of high rainfall and great seasonal variability (Revell, 1981). During the Southern Hemisphere summer when the EDB is furthest south, there is usually a trough of low pressure extending from Northern Australia into the Coral Sea on the southern fringe of the doldrums. This trough is regionally 'monsoon trough'. The resultant light winds known as the reflect in part alternating periods of easterlies and The 'monsoon westerlies' are occasionally squally. westerlies. During the winter season, the doldrum zone lies principally in the Northern Hemisphere, and the Australian monsoon trough is absent.

The zone marking the convergence of the North Pacific trade winds with the South Pacific trades is known as the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). It is an extensive area of cloud and showers due to the ascent of air, although the intensity fluctuates with time. The ITCZ follows the passage of the sun, with a lag of about 3 or 4 months (Wyrtki and Meyers, 1975). The range in latitudes of the ITCZ is from 3°N-10°N in the eastern central Pacific, and from 5°N-15°N near America.

## (iv) The South Pacific convergence zone

The South Pacific Convergence Zone (SPCZ) is an area convergence between the equatorial easterly winds and the higher latitude south-easterly trades. It is an area of cyclonic wind shear, and is a semi-permanent cloud feature of the Southern Hemisphere. The SPCZ usually lies north of the Southern Cook Islands, but to the west and south of Western Samoa, Tahiti, and Easter Island (Trenberth, 1976). During summer the SPCZ becomes an extension of the monsoon trough of northern Australia (Fig. 2). The SPCZ varies from month to month, and the weather in the Southern Cook Islands is largely dependent on its position and There are two dominant seasons, a wet season intensity. (November to April) and a dry season (May to October). the dry season the SPCZ is generally to the north of the group, the Southern Cooks are affected predominantly by the dry and south-east trades. However, in the wet season, the SPCZ is more active and can lie over the island group bringing unsettled weather and heavy rain. Tropical cyclones, forming on the SPCZ between November and April, are major features which also affect the region.

<sup>\*</sup> One knot (kn) equals 0.515 m/s or 1.85 km/hr.

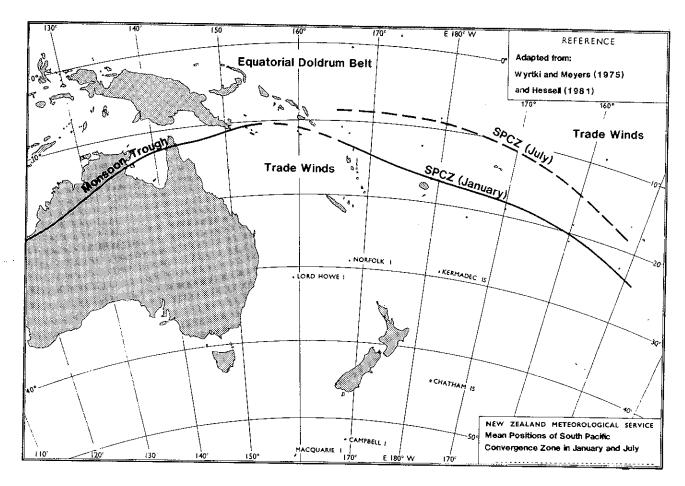


Fig. 2. Mean position of South Pacific Convergence Zone in January and July. Adapted from Wyrtki and Meyers (1975) and Hessell (1981)

Spatial variation in the location of the SPCZ has been noted (Trenberth, 1976) to be associated with the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI). This index represents an oscillation of pressure between the western and eastern regions of the South Pacific Ocean. Trenberth measured the SOI from the normalised differences in pressure between Papeete (Tahiti) and Darwin (Australia). The SOI is reasonably persistent from one month to the next, although the persistence is least in the period March to May when the phase of the SOI is likely to change (Gordon, 1984, pers. comm.). Serial correlation of monthly SOI values, as a measure of persistence is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Persistence (serial correlation) of monthly values of the Southern Oscillation Index

Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec 0.62 0.59 0.49 0.54 0.35 0.58 0.75 0.77 0.83 0.76 0.66 0.62

Figure 3 shows a satellite picture of the SPCZ taken at 11.15 a.m. local time on 5 March 1981. The SPCZ is lying from Samoa to the Austral Islands, and the decaying remnants of tropical cyclone 'Esau' which passed south-west of Rarotonga on 4 March 1981 is at 29°S 150°W.

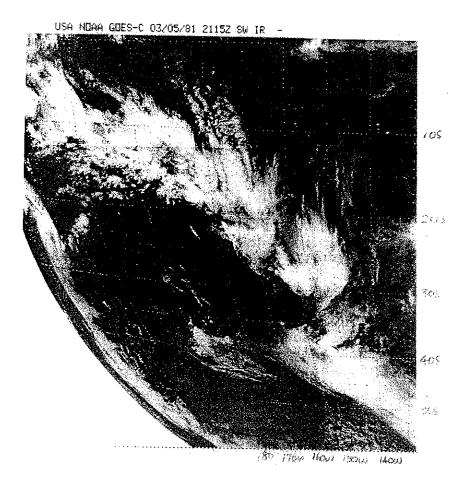


Fig. 3. Satellite view of South Pacific convergence zone on 5 March 1981

When the SOI is negative (i.e., pressures are relatively high at Darwin), the SPCZ lies to the north and east of its mean position (Fig.4). Over the Southern Cook Islands dry conditions are likely. During 1982 and 1983 there was a large eastwards shift of the SPCZ (Rasmusson and Hall, 1983) as a result of the extreme negative phase of the SOI. Rainfalls at Rarotonga Airport, Aitutaki, and Palmerston Island for the 12-month period beginning May 1982 were 808 mm (40 percent of average), 637 mm (34 percent) and 814 mm (41 percent) respectively.

Since 1900 there have been 19 major negative SOI episodes, occurring on average once every 4.4 years. Of the 12 episodes

since 1930, the Southern Cooks have experienced low rainfalls on nine occasions. There have been 10 major positive episodes since 1930, one event about every 4.4 years. Eight episodes were associated with above average rainfalls.

Abnormal 12-monthly rainfalls, associated with extreme phases of the SOI are given in Table 2, together with the percentage frequency of surface winds. The predominance of east and south-east winds in the dry years decreases while during the wet years the frequency of winds from between north-west and north-east increases.

Table 2. Abnormal rainfall and surface wind summary at Aitutaki

Year F Commencing	Rainfall (mm)	N	Pe NE	tage SE		d Fre	eque W	-	Calm	SOI Phase
Dec 1937 May 1982	3258 637	8	15 5	5 37	-		2 2	11 6	6 10	positive negative

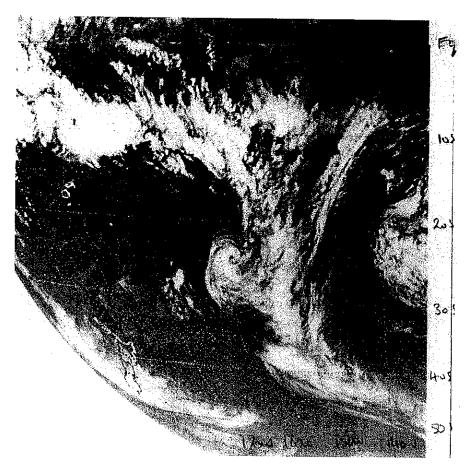


Fig. 4. Satellite view of cloud features over Pacific Ocean on 23 February 1981

Figure 4 shows other important features of the tropical Pacific circulation, other than the SPCZ lying north of its mean position. These features include:

- (i) An ITCZ just north of the equator. It is very weak east of the date line, but the SPCZ is merged with the cloud masses associated with the EDB and monsoon trough in the area west of the date line.
- (ii) At 25°S, 158°W is the decaying tropical cyclone 'Daman'. 'Daman' affected the Southern Cooks some 12 to 18 hours earlier.
- (iii) On the SPCZ at 10°S 175°W is a cluster of cumulonimbus clouds. From this mass of cloud developed an unnamed tropical cyclone which moved east-south-east through the Cook Islands.

#### 3. TROPICAL CYCLONES

Tropical cyclones are usually classified in terms of the maximum sustained winds within the cyclonic circulation. Those disturbances having mean wind speeds in excess of 33 knots are called 'tropical cyclones', and in particular those with wind speeds over 63 knots are classified as 'hurricanes'. They are accompanied by great destructiveness. Disturbances in which the maximum wind speed does not exceed 33 knots are called 'tropical depressions'. They are not generally accompanied by much significant damage. A classification of tropical cyclonic circulations in terms of wind speed is given in Table 3.

Table 3. Frequency of tropical cyclones affecting the Southern Cook Islands, 1969/70-1982/83

Cyclone Intensity	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	Speed Range (knots)
Gale Storm Hurricane Filling or	2 3	2	1 2 3	1 2		34 - 47 48 - 63 64+
intensifying			2	2		< 34

In the South-West Pacific region, tropical cyclones frequently develop in a trough of low pressure in the zone of cyclonic wind shear characterizing the SPCZ. Other factors favouring the formation of tropical cyclones are a supply of warm moist ascending air lying over a sea surface having a

temperature of at least 26-27°C (Gabites, 1963). Tropical cyclones seldom form within 300 kilometres of the Equator where the Coriolis parameter is small, or in zones of strong vertical shear such as beneath jet streams\*. Although tropical disturbances may occur all year round, tropical cyclones are usually confined to the warmer months, November to April.

In the 44 years from 1939/40 to 1982/83 there have been 34 tropical cyclones affecting the Southern Cook Islands (Kerr, 1976; Revell, 1982). All cyclones affecting the group have occurred between November and April. Since the advent of weather surveillance by satellites in 1969 which assumes that all tropical storms are detected, 19 tropical cyclones have affected the Southern Cooks, giving an average of 1.4 tropical cyclones each year. This number probably reflects more accurately the true average.



Fig. 5. Satellite view of tropical cyclone 'Tomasi' on 29 March 1983

<sup>\*</sup> A jet stream is a belt of very strong winds at high levels in the atmosphere.

A satellite picture of tropical cyclone 'Tomasi' is shown in Fig. 5. This picture, taken at 11.15 a.m. on 29 March 1983, shows 'Tomasi' at approximately 14°S 164°W, having an eye characteristic of intense tropical cyclones. Also noticeable are spiralling cloud bands indicating upper-level anticyclonic outflow from the tropical cyclone. 'Tomasi' passed close by Suwarrow Atoll in the Northern Cook Islands. Although it passed about 300 km west of Palmerston Atoll, 97 mm of rain was recorded during 30 March 1983, but no wind damage was reported.

Figure 6 gives an indication of the inter-seasonal variability of the frequency of tropical cyclones that affected the Southern Cooks. In nearly half of the 14 seasons between 1969/70 and 1982/83 no tropical cyclones affected the island group, while there were two occasions (1976/77 and 1980/81) when there were at least three. The high frequency in certain seasons is closely related to the negative phase of the Southern Oscillation. In tropical cyclone free years, the phase of the SOI was mainly positive.

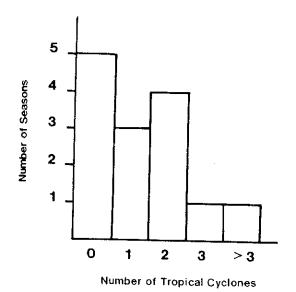


Fig. 6. Number of tropical cyclones that affect the Southern Cooks in a season during the period 1969/70-1982/83

Table 3 presents a summary of the maximum intensity reached in tropical cyclones and the month in which they formed. Sixty-two percent occurred either in February or March. Hurricanes are unlikely before February, and tropical cyclones seldom pass over or near the Southern Cooks in April.

Nearly half of the tropical cyclones affecting the islands originated in the latitudes 10°S-15°S between 160°E and 180°. this area storms travelled entirely east-south-east or south-east. The cyclones originating east of the date line generally moved south-eastward, or initially southward, then Figure 7 gives a climatological aid as to the south-eastward. probability of a tropical cyclone forming in a particular location and subsequently affecting the Southern Cooks. This figure also identifies the birth place of tropical cyclones that have affected the island group.

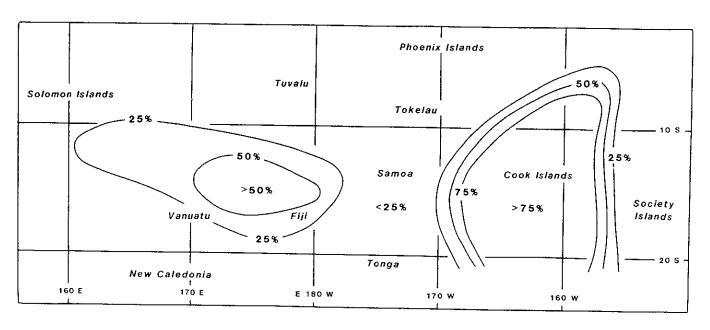


Fig. 7. Probability of tropical cyclones forming in any locality and subsequently affecting the Southern Cook Islands

Most tropical cyclones affecting the Southern Cook Islands have originated within the cloud masses of the SPCZ. Two cyclones developed in the region of the Northern Cooks during the 1982/83 season. At this time the SPCZ was considerably north-east of its normal summertime position, as a result of the extreme negative phase of the southern oscillation.

## Case study of tropical cyclone 'Charles' 15-27 February 1978

A particular cyclone that affected the Southern Cooks is considered in detail. Tropical cyclone 'Charles' began developing within the broad cloud mass of the SPCZ north-east of Fiji on 15 February 1978. As it moved eastwards it intensified,

the winds reaching storm force by 1200 UT on 17 February. Tropical cyclone 'Charles' slowed down, and did a figure-of-eight loop (Fig. 8) to the north of Palmerston Atoll during the period 18 to 25 February. During this time 'Charles' reached hurricane status for a while on the 19th and 20th, and again from the 23rd to 26th after weakening in the intervening period.

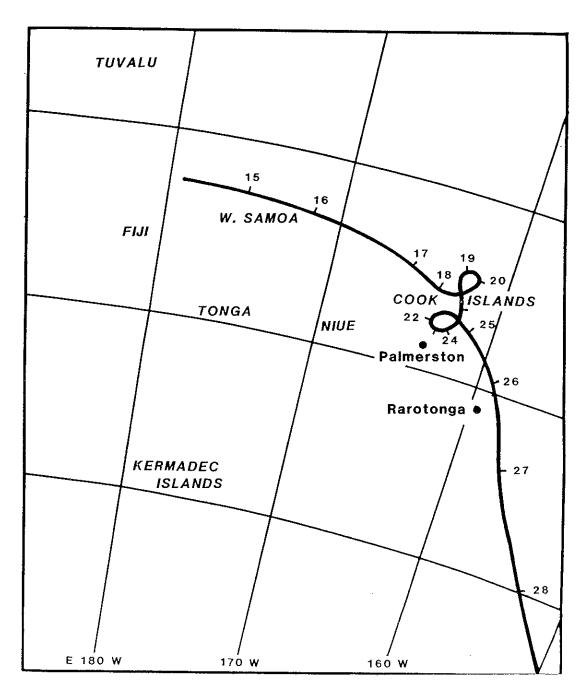


Fig. 8. Track of tropical cyclone 'Charles' during 15 to 28 February 1978

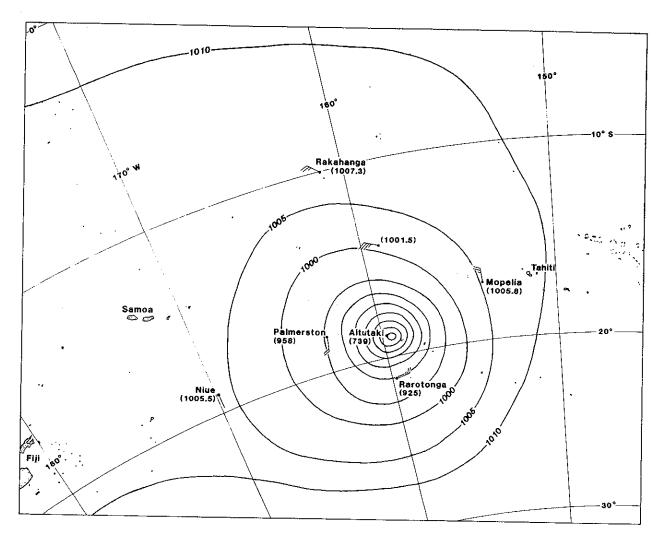


Fig. 9. Sea-level pressure analysis of tropical cyclone 'Charles' over Aitutaki at 1800 UT on 26 February 1978

While 'Charles' remained slow-moving near Palmerston Atoll from 22 to 25 February, it continued to deepen; sustained winds at Palmerston of over 55 knots were estimated. At its closest point to the atoll, only some 55 km distant at 1200 UT on 23 February, the atoll's sea-level pressure was 982 hPa\* and winds of 65 knots from the south-south-east were observed. Twenty hours later 'Charles' lay 100 km to the north-east. The wind and pressure on Palmerston at this time were 70 knots and 984 hPa. The lowest central pressure of tropical cyclone 'Charles' was estimated from the empirical relation of Atkinson and Holliday (1975) as being about 960 hPa.

<sup>\*</sup> One hectopascal (hPa) is equivalent to one millibar (mb).

On 25 February the cyclone began to accelerate and lose intensity. It passed almost directly over Aitutaki (Fig. 9) at 1800 UT on the 25th. The lowest pressure recorded at Aitutaki was 965.4 hPa, giving an estimated maximum wind speed of about 65-70 knots. A list of sea-level pressures is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Sea level pressures (hPa) Southern Cook Islands 21-27 February 1978 at 0000 UT

Date	Palmerston	Rarotonga	Mauke	Aitutaki
21	996.2	1003.5	1000.9	1004.7
22	990.3	1004.4	1001.1	1006.2
23	985.7	1005.9	1002.3	1008.2
24	983.0	1005.8	1002.6	1007.7
25	986.1	1001.4	992.6	1002.2
26	999.6	982.8	985.9	989.1
27	1006.8	1000.9	1004.5	1002.2

While 'Charles' remained slow-moving near Palmerston Atoll, huge seas were generated. Some damage to the wharf at Rarotonga was reported. Apart from flooding caused by heavy rainfall, destruction of some banana plantations and wind-thrown coconut trees.

## 4. EXTRA-TROPICAL INFLUENCES ON TROPICAL WEATHER

In any season, cold fronts from the mid-latitudes move into the trade-wind region of the tropics. When cold fronts enter the trades they usually become slow-moving, lying across the region in a general west-north-west to east-south-east direction (Hutchings, 1961). Cold fronts may become quasi-stationary for several days, or even move southwards again as warm fronts, especially if a marked upper-air trough is approaching from the west. Most frontal systems eventually merge with the SPCZ. The tropical regions is normally a broad band of squally showers or rain.

During the dry season when a relatively low-latitude jet stream is strong, mid-latitude disturbances are accompanied by extensive cloud sheets and rainfall (Hill, 1963). The extensive altostratus cloud sheet, and a widespread rainfall, forms downstream of the upper-level trough of low pressure in the entrance of the jet stream. Figure 10 presents two examples of an extensive cloud sheet in the region of the Southern Cook Islands for 30 and 31 July 1983.

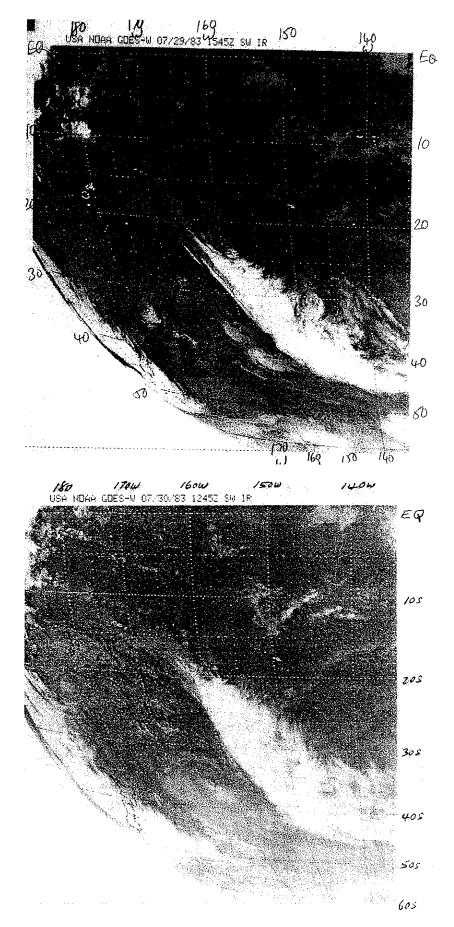


Fig. 10. Satellite pictures taken on 30 and 31 July 1983 showing extensive cloud sheets to the north-east of a strong sub-tropical jet stream

## 5. CLIMATIC ELEMENTS

#### Wind

As the Southern Cook Islands lie in the South Pacific trade-wind zone, just to the north of the sub-tropical ridge of high pressure, winds from the easterly quadrant blow for over 50 percent of the time (Fig. 11). The most frequent directions, depending on the time of the year, are between 80 and 140°. Directions are constant during spring when up to 65 percent of all winds blow from the easterly quarter. It is during this time that the SPCZ tends to lie furthest to the north of the group resulting in a high seasonal frequency of dry south-east winds. Lowest directional constancy is during summer when the islands are affected not only by the SPCZ over the group, but also by occasional tropical cyclones and extra-tropical fronts.

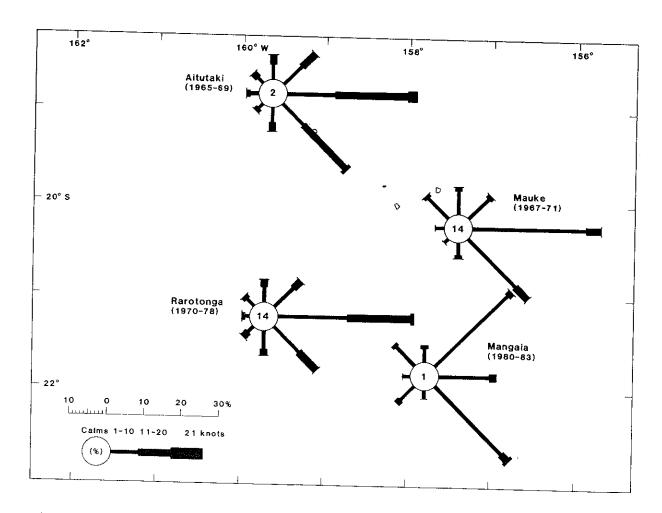


Fig. 11. Mean annual wind roses for Southern Cooks

Wind constancy values are given in Table 5. Constancy is defined as being the percentage of observations in which the wind direction is within 40 degrees of the most frequent direction. Table 6 presents the seasonal wind patterns for the Southern Cooks.

Table 5. Monthly values of wind constancy percent for the Southern Cook Islands

	-	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	Мау	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Aitutaki Mauke Rarotonga <i>I</i>	Air	39	37	49	35	35	45	39	57 48 50	50			58 46 61

Mean monthly wind speeds for the Southern Cook Islands are shown in Table 7. Wind speeds during the dry season tend to be about 10 percent stronger than in the wet season. For some locations (marked by an asterisk), monthly wind speeds were estimated by comparisons of wind run cup counter anemometers between that location and at Rarotonga Airport. Preliminary analyses show that on Mauke, the wind run is about 0.79 that of Rarotonga Airport. At Matavera, the coastal site wind run was about 1.08 times that at Rarotonga, while the hill site wind run was 1.3 times as much. The low mean speeds at Totokoitu result from the site being extremely sheltered.

On Mangaia, it was found that the daily wind run at Oneroa was 0.63 times that of Rarotonga Airport. Tamarua and Ivirua recorded on average 2.48 times and 1.34 times as much wind respectively as did Oneroa.

The diurnal variation of wind speed is given in Fig. 12. It is apparent there is a maximum wind speed about the middle of the day when temperatures are highest and atmospheric stability least. There is a small diurnal variation at Aitutaki, but the marked variation at Rarotonga Airport, Mauke, and to a lesser extent the coastal location at Matavera results largely from a nocturnal reduction in speed relative to that over the open ocean (see Aitutaki trace).

There is no apparent diurnal variation in the wind direction at Aitutaki or Mauke, although the frequency of light winds increases at night-time. Since Rarotonga is a sizeable island, diurnal wind direction changes result from local landand sea-breeze effects. Sea-breeze circulations are enhanced due to convective activity over the highlands (Flohn, 1970).

Table 6. Seasonal wind frequencies - Southern Cook Islands (Frequencies per thousand observations.)
(Note: A zero indicates occurrences 0.5.)

## (a) Rarotonga 1970-1978.

			<u>Spri</u>	.ng	<del>-</del>				<u>S</u> 1	ummer	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	·· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
Speed	1-3	4-]	11-1	17-2 .6	1 22-2	28- 7	+ Total	1-3	4-10	) 11–1	17 <b>-</b> 2 6		7 28+	Total
Dir														· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
N	2	28	13	2	0	0	46	2	33	22	9	3	1	70
NE	6	63	27	3	0	-	99	7	93	33	8	2	7	70
E	9	155	178	63	14	1	421	20	216	148	26	2 5	0	143
SE	8	93	69	19	5	1	194	6	58	40	20 7	_	2	417
S	3	36	15	2	Õ	Õ	56	2	20	7		2	Ţ	113
SW	1	20	11	ī	ő	Ů	33	1	12	7	1	0	0	30
W	1	9	5	1	ŏ	0	16	i	14	7	0 2	1	0	22
NW	1	13	13	3	ĺ		31	1	18	1.0		7	0	25
Calm				•	-4-		105	1	10	16	5	2	0	42
Total	32	416	331	94	21	2	100	41	463	281	57	14	5	138

Speed: 4-10 17-21 28+ 4-10 17-21 1-3 11-16 22-27 Total 1-3 11-16 22-27 28+ Total	
	al
N	

## (b) Aitutaki 1965-1969.

		<u> </u>		, v j .				·		····	•				
			Spri	.ng							Summe	<u>er</u>			
Speed:			) 11 <b>-1</b> 6						1-3			17-2] [6		7 28+	Tota
Dir N NE E SE SW W NW Calm	2 1 4 1 3 0 1 0	29 57 136 100 39 18 9 15	14 33 194 172 13 3 4	1 2 45 51 4 0 1 1		4 0	9 38 33 6 2 1 2	9 7 0 2 4 0 9	2 6 4 1 1 1 1	46 96 135 72 20 6 14 20	18 48 224 106 12 1 3 11	3 5 52 24 1 2 8	1 2 14 7	2 1 1 0 1 2 1	71 158 431 211 34 10 21 43 21
									10	405					
			Autu	ımn							Winte	<u>er</u>			
Speed:			11-16							4-10				28+	Tota
N NE E SE SW W NW	4 2 3 2 0 0 3 1	50 72 135 79 40 24 30 38	27 50 164 105 18 6 12 21	4 2 27 23 2 3 2	1 7 2	0	8 12 33 21 6 3 4	8 6 0 1 0 7	1 1 3 3 2 1 0 1	26 43 87 65 40 14 17	23 55 212 137 44 13 6	3 2 68 53 4 1 2	0 15 17 0	2 3	54 100 387 278 90 29 25 22
Calm Total	15	468	401	63	11	0	4	T	11	306	496	136	33	5	13
Tabl	Le 7	. M	iean	mont	hly	Wind	d sı	peed	(kn	nots)	· · · · · ·			_	
			J	an F	'eb M	ar i	Apr	Мау	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Rard Mauk Mata Mata Toto Oner	ce soton ce a aver aver okoi	ynop ga A grom a co a hi tu *	ir ir net* oast*	9 7 10 12 5 5	12 5 8 6 9 11 4 5	11 5 7 6 8 10 4 5	10 4 7 6 8 10 4 5	12 4 8 7 9 11 4 5	6 9 7 10 12 5	6 6 8 7 1 10 1 12 1 2 5 5 5	7 9 8 10 13 5	6 10 8 11 13 5	12 7 9 8 11 13 5	12 5 9 8 10 13 5 6	12 5 9 7 9 11 4 6

<sup>+</sup> Visual estimates

Tamarua \*
Ivirua \*

14

<sup>\*</sup> Wind run cup counters.

Seasonal relative wind frequencies from Rarotonga Airport (Table 8) show the sea-breeze component of the wind to have a direction from about 50°-70°. During the daytime in summer and autumn, marked there is a increase in the relative frequencies of east-north-east winds from a night-time minimum. corresponding night-time land-breeze wind tends to blow from the south-east. It is pertinent to note that other locations on the northern side of Rarotonga may not have the same sea-breeze direction as at the airport, but it is most likely to blow from a north-easterly direction.

Table 8. Seasonal relative frequencies (per thousand) of specified wind directions at Rarotonga Airport, 1970-1979

Direction		Su	mme	r		Au	tum	n			Wi	nte.	r		Sp	rin	a
class	N	М	A	E	N	M	A	E		N	M			N	M		E
050-070 080-100 110-130	32	17 32 12	30		21	26	12 23 14		2	0	22	8 24 14	21	27	10 33 19	34	31
N night M morning	3 (	nidr 5am	nigh - ]	nt - Llam	5am				A E			erno		noor 6pm		5p;	

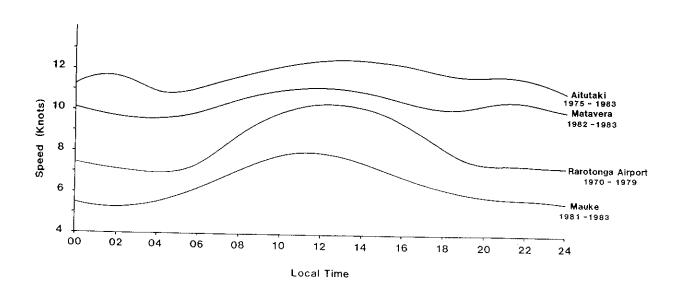


Fig. 12. Mean diurnal variation of surface wind speed for Southern Cook Islands

Table 9. Wind persistence at Rarotonga Airport Relative frequencies (per 10000)

Period of Direction	Persist 01-05	ence (h 06-10	ours) 11-15	16-20	21-50	50	Calm
0-15 knot	s			·	,		
350-010 020-040 050-070 080-100 110-130 140-160 170-190 200-220 230-250 260-280 290-310 320-340 all dir.	151 224 362 681 623 340 222 154 103 100 103 131 229	89 139 228 501 364 132 90 58 43 32 43 46 232	30 61 109 380 195 51 28 23 12 17 15 15	13 32 45 246 111 29 15 11 7 7 3 12 266	21 9 20 407 62 6 18 3 9	69 7	5751
16-25 knot	s				0.0	1000	3731
350-010 020-040 050-070 080-100 110-130 140-160 170-190 200-220 230-250 260-280 290-310 320-340 all dir.	29 25 37 165 144 40 16 11 15 19 23 27 393	9 7 15 113 64 8 2 1 5 7 8 12 232	13 2 49 22 2 9 3 7 173	2 35 9 6 94	3 68 16 3	19	
26+ knots.  350-010 020-040 050-070 080-100 110-130 140-160 170-190 2200-220 230-250 260-280 290-310 320-340 all dir.	3 1 7 7 7 3 1 2 1 2 3 26	1 4 4 1 1	3	3	6		

On the southern side of Rarotonga Island, it is expected that the sea-breeze component is generally south-easterly, and the land-breeze north-easterly.

Trade winds are a persistent feature of the general circulation. The persistence of winds at Rarotonga Airport for various speed and direction categories are given in Table 9. Light to moderate (80 -100 with speeds to 15 knots) may last up to 50 hours on about 15 occasions each year. High winds are not persistent. Most high winds last no more than 5 hours from any fixed direction. Winds over 34 knots are rare. At Rarotonga they occur for 0.04 percent of the time. Many of the measurements have been made in summer and autumn.

Wind gusts over 33 knots at Rarotonga Airport are evenly distributed throughout the year, being recorded on about 25 days. Gusts over 51 knots are measured about once every year, mostly in summer or autumn. A gust of 78 knots can be expected on average once every 25 years. The corresponding value for 50 years is 83 knots. These events are associated with tropical cyclones.

Table 10. 900 hPa wind frequencies and wind constancy at Rarotonga Airport, 1959-1983

Direction Class	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
North-easterly	7				-							<del></del>
(005 - 094)		46	39	36	32	32	30	34	36	37	34	38
South-easterly	7											
(094 - 184)	31	30	32	29	32	38	30	32	34	42	44	37
South-westerly												
(185 - 274)	7	6	7	12	16	17	23	17	14	11	9	10
North-westerly	7											
(275 -004)	18	18	22	22	17	13	17	17	16	12	14	15
Constancy of												
easterly	58	60	58	44	47	48	39	48	52	60	61	62

The wind flow at the 900 hPa level (a height of approximately 900 m) is usually free of the influence of surface friction, the daily surface heating and cooling cycle and most effects of island topography. Monthly frequencies of the 900 hPa trade winds at Rarotonga and their constancy are given in Table 10. A high frequency of 'easterlies' (5°-184°) can be seen to reach a maximum in October and November. There is a minimum during July when the SPCZ lies to the north of the island group, corresponding to the time when westerlies become more prominent. At this time the sub-tropical ridge of high pressure is further north than in the wet season. The Southern Cook Islands therefore come under the influence of the middle latitude westerlies.

Table 11. Serial correlation (x100) of monthly 900 hPa winds

	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
North-west North-east South-east South-west	33 9	-17 -0	11 21	-5 8	-35 -8	12 -24	22 16	-16 54	61 1	36 19	42 -21	48 11

Table 12. Contemporary correlations (x100) between 900 hPa winds and Southern Oscillation Index

-	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	Мау	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
North-west North-east South-east South-west	45 57	49 -34	53 ~52	25 -14	43 14	76 1	38 -7	55 7	76 -14	35 -2	64 -60	64 50

Serial correlation for each of the four direction classes reveals little persistence from one month to the next (Table 11). While the SOI is persistent, autocorrelation of the SOI and 900 hPa wind class frequencies reveals that the derived pattern (Fig. 13) is dominated by the persistence in the SOI, and is a similar pattern to when the SOI is autocorrelated with itself (Gordon, 1984 pers. comm). Contemporary correlations between wind direction classes at Rarotonga and the SOI are given in Table 12. Absolute values over 0.4 are significant at the 5 percent level. This table indicates that increased frequencies of north-easterlies are associated with positive values of the SOI, i.e. the SPCZ is south of its mean position. South-easterly winds for the most part are negatively correlated with the SOI, as are south-westerlies.

The 900 hPa trade-wind flow over the tropical Pacific Ocean has been found to have about 1.3 times the speed of the surface wind (Atkinson and Sadler, 1970), and differs in direction by about 10 degrees. From 900 hPa wind frequencies, Reid (1982) derived open-ocean wind roses for several South Pacific Islands. The open-ocean wind rose is presented in Table 13 for the Southern Cook Islands.

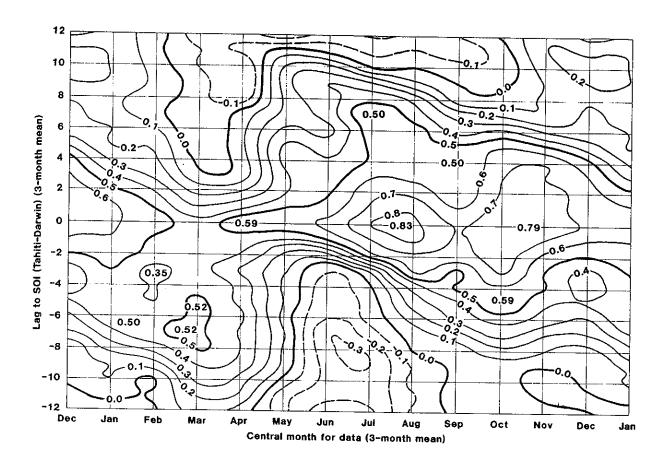


Fig. 13. Cross-correlation diagram of Southern Oscillation Index with the frequency of 900 hPa north-easterly winds at Rarotonga Airport

Wind power. Wind is a perpetual resource. As a resource, whether it be for generating electricity or for pumping water, the wind is the result of interactions between the large-scale synoptic weather patterns and the orographic characteristics of the site. Knowing the prevailing direction and average speed of the wind is important in considering the potential of locations as wind energy sources. It is also important to know what fraction of the time the wind blows in particular speed ranges.

One approach in assessing a location's potential is by the aid of a velocity-duration curve (Fig. 14). Starting with the highest speeds, a velocity-duration curve accumulates the number of hours in a year that the wind blows in excess of a certain speed. Figure 14 shows that at Rarotonga wind speeds between 6 and 30 knots occur for about 6465 hours each year. At Aitutaki the value is 7610 hours and at the Mauke synoptic site 3910 hours. Wind observations at Mauke are visually estimated. They tend to be underestimated since the observing site is on the western side of the island, and is rather sheltered.

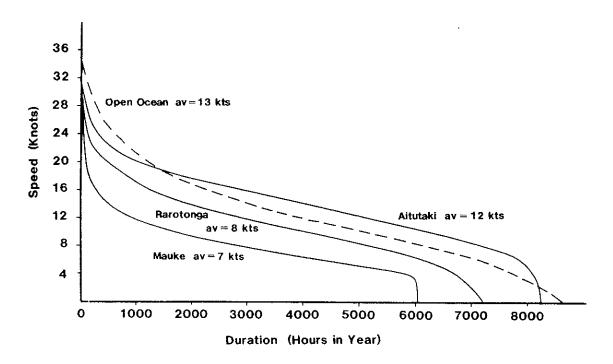


Fig. 14. Velocity-duration curves for Southern Cooks

From wind observations at any location, the 'standard' wind speed, c, is that speed that is exceeded 36.8 percent of the time. Swift-Hook (1979) has shown that the mean  $(V_{\text{m}})$  and standard wind speeds are closely connected by the following relation:

 $c = 1.11 V_{m}$ 

Wind power is proportional to the cube of the velocity (Swift-Hook, 1979). The total cumulative wind power available (at a speed of 1 knot) in one hour for a blade cross-sectional area of one square metre is  $8.82 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{kWh}$ . An idea of the amount of wind energy available each year is given in Table 13,

Table 13. Wind power in Southern Cook Islands\*

Location	٧	°C	Total time 6 and 30	knots		Wind Power kWh/m <sup>2</sup>				
			Obs.	Est.	Obs.	Est.				
Aitutaki	11.8	13.1	7610	7131	2165	2273				
Mauke Sy	5.3	5.9	3905	3638	370	205				
Rarotonga	8.9	9.9	6465	6234	1120	1027				
Mauke WR	7.0	7.7		5139		490				
Matavera C	9.6	10.6		6259		1293				
Matavera H	11.6	12.8		7076		2137				
Totokoitu	4.5	5.0		2630		110				
Oneroa	5.5	6.1		3837		230				
Tamarua	13.6	15.0		7316		2991				
Ivirua	7.4	8.2		5454		596				
Ocean	13.0	14.6		7292		2844				

<sup>\*</sup> Wind power estimates made assuming a Weibull distribution of wind speeds with a shape factor of 1.87.

which compares observed with estimated data. The total energy between 6 and 30 knots per square metre of blade area (derived from Fig. 14) at Rarotonga Airport, Aitutaki and Mauke are 1120 kWh, 2165 kWh, 370 kWh respectively. Aitutaki has nearly six times as much power available from the wind as does the sheltered Mauke synoptic site, while Rarotonga Airport can extract three times as much.

Table 14. Open-ocean surface wind frequencies (percent)

Direction	0 - 9	peed Ca 10-14	tegorie 15-19	s (knots) 20-24	25+
N NE E SE SW W NW	2 3 5 9 5 1 1	2 7 13 9 2 1 2	5 11 4 2	2 6 3	5

From open-ocean wind estimates (Table 14), the total time the wind is between 6 and 30 knots is 7292 hours, giving a wind energy potential of 2844 kWh per square metre. Ideal sites in the Southern Cooks for maximising the extraction of power available from the wind are on exposed hilltop sites on Rarotonga, Mauke and Mangaia, or on the eastern and south-eastern sides of the islands.

#### Rainfall

Precipitation in the tropics consists almost entirely of rainfall, hail being rare. Rainfall is highly variable in the tropics showing large inter-seasonal and inter-annual variation as well as considerable spatial variability. Rainfall is

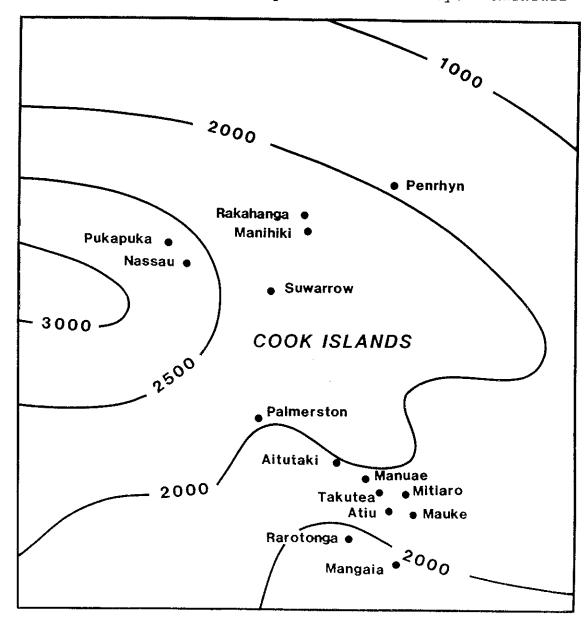


Fig. 15. Mean annual rainfall (mm) over Cook Islands (1951-80)

probably the most important climatic factor influencing agricultural practices in the tropics. Lack of rain can cause serious drought leading to crop failure or reduced yields, while intense heavy rains result in high runoffs and soil erosion. Much of the tropical rain results from convection which is manifested by the usual cumulus and cumulonimbus clouds. Tropical clouds frequently produce large amounts of rainfall in short periods, because airmasses are warmer and more humid than in the mid-latitudes.

Annual, seasonal and monthly rainfalls. The spatial distribution of annual rainfall over the Cook Islands is given in Fig. 15. This figure shows for the Southern Cook Islands a fairly uniform distribution with a long-term average of between 1900-2050 mm per year, although Mauke lies on the western margin of a drier zone which extends eastwards towards French Polynesia and the subtropical high pressure belt (Hessell, 1981).

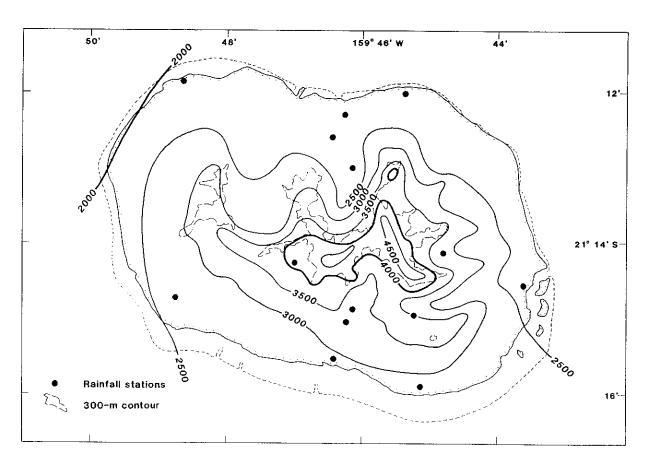


Fig. 16. Distribution of mean annual rainfall (mm) on Rarotonga (1951-80)

The distribution of rainfall on Rarotonga Island (Fig. 16) for a standard 30-year period (1951-1980) shows the effects of elevation and exposure to the south-east trade winds. Most of the computed normals have been based on short records, but it

does appear that Papua receives about twice the amount of rainfall as does Rarotonga Airport. The rugged interior around the peaks of Te Manga, Te Atukura and Te Kou receive an estimated 4500 mm per year, while the driest area of Rarotonga is on the north-western side of the island near the international airport.

In the Southern Cook Islands, there is a marked seasonality in the rainfall regime, a dry season (May to October) and a wet season (November to April). The seasonal distribution of rainfall is associated with the seasonal movement of the SPCZ in that the largest amounts on average are in the summer months. Table 15 gives wet and dry season rainfall statistics for the Southern Cooks. About two-thirds of the total rain falls during the wet season.

Table 15. Seasonal distribution of rain

Location	Seas Wet (mn	Dry	percentage Wet Sea	of annual Dry ason	total
Palmerston Aitutaki Mitiaro Atiu Mauke Rarotonga Turoa Raro. Obs. Aroa Mangaia		638 617 641 634 578 729 094 835 921 737	68 67 65 68 64 61 63 64	32 33 35 32 36 36 39 37 36 37	

Month-by-month variation of rainfall is shown in Table 16, and Fig. 17. The 10 and 90 percentile values (Fig. 17) together with the maximum and minimum values indicate the large variability in the rainfalls over the islands. At Aitutaki, for example, 90 percent of all Januaries will have a value less than 393 mm, while only 10 percent of the time will the value be less than 78 mm. Eighty percent of all Januaries will have a rainfall between 393 and 78 mm.

Actual monthly and seasonal rainfalls vary greatly from year to year. This can be seen from the coefficient of variation statistic in Table 16. The greater the coefficient the larger the interannual variability. Dry season rainfall tends to be more variable, and hence less reliable, than does the wet season rainfall.

Table 16. Monthly rainfall data - Southern Cook Islands.

Mean monthly rainfall (mm), highest and lowest recorded, and coefficient of rainfall variation (CV).

<del></del>	<del></del>					***********							
	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Year
(a) Palmer Monthly Highest Lowest CV		237	227		183	72 211 11 75		18	111 549 5 119			612	1957 2992 1200 23
(b) Aituta Monthly Highest Lowest CV	221	1930- 244 649 22 48	212	178		86 268 5 77		84 288 10 85	85 259 1 72	116 492 8 81	174 645 18 71	234 789 4 66	1880 3093 731 25
(c) Mitian Monthly Highest Lowest CV	273	958-1 204 403 46 58	196	183 495 21		931 3	83 201 7 70		115 303 19 73	89 201 10 60		180 418 9 68	1828 2770 1079 28
(d) Atiu 1 Monthly Highest Lowest CV	1958- 209 490 5	229	223	206 396 7 59	177 752 0 97	84 210 9 63	81 227 0 74	101 488 0 114	0	110 471 0 124	162 479 33 77	307 621 0 69	1970 3746 690 42
(e) Raroto Monthly Highest Lowest CV		Airr 224 509 42 49	267		169		97 298 12 64		106 268 13 54	123 318 16 63		225 653 11 68	2021 3021 1116 20
(f) Turoa Monthly Highest Lowest CV	296 540	240 371	366 655	618	781	220	300	487	303	292	761	596	2800 4155 2174 26
		271 630	290	376					362	133 337 10 83		686	2583 3924 1188 31
(h) Mangai Monthly Highest Lowest CV	251		224	184				119 501 9 78				526	1967 2983 1024 25

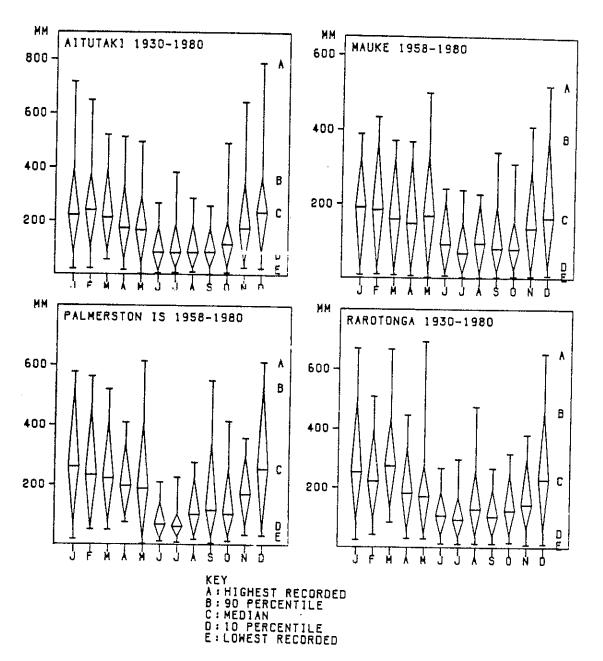


Fig. 17. Monthly rainfall data Southern Cooks

From the point of view of agriculture and water resources, the probability of receiving a certain amount of rainfall every year is of vital concern. It is therefore of interest to know the likelihood of receiving a certain amount of rainfall in at least four out of five years. A binomial frequency distribution has been used to compute the likelihood for threshold values of 1500 and 2000mm. The results are given in Table 17. The probability of receiving less than the threshold values in two successive years is also presented.

Table 17. Rainfall probability - Southern Cook Islands

Location	at least 1500mm	probability of at least 1500mm in 4 yrs out of 5	less than 1500mm in 2
Palmerston	76	66	6
Aitutaki	79	72	4
Mauke	85	83	2
Rarotonga	89	90	1
Mangaia	89	90	1
	Percent at least 2000mm per year	2000mm in 4	less than 2000mm in 2
Palmerston	43	11	33
Aitutaki	38	7	39
Mauke	31	3	48
Rarotonga	49	18	26
Mangaia	46	14	29

Raindays, rainfall duration, frequency and persistence. The frequency of raindays with at least 1.0 mm of rain is shown in Table 18. Fifty-five to sixty percent of raindays are in the wet season. On Rarotonga most long-term raingauges have been sited along the coastal plains. Totokoitu, on the southern side, has more raindays during the dry season than Rarotonga Airport due to the broad-scale wind flow being more south-easterly, leading to increased cloudiness caused by the orography.

The highland regions of Rarotonga and Mangaia can expect more raindays than the coastal regions. On Mangaia the number of raindays in the highlands is likely to be about 140 to 160 and on Rarotonga up to 180.

Falls of rain of at least 10 mm per day, over most of the islands of the Southern Cooks, are experienced on about 45 or 50 days, but at Mitiaro there are only 35 days. Rainfalls exceeding 50 mm per day are relatively rare, occurring on average on 6 to 10 days a year, and mostly during the wet season.

The inter-annual variability of raindays is more marked at Aitutaki and the other lower latitude islands than on Rarotonga

Table 18. Average number of raindays of at least 1 mm

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Wet seas		Year
Palmerston Aitutaki Mitiaro Atiu Mauke Rarotonga Aroa Totokoitu Mangaia	15 14 10 7 10 15 13 14 13	14 15 9 9 11 15 12 14 12	14 15 7 9 11 16 15 16	13 12 7 9 11 14 12 15 13	10 11 5 6 10 12 11 14 11	8 8 5 5 7 9 12 8	8 9 5 4 6 9 8 11	8 8 5 3 7 10 11 11	6 8 6 4 6 10 10 11 8	9 9 5 5 8 10 8	9 11 8 6 8 11 11 11	13 13 5 7 8 14 13 12	78 80 46 47 59 85 76 82	31 27 44 60 57	127 133 77 74 103 145 133 140

or Mangaia. During the winter, long dry periods are likely, but in summer rainy periods are common especially when disturbances are developing (Revell, 1981). At Aitutaki, the number of raindays of at least 0.1 mm has varied from 105 days in 1946 to 231 days in 1973. At Rarotonga there were 162 raindays in 1949 and 228 days in 1967.

8

9

9 67

51 118

Riehl (1954) noted that the minimum amount of daily rainfall that was required to sustain plant growth was about 2.5 Although Riehl's comment was general, such conditions in the Southern Cook Islands represent 55 to 65 percent of the annual number of raindays.

Table 19. Persistence of rainfall at Rarotonga (i.e. Percent of n-Days with various amounts of rain)

n-Days Amount	1	5	10	15	20	30
Nil 0.1 - 5mm 5.1 -10mm 10.1-20mm 20.1-30mm 30.1-50mm 50.1-100mm over 100mm	47 33 7 6 3 2 2	7 29 13 14 9 10 12 6	1 11 10 15 11 15 21	0 4 5 9 9 15 25 30	0 1 3 7 7 14 26 43	0 0 0 2 3 9 22 64

The average annual duration of rainfall at Rarotonga Airport is 470 hours per year, or about 5.3 percent of the total time. The average monthly durations during the wet and dry seasons are about 41 hours and 37 hours respectively.

The persistence of rainfall over various consecutive days is useful in estimating the 'drought' risk. Such an analysis is presented for Rarotonga Airport in Table 19. For example 47 percent of all days have no rain. For 15-day periods, the probability of no rainfall is almost nil, but there is a 10 percent chance that a total fall of rain will be between 10 and 20 mm.

Extreme short period rainfalls. Characteristics of individual rainstorms in the tropics, especially their intensity, frequency and duration of occurrence, are important. These factors are often more important than the seasonality and variability of rainfall (Jackson, 1977). Intense tropical rainfall in excess of 25 mm per hour can cause severe soil erosion, since soil infiltration rates are greatly exceeded, and surface runoff results.

High intensity rainfall varies according to duration and reflects the characteristics of the disturbance. For up to one or two hours, thunderstorms produce heaviest falls. For longer durations, rainfall is often produced from larger-scale weather systems such as tropical cyclones and quasi-stationary cloud systems.

An assessment of the frequency of high intensity rainfalls for selected durations has been made by Hessell (1980) as

Table 20. Depth(mm)-duration(hrs)-frequency(per year)

Return Peri	.od	2yr	5yr	10yr	20yr	50yr	Mean	CV
Palmerston 1967-1980	24hr 48hr 72hr	189 229 249	343 389 406	445 494 509	543 595 609	669 726 738	208 249 268	64 55 50
Aitutaki 1931-1980	24hr 48hr 72hr	131 167 187	170 219 247	196 253 287	221 286 325	253 328 374	137 175 197	29 30 31
Mauke 1967-1980	24hr 48hr 72hr	112 140 157	173 207 246	213 252 305	251 295 361	301 350 434	120 148 169	45 40 47
Rarotonga 1948-1980	24hr 48hr 72hr	133 163 185	196 231 251	237 275 294	277 318 336	328 374 391	143 173 195	43 39 34

depth-duration-frequency tables (Table 20). This analysis has been derived from annual maximum rainfalls measured at a fixed time (e.g. 9 a.m.) over one, two and three-day periods. These data have been adjusted to provide 24, 48, and 72-hour rainfall estimates for various return-periods. The return period concept is the average interval of time (years) within which a rainfall of a specified amount will be equalled or exceeded once.

An example of the interpretation of Table 20 follows. At Mauke a fall of 207 mm or more in 48 hours can be expected to recur on average once every 5 years.

Rainfall intensity varies with time 18). (Fig. figure shows that as the duration increases the intensity decreases. Short duration rainfalls (i.e. less than 24 hours) specific return-periods can be estimated from this diagram. For example a 6-hour rainfall with a return-period of can expect 122 mm.

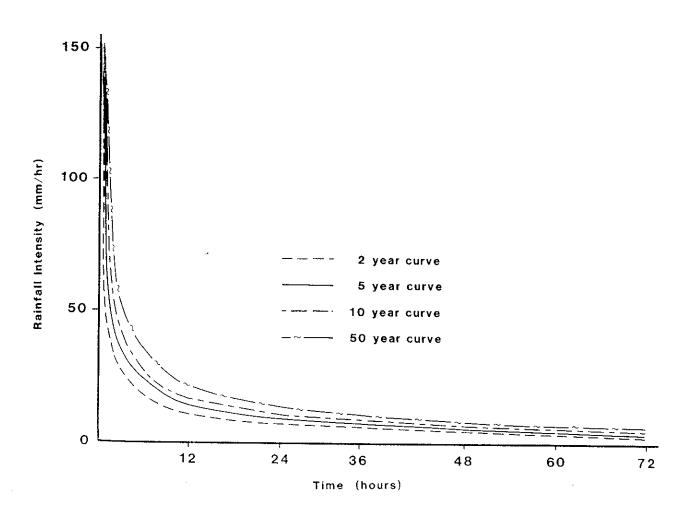


Fig. 18. Rainfall intensity-duration-frequency relationships for Rarotonga (1948-78)

The rainfall amounts are extreme values which may fall at any time of the year, although there is a tendency for the largest amounts to fall during the wet season. Table 21 gives the mean monthly values of the maximum one, two and three-day rainfalls. Like rainfall intensity, the amount of rain which falls on day two and day three is substantially less than the one-day total. Ratios of two-day to one-day rainfall and of three-day to one-day rainfall vary according to the season. In the dry season the two-day rainfall is about 1.2 times the one-day value, and the three-day value is approximately 1.3 times larger than the one-day rainfall. The corresponding wet season ratios are 1.3 and 1.5.

Table 21. Mean maximum 1, 2 and 3-day rainfalls (mm)

											•	
Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
One-Day			· · · · ·				_					
Palmerston	75	67	61	59	68	35	28	58	93	47	74	78
Aitutaki	61	60	55	58	60	31	37	33	37	45	58	67
Mauke	51	58	36	48	41	44	27	38	41	34	44	39
Rarotonga	69	56	64	53	60	40	38	57	46	38	52	69
Two-Day	•											
Palmerston	106	84	86	79	83	43	34	71	112	54	93	100
Aitutaki	86	85	73	74	80	38	42	44	46	56	72	89
Mauke	74	82	49	58	54	59	34	44	50	44	65	52
Rarotonga	95	<b>7</b> 5	83	67	77	57	47	77	54	47	63	90
Three-Day												
Palmerston	124	96	101	96	91	46	37	79	118	56	107	112
Aitutaki	101	103	84	84	90	43	45	48	50	63	82	104
Mauke	86	100	61	65	64	66	36	47	52	48	77	54
Rarotonga	104	91	102	79	84	62	54	81	59	54	70	100

Diurnal variation of rainfall. Hourly observations of rainfall amount are available for Rarotonga Airport. The diurnal variation of rainfall for wet and dry seasons is shown in Fig. 19. Average hourly rainfall amounts have been expressed as a percentage of the 24-hourly total. Figure 19 shows important seasonal differences. Diurnal rainfall variation in the wet season is a mixture of land and ocean effects. There is a prominent rainfall maximum in the middle of the day as a result of enhanced convective processes caused by land heating. There is also a secondary maximum at night, when instability over the oceans is enhanced due to increased radiation cooling from cloud tops (Malkus, 1963; Ruprecht and Gray, 1977). During the dry season, there is a night-time/early

morning maximum and a middle of the day minimum. There is also more rain at night in this season than in the wet season. Fifty-four percent of rain falls between 8 p.m. and 8 a.m. during the dry season, compared with 49 percent in the wet season.

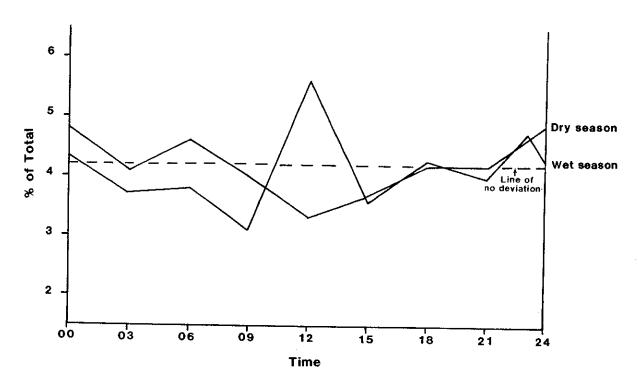


Fig. 19. Diurnal variation of rainfall at Rarotonga (1971-83) for wet and dry seasons

Rainfall in low-lying small islands of the Pacific Ocean tends to show a diurnal maximum in the evening or early morning hours (Finkelstein, 1964; Lavoie, 1963; Dorman and Bourke, 1981). These rainfall characteristics could be expected over the small coral atolls of the Southern Cook Islands.

Rainfall in the highland region of Rarotonga, and possibly Mangaia, would tend to exhibit a diurnal pattern with a maximum in the middle of the day due to increased cloudiness arising from the enhanced convection caused by the orography of the islands.

Dry spells. A dry spell may be defined as at least 15 consecutive days with less than 1 mm of rain per day, and a very dry spell (drought) as 15 or more days with no rain. Table 22 gives statistics of dry and very dry spells for the Southern Cook Islands. This table shows the variability in the frequency of drought conditions ranging from 1.5 occasions per decade at

Rarotonga to over 12 at Palmerston Atoll and Mangaia. Most dry spells are during the dry season. This table further highlights the considerable spatial variability existing in the tropical rainfall regimes.

Table 22. Dry spell and very dry spell statistics

Location	Number/ Decade		and Max. h (days)	Predominant Time			
Very Dry Palmerston Aitutaki Rarotonga Mangaia	12.1 6.3 1.5 13.3	20 17 16 17	34 31 17 21	Dry Dry Dry			
Dry Palmerston Aitutaki Rarotonga Mangaia	16.4 13.7 7.9 18.3	21 19 17 18	34 31 26 21	_	Season Season Season		

The frequency or persistence of dry spells in a single year can be measured, and an indication of this characteristic can be derived from Table 23 for Aitutaki which gives the average number of dry spells per decade. One dry spell per year is the most frequent event occurring four times every decade.

Table 23. Average number of runs per decade of dry spells in a single year at Aitutaki, 1930-1980

Runs of dry	spe	lls in	a si	ngle ye	ear		
_						5	6
Frequency	2.2	3.9	2.2	1.0	0.4	0.2	-

Persistence of abnormal monthly rainfall. Abnormal monthly rainfall is defined as a departure of at least 50 percent from the average amount. In the tropics persistence of such rainfall over several months is not uncommon (Seelye, 1950). This is more pronounced in areas close to the equator, and especially in the dry zone of the tropics.

Persistence of abnormal rainfall over the Southern Cook Islands is given for Aitutaki and Rarotonga Airport in Table 24. At least one month each year will have either a high or low rainfall, but it is rare for abnormal rainfall to persist for three or more consecutive months. These have been mostly associated with significant phases of the southern oscillation.

Table 24. Average number of runs per decade of the stated number of consecutive months, each with abnormal rainfall.

				hs with average	No. co less t						age
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		i 193			15.0	3.9	0.9	0.9	_	_	0.4
	roton 1.7	ga 19: 0.2	30-19	83	13.1	3.3	1.3	0.4	0.2		

The table shows there is little persistence of abnormal rainfalls. Serial correlation also confirms this. For Aitutaki it is 0.012 and at Rarotonga the value is -0.013.

#### Air temperature

A characteristic of tropical climates is that temperatures remain high all year round due to high insolation levels, the seasonal and diurnal variations are quite Tropical temperatures are also related to some ext small. extent by latitude (Hessell, 1981). In the region of the Southern Cook Islands the mean annual temperatures are  $24\,^\circ$  to  $26\,^\circ$ C. The monthly march of temperature can be seen in Fig. 20 for a number of Southern Cook Island locations. This figure shows increase in the daily and seasonal variations some increasing latitude. Palmerston Island (18.07°S) and Aitutaki (18.82°S) have an average daily range of 5°C, and a seasonal variation of 3°C. On Rarotonga (21.11°S), the corresponding values are 6°C and 4.5°C. The figure also shows the daily maximum and daily minimum temperatures are highest during February and March, and least in July and August. This is about two or three months after the sun reaches the solstices.

Maximum temperatures over 32°C are experienced at Aitutaki on about three to five days each year, but on Rarotonga and Mangaia such temperatures are recorded about once a year. A temperature of 35.6°C has been measured on Aitutaki (February

1933) while at Rarotonga Airport a maximum of 33.6°C was recorded in March 1977.

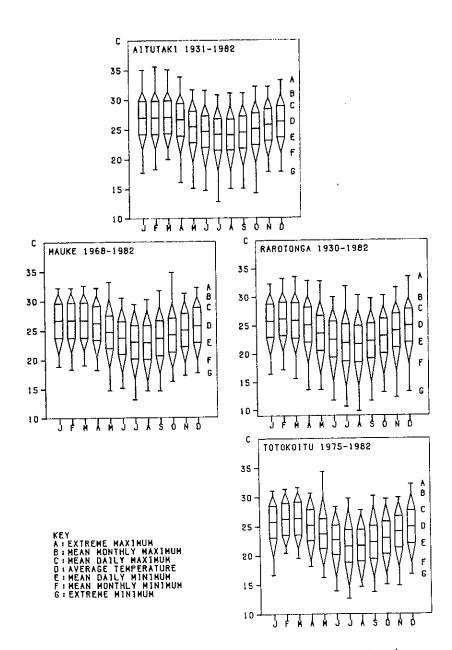


Fig. 20. Monthly temperature data - Southern Cooks

Minimum temperatures at Aitutaki and Palmerston Atoll seldom fall below 18°C, occurring on only two or three days each year. On Rarotonga there are 10 to 15 days, mostly in the dry season, when temperatures drop below 18°C. The lowest recorded temperatures at Aitutaki and Rarotonga are 12.8°C (July 1940) and 8.9°C (July 1915). A table of monthly extremes is presented in Table 25.

Table 25. Monthly extreme temperatures - Southern Cook Islands

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
(a) Maximum Palmerston Aitutaki Mauke Rarotonga Totokoitu	33.4 35.0 32.2 33.1	35.6 32.2 33.3	35.1 32.6 33.6	33.9 32.2 32.9	31.7 33.2 32.8	31.6 30.5 30.0	30.8 29.4 31.9	31.1 30.2 30.3	31.1 31.7 31.6	32.2 34.8 31.9	32.0 32.2 31.2 31.6 29.9	33.3 32.2 33.5
(b) Minimur Palmerston Aitutaki Mauke Rarotonga Totokoitu	20.5 17.7 18.8 16.4	18.3 18.3 17.2	20.0 19.0 15.6	16.1 18.2 13.6	15.1 14.7 11.1	14.7 15.1 10.6	12.8 13.1 8.9	15.0 14.6 9.8	15.0 14.6 11.6	14.2 16.2 13.1	21.0 17.8 17.2 12.2 14.8	17.8 17.6 13.2

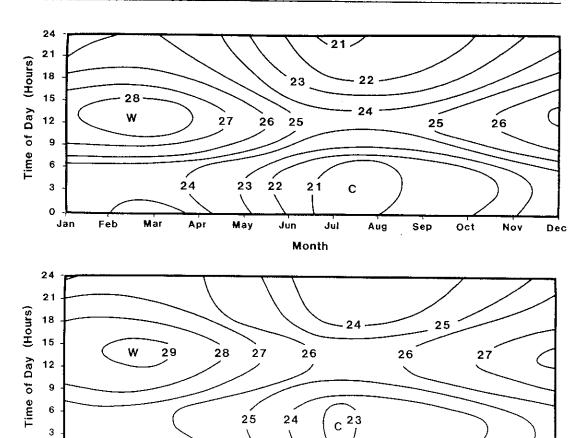


Fig. 21. Diurnal and seasonal temperature variations (0°C) for Rarotonga (1971-80) and Aitutaki (1975-81)

Month

Jul

Aug

Sep

Oct

Nov

Dec

o. Jan

Feb

Mar

Apr

May

One way of showing the combined effects of seasonal on Aitutaki and Rarotonga is displayed in variations Fig. 21. which 21 shows that the diurnal and seasonal variations more pronounced on Rarotonga than at Aitutaki. The diagram 1-2°C higher on indicates that the temperatures are about Comparisons of the maximum than at Rarotonga Airport. Aitutaki and minimum temperatures at Rarotonga Airport and maximum temperatures at the airport are on average warmer than at Totokoitu, while the minimum is only 0.1°C 0.8°C On Mauke, the synoptic reporting site has maximum and warmer. 0.2°C 0.4° and which are temperatures minimum respectively than the agrometeorological site.

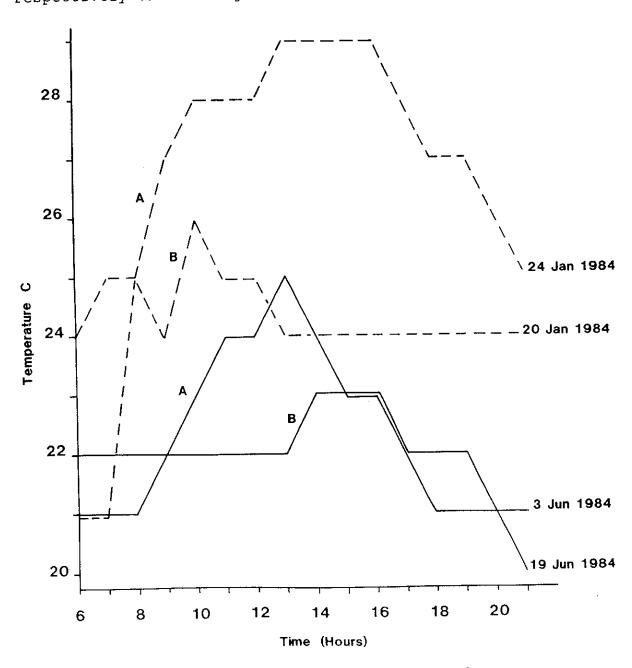


Fig. 22. Temperatures during sunny and cloudy days at Rarotonga

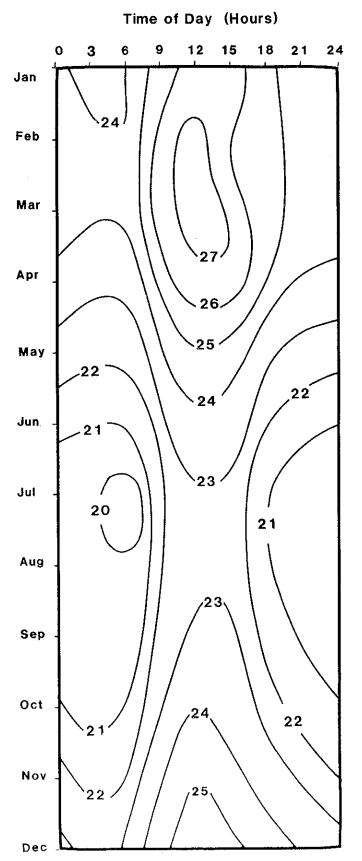


Fig. 23. Isopleths of the temperature-humidity index for Rarotonga Airport (1970-80)

The diurnal variation of temperature in tropical regions on any particular day is associated with changes in cloudiness (Nieuwolt, 1968). Daytime temperature variation is appreciably reduced on cloudy to overcast days (Fig. 22) when global radiation levels are also reduced.

Temperatures decrease with elevation, and a controlling influence on the lapse rate in upland regions is cloudiness. Under cloudy conditions, the lapse rate tends to be that of the free atmosphere (Nieuwolt, 1977) which is about 6°C/km. Due to the greater number of trade wind inversions, lapse rates tend to be larger in the dry season than during the wet season. For the South-West Pacific the lapse rate in January is 8.9°C/km, while in July it is 9.9°C/km (Tomlinson, 1975). Thus at an elevation of 500 m Rarotonga could be expected to have temperatures which are about 4.5-5.0°C cooler than the lowland coastal locations.

Human response to temperature. Temperature is not the only climatic parameter affecting human comfort in the tropics. Relative humidity, solar radiation and air movement important (Finkelstein, 1972; Nieuwolt, 1977). A number of indices have been proposed to measure the comfort of humans warm conditions. One such index is the Temperature-Humidity Index (THI). The THI indicates the temperature of saturated air causes a sensation of warmth or cold, and is given by the following formula:

where  $THI = 0.8T + (RH \times T)/500$ .

T = dry bulb air temperature, and RH = relative humidity.

24 86 84 21 84 80 (Hours) 18 76 15 70 Time of Day 74 70 Low 76 72 Low 72 12 9 6 82 High 3 84 88 86 84 0 Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Month

Fig. 24. Isopleths of relative humidity for Rarotonga Airport (1970-80)

The critical value when people are uncomfortably hot is 26°C. It should be noted that the THI excludes consideration of wind, solar radiation and precipitation. It cannot therefore be considered as completely definitive of human comfort which may also depend on clothing, fitness and experience of particular conditions. The diurnal and seasonal variation of the THI at

Rarotonga Airport is given in Fig. 23. The diurnal variation is not as large as the air temperature diurnal variation (Fig. 21). This is caused by the influence of relative humidity (Fig. 24) which is higher at night than during the day. From Fig. 23 it is seen that most human discomfort is likely during the period from mid-December to mid-April, and more especially in the middle of the day.

# Sunshine and solar radiation

Sunshine. The proportion of the sky which is covered by clouds affects the amount of sunshine and global radiation received at the surface of the earth. Rarotonga Airport is the only location with a long-term sunshine record. Sunshine recorders were installed in mid-1983 on Mangaia and Mauke. Initial sunshine estimates for Mangaia indicate that it receives about 91 percent of the Rarotonga Airport sunshine. An estimate for Mauke could not be made.

Information about the spatial and temporal variation of sunshine can be obtained from observations of cloud amount. The diurnal variation of cloud cover at Aitutaki and Rarotonga Airport is given in Fig. 25. At Rarotonga there is a pronounced diurnal variation in cloud cover, with a maximum in the afternoon caused by convection. There is a cloud minimum at night when atmospheric stability increases as the temperatures decrease.

At Aitutaki, which is a low-lying volcanic and coral atoll, there appears to be a night-time cloud maximum. Over the oceans

Table 26. Comparison between mean daily cloud cover and mean cloud cover at 9 a.m.

	Jan	Feb	Mar	Àpr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
(a) Aitutaki Mean Daily Mean 9 a.m	5.6	5.3	5.1	5.7 5.6	5.7 5.6	5.0 4.9	5.0 5.1	4.9 4.9	4.8 4.7	5.2 5.1	5.6 5.7	5.5 5.3
(b) Rarotonga Mean Daily Mean 9 a.m	5.3	5.2	5.2	5.1	5.4	4.8 4.7	4.6	4.9	4.8	4.9 4.8	5.4 5.4	5.2 5.0

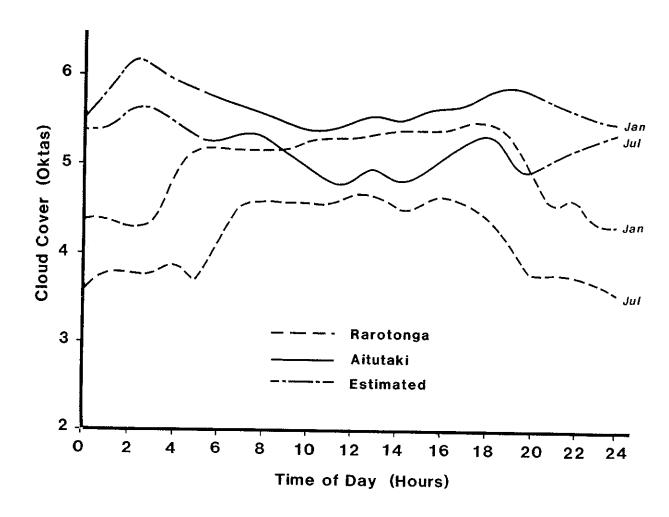


Fig. 25. Diurnal variation of cloud cover at Aitutaki (1975-80) and Rarotonga Airport (1970-80) in January and July

it has been found that clouds increase at night-time due to increased atmospheric instability caused by cloud-top radiational cooling (Ruprecht and Gray, 1976). Cloud cover at Aitutaki shows a minimum during the latter part of the morning, and is consistent with the oceanic environment of this island.

Monthly sunshine totals have been estimated for the Southern Cook Islands using the 9 a.m. cloud cover as an estimate of the mean daily cloud cover. The cloud cover at 9 a.m. is a good estimate of the mean daytime (6 a.m. to 6 p.m.) cloud cover (Table 26 and Fig. 25).

Sunshine was determined from the following empirically derived equation:

$$S = S_0(1 - aC^2)$$

where

 $S_0$  = total possible sunshine for the latitude of the location,

C = 9 a.m. cloud amount expressed as a fraction between 0 and 1,

a = a function of latitude (Table 27) found by calibrating stations of the South Pacific between latitudes 10°S and 25°S.

Table 27. Values for the constant a by latitude in the computation of sunshine estimates

Latitude Constant a	8 1.22	10 1.21	12 1.20	14	16	18	20	22
Constant a	1.22	1.21	1.20	1.20	1.19	1.18	1.13	1.10

From comparison of the estimated monthly sunshine for Rarotonga Airport with observed sunshine values, the accuracy of the above equation is better than ten percent. The monthly sunshine estimates for the Southern Cook Islands are presented in Table 28. In summer, which is the cloudiest time of the year, the computed sunshine totals represent about 45 to 50 percent of the total possible sunshine. During the dry season, when the sun's elevation is lowest, the sunshine totals represent about 55 to 60 percent of the total possible sunshine.

Table 28. Monthly sunshine (hours) for Southern Cook Islands

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Palmerston Aitutaki Mauke Rarotonga Rarotonga* Totokoitu Mangaia*	186 220 181 181 181	156 185 165 178 165	165 202 180 180 180	166 214 171 169 144	165 196 163 159 135	179 196 160 162 148	187 210 175 174 167	226 187 217 192 179 162 163	189 209 177 178 164	184 209 186 188 179	163 203 173 179 173	172 192 182 181 182

<sup>\*</sup> Observed Sunshine data

Solar radiation. Solar radiation comprises direct and diffuse radiation. It varies greatly with latitude, as well as with the amount of cloud cover. Where measurements of radiation are not available, as in the Cook Islands, one of the simplest

models used for the estimation of global radiation is the Angstrom correlation relation, given by:

 $Q/Q_0 = a + b(n/N)$ 

where

Q = the monthly average daily global radiation

 $Q_0$  = extraterrestrial radiation (Table 29) n/N = relative duration of bright sunshine

a = coefficient depending on the prevailing cloud type

b = transmission characteristics of a cloud-free atmosphere, mainly the water vapour content and turbidity (Mani and Rangarajan, 1983).

4

The coefficients a and b for the South-west Pacific oceanic region were computed from Fiji radiation and sunshine data. They were found to be a = 0.306 and b = 0.381. The correlation coefficient was 0.961. The sum (a+b) is 0.687 which is indicative of a moist and turbid atmosphere (Mani and Rangarajan, 1983).

Table 29. Values by month and by latitude of extraterrestrial radiation\*  $(MJ/m^2/day)$ 

Lat	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
15°S 20°S 25°S	72.4	40.0	א. סכ	31.7	27 0	2L	אה ב	ാവ വ	34 3	20 0		

<sup>\*</sup> Solar constant 1381  $W/m^2$ 

Monthly estimates of global radiation are given in Table 30. This table shows highest radiation totals during December or January when the sun is overhead. These months are on average the cloudiest, so there is a high diffuse radiation

Table 30. Monthly global radiation  $(MJ/m^2/day)$ 

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Palmerston Aitutaki Mauke Rarotonga Totokoitu Mangaia	22.0 20.5 20.5	20.3 19.5 20.8 20.5 19.8 19.7	19.1 18.3 18.1	15.9 17.4 15.6 14.7	13.7 14.3 12.9	13.2 13.4 12.0	13.7 14.0 12.7	15.4 16.0 14.6	17.8 18.5 17.1	19.1 20.2 19.2	20.1 21.2 20.2	20.6 21.2 20.6

component in the total amount. Estimates of diffuse radiation from empirical methods described by Spencer (1982) suggest that the diffuse radiation component is as much as 45 to 50 percent of the total global radiation during the wet season, and about 40 percent in the dry season.

# Hail and thunder

Hail is exceedingly rare in the Southern Cook Islands, being reported on only one or two days every 10 years and only during the wet season. By way of an example, there were heavy hail showers on Rarotonga on the evening of 7 February 1980, when a squally and thundery south-easterly airstream prevailed over the Southern Cooks. The hail was confined to the coastal strip from Matavera to Tupapa along the northern coast and along the western coast from Arorangi to Rutaki. Hail stones had an average diameter of about 7 mm.

Table 31 shows the frequency of days of thunder in the Southern Cook Islands. While thunder is likely in any month, between 60 and 65 percent are reported during the wet season. In some months thunder can be heard on up to 7 days.

Table 31. Days of thunder - Southern Cook Islands

Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Palmer	ston	Atol1	1972	-1980				-			<del></del>
nicaca	ひエ エン	1.2 71-198	טס								
2.1 Mauke	2.9 1971-	2.2 1980	2.6	3.6	1.5	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.4	2.3	2.2
0.9 Raroto		1.5 971-19		1.5	0.5	0.2	0.1	1.0	0.9	1.1	0.8
	1.3	1.7	1.6	1.6	0.8	0.3	0.6	0.6	1.3	1.0	1.3
	0.6	0.4			0.2	0.2		0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5
0.7	0.2	1.8	0.6	2.2	0.2		1.0	0.4	0.7	1.0	0.3

Lightning is more commonly observed than thunder. The frequency of reported lightning flashes is about twice that of thunder, and in individual months up to 16 days with lightning have been noted.

From an analysis of both hourly and synoptic weather reports, a pronounced diurnal variation exists in the episodes of thunder and lightning. At Aitutaki there is an evening and

early-hours maximum when 86 percent of the observations are reported. At Rarotonga, 60 percent happen during the afternoon and evening. A further 25 percent of thunder and lightning events are observed at night, and are most probably out to sea. The maximum number of thunderstorms appear to occur between 8 and 10 p.m., and the minimum from 10 a.m. to noon (Revell, 1984).

Thunderstorm rainfall can be intense. As an example, a series of heavy thunderstorms affected Rarotonga on the afternoon and evening of 10 April 1984. Most of the 143 mm of rain measured at the airport fell between 2 p.m. and midnight. All the island's stations recorded heavy falls.

# Evapotranspiration and soil water balance

Evapotranspiration is the combined loss of water by evaporation from the soil and by plant transpiration. In the tropical regions high rates of evapotranspiration are common due to a large amount of available energy (Jackson, 1977). Evapotranspiration is less variable from year to year than is rainfall because of the small variations in the solar radiation component.

Evapotranspiration can be thought of as a response to two climatological 'inputs'; solar radiation and water supply from rainfall (Coulter, 1973). When evapotranspiration is not limited by the supply of water, the rate of loss of water to the atmosphere is at a peak and is known as 'potential evapotranspiration' (PET). There are several methods of calculating PET; the best known is the Penman formulation given in Table 32.

Table 32. Monthly Penman potential evapotranspiration (mm)

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Palmerston Aitutaki Mauke Rarotonga Totokoitu Mangaia	160 153 145	156 143 135 137 127 127	135 131 125	115 106 97	95	86	90 87 77	127 108 101 88	148 138 126 119 103 106	159 146 138 125	157 150 142 134	165 158 154 141

The interplay between rainfall and evapotranspiration forms the water balance. When PET exceeds rainfall, soil moisture reserves are utilised until all soil water is used. A deficit then exists. When rainfall exceeds PET, the soil water reserves are recharged up to a maximum storage capacity. Any further

Table 33. Water balance summary - Southern Cook Islands

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	L Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Palmersto	n At	011	(196	7-19	84)					<u> </u>		
DE	12	15	24	2	1	22	29	48	47	74	4.4	2.0
RO	71	76	81	73	90	16				24	44	20
FDE	38	31	47	13	19	35					19	93
FRO	75	56	53	63	63	35	12			88 18	69 38	38 75
Aitutaki	(193	1-198	34)									
DE	18	10	4	4	5	12	2.0					
RO	69	88	81	62	64		26		5 <u>7</u>	63	40	21
FDE	32	30	13	11		18	11	•	5	11	32	76
FRO	58	79	60	55	17 62	31 25	60 17	75 17	83 10	88 18	69 31	42 55
Mauke (19	67-19	984)					_,		10	0	31	55
DE	56	30	33	24	1 7	٦ ٨						
RO	39	76	39	47	11 55	14 30	18	31	51	60	55	55
FDE	71	41	50	33	22		17	15	21	8	47	49
PRO .	35	47	56	44	44	29 41	41 35	47 24	76 18	76 18	71 29	59 35
Rarotonga	(194	8-19	84)						-+	10	2,7	33
ÞΕ	16	7	7	2	7	2	_	_				
80	9 Î	73	94	88	1	2	3	2	10	26	31	22
'DE	31	31	17		84	27	18	38	20	13	22	71
'RO	64	69	72	8 72	6 83	6 56	9 37	11 51	28 36	61 19	64 33	47 58
otokoitu	(197	5-198	34)						30	17	33	56
E				_								
	13	2	4	_ 1	0	0	0	0	0	2	14	19
.0					157	88	96	137	104	89		173
DE	33	22	22	11	0	0	0	0	0	13	13	22
RO	67	89	78	89	89	88	100	100	75	50	50	67
angaia (1	967-	1984)	•									
E	14	3	4	3	1	2	5	2	7	25	2.0	2.2
0	71	107			.15	57	40	52	7	25	26	23
DE	20	33	27	8	8	15	15		27	13	39	35
RO	50	83	64	83	77	69	54	9 45	27 55	40 30	45 45	45 64

Note:

Soil moisture capacity 125mm
DE Evapotranspiration deficit (mm)

RO Runoff (mm)

FDE Frequency (percent) of months with deficit
FRO Frequency (percent) of months with runoff

rainfall causes runoff. However, in tropical regions rainfall effectiveness can be substantially reduced because high intensity rainfalls commonly exceed the soil infiltration rates. Subsequent runoff results in soil erosion.

Studies in the Southern Cooks on the amount of water the soil can hold (Jackson, 1981) showed a typical plant rooting depth was 60 to 100 cm, which corresponded to a soil moisture capacity of about 100 to 150 mm. Water balance summaries (Table 33) have been computed for a soil water capacity of 125 mm. Runoff and soil moisture deficits occur all year round. Soil moisture deficits and their frequency of occurrence tend to be greatest in the second half of the year during the dry season. Deficits, like potential evapotranspiration are larger on the islands closer to the Equator.

On the southern side of Rarotonga, Totokoitu has experienced no soil moisture deficits in the dry season during the period of the record. This side of the island is wetter and cloudier than the northern side.

The demand for water by plants in the tropics is high due to the high rates of evapotranspiration. Studies on the water-yield relationships of coconuts cited by Jackson (1977) have shown that an even distribution of rainfall is necessary throughout the year. Tree growth and coconut yields are reduced if there is a well-defined dry season (and therefore soil moisture deficits) in the previous two years. Irrigation during the dry season is therefore beneficial in sustaining crop levels.

Table 34. Annual irrigation requirements (mm) for a given risk (Water is applied when soil moisture level is 62 mm)

Location			Risk	(perc	ent)	
	90	75	50	25	10	HE*
Palmerston Aitutaki Mauke Rarotonga Mangaia	250 245 225 100 10	385 325 300 160 25	445 420 400 220 70	725 525 810 280 225	870 665 1075 450 400	1041 1049 1324 739 677

<sup>\*</sup> Highest estimate.

Estimates of irrigation requirements (Table 34) for the Southern Cook Islands have been assessed from past climatological data through the use of the water balance and its calculation of the soil moisture deficit. The risk is the

number of years in 100 that supplementary water is required. Land is irrigated when the soil moisture level is 50 percent of its field capacity.

# 6. MARINE CLIMATE OF THE SEAS AROUND THE SOUTHERN COOK ISLANDS

The area of the South Pacific Ocean, in which the Southern Cook Islands lie, is on the southern fringe of the South Sub-tropical Ocean Current (Meteorological Office, 1967). This current flows slowly from the east or north-east at about 0.5 to 1.0 knot. The ocean current is relatively warm, and monthly sea surface temperatures for the islands are displayed in Fig. 26. Average sea temperatures range from 28°C in January and February to 24°C six months later.

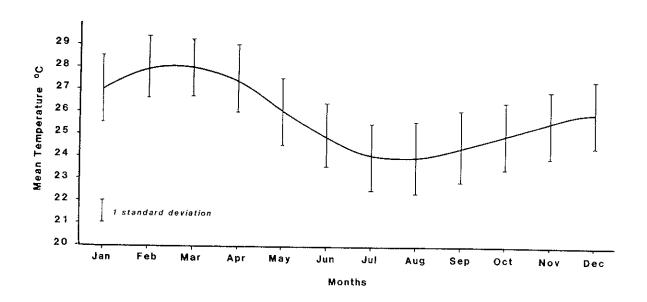


Fig. 26. Sea surface temperatures - Southern Cooks

Table 35 presents a monthly wave analysis for the This table, derived from the U.S. islands. Marine Climatic Atlas Series (1979), uses the greatest height of wind waves or swell present at the time of observation. Over 90 percent of waves are less than 4 metres. Predominant wave directions are from the east or south-east. High waves (over 6 metres) are rare, but they tend to be most frequent prevailing direction tends to be east south-east, but during the cyclone season waves from the north-east are also observed, although their frequencies are less than 0.5 percent.

Table 35. Monthly frequencies (percent) of specified wave heights over seas surrounding the Southern Cook Islands

Height Class(m)	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
0.0-1.9 2.0-4.0 6.0+	55 40 1	55	55 40 .5	40 50 4	50 40 1	45	45 50 .5	50	45 45 0	50 45 1	55 43 0	50 45 1

On occasion, heavy swells that have been generated thousands of kilometres away can affect the Southern Cook Islands. As an example, late on 26 June 1980, heavy south-west swells caused considerable damage to parts of Rarotonga. A long south-west swell generation area existed between Macquarie Island and the Chatham Islands on 24 June 1980. The fetch area moved slowly north-east during the following three days, and its associated wind field weakened only on 28 June 1980. Swells leaving this fetch area took about 65 hours to reach Rarotonga.

## 7. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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#### APPENDIX

# The Climate of Rarotonga International Airport

# Introduction

Rarotonga International Airport is situated on the north-west side of Rarotonga Island, 7 m above mean sea level, and about 3 km from the town of Avarua. The single paved runway is 2377 m long, and is aligned from 80°-260° magnetic. The approaches to the airport are from over the ocean, and are therefore free from orographic obstructions.

Hourly weather reports are prepared throughout the 24 hours by the Cook Islands Meteorological staff. They are representative of the weather over the airfield and approach areas, but winds of much strength in the south-east quadrant are significantly influenced by turbulent flow over the rugged highlands of the island. Table Al presents a summary of climatological observations made at Rarotonga Airport.

## Surface Winds

Rarotonga, situated in the trade winds zone of the subtropics, is affected by winds which blow predominantly easterly (see Fig. 11 and Table 13). Over 83 percent of wind speeds are less than 16 knots. Easterly winds can be persistent, blowing for days on end.

For speeds in the range 6-20 knots, winds blow 54 percent of the time from between  $80^{\circ}-130^{\circ}$ , and 16 percent from  $20^{\circ}-70^{\circ}$ . The least likely wind direction is between  $260^{\circ}-310^{\circ}$ , the frequency of occurrence being only 5 percent. For speeds over 20 knots, 58 percent are from between  $80^{\circ}-130^{\circ}$ , and 12 percent from  $320^{\circ}-10^{\circ}$ . Sustained strong winds over 30 knots are very infrequent with 70 percent of these occurrences being in the wet season.

Restrictions on the operation of commercial aircraft seldom necessary because of high winds or crosswinds. crosswind is the component of wind blowing perpendicular to the runway.) An analysis of crosswinds at Rarotonga Airport is given in Table A2. Crosswinds of less than 14 knots occur 97 percent of the time. They exceed 20 knots only 0.3 percent of the time. Nearly 60 percent of crosswinds over 20 knots are during period November to April, although some of the hig the highest components (over 30 knots) have been measured during the associated with the development of subtropical depressions on quasi-stationary convergence zones. An example occurred during the period 5 to 9 May 1984 when a depression developed just north of Rarotonga. Crosswind components of 35 knots were reported at the height of the storm on 8 May 1984.

## Turbulence

Convective turbulence is common all year round due to the presence of cumulus clouds. This type of turbulence is normally accentuated in the wet season, and can be severe when cumulonimbus clouds are embedded in the SPCZ or quasi-stationary frontal systems.

Extremely turbulent conditions are present in tropical cyclones. Turbulent conditions are further enhanced when tropical cyclones pass north of the airport, as southerly airflows cross the highlands to the south-east. These conditions last for no more than 6 to 12 hours.

Frequent wind shear between the surface easterlies and the upper-level westerlies is reported at the airport to be turbulent. It is usually enhanced when the temperature inversion is strong.

# Visibility and low cloud

 $\underline{\text{Visibility}}.$  Normally visibility is very good apart from the usual reduction during showers.

Low cloud. The airport is seldom affected by low cloud, the main base of the predominant cumulus cloud being about 2000-2500 ft (600-760 m). Cloud bases below 1500 ft (455 m) are reported 2.3 percent of the time, with 40 percent of the low cloud observed in easterly conditions (80-130) at speeds of less than 16 knots. Due to orographic sheltering in the southerly quadrant (170-220), there are relatively few events (7 percent of the low cloud observations).

Very low stratus (below 1000 ft or 300 m) commonly forms in situ when it rains, occurring only 0.3 percent of the time. On many occasions, these conditions are reported when the wind is between north-west and east.

During rain, the main nimbostratus cloud base is at 8000-9000 ft ( 2400-3000 m).

Joint occurrences of low cloud and/or poor visibility. Tables A3 to A6 present the frequency distribution by seasons of selected low cloud and/or poor visibility conditions as a function of wind speed and direction, together with the corresponding wind summary.

The likelihood of low cloud and/or poor visibility occurring simultaneously for specified wind speed and directions is given in tables of joint probability (Tables A7 to A10). While high frequencies of poor flying weather in category A (i.e. cloud below 1500 ft and/or visibility less than 5000 m) occurs in all seasons, the corresponding joint probabilities are generally small. Highest probabilities are however associated with wind directions from between west and north-east, because of the smaller frequency of winds from these directions.

Low cloud and/or poor visibility is most frequent in summer occurring for 3.3 percent of the time. The corresponding values for autumn, winter and spring are 2.5 percent, 2.3 percent and 1.9 percent respectively.

<u>Precipitation</u>. Reduced visibility (less than 5000m), due to convective or synoptic-scale precipitation, is reported 0.3 percent of the time. As Fig. 19 displays there is a distinct rainfall maximum in the middle of the day during the wet season, but in the dry period the majority of rain falls at night.

Visibilities may reduce to 400~m in afternoon summer thunderstorms, and to 3000-5000~m in continuous periods of rainfall.

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RARUTUMGA TABLE A7

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RAPRITURGA TABLE A8

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TABLE A10

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ċ <u>+</u> 7 A C. 21 840 BEFFERENCE SHOULD BE MADE TO TARLESAG A, H, C, OR D FOR ACTUAL OCCURPENCES ON WHICH PERCENTAGES ARP RASED. FITHER OR ROTH FIGHTR OF ROLL RITHER OF SOTH 36<u>-</u> 31 TOTAL DASFPVATIONS USED 1 2 100 00 100 26-(F) ~ 24-25 MORE THAN 478 REEDW 1500 FEET) 444 1000 MILLIN 1000 PERTY MOPE THAN 478 BPLUW 700 FEET) (VISTRIBITY LESS THAR 5000 METRES CVISIGILITY DESS THAM 3000 METRES 20<u>-</u> 21 CUTSISTILITY LESS THAN 2000 METRES # - 4 - 5 100 100 16+ 17 + + C 12-† † \* \* \* \* 10--626 ແດນພານ (CLONTO ((.1,0,1.0) - αc - 6 6 5 6.0 101 100 + + 0 C = ÷ ... ∩6.<del>-</del> 07 CRITFFIL olestId) CHITERIA 04-02-SPRING SEASON (SEP UCT NOV) -- r - e <u>-</u> ۳. ت ت DIR IN 10 DEGREES SPEED IM KHUTS 1 - 5 11 - 15 11 - 15 15 - 20 21 - 25 20 - 30 31 - 35 36 - 40 UVER 40 6 - 10 11 - 15 16 - 20 21 - 25 26 - 30 31 - 35 36 + 40 09EP 40 ٢ TABLE TARLE TABLE