

Finally, our results may be compared to those of similar experiments carried out by Falckenberg (12) which extend over a more limited range of moisture. Falckenberg's values for the emissivity are much higher than ours, for instance for 0.0005 gr/cm² of water he finds 6.7 percent emission, for 0.0015 gr/cm² he has 13.4 percent, and for 0.0075 gr/cm² he has 17.5 percent, the figures referring to the same temperature of 20° for water vapor as ours. On the other hand, we might derive some information from the results obtained by Hottel and Mangelsdorf (9) on steam. The values of the latter work are intermediate between those of Falckenberg and ours. Now general spectroscopic evidence indicates (and this will also be seen from the numerical values in the radiation chart) that between 0° C. and 100° C. the percent emissivity increases with increasing temperature for the thicknesses of moisture considered here. The values for steam ought therefore to lie above our values, as is observed, while an experimental error in Falckenberg's values seems indicated. For the same interval of moisture, Schnaidt (13) has calculated the emissivity on the basis of spectroscopic data partly independent of those used in the construction of our radiation chart and his results are in close agreement (within ±1-2 percent of the black body intensity) with our measured curve.

Conclusion.—The experiments carried out by us seem to indicate that there are a number of advantages in using for the measurement of atmospheric radiation the closed type radiation instrument with a concave mirror. Two ways seem to be open to increase the sensitivity of the instrument. While our mirror covers a solid angle which is about 8 percent of the maximum solid angle of 2π, it should be possible without much difficulty to grind a short focus mirror covering about one-half of the hemisphere. Furthermore multiple junction thermopiles might be used, although it is perhaps difficult to compensate them as well against temperature changes due to adiabatic compression of the air as one can compensate the one-junction type, and the use of the latter might remain more advantageous.

During a clear autumn night an hour-to-hour record was made of the radiative temperature of the foliage of several trees, one of them an orange tree. Simultaneously the radiative temperature of a piece of bare ground and the sky radiation were recorded. While the radiative temperature of the ground was consistently below the air temperature by about 0.8° C. from early evening until sunrise, the temperature of the tree foliage showed an irregular deviation from the air temperature of only a few tenths of a degree, which is within the observational errors. The dew point was however very close to the air temperature during the whole night, so that it is hardly possible to apply this result to the dry polar outbreaks during which the freezing of orchards occurs.

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THE VARIABILITY OF PRECIPITATION

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[Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa., October 1939]*

In some years on Malden Island, precipitation amounts to 100 millimeters (3.94 inches), and in others to 2,000 millimeters (78.8 inches) and more. The mean of many years amounts to 727 millimeters (28.6 inches). The relative variability is 71 percent.¹ This is the most extreme case on the earth, as far as known. From the geophysical, meteorological, and climatological standpoint, such variations of precipitation are of great interest. The possibility of years with floods, with abundant crops, and of years with famines at the same place indicates great variability, the explanation of which is a problem for the above sciences.

In the present paper the variability of precipitation is discussed, from a statistical point of view.

If the mean yearly sum is called \bar{p} and the individual yearly sum p_i , then

$$p_i - \bar{p} = \epsilon_i.$$

The expression

$$\frac{\sum \epsilon_i^2}{n} = v_a$$

is called *absolute average variability*. It is clear that v_a must increase with \bar{p} . The geographical distribution of

v_a would therefore give the same picture as the precipitation map itself. Hence v_a should be expressed in percent of \bar{p} . The quantity

$$v_r = \frac{100v_a}{\bar{p}}$$

is called the *relative variability*; it appears to be the best measure of variability.

The geographic distribution of v_r is so remarkable that a detailed investigation is desirable.

1. THE ABSOLUTE VARIABILITY

The places with yearly precipitation 0-200, 201-400, 401-600 millimeters, etc. (0-7.9, 7.91-15.7 inches, etc.), were grouped. For each group both the mean yearly sums (\bar{p}) and the absolute variabilities (v_a) were averaged. If the average variabilities are plotted against the mean precipitation (table 1), a linear connection is clearly indicated. The data may be closely represented by the equation:

$$v_a = 36 + 0.13\bar{p}$$

The differences "observed-calculated" (o-c) appear in the last column of table 1. As the values of v_a and \bar{p} are derived from observations over the whole earth, the above equation may be regarded as the normal relation.

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¹ E. Biel, Die Veränderlichkeit der Jahressumme des Niederschlags auf der Erde. *Geogr. Jb. aus Oesterreich*, XIV & XV, Leipzig, 1929, 151-80.

TABLE 1.—Absolute variability of precipitation as function of the yearly sum

Number of stations	Interval	Mean yearly sum	Average variability		o-c
			Obs.	Calc.	
	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.	
28	0-200	127	48	53	-5
39	201-400	317	75	77	-2
60	401-600	547	95	107	-12
61	601-800	698	130	127	+3
35	801-1,000	901	156	153	+3
43	1,001-1,200	1,093	178	178	0
29	1,201-1,400	1,301	213	205	+26
27	1,401-1,600	1,505	240	230	+10
7	1,601-1,800	1,678	248	254	-6
7	1,801-2,000	1,898	276	283	-7
15	2,001-2,400	2,167	308	318	-10
13	2,401-3,000	2,663	356	382	-26
11	3,001-4,000	3,363	498	473	+25
6	>4,000	6,598	892	894	-2

2.—THE RELATIVE VARIABILITY

Now, since $v_r = 100v_a\bar{p}$, we have

$$v_r = \frac{3600}{\bar{p}} + 13.$$

Therefore, v_r is a function of \bar{p} which has the form of a hyperbola. For $\bar{p}=0$, v_r becomes infinite: For the present purpose it is important to follow the trend of the curve on the basis of the figures in table 2.

The v_r curve is extremely sensitive to small variations of the yearly precipitation in the range of little precipitation. The sensitivity is so great that it is out of proportion to the accuracy of observation. The other branch of the hyperbola is practically parallel to the axis from 1,500 millimeters (59.1 inches) precipitation to the greatest-known extremes; i. e., starting from 1,500 millimeters (59.1 inches), the variability of the yearly precipitation v_r is independent of the yearly sum.

TABLE 2.—Numerical Values from the Equation $v_r = \frac{3600}{\bar{p}} + 13$

\bar{p}	v_r	\bar{p}	v_r	\bar{p}	v_r
mm.	Percent	mm.	Percent	mm.	Percent
0	∞	110	46	300	25
10	373	120	43	350	23
20	193	130	41	400	22
30	133	140	39	500	20
40	103	150	37	600	19
50	85	160	34	800	17
60	73	180	33	1,000	17
70	65	200	31	1,500	15
80	58	220	29	2,000	15
90	53	240	28	4,000	14
100	49	250	27	8,000	13
				12,000	13

In the case of investigations of less accuracy the limit of dependence can perhaps be moved back to 1,000 millimeters (39.4 inches). The theorem can also be expressed as follows: the deviation of the variability from their nearly constant average value (15-13 percent) must be explained geophysically, not statistically. But in the case of yearly sums below 1,000 millimeters (39.4 inches) a very strong mathematical dependence of the value v_r on the yearly sum occurs: v_r increases to infinity if the yearly sum becomes zero. In that range the expression v_r is therefore not suitable for the representation of the variability of the precipitation.² In Nature the relative variability does not increase as rapidly as would be expected from its mathematical

² It is to be emphasized that according to W. Meinardus (Die Areale der Niederschlagsstufen auf der Erde, *Petermann's Geogr. Mitt.* 1934, 141) 53.7 percent of the earth's surface receives less than 1,000 millimeters precipitation. This fact puts the above conclusion in a new light.

derivation. An evidently finite increase of v_r results when \bar{p} decreases to zero.

Therefore, I tried to find a function which changes the character of the theoretical curve as little as possible but fits the observations at the same time. The new function

must have the form $\frac{A}{\bar{p}+B} + C$ instead of $\frac{A}{\bar{p}} + C$, the theoretical form, A, B, C being constants. The best value of B was found most quickly by an empirical trial method which I developed for a seismic problem many years ago.³ It gives the average yearly sums and their v_r values in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Mean Yearly Sums of Precipitation (\bar{p}) and the Corresponding Mean Relative Variabilities (v_r)

\bar{p}	v_r
Inches	Millimeters
5.0	127
12.5	317
21.5	547
27.5	698
35.5	901
42.9	1,093
51.2	1,301
59.4	1,505
66.1	1,678
74.8	1,898
85.4	2,167
104.7	2,663
132.3	3,363
259.8	6,598

The following constants have been used in the formula: $B=20, 50, 60, 70, 100, A=3,600$, and $C=13$. There was no reason of course to change the values of A and C . The v_r have been calculated with each of the five formulas, and the differences (obs.-calc.) computed for the interval of \bar{p} from 0 to 200 millimeters (0-7.9 inches). This is the critical interval which makes the introduction of the constant B necessary. Then the deviations (o-c) have been summed up for the various constants B , disregarding the signs. These sums were plotted against the accepted values of B in a diagram, figure 1.

The curve shows a conspicuous minimum between $B=50$ and 60, nearer to 60. In the first approximation. The $B=60$ may be considered as the best constant. The equation is therefore

$$v_r = \frac{3600}{\bar{p}+60} + 13.$$

It follows that $v_r=73$ percent for $\bar{p}=0$, instead of $v_r=\infty$.

From table 4 we get the definitive normal values of v_r , for the corresponding values of \bar{p} , based on the above formula.

TABLE 4.—Definitive values v_r for increasing \bar{p}

\bar{p}	v_r	\bar{p}	v_r	\bar{p}	v_r
mm.	Percent	mm.	Percent	mm.	Percent
0	13	140	30	700	18
10	64	150	30	800	17
20	58	160	29	900	17
30	53	180	28	1,000	16
40	49	200	26	1,500	15
50	46	220	25	2,000	15
60	43	240	25	3,000	14
70	41	260	24	7,000	14
80	39	280	23	8,000	13
90	37	300	22	12,000	13
100	35	350	21		
110	34	400	19		
120	32	500	18		
130	31	600	18		

³ V. Conrad, Einsätze in Fernbediagrammen. *Gerlands Beiträge Geophysik*, 24, 1929-30, 358.

The formula adapted to the observations yields a curve which is practically identical with the "theoretical curve" (table 2) starting from 400 millimeters (15.7 inches) precipitation. Starting from 700 millimeters (27.6 inches) both curves are really identical.

THE ANOMALIES OF VARIABILITY

The aforesaid conditions lead, as in the case of other phenomena,⁴ by necessity to the use of the method of anomalies. The anomalies should presumably be independent of the yearly precipitation and therefore adapted to show new and individual features. If two elements are as closely correlated as precipitation sum (up to about 1,000 millimeters annually) and variability, one cannot expect more information from both elements than from just one. E. Biel has (*l. c.*) published an extensive table which contains the geographic ordinates, the yearly precipitation, and the absolute and the relative variabilities for a number of places. If we use the values of table 4 as normal ones, the differences "obs.-calc." can be computed. These are the anomalies which appear in the last column of table 5; these values have been calculated here and are new. To facilitate the use of the table \bar{p} and v_a are here also given in inches, the heights also in feet. The other numbers are taken from Biel's table.

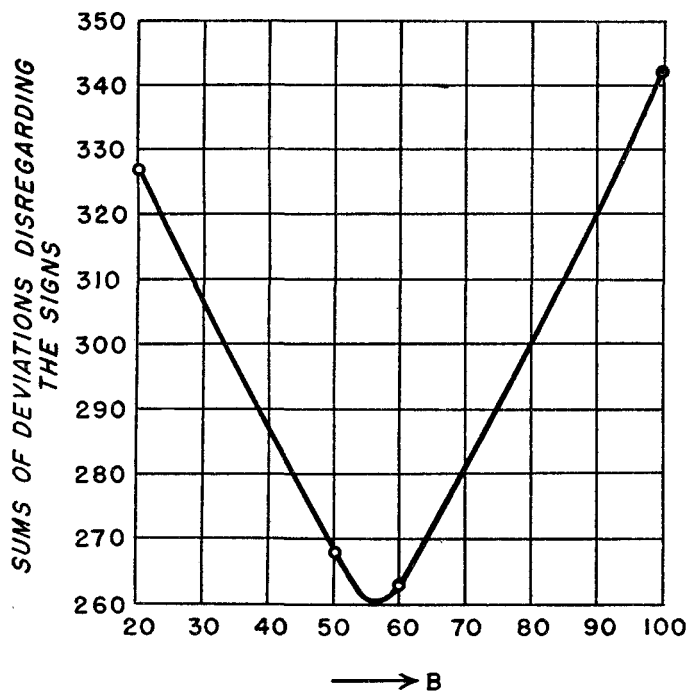


FIGURE 1.—Diagram for finding the best-fitting constant B in the formula $v_r = \frac{A}{p+B} + C$.

4. SOME STATISTICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ANOMALIES

The anomalies are characterized like many other climatological elements by a certain asymmetry. Among 360 anomalies, 167 have a positive sign and 193 a negative sign —46 and —54 percent, respectively. In the dry regions the relation seems to be inverted. In the interval 0–200 millimeters (0–8 inches), we find 63 percent positive, and 37 negative; but the total number in the interval is only 27. A similar inversion appears also in the interval 1,201–1,400 millimeters (472–551 inches). In the first

case it is possible to find a general and rational explanation; in the other case regional conditions may be the cause.

The arithmetical sum of the anomalies must be about zero. The asymmetry relative to the signs results in a compensation: the positive anomalies must be of greater amount than the negative ones.

This conclusion is also confirmed by statistics. The highest observed anomaly reaches the positive value of 53 percent (Malden Island). The positive maxima of the various intervals are on the average 2.3 times larger than the negative ones. Among the positive anomalies 1/5 is greater than, or equal to 10 percent; among the negative ones, only 1/10. The greatest negative anomaly is only 14 percent. Generally, positive anomalies are on the average less frequent but more intense than negative ones.

Finally, it is important that the anomalies are still correlated to the precipitation sums. Even if the material is not sufficient to determine a function which connects both elements, the fact itself is remarkable. It seems that high anomalies are very frequent in dry regions. Between 1,800 and 2,200 millimeters (709–866 inches) the curve (anomaly-precipitation sum) probably reaches a minimum and increases again with further increasing sums. Similar conditions may also exist if positive and negative anomalies are segregated, and the resulting series correlated with the precipitations; but the dispersion is so great that this relation cannot be regarded as settled.

Now arises the question: Should we prefer the representation given by the anomalies to that by the relative variability in spite of the fact that both show a connection with the precipitation sum at least in dry regions.

In the case of the relation "sum-relative variability" there is a mathematical statistical connection so that the relative variability can be calculated from its definition in good accordance with the observations. The relation "anomaly-precipitation sum" deals with a physical relation which cannot be calculated in advance, particularly not the sign. These facts indicate the necessity of the transition from the representation of the variability itself to that of the anomalies.

5. THE ZERO-ISANOMALS OF THE RELATIVE VARIABILITY IN CARTOGRAPHIC REPRESENTATION.

A few remarks on the anomaly map are desirable:

(1) The material is not yet sufficient; therefore detailed isanomals could not be drawn.

(2) Variability values are, of course, not available for the oceans.⁵

There are no less than 384 stations on the continents: this would be enough, were they not distributed in such an heterogeneous manner. The great majority is concentrated in Europe, the United States, Canada, Argentina, and British India. Hence detailed isanomals have not been drawn. Only the lines appear on the map which separate the positive from the negative anomalies; in addition, some regions with especially high anomalies have been specifically marked.

The principal features of the cartographic picture may be summarized as follows:

(1) Huge connected regions of the earth's surface show anomalies of the same sign. The distribution of positive and negative anomalies is therefore not to be ascribed to chance or accidental local conditions, but represents a significant climatological element.

⁴ V. Conrad, M. Winkler, Beiträge zur Kenntnis der Schneedeckenverhältnisse in den besterreichischen Alpenländern. Gerlands Beiträge Geoph. 34, 1931, 473–511.
⁵ V. Conrad, Anomalien und Isanomalien der Sonnenscheindauer in den oesterreichischen Alpen. Beihefte (Supplements) Jahrb. Zentr. Anst. Meteor., Wien, 1933.

⁵ If it were possible to make estimates of the yearly precipitation, e.g., for 5° squares, based on intensity of rain and the number of days with rain, the transition to the relative variability and its anomaly would be possible. E. Biel was so cautious and judicious as not to draw the isolines across the oceans.

(2) The greatest and most impressive accumulation of negative signs will be found in the immense areas of the temperate and high latitudes of Eurasia and North America. *The continental climate and its effects are regulators of the precipitation. The variability is less than normal. The variations of the general circulation are dampened by the influence of the continents.*

(3) A conspicuous exception is formed by the "semiarid region" ⁶ to the East of the Rocky Mountains. The remarkable conditions caused by the frequent chinook winds of this region overcompensate the continental influence on the anomaly of variability. This strip has *positive* anomalies. In the remaining vast region, which is at least partly covered with a dense net of stations,

current or recessions of the Brazil current would be possible. The highest anomaly (+53 percent for Malden Island) has already been tentatively explained by displacements of ocean currents.

Exceedingly high positive anomalies over a very large region occur in Beluchistan, the Persian Gulf and the southern part of Arabia. This region also reaches into Africa to the sources of the Nile. On the one side we have the border regions of the monsoon; on the other, especially rainless territories. Variations of the general circulation which are not dampened by continental influence are the cause of an abnormally high variability.

(5) Another characteristic feature may be emphasized: the influence of the tropic belt which lowers the varia-



FIGURE 2.

only negative signs are found, with the exception of the extreme coastal strips in eastern Asia and from California to Alaska.

(4) Extremely high positive anomalies exist on some continental coasts, especially those deficient in rain, where the weather is affected by ocean currents. This occurs, it seems, in California (California current) and in Chile-Peru (Peru-Humboldt current). The normal behavior of these cold currents causes the small yearly sums on the coast of South America, and the remarkable temperature conditions in California. The smallest deviation of these currents and an invasion by warm water between the stream and the coast involves relative abundant rains (El Niño problem). The high positive anomalies of North-east Brazil (Ceara) are not easy to explain. Here catastrophic droughts occur. These remarkable phenomena may also be caused by displacements of ocean currents. It would be a problem of oceanography to decide whether advances of the Benguela

ability in South America, Africa, and South Asia. The tropical climate is conservative—an *independent climate*. This postulate may be expressed in the more general form: *A climate shows the higher variability the more dependent it is.* This theorem holds perhaps for most other climatological elements. The anomalies of the variability are in this way perhaps a *measure of the independence* of a climate.

The anomalies of precipitation variability therefore appear to reveal features which cast new light on the regime of precipitation and the regime of wind connected with it. The hydrologist who is interested in agricultural problems could apply this method of anomalies to smaller regions. In those of negative anomalies, for instance, it will be useful to cultivate plants of less adaptability. Water power economy may also make use of the knowledge which results from the representation of the anomalies of precipitation variability. The dimensions of a dam should depend on the anomaly of variability of rain.

The principal importance of the anomaly of variability is in dynamic climatology.

⁶ See Goode's School Atlas, Number 42 (N. Y. 1923).

TABLE 5.—Anomalies of the variability of yearly precipitation for 384 places

Table with columns: Station, Latitude, Longitude, Elevation (Meters, Feet), p (Millimeters, Inches), v. (Millimeters, Inches), v. (percent), Δ (percent). Includes stations like Upernivik, Nome, Tanana, Valdez, Eagle, Dawson, Godthaab, etc.

Continuation of Table 5 for 60°-50° N. Includes stations like St. Paul Island, Dutch Harbor, Kodiak, Sitka, Juneau, Massett, Bella Coola, Barkerville, Kamloops, Calgary, Edmonton, Prince Albert, Qu'Appelle, Fort Hope, Valencia, Aberdeen, Greenwich, Utrecht-De Bilt, Gütersloh, Frankfurt a. M., Oslo, Copenhagen, Berlin, Breslau, Upsala, Königsberg, Warschau, Wilna, Leningrad, Kiew, Moskau, Nikolaiewskoe, Kasan, Orenburg, Fern, Swerdlowsk, Barnaul, Tomsk, Irkutsk, Nertschinskij Sawod, Nikolajewsk on Amur.

† If p is given in inches the equation is to be read v. = 141.7 / p + 2.36 + 13.

TABLE 5.—Anomalies of the variability of yearly precipitation for 384 places—Continued

Table with columns: Station, Latitude, Longitude, Elevation (Meters, Feet), p (Millimeters, Inches), v. (Millimeters, Inches), v. (percent), Δ (percent). Includes stations like Victoria, Portland, Red Bluff, Spokane, Helena, Salt Lake City, Cheyenne, North Platte, Bismarck, Winnipeg, Omaha, Oregon, Mo., St. Paul, Duluth, Peoria, Chicago, Marquette, Detroit, Toronto, Abitibi, New York, Albany, Montreal, Burlington, New Haven, Chicoutimi, Boston, Father Point, Eastport, Cape Magdalene, SW Point, Anticosti, Charlottetown, Sable Island, St. Johns, Madrid, Bilbao, Nantes, Toulouse, Paris (Parc S. Maur.), Lyon, Marseille, Trier, Zurich, Sassari, Milan, Säntis, Rome, Sonnblick, Obir, Vienna, Hvar (Lesina), Belgrade, Krynica, Debreczin, Sofia, Lwow, Hermannstadt, Bucharest, Bjälkjödere, Sulina, Odessa, Noworossijsk, Tiflis, Astrachan, Kasalinsk, Taschkent, Wjerny (Alma ata), Mukden, Joshin, Ochiai, Nemuro.

Table with columns: Station, Latitude, Longitude, Elevation (Meters, Feet), p (Millimeters, Inches), v. (Millimeters, Inches), v. (percent), Δ (percent). Includes stations like S. Francisco, Sacramento, S. Luis Obispo, S. Diego, Yuma, Modena, Phoenix, El Paso, Santa Fe, Denver, Abilene, Little Rock, St. Louis, Mobile.

TABLE 5.—Anomalies of the variability of yearly precipitation for 384 places—Continued

Table with columns: Station, Latitude, Longitude, Elevation (Meters, Feet), p (Millimeters, Inches), v0 (Millimeters, Inches), r (percent), Δ (percent). Rows include Nashville, Cincinnati, Portsmouth, Ohio, Charleston, Washington, Hatteras, Philadelphia, Bermudas, Horta, Ponta Delgada, Funchal, Lissabon, Cap Sparte, Gibraltar, Cartagena, Alicante, Palma, Bouzareah, Tunis, Catania, Corfu, Athens, Alexandria, Abbassia, Jerusalem, Adana, Beirut, Bagdad, Basra, Teheran, Isfahan, Meschhed, Quetta, Peschawar, Lahore, Simla, Leh, I-tch'ang, Han-k'ou, Tien-tsin, Ou-hou, Tchen-kiang, Heou-k'i, Tche-fou, Zi-ka-wei, Chemulpo, Nagasaki, Kioto, Tokyo, Miyako.

30°-20° N.

Table with columns: Station, Latitude, Longitude, Elevation (Meters, Feet), p (Millimeters, Inches), v0 (Millimeters, Inches), r (percent), Δ (percent). Rows include Honolulu, Mazatlan, Chihuahua, Leon, Monterrey, Corpus Christi, Galveston, New Orleans, Progreso, Merida, Habana, Key West, Nassau, La Laguna, Heliun, Bushire, Jask, Maskat, Kelat, Karachi, Haiderabad, Ahmadabad, Jaipur, Nagpur, Allahabad, Patna, Calcutta (Alipore), Cherrapunji, Gauhati, Shillong, Akyab, Mandalay, Teng-ye, Yun-nan-fou, Mong-tse, Laokay.

TABLE 5.—Anomalies of the variability of yearly precipitation for 384 places—Continued

Table with columns: Station, Latitude, Longitude, Elevation (Meters, Feet), p (Millimeters, Inches), v0 (Millimeters, Inches), r (percent), Δ (percent). Rows include Teh'ong-k'ing, Phu-lien, Moncay, Kweilin, Ou-tcheou, Tch'ang-cha, Hongkong, Amoy, Fou-tcheou, Taihoku, Naha.

20°-10° N.

Table with columns: Station, Latitude, Longitude, Elevation (Meters, Feet), p (Millimeters, Inches), v0 (Millimeters, Inches), r (percent), Δ (percent). Rows include Mexico City, Puebla, Oaxaca, Salina Cruz, Chimax near Coban, Port-au-Prince, Caracas, S. Juan, Christiansted, Richmond Hill, Trinidad, Barbados, Bathurst, St. Louis, Gambaga, Chabrum, Aden, Bombay, Belgium, Mangalore, Kodaikanal, Madras, Masulipatam, Waltair (Vizagapatam), Port Blair, Rangun, Moulmein, Mergui, Pnom Penh, Saigon, Quangtri, Nhatrang, Manila, Aparri, Iloilo, Legaspi.

10° N.-0°

Table with columns: Station, Latitude, Longitude, Elevation (Meters, Feet), p (Millimeters, Inches), v0 (Millimeters, Inches), r (percent), Δ (percent). Rows include S. José, Colon, Bogotá, Georgetown, Freetown, Accra, Lagos, Calabar, Debundsha, Duala, Entebbe, Cochin, Colombo, Nuwara Eliha, Trincomalee, Kuta-Raja, Medan, Sandakan, Menado.

0°-10° S.

Table with columns: Station, Latitude, Longitude, Elevation (Meters, Feet), p (Millimeters, Inches), v0 (Millimeters, Inches), r (percent), Δ (percent). Rows include Malden Island, Fortarabomim, Fortaleza, Recife, Sansibar, Dar-es-Salaam, Port Victoria, Padang, Batavia.

TABLE 5.—Anomalies of the variability of yearly precipitation for 384 places—Continued

0°-10° S.										
Station	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation		\bar{p}		v_a			
			Meters	Feet	Millimeters	Inches	Millimeters	Inches		
1	2	3	4		5		6	7		
								8		
								v_r (percent)		
								Δ (percent)		
Pontianak	0.0	109.3 E.	3	10	3,202	126.1	379	14.92	12	-2
Pasuruan	7.6	112.9 E.	5	16	1,299	51.1	271	10.67	21	+0
Kajoemas	7.9	114.2 E.	930	3,051	2,624	99.4	354	13.94	14	+5
Amboina	3.7	128.2 E.	1	3	3,375	132.9	867	34.13	26	+12
Monokwari	0.9	134.3 E.	20	66	2,478	97.5	513	20.20	21	+6
Port Moresby	9.6	147.2 E.	38	125	1,037	40.8	211	8.31	20	+4

10°-20° S.										
Station	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation		\bar{p}		v_a			
			Meters	Feet	Millimeters	Inches	Millimeters	Inches		
1	2	3	4		5		6	7		
								8		
								v_r (percent)		
								Δ (percent)		
Apia	13.8	171.8 W.	2	7	2,728	107.4	526	20.71	19	+5
Arequipa	16.4	71.6 W.	2,453	8,048	106	4.2	57	2.24	54	+20
Cuyaba	15.6	56.1 W.	165	541	1,888	54.6	178	7.01	13	-2
St. Helena	16.0	5.7 W.	604	1,971	1,019	40.1	114	4.49	11	-5
Salisbury	17.8	31.1 E.	1,481	1,578	811	31.9	127	5.00	16	-1
Antananarivo	18.9	47.5 E.	1,402	4,600	1,369	53.9	196	7.72	14	-1
Kupang	10.2	123.6 E.	15	49	1,486	58.5	294	11.57	20	+5
Darwin	12.5	130.8 E.	30	98	1,554	61.2	220	8.66	14	-1

20°-30° S.										
Station	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation		\bar{p}		v_a			
			Meters	Feet	Millimeters	Inches	Millimeters	Inches		
1	2	3	4		5		6	7		
								8		
								v_r (percent)		
								Δ (percent)		
La Serena	29.9	71.3 W.	35	115	140	5.5	82	3.23	59	+29
Catamarca	28.4	65.8 W.	510	1,673	350	13.8	71	2.80	20	-2
Salta	24.8	65.5 W.	1,178	3,865	722	28.4	133	5.24	18	0
Tucuman	25.8	65.2 W.	447	1,467	975	38.4	169	6.65	17	+1
Goya	29.2	59.2 W.	26	85	1,036	40.8	274	10.79	26	+10
Corrientes	27.4	58.8 W.	54	177	1,197	47.1	224	8.82	19	+3
Mision Inglesa	23.4	58.4 W.	(?)	(?)	1,205	47.4	266	10.47	22	+6
Villa Rica	25.1	58.1 W.	(?)	(?)	1,490	58.7	280	11.02	19	+4
Asuncion	25.3	57.7 W.	93	305	1,315	51.8	238	9.37	18	+3
Posadas	27.4	55.8 W.	138	453	1,507	59.3	315	12.40	21	+6
Curityba	25.4	49.3 W.	908	2,979	1,397	55.0	197	7.76	14	-1
Alto da Serra	23.8	46.6 W.	800	2,625	3,575	140.8	398	15.67	11	-3
Rio de Janeiro	22.9	43.2 W.	61	200	1,101	43.3	202	7.95	18	+2
Swakopmund	22.7	14.5 E.	8	26	16	0.6	9	0.35	54	-6
Windhuk	22.6	17.1 E.	1,665	5,462	389	15.3	121	4.76	31	+10
Bethanien	26.5	17.2 E.	935	3,067	105	4.1	42	1.65	40	+5
O'Okiep	29.6	17.9 E.	926	3,038	169	6.7	43	1.69	25	-4
Kimberley	28.7	24.8 E.	1,203	3,947	412	16.2	97	3.82	24	+3
Johannesburg	26.2	28.1 E.	1,807	5,928	844	33.2	146	5.75	17	0
Bulawayo	20.2	28.7 E.	1,354	4,442	600	23.6	137	5.39	23	+5
Durban	29.8	31.0 E.	15	49	1,082	42.6	195	7.68	18	+2
Alice Springs	23.6	133.6 E.	537	1,926	267	10.5	91	3.58	34	+10
Brisbane	27.5	153.0 E.	38	125	1,088	42.8	273	10.75	25	+9

30°-40° S.										
Station	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation		\bar{p}		v_a			
			Meters	Feet	Millimeters	Inches	Millimeters	Inches		
1	2	3	4		5		6	7		
								8		
								v_r (percent)		
								Δ (percent)		
Valdivia	38.8	73.2 W.	15	49	2,664	104.9	364	14.33	14	0
Junin de los Andes	39.2	71.0 W.	(?)	(?)	532	20.9	210	8.27	39	+20

TABLE 5.—Anomalies of the variability of yearly precipitation for 384 places—Continued

30°-40° S.										
Station	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation		\bar{p}		v_a			
			Meters	Feet	Millimeters	Inches	Millimeters	Inches		
1	2	3	4		5		6	7		
								8		
								v_r (percent)		
								Δ (percent)		
Santiago	33.4	70.7 W.	519	1,703	373	14.7	156	6.14	42	+20
Mendoza	32.9	68.8 W.	755	2,477	198	7.8	63	2.48	32	+6
S. Juan	31.5	68.7 W.	664	2,178	75	3.0	36	1.42	48	+8
Neuquenen	39.0	68.0 W.	271	889	131	5.2	46	1.81	35	+4
Cordoba	31.4	64.2 W.	423	1,388	697	27.4	119	4.68	17	-1
General Acha	37.1	64.1 W.	218	715	472	18.6	128	5.04	27	+8
Bahia Blanca	38.7	62.2 W.	25	82	550	21.7	160	6.30	29	+10
Buenos Aires	34.6	58.4 W.	25	82	988	39.9	225	8.86	23	+7
Concordia	31.4	58.0 W.	24	79	1,017	39.8	205	8.07	20	+4
Mar del Plata	38.0	57.1 W.	4	13	723	28.5	147	5.79	20	+2
Ajo-General Lavalle	36.5	56.8 W.	15	49	925	36.4	205	8.07	22	+5
Montevideo	34.9	56.2 W.	29	95	986	38.8	262	10.31	27	+11
Kapstadt	33.9	18.5 E.	12	39	663	26.1	96	3.78	14	-4
Port Elizabeth	34.0	25.6 E.	55	180	562	22.1	87	3.43	15	-3
Aliwal (N)	30.7	26.7 E.	1,327	4,354	518	20.4	113	4.45	22	+3
Adelaide	34.9	138.6 E.	43	141	523	20.6	102	4.02	20	+1
Sydney	33.9	151.2 E.	42	138	1,175	46.3	219	8.62	19	+3
Auckland	36.8	174.8 E.	38	125	1,099	43.3	181	7.13	16	0

40°-50° S.										
Station	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation		\bar{p}		v_a			
			Meters	Feet	Millimeters	Inches	Millimeters	Inches		
1	2	3	4		5		6	7		
								8		
								v_r (percent)		
								Δ (percent)		
Punta Galera	40.0	73.7 W.	40	131	2,220	87.4	380	14.96	17	+2
Diez-y-seis de Octubre	42.2	71.1 W.	557	1,827	431	17.0	114	4.49	26	+5
Sarmiento	45.5	69.0 W.	274	899	135	5.3	49	1.93	36	+5
Puerto Madryn	42.8	64.9 W.	14	46	163	6.4	47	1.85	29	0
Hokitika	42.7	170.8 E.	3	10	2,896	114.0	277	10.91	10	-4
Christchurch	43.5	172.6 E.	8	26	653	25.7	105	4.13	16	-2
Wellington	41.3	174.8 E.	3	10	1,180	46.7	202	7.95	17	+1

50°-60° S.										
Station	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation		\bar{p}		v_a			
			Meters	Feet	Millimeters	Inches	Millimeters	Inches		
1	2	3	4		5		6	7		
								8		
								v_r (percent)		
								Δ (percent)		
Islote de los Evangelistas	52.4	75.1 W.	55	180	3,075	121.1	287	11.30	9	-6
Punta Arenas	53.2	70.9 W.	28	92	388	15.3	68	2.68	17	-4
Santa Cruz	50.2	68.4 W.	12	39	150	5.9	31	1.22	21	-9
Año Nuevo	54.6	64.2 W.	53	174	610	24.0	47	1.85	8	-10
Stanley	51.7	57.8 W.	2	7	685	27.0	68	2.68	10	-8
South-Georgia (Grytviken)	54.2	36.6 W.	4	103	1,301	51.6	176	6.93	14	-1

60°-70° S.										
Station	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation		\bar{p}		v_a			
			Meters	Feet	Millimeters	Inches	Millimeters	Inches		
1	2	3	4		5		6	7		
								8		
								v_r (percent)		
								Δ (percent)		
South-Orkneys (Laurie-Isld.)	60.7	44.6 W.	7	23	403	15.9	57	2.24	14	-7

METEOROLOGICAL AND CLIMATOLOGICAL DATA FOR JANUARY 1941

[Climate and Crop Weather Division, J. B. KINCER in charge]

AEROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS

By EARL C. THOM

Mean surface temperatures for January were above normal over most of the country (chart I). Temperatures were slightly below normal, however, over New England, over the extreme eastern Great Lakes States, and over small areas along the Atlantic coast, and the eastern Gulf coast. The area having the largest positive departure for the month was in eastern Montana where mean temperatures slightly more than 8° F. above normal were recorded. This is the second successive month when temperatures were generally above normal.

At the 1,500 m.-level the directions of the 5 a. m. resultant winds for the month were to the north of directions of the corresponding 5 a. m. normals at most stations over the eastern half of the country, while the direction of these winds were generally south of normal to the westward. There were many stations in January at

which less than 10 of the 5 a. m. pilot-balloon observations reached the 3,000 m.-level. With only one exception the 5 a. m. resultant winds for the month at 3,000 meters were from directions to the north of normal at all stations for which this comparison could be made over the eastern two-thirds of the country while these winds were from directions to the south of normal at the corresponding stations to the westward. At only seven of the pilot-balloon stations for which 5 a. m. normals are available did 10 or more of the 5 p. m. observations reach 5,000 meters. For this reason no comparison can be made between the directions of 5 p. m. resultant winds and the corresponding 5 a. m. normals for this level.

The 5 a. m. resultant velocities for the month were below normal at the 1,500-meter level over about three-fourths of the country. Over Brownsville at this level and over the north-western and west-central States, however, the resultant velocities were above normal. The largest negative departure at this level, -3.2 m. p. s.,