



Climate and Oceans Support
Program in the Pacific



Australian Government
Bureau of Meteorology

Monthly Data Report - February 2018

Pacific Sea Level Monitoring Project





Australian Government
Bureau of Meteorology

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Executive Summary

This summary, and the overview that follows, is intended to provide a synopsis of the recent month's observations in addition to longer term variations over the life of the project to date.

February 2018

- The SEAFRAME network continued to collect high-quality sea level and associated meteorological information for monitoring climate variability and climate change.
- The overall rate of sea level data returned from the network during February was 99.1%. The SEAFRAME at Fiji was given a routine calibration and maintenance service. Power supply to the SEAFRAME at Solomon Islands was sustained with the assistance of local support changing the battery every few days.
- Tropical Cyclone Gita caused severe damage in the Pacific, particularly as it made landfall at Tonga on the 12th of February where the SEAFRAME station measured wind gusts of 110 knots, record-low barometric pressure of 956 hPa and a storm surge of 0.8 m above the predicted astronomical tide.
- Monthly sea levels were higher than normal at PNG, Marshall Islands, Kiribati, Nauru and Tuvalu but lower than normal at Vanuatu and Cook Islands.

Introduction

Welcome to the February 2018 Monthly Data Report for the Pacific Sea Level Monitoring Project (PSLMP). The report details the month by month operation of the SEAFRAME monitoring stations in the Pacific, including operational problems with the network or with satellite communications, the occurrence of abnormal sea level events and the interpretation of sea level fluctuations in the context of related astronomical tide, weather and climate variations.

The PSLMP continues the work of the South Pacific Sea Level and Climate Monitoring Project (SPSLCMP) under a wider Climate and Oceans Support Program in the Pacific (COSPPac) initiative. The SPSLCMP was originally developed as an Australian response to concerns raised by the member countries of the South Pacific Forum over the potential impacts of global warming on climate and sea levels in the Pacific with the principal objective of 'the provision of an accurate long term record of sea level in the South Pacific for partner countries and the international scientific community which enables them to respond to and manage related impacts'.

The project's sea level monitoring network consists of 12 SEAFRAME stations providing wide coverage across the Pacific Islands Forum region (Figure 1). The SEAFRAME stations not only measure sea level, but also observe a number of "ancillary" variables - air and water temperatures, wind speed, wind direction and atmospheric pressure.

An associated geodetic measurement program, implemented by Geosciences Australia, supports levelling surveys to first order, to determine shifts in the vertical of the sea level sensors due to local land movement, as well as continuous Global Positioning System (CGPS) stations to determine the vertical movement of the land with respect to the International Terrestrial Reference Frame.

Observations collected by the sea level monitoring network are routinely processed into a range of quality-controlled data products. The monthly data report is the primary source of up-to-date information relating to these data products.



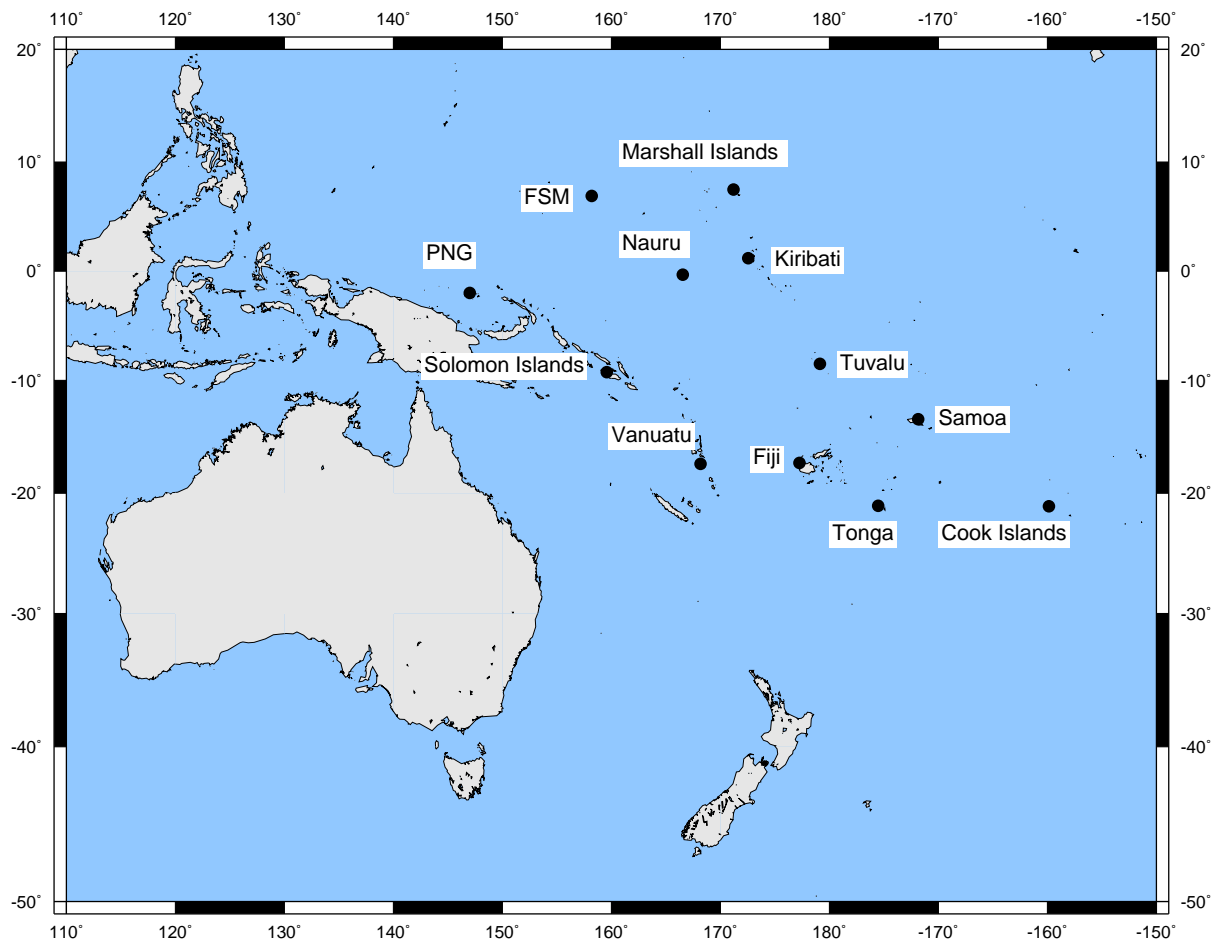


Figure 1. Pacific Sea Level Monitoring Network of SEAFRAME stations.

Sea Level and Climate

Astronomical tides and weather conditions are largely responsible for daily perturbations in sea level, but over monthly, seasonal and longer timescales sea levels in the tropical Pacific are largely influenced by fluctuations in climate and ocean heat content across the Pacific.

The El Niño – Southern Oscillation climate cycle plays a key role in sea level variability. During El Niño sea levels are generally lower than normal across the western equatorial Pacific, as measured by the project's sea level network, in response to weaker than normal easterly Trade Winds, cooler than normal ocean temperatures and higher than normal barometric pressures in this region. On the other hand during La Niña the easterly Trade Winds are typically stronger than normal, ocean temperatures are warmer than normal and barometric pressures are lower than normal across the western Pacific, which often results in higher than normal sea levels at many of the project stations.

The sea level stations at PNG, Solomon Islands, Tuvalu and Samoa lie along a zone of convergent winds, known as the South Pacific Convergence Zone. Sea levels at these stations may become higher or lower than normal depending on the strength of these convergent winds or the shifting position of the convergence zone relative to its climatological mean. The sea level stations at Nauru and Kiribati lie very close to the equator and can both be influenced by sea level signals propagating along the equatorial waveguide.

A summary of recent and past climate conditions across the equatorial Pacific is provided by the Bureau of Meteorology in its monitoring of the El Niño – Southern Oscillation cycle at <http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/enso/>

Further climate information for Pacific Island countries is provided by the Climate and Ocean Monitoring and Prediction (COMP) Project under the Climate and Oceans Support Program in the Pacific (COSPPac).



February SEAFRAME Data

Monthly Sea Level and Environmental Data

The observed sea levels (Figure 3) are dominated by the daily oscillations of the tide. In most cases, the tide rises and falls twice per day (semi-diurnal), but at PNG and the Solomon Islands the tide tends to have a single high and low per day (diurnal).

Where the tides follow a semi-diurnal pattern the greatest tidal variations are called spring tides, which tend to occur around the time of the new and full moons. A new moon was observed on the 15th of February, but no full moon was encountered during February having fallen on the 31st of January and subsequently 2nd of March.

Gaps in the data are the result of instrumental errors or data retrieval problems and are discussed under Instrument Performance.

The residuals (Figure 4) are the differences between the observed sea levels and the astronomical tidal predictions. They highlight non-tidal sea level fluctuations, such as those due to the effects of weather or tsunamis.

Tropical cyclones can produce storm surges where the combination of low barometric pressure and strong winds raise sea levels well above the predicted astronomical tides for a period of a day or more.

Tropical Cyclone Gita caused severe damage and some loss of life across the Pacific during February. It made landfall at Tonga as a category-4 cyclone on the 12th of February at which time sea levels surged almost 0.8 m above the predicted

astronomical tide. Three days earlier on the 9th of February Tropical Cyclone Gita passed Samoa, causing sea levels to surge 0.3 m above predicted astronomical tides.

The non-tidal sea level fluctuations can be amplified or sustained by the shape of the harbour in which the gauge is located. Some of the SEAFRAME stations are located in harbours that exhibit 'sloshing' under certain conditions (a phenomenon referred to as a seiche), such as at PNG when the wind suddenly changes strength or direction, at FSM during smaller neap tides and at Nauru during strong westerly winds.

The sea level residuals at all stations, to some degree, exhibit semi-diurnal or diurnal fluctuations, which last a few days or weeks and then disappear. If these fluctuations were to persist they would form part of the astronomical tide prediction and thus not appear as residuals. Consequently semi-diurnal and diurnal residual fluctuations will always be transient in nature.

The barometrically corrected residuals (Figure 5) have had the effect of atmospheric pressure fluctuations removed from the sea level residuals of Figure 4. The rule of thumb for the 'inverse barometer effect' is that a 1-hPa fall in the barometer, if sustained over a day or more, produces a 1-cm rise in the local sea level (within the area beneath the low pressure system). The inverse barometer effect is clearly demonstrated at Tonga on the 12th of February, where low

barometric pressure associated with Tropical Cyclone Gita accounted for more than half of the 0.8 m storm surge seen in Figure 4.

The winds, temperatures and barometric pressures are plotted in Figure 6 through Figure 11. The incident winds in Figure 8 follow the meteorological convention, that is, they point in the direction the wind is coming from. For example, the winds at Marshall Islands prevailed from the northeast for most of the month. Wind gusts of over 55 m/s (around 110 knots) were observed at Tonga on 12th of February during landfall of Tropical Cyclone Gita (Figure 7).

Air and water temperatures (Figure 9 and Figure 10) are plotted using the same vertical scale for the purpose of comparison. The air temperatures are seen to fluctuate over a much wider range than the water temperatures. At some sites (e.g. Solomon Islands) the water temperature shows almost no variation, although the air temperature varies by several degrees between night and day. At Nauru a twice-daily fluctuation in water temperature is sometimes observed that is related to interactions between tides and terrestrial (land-based) water discharging into the wharf area. The water temperature fluctuations there are usually more pronounced during the larger spring tides. The upwelling of cooler water in the wake of Tropical Cyclone Gita can be seen at Samoa on the 9th of February and Tonga on 12th of February.

Barometric pressures (Figure 11) tend to fluctuate by around 3 hPa twice-daily at all stations as a result of atmospheric tides, which are largest in the

tropical regions and reduce to near zero toward the poles. The longer-term barometric pressure fluctuations that occur over periods of days to weeks are due to passing weather systems. These fluctuations tend to be larger at sites farther away from the equator such as Cook Islands and Tonga. Tropical Cyclone Gita caused barometric pressure to fall as low as 956 hPa at Tonga on 12th of February and 991 hPa at Samoa on the 9th of February.

The monthly sea level and ancillary data are put into perspective by Figure 12. In this figure, if an open circle falls above (below) a solid dot, a new maximum (minimum) for the particular month has been set. The data sets only include Pacific Sea Level Monitoring Project data, which have been collected since October 1992 when the first station was installed at Fiji. The data from Federated States of Micronesia (FSM) has only been collected since December 2001.

Record-high February sea levels were observed at FSM (1.718 m) and Fiji (2.472 m). At Samoa, a record-high February air temperature of 34.3 °C and a record-low February water temperature of 25.4 °C were observed.

At Tonga the monthly minimum barometric pressure of 956.2 hPa during Tropical Cyclone Gita is its lowest on record, eclipsing the previous low of 965.6 hPa associated with Tropical Cyclone Cora on 26th December 1998. Further sea level and meteorological statistical information is available at <http://www.bom.gov.au/oceanography/projects/spslcm/data/monthly.shtml>



Monthly Means and Anomalies

Figure 13 through Figure 16 show the monthly means, or simple arithmetic averages, for sea level, barometric pressure, water temperature and air temperature. Averaging over a month removes tidal and daily fluctuations, which helps reveal the seasonal, annual and longer-period variations in the records. Tuvalu, for example, normally experiences an annual sea level cycle of about 0.2 metres, reaching a peak around February or March. One effect of the El Niño of 1997-1998 was very low sea levels which disrupted the annual sea level cycle at many of the SEAFRAME stations (Figure 13).

Figure 17 through Figure 20 show the monthly mean sea level, barometric pressure, air temperature and water temperature anomalies. The sea level anomalies are the monthly-averaged residuals after tides, annual and semi-annual seasonal cycles and linear slope have been removed, by way of a harmonic tidal analysis of the complete record. The annual sea level cycle at Tuvalu (which has the largest consistent annual cycle) is quite noticeable in Figure 13 but less apparent in Figure 17. By removing the seasonal cycles, the anomalies help to bring out irregular features, such as lower than normal sea levels across the region during the 1997/98 El Niño.

Monthly sea levels for February 2018 were +5 cm higher than normal at PNG, +6 cm at Marshall Islands and Kiribati and +7 cm at Nauru and Tuvalu. However, anomalies of -8 cm at Vanuatu and -5 cm at Cook Islands were observed, indicating lower than normal sea levels at those locations.

Elsewhere across the network, monthly sea levels were near normal for this time of year (Figure 17).

The anomalies of barometric pressure, water and air temperature are determined in the same manner as the sea level anomalies, except the linear slope is not calculated.

Higher than normal barometric pressures were observed at SEAFRAME stations during the 1997-1998 El Niño and to a lesser extent the 2015-2016 El Niño (Figure 18). Monthly barometric pressures during February 2018 were near to slightly lower than normal across the network, with anomalies descending below -2 hPa at Fiji, Tonga and Cook Islands.

Water temperatures during February were +1.2 °C warmer than normal at Nauru and almost +0.5 °C warmer than normal at Marshall Islands and Kiribati. However, they were -0.9 °C cooler than normal at PNG and -0.4 °C cooler than normal at Vanuatu and Fiji (Figure 19).

Air temperatures were +1.0 °C warmer than normal at Nauru, around +0.7 °C warmer than normal at Solomon Islands and Tonga and +0.6 °C warmer than normal at Samoa (Figure 20).

Over the duration of the record the air temperature anomalies generally (although not always) follow the water temperature anomalies, which is an indication of the large influence the ocean has upon the climate of the Pacific Islands.

Overall Rate of Movement in Sea Level

Table 1 shows the overall rate of movement in sea level at individual Pacific stations based on the data so far collected at those sites. For many of the sites, the underlying data sets are just over twenty years in length.

The overall rates of movement are updated every month by calculating the linear slope during the tidal analysis of all the quality-controlled data available at individual stations. The rates are relative to the SEAFRAME sensor benchmark, whose movement relative to inland benchmarks is monitored by

Geosciences Australia. Collaborative efforts are being made to investigate vertical land movements, in order to provide corrections that are as rigorous as possible.

Please exercise caution in interpreting the overall rates of movement of sea level – the records are too short to be inferring long-term trends and have not been corrected for land movement or other parameters that may influence the reported rates.

Table 1. Updated overall rates of sea level movement based on SEAFRAME data from installation through February 2018.

Location	Latitude	Longitude	Date of first data	Rate ¹ (mm/yr)	Change in rate from previous month (mm/yr)
Marshall Is.	7°6'21.7"N	171°22'22.1"E	May 1993	4.8	0.0
FSM	6°58'49.9"N	158°12'0.8"E	Dec 2001	7.2	+0.1
PNG	2°2'31.5"S	147°22'25.6"E	Sep 1994	5.3	0.0
Solomon Is.	9°25'44.1"S	159°57'19.3"E	Jul 1994	3.4	0.0
Kiribati	1°21'54.2"N	172°55'58.8"E	Dec 1992	3.6	0.0
Nauru	0°31'45.9"S	166°54'36.2"E	Jul 1993	4.9	+0.1
Tuvalu	8°30'8.9"S	179°11'42.6"E	Mar 1993	3.7	+0.1
Samoa	13°49'36.4"S	171°45'40.7"W	Feb 1993	8.6	0.0
Vanuatu	17°45'19.2"S	168°18'27.7"E	Jan 1993	1.1	-0.1
Fiji	17°36'17.7"S	177°26'17.7"E	Oct 1992	3.9	0.0
Tonga	21°8'12.5"S	175°10'50.5"W	Jan 1993	6.5	0.0
Cook Is	21°12'17.1"S	159°47'5.2"W	Feb 1993	4.0	0.0

¹Relative to SSBM (SEAFRAME Sensor Bench Mark)



Instrument Performance

In Figure 21, which shows sea level data return, the columns represent the percentage of quality-controlled data returned from the gauge each month.

Sea level data return from the network was 99.1% during February 2018 and 96.2% overall since the start of the project (Table 2). The SEAFRAME station at Fiji was serviced as part of the regular calibration and maintenance schedule. Data collection from Solomon Islands was largely

maintained during February, despite a faulty power supply unit, through the efforts of local support staff changing the battery every few days. Problems with satellite communications resulted in a small amount of data loss from PNG.

The ancillary meteorological sensors performed well during February aside from ongoing problems with the wind monitor at Kiribati and the water temperature module at Cook Islands, both of which were returned to service.

Table 2. Rates of sea level data return.

Location	Installation Date	Data Return Since Installation (%)	Data Return in February 2018 (%)
Cook Is	Feb 1993	97.3	99.9
Tonga	Jan 1993	98.7	100
Fiji	Oct 1992	99.0	98.7
Vanuatu	Jan 1993	95.9	100
Samoa	Feb 1993	97.1	100
Tuvalu	Mar 1993	96.8	100
Kiribati	Dec 1992	94.9	100
Nauru	Jul 1993	92.6	99.4
Solomon Is.	Jul 1994	97.8	95.3
PNG	Sep 1994	91.9	95.7
FSM	Dec 2001	94.2	100
Marshall Is.	May 1993	98.5	100
Network Average		96.2	99.1

SEAFRAME Stations

Standard SEAFRAME stations now employ a TELMET (previously SUTRON) programmable data logger, water level gauges and other sensors. The data logger and associated electronics are normally housed in fibreglass huts. A sketch of a typical SEAFRAME station is shown in Figure 2.

Water level sensors include:

1. Primary water level using a Bartex 'AQUATRAK' acoustic-in-air sensor,
2. Secondary water level (or backup) using a Druck pressure transducer mounted close to the seabed, and
3. Tertiary water level using a Vega-puls62 radar sensor mounted above the water.

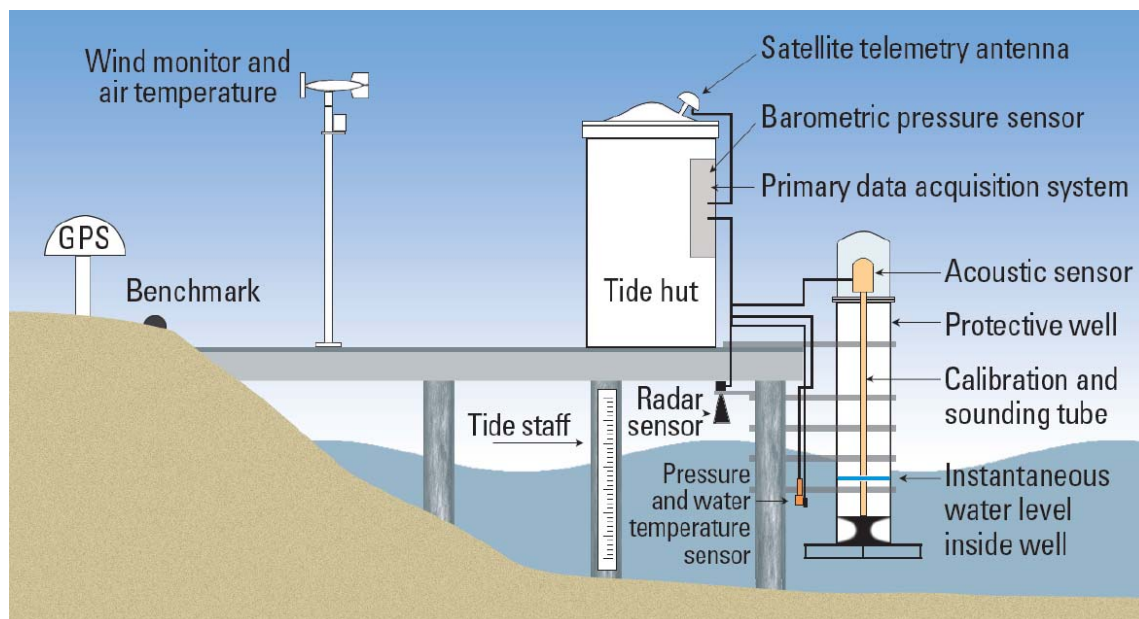


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of a SEAFRAME sea level monitoring station.

Tide Prediction Extension Project

A tide prediction extension project is aimed at extending the network of locations at which accurate tide predictions are available. Activities include the deployment of portable tide gauges in strategic locations, with the intention of observing sea levels for a sufficient length of time, ideally 1 year, to allow a thorough analysis of astronomical tides.

A portable tide gauge was installed at Neiafu, in the Vava'u group of islands in Tonga, in September 2013 and was retrieved in February 2015. The data has been analysed for astronomical tides and the results will enable tide predictions to be issued into the future.

Further Information

Online Resources

COSPPac Web site: <http://www.bom.gov.au/cosppac/>

PSLMP Web site: <http://www.bom.gov.au/pacific/projects/pslm/index.shtml>

ENSO Wrap-Up - El Niño / La Niña information: <http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/enso/>

Geoscience Australia South Pacific Regional GNSS Network (Levelling Survey and Continuous GPS Monitoring):
<http://www.ga.gov.au/earth-monitoring/geodesy/gnss-networks.html>

Acknowledgement

The Monthly Data Report is prepared by the Bureau of Meteorology under the Pacific Sea Level Monitoring (PSLM) Project, Climate and Oceans Support Program in the Pacific (COSPPac).

Further enquiries about the Monthly Data Report may be made to:

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Appendix 1: SEAFRAME Data Figures

SIX MINUTE SEA LEVEL OBSERVATIONS (m)

February 2018 (UTC)

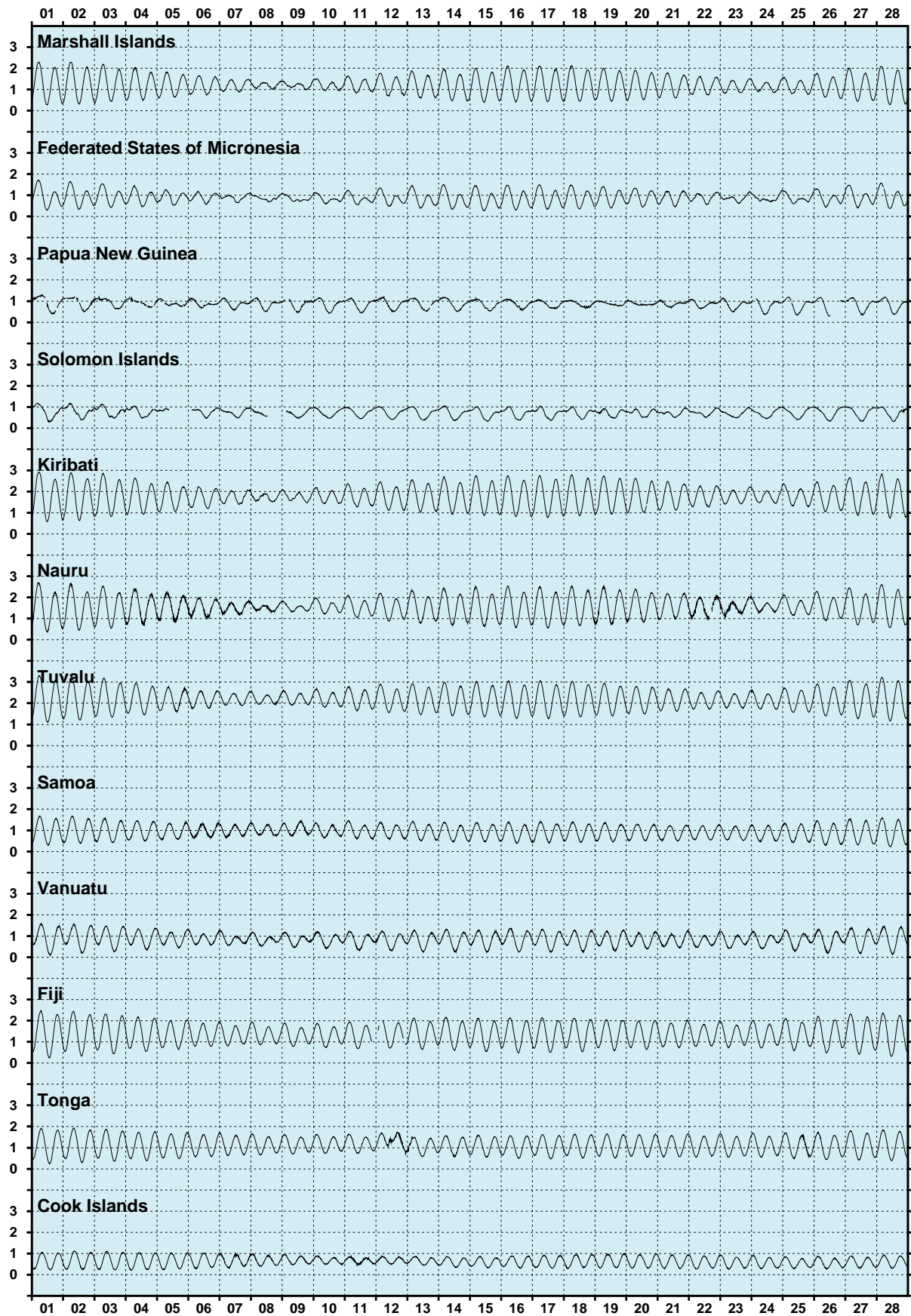


Figure 3. Sea level observations during February 2018.



SIX MINUTE RESIDUAL WATER LEVELS (m)

February 2018 (UTC)

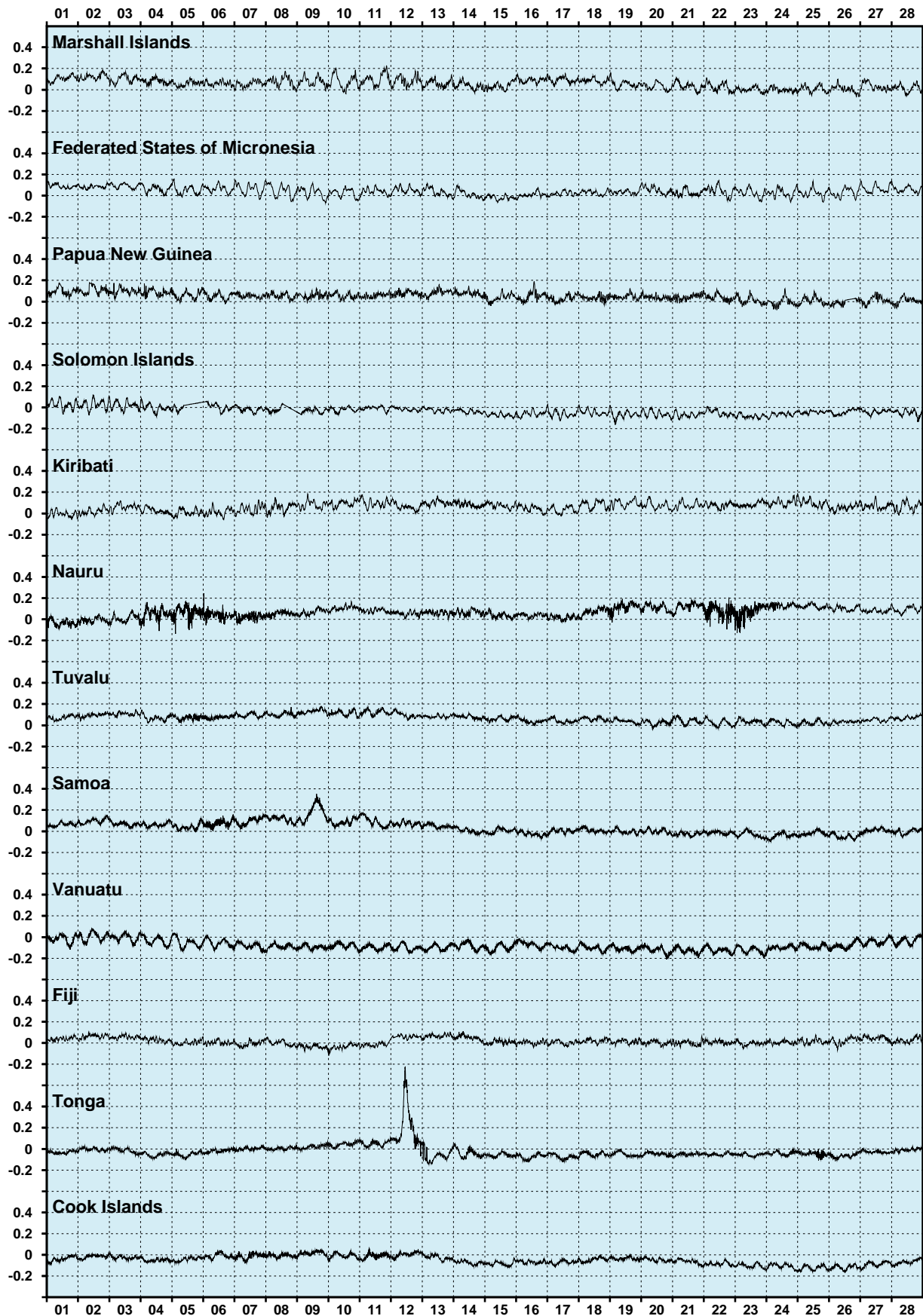


Figure 4. Residual sea levels during February 2018.

SIX MINUTE RESIDUALS ADJUSTED FOR BAROMETRIC PRESSURE (m)

February 2018 (UTC)

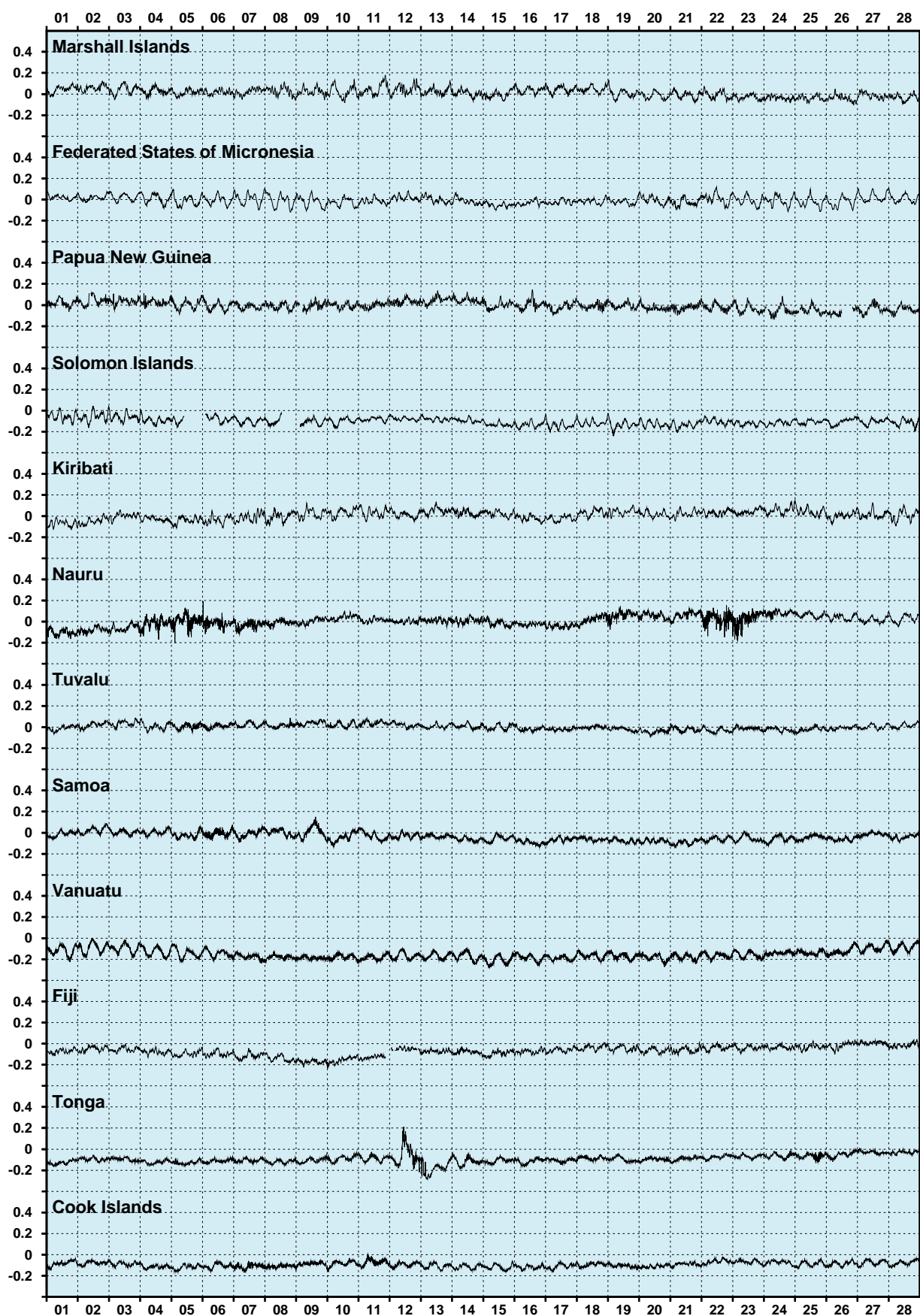
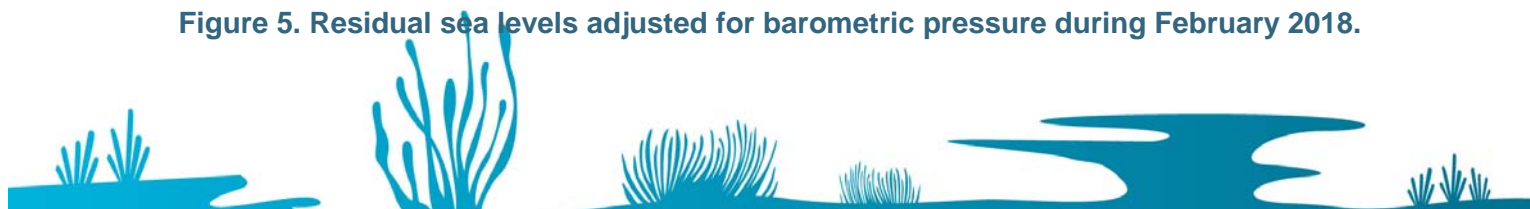


Figure 5. Residual sea levels adjusted for barometric pressure during February 2018.



HOURLY WIND SPEEDS (m/s)

February 2018 (UTC)

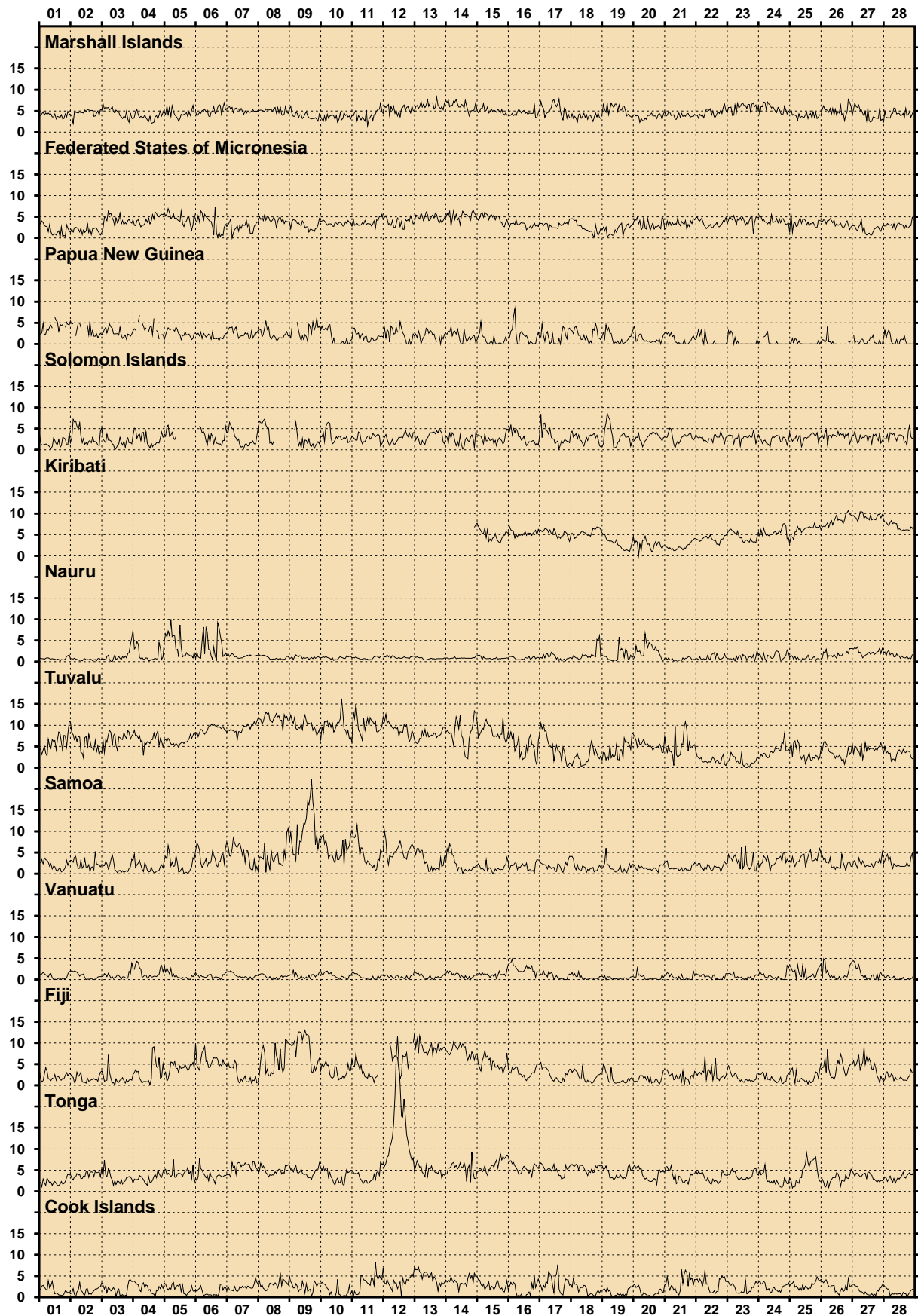


Figure 6. Wind speeds during February 2018.

HOURLY MAXIMUM WIND GUSTS (m/s)

February 2018 (UTC)

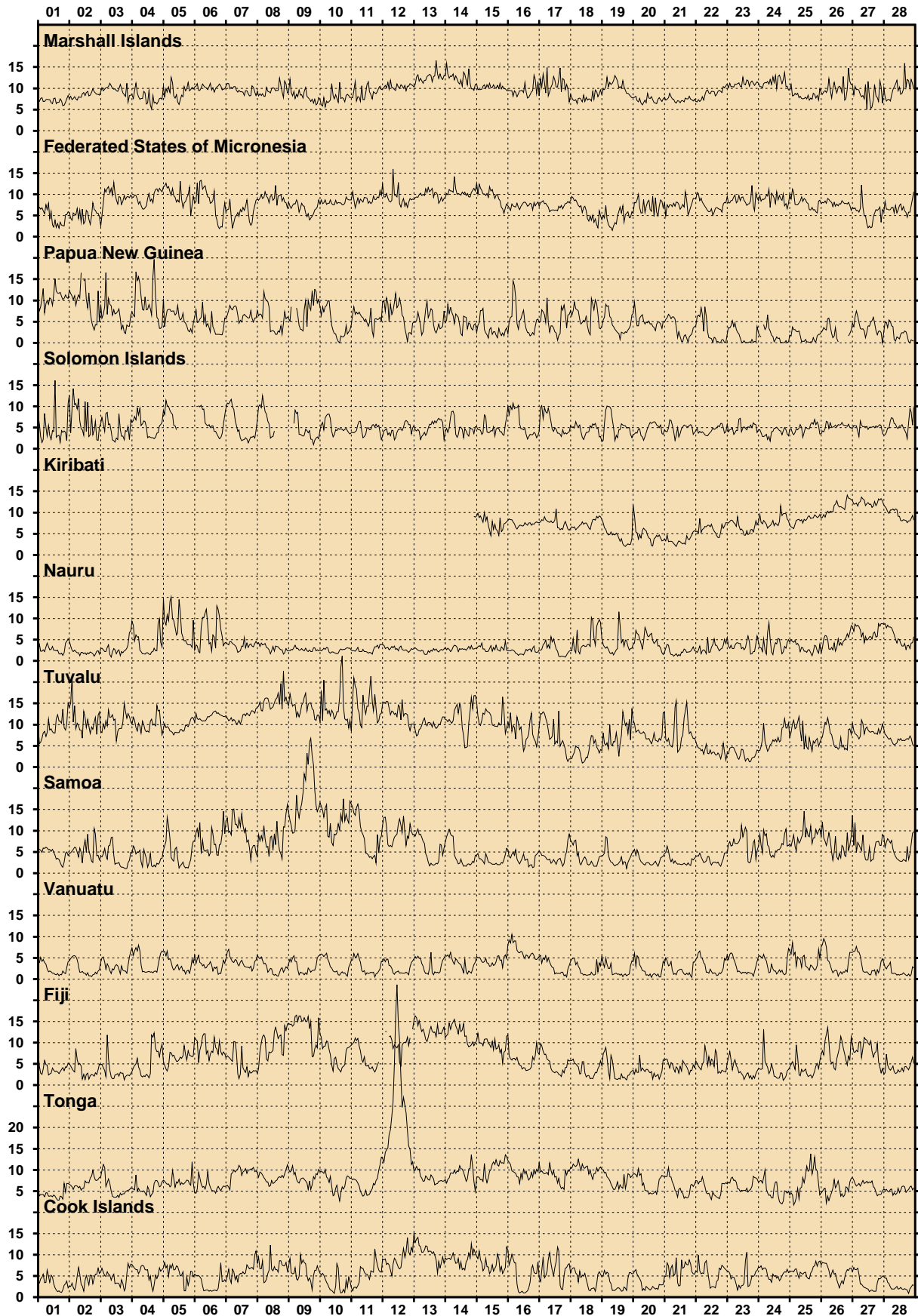


Figure 7. Wind gusts during February 2018.



HOURLY INCIDENT WINDS (m/s, °True)

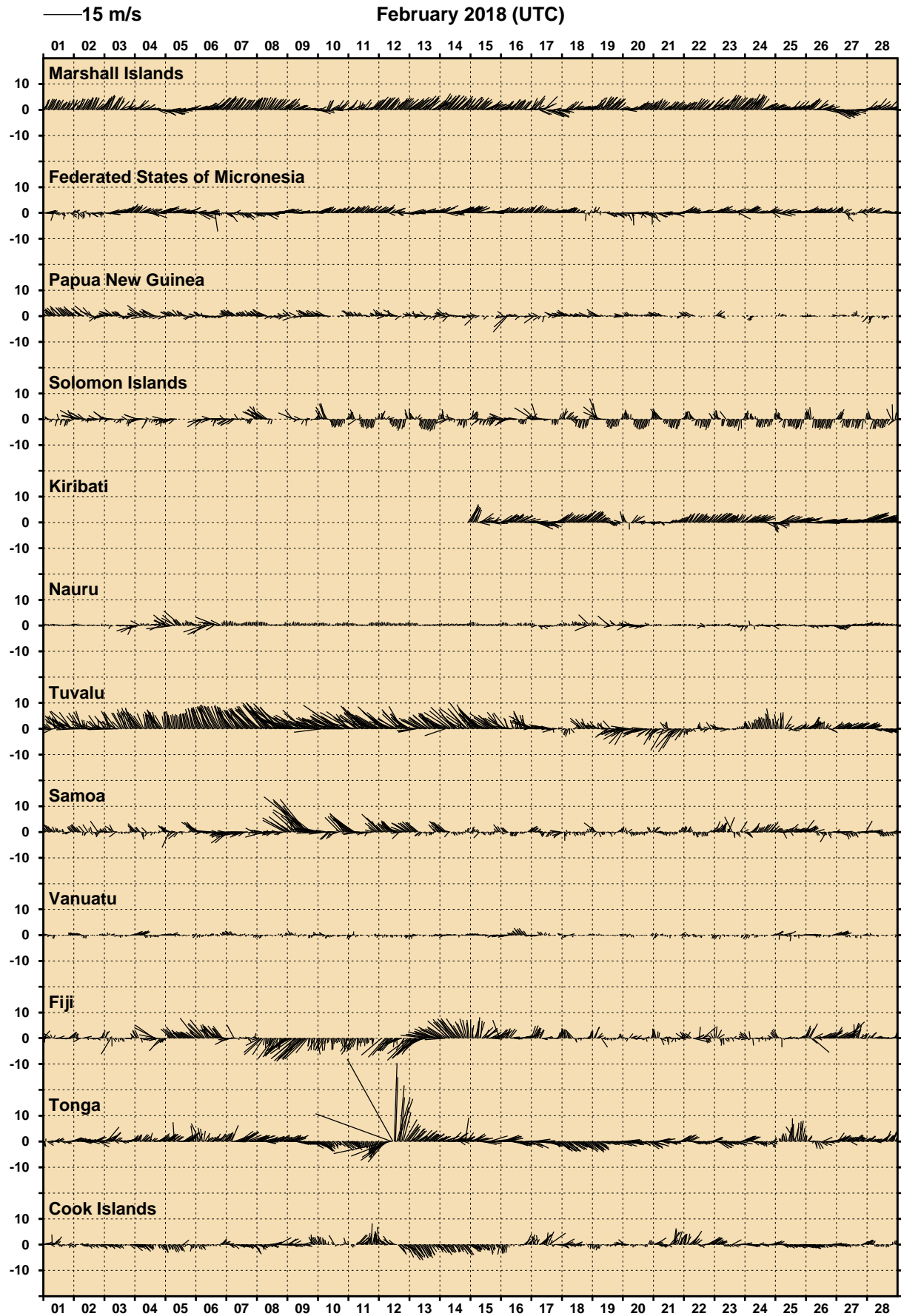


Figure 8. Incident winds during February 2018

HOURLY AIR TEMPERATURES (°C)

February 2018 (UTC)

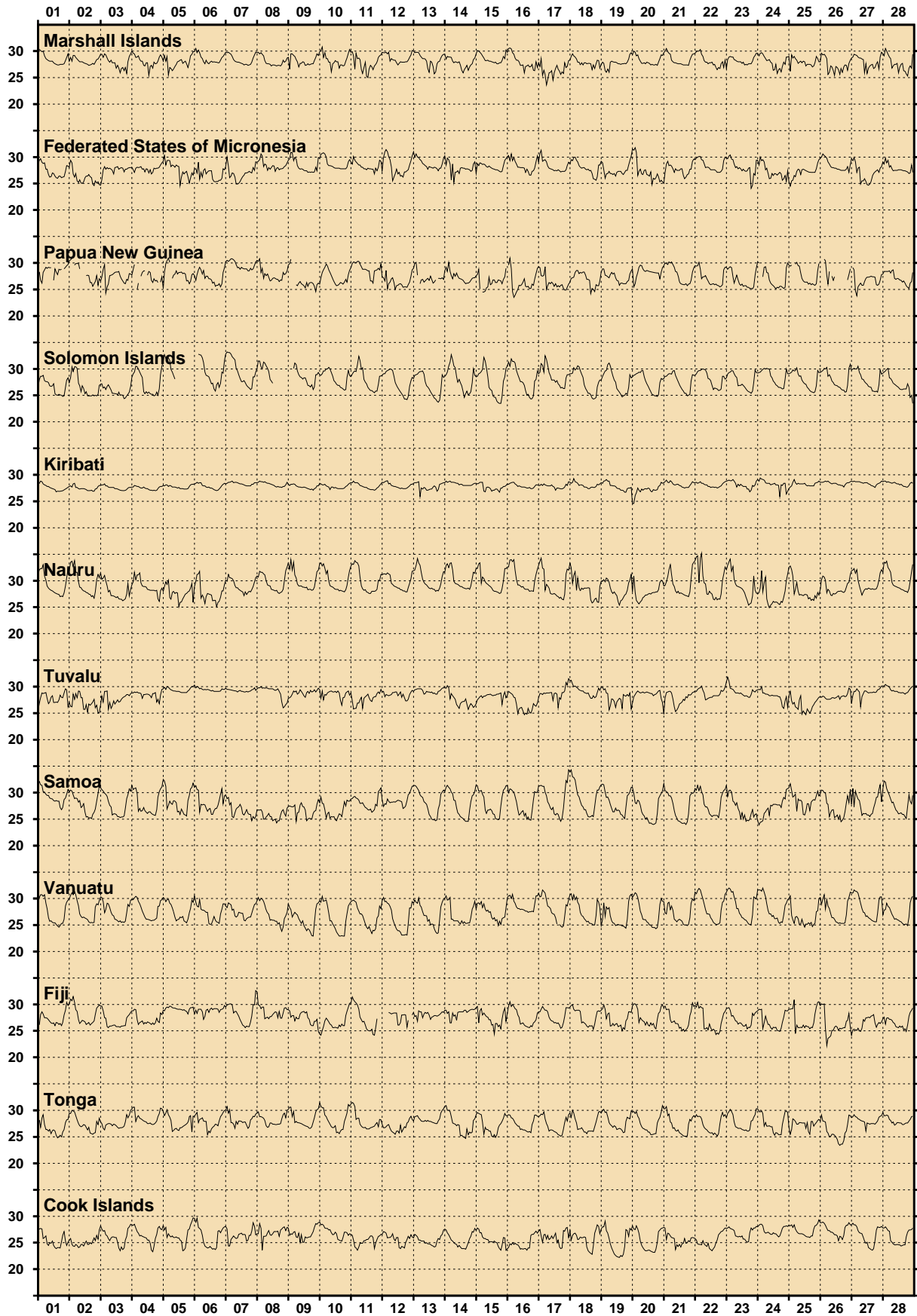


Figure 9. Air temperatures during February 2018.



HOURLY WATER TEMPERATURES (°C)

February 2018 (UTC)

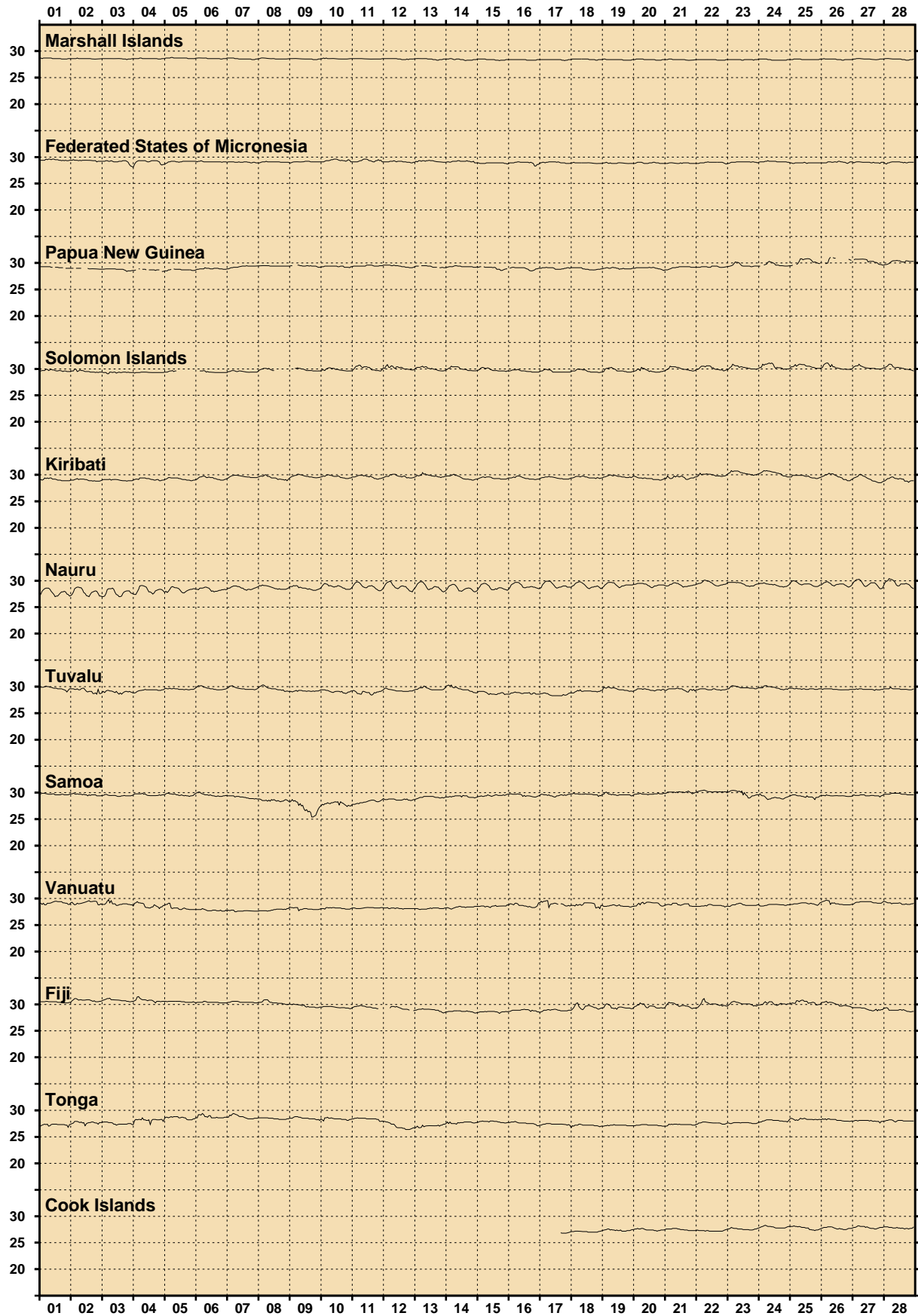


Figure 10. Water temperatures during February 2018.

HOURLY BAROMETRIC PRESSURE (hPa)

February 2018 (UTC)

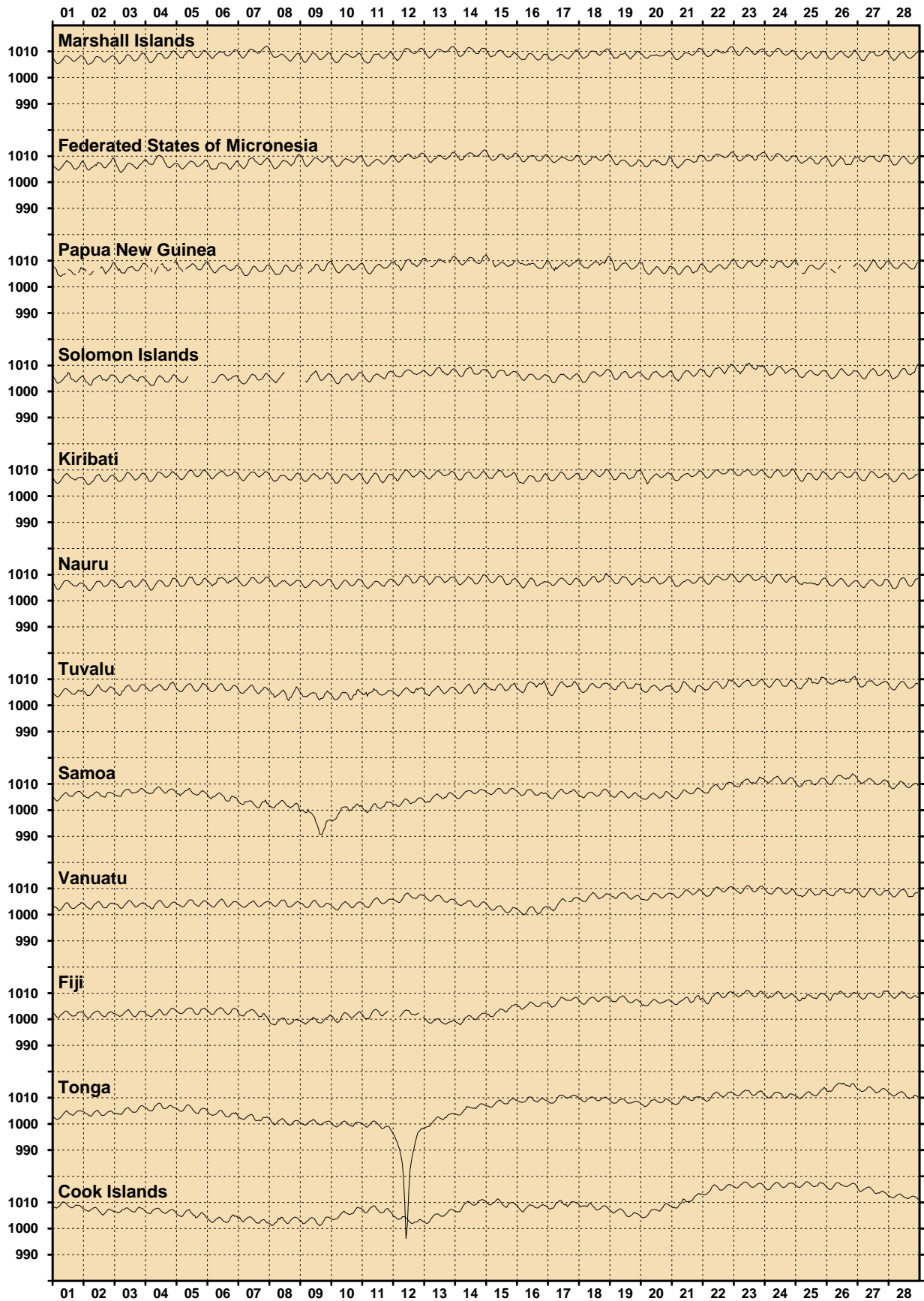


Figure 11. Barometric pressures during February 2018.



COMPARISON OF FEBRUARY 2018 MAX,MIN AND MEAN WITH LONG-TERM FEBRUARY VALUES

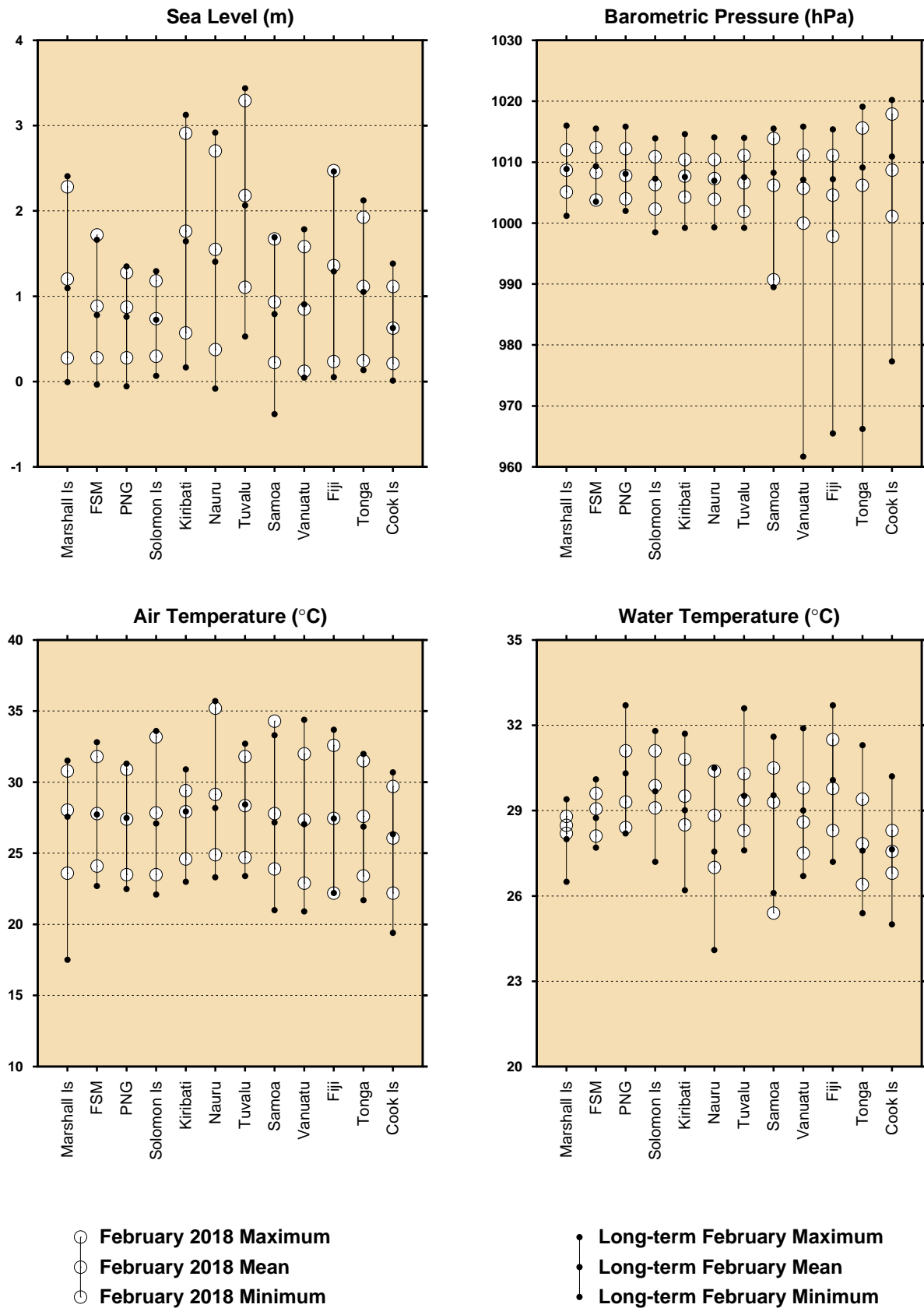


Figure 12. Comparison of February 2018 data with long term February values.

MONTHLY MEAN SEA LEVELS THROUGH FEBRUARY 2018 (m) (The zero line represents mean sea level)

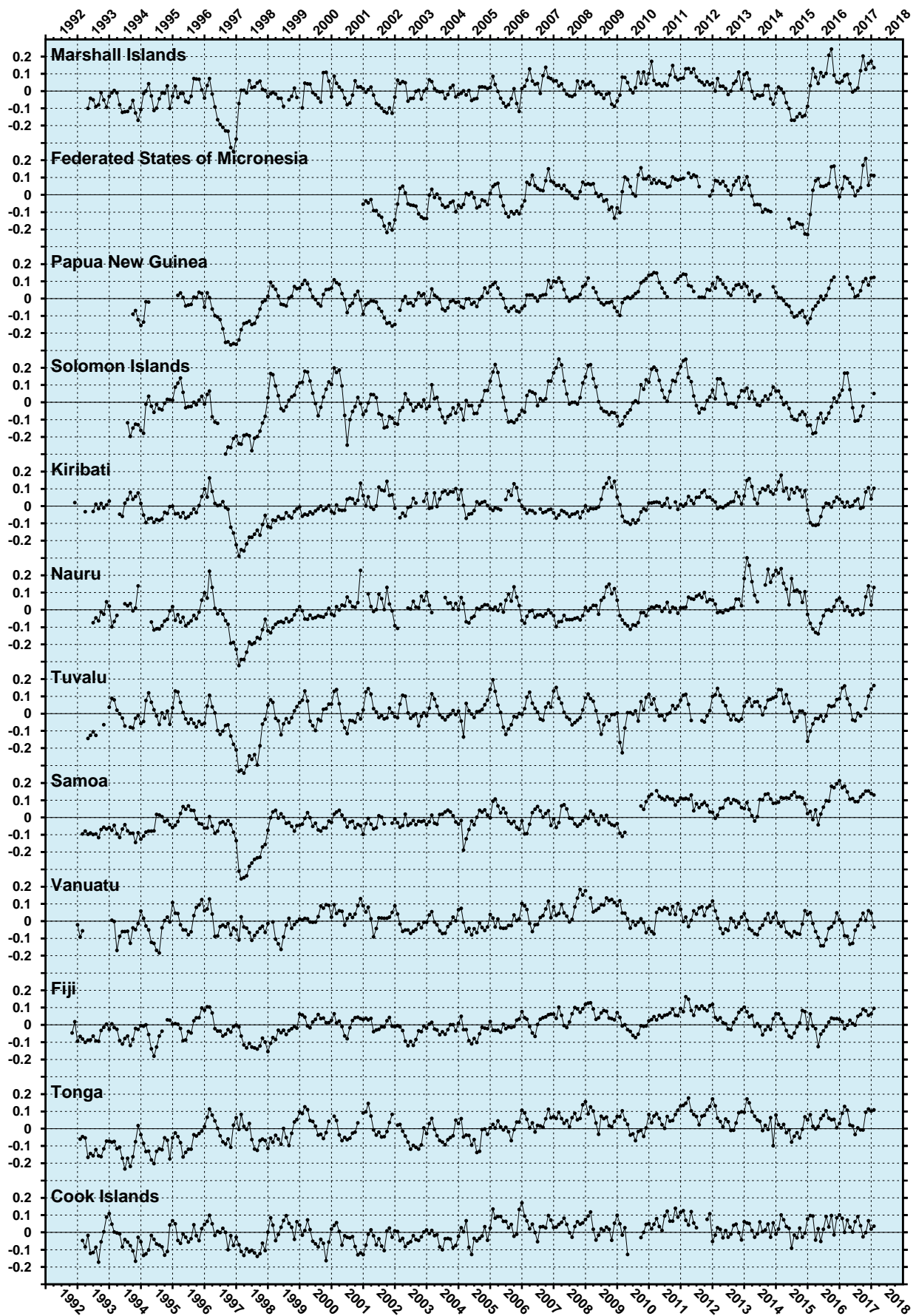


Figure 13. Monthly mean sea levels to February 2018.



MONTHLY MEAN BAROMETRIC PRESSURES THROUGH FEBRUARY 2018 (hPa)

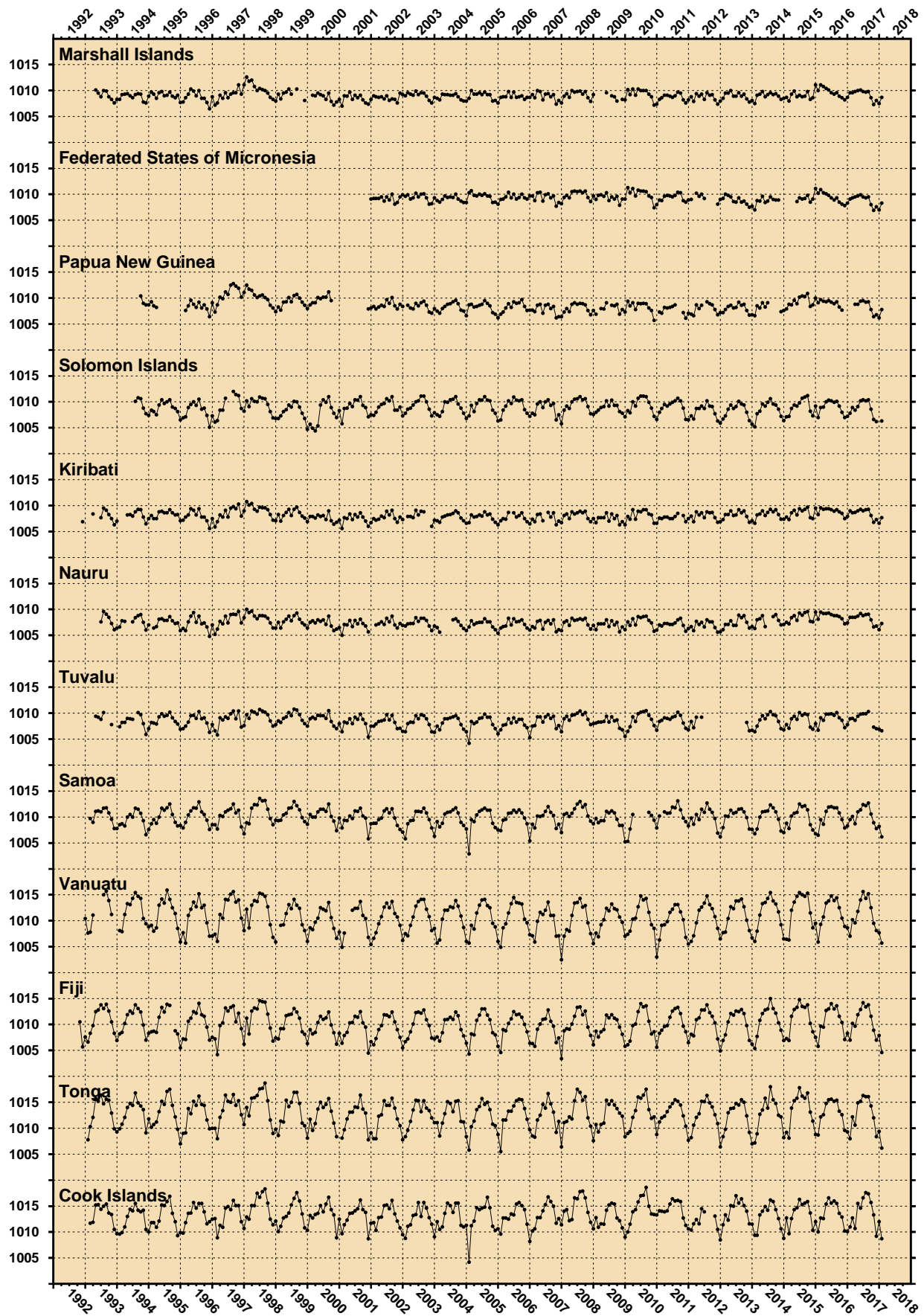


Figure 14. Monthly mean barometric pressures to February 2018.

MONTHLY MEAN WATER TEMPERATURES THROUGH FEBRUARY 2018 (°C)

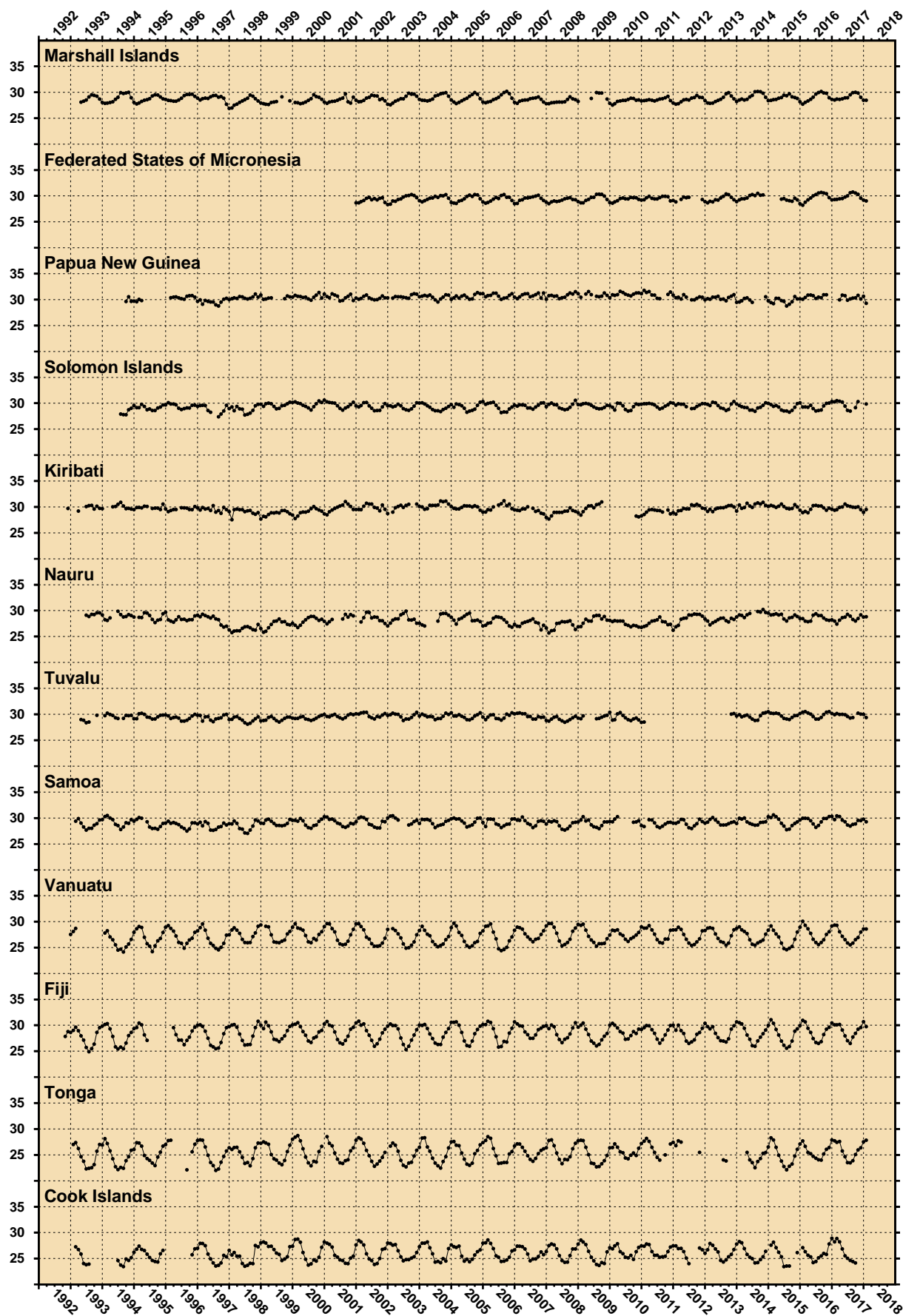


Figure 15 Monthly mean water temperatures to February 2018.

MONTHLY MEAN AIR TEMPERATURES THROUGH FEBRUARY 2018 (°C)

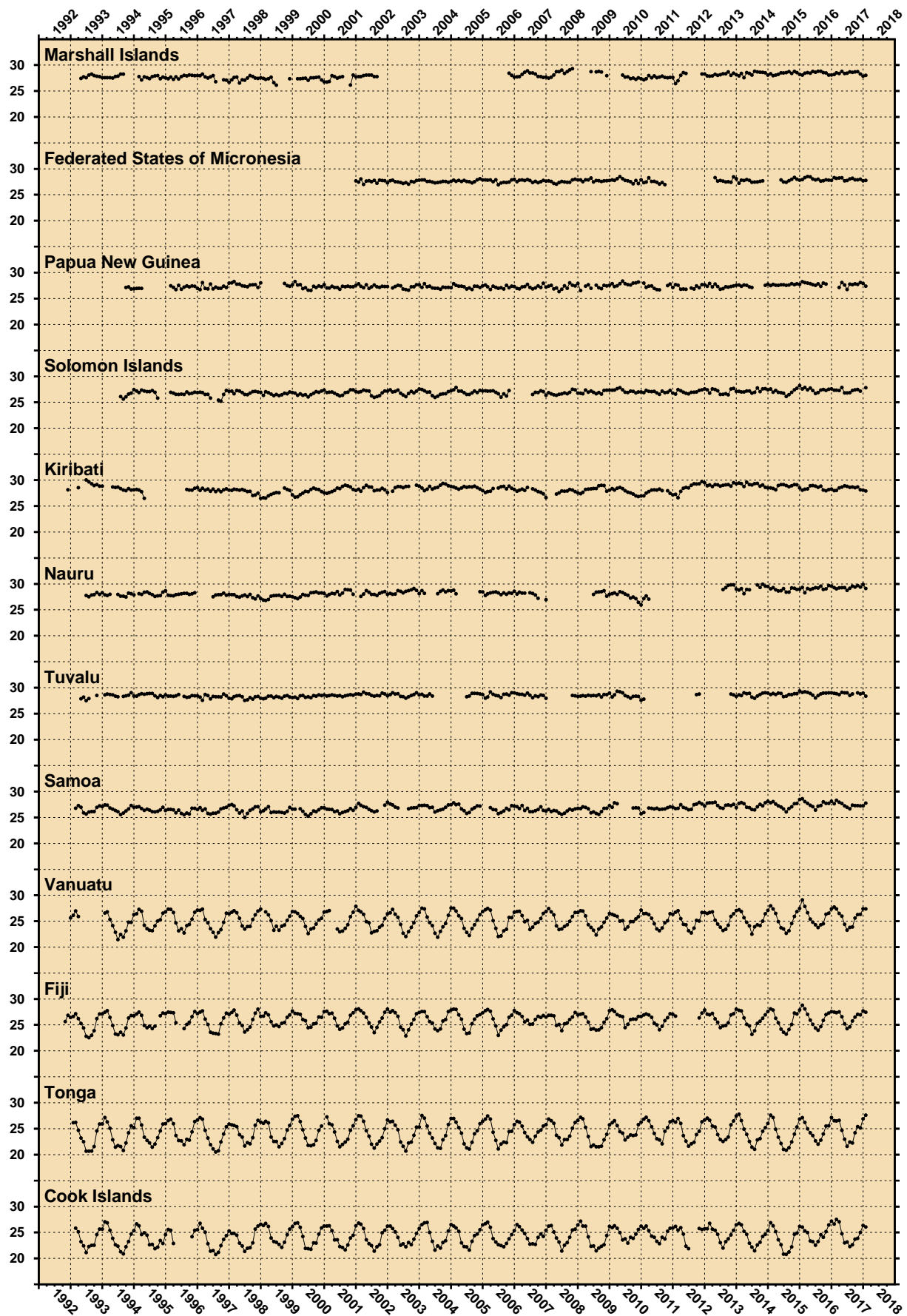


Figure 16. Monthly mean air temperatures to February 2018.

SEA LEVEL ANOMALIES THROUGH FEBRUARY 2018 (m)

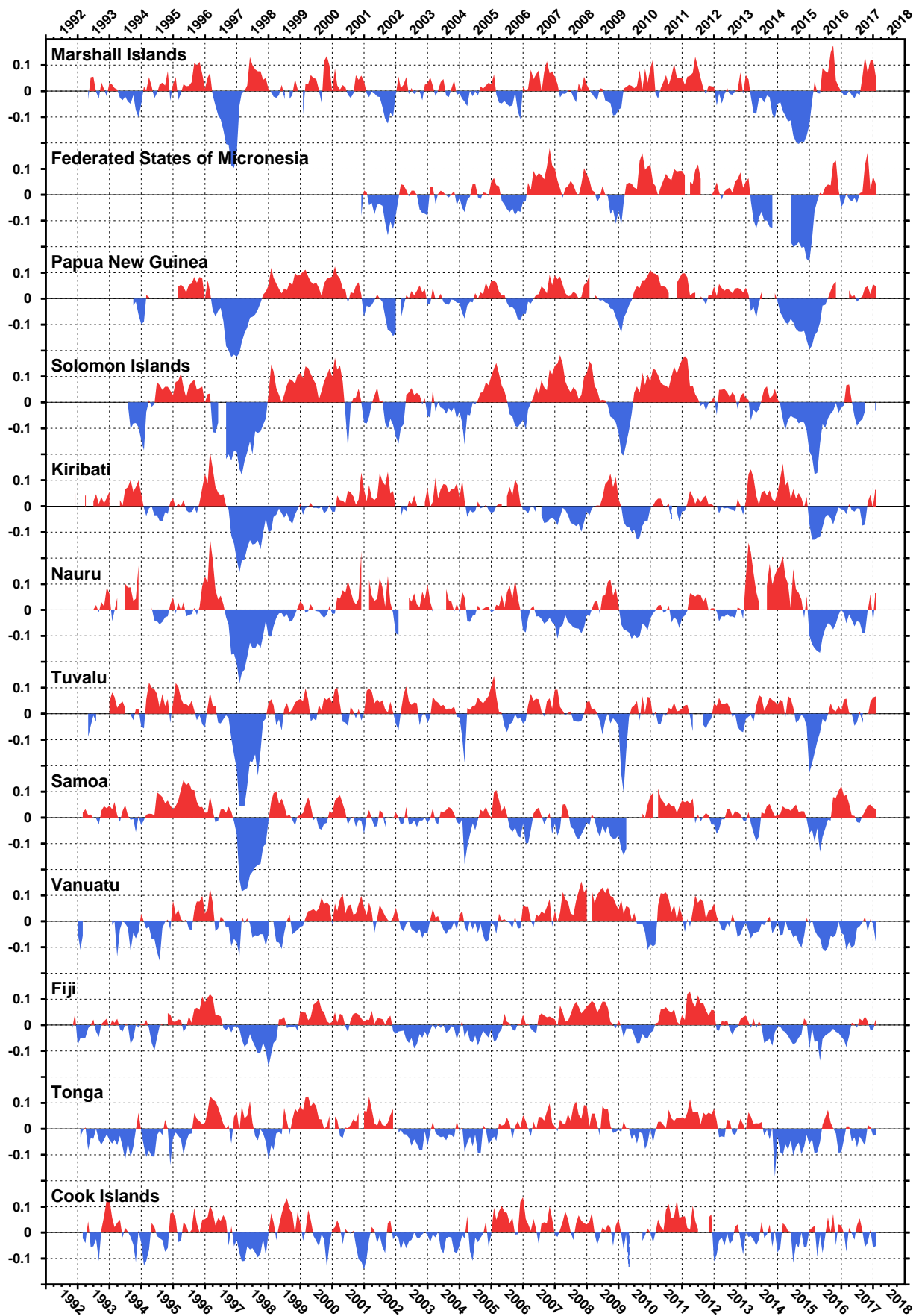


Figure 17. Monthly sea level anomalies to February 2018.



BAROMETRIC PRESSURE ANOMALIES THROUGH FEBRUARY 2018 (hPa)

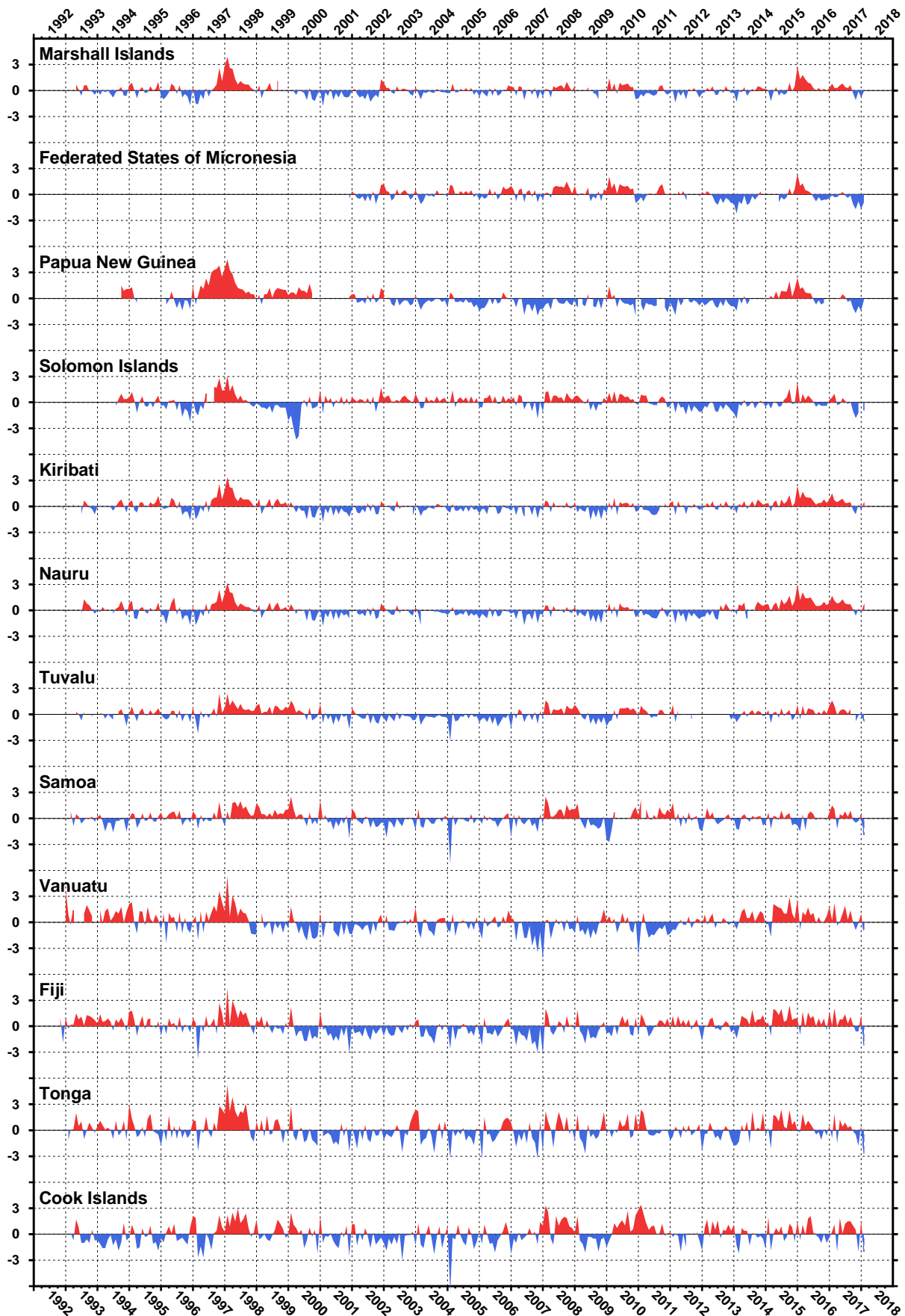


Figure 18. Monthly barometric pressure anomalies to February 2018.

WATER TEMPERATURE ANOMALIES THROUGH FEBRUARY 2018 (°C)

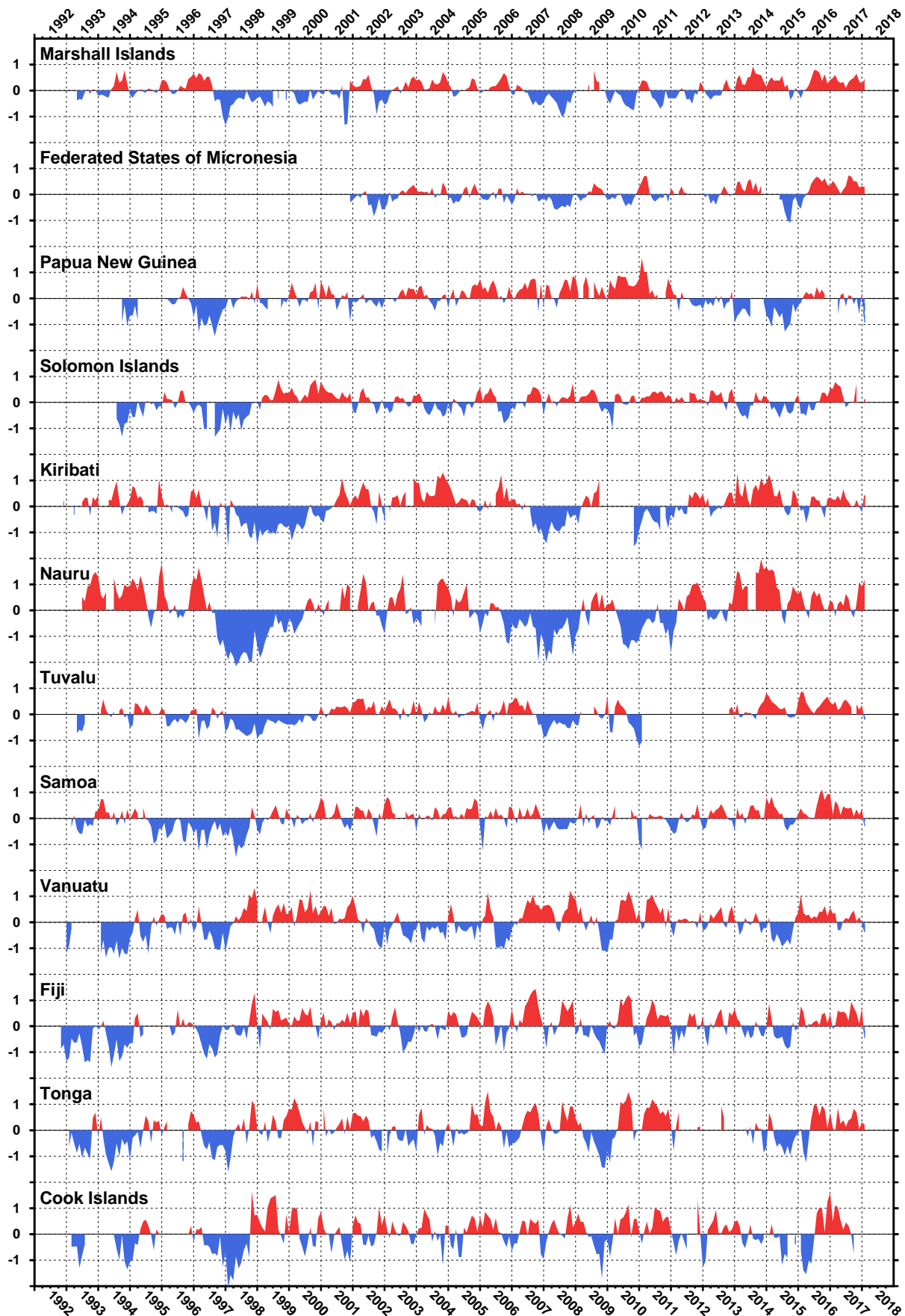


Figure 19. Monthly water temperature anomalies to February 2018.



AIR TEMPERATURE ANOMALIES THROUGH FEBRUARY 2018 (°C)

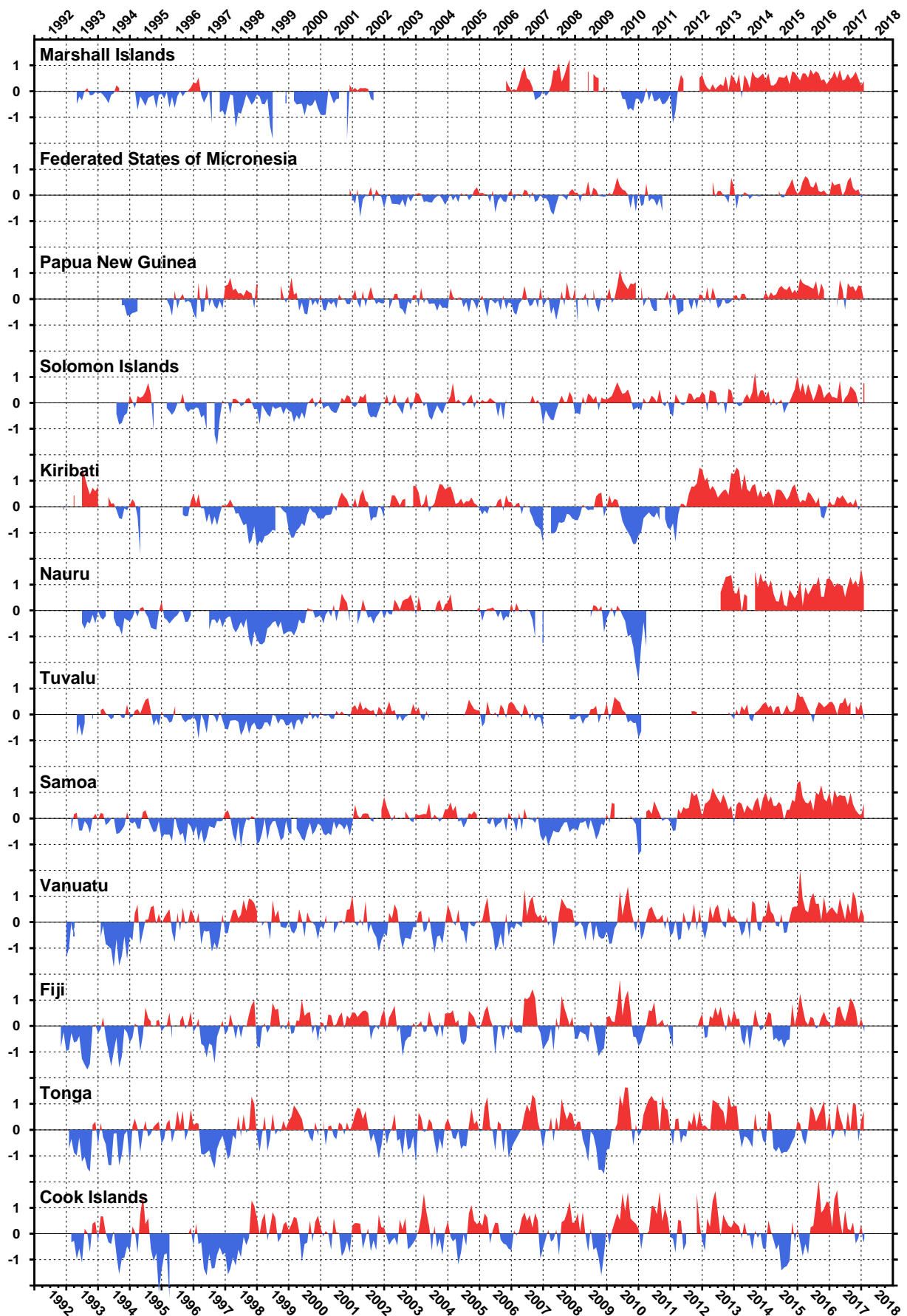


Figure 20. Monthly air temperature anomalies to February 2018.

MONTHLY SEA LEVEL DATA RETURN THROUGH FEBRUARY 2018 (%)

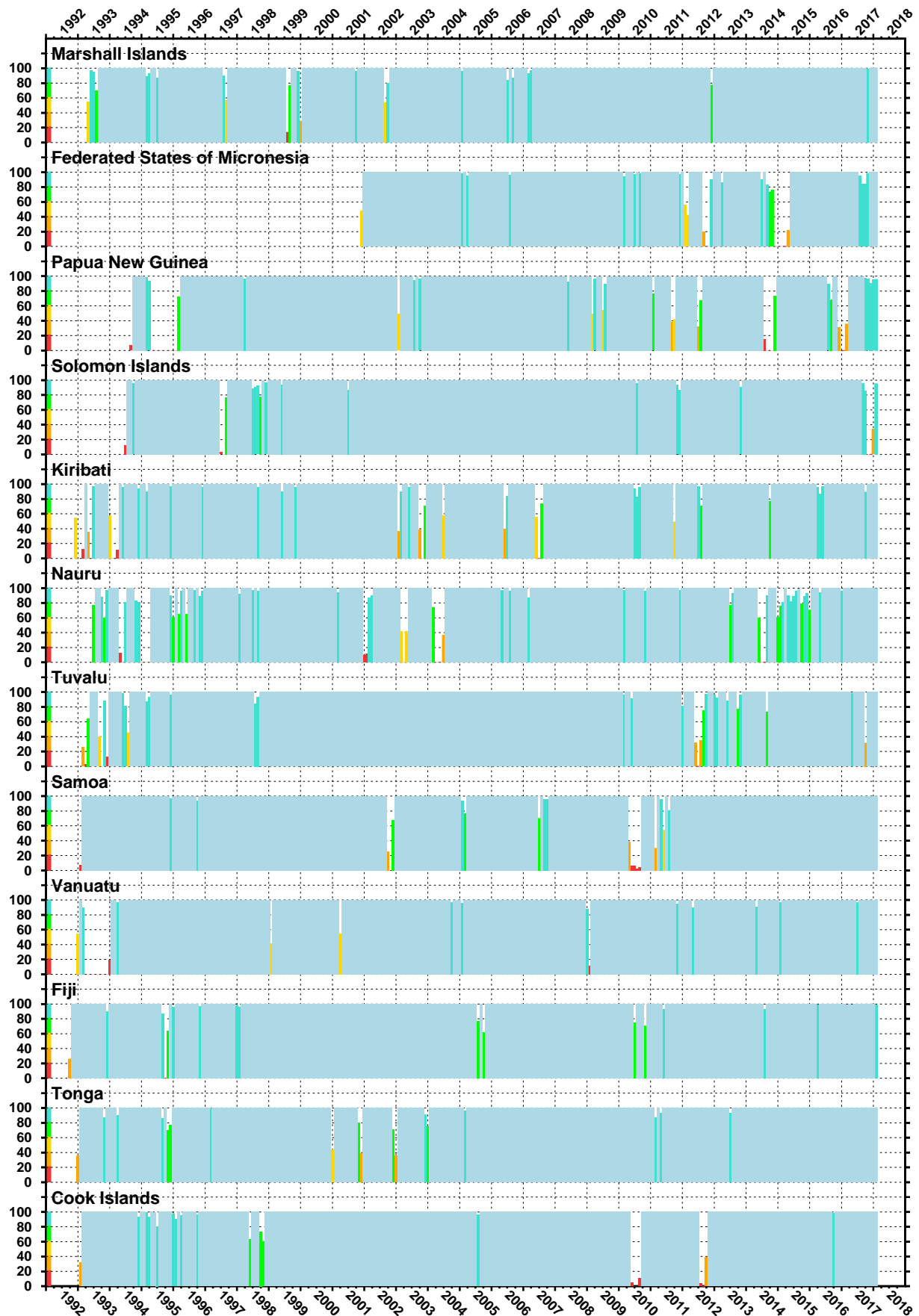


Figure 21. Sea level data return.

