Climate4you update September 2014

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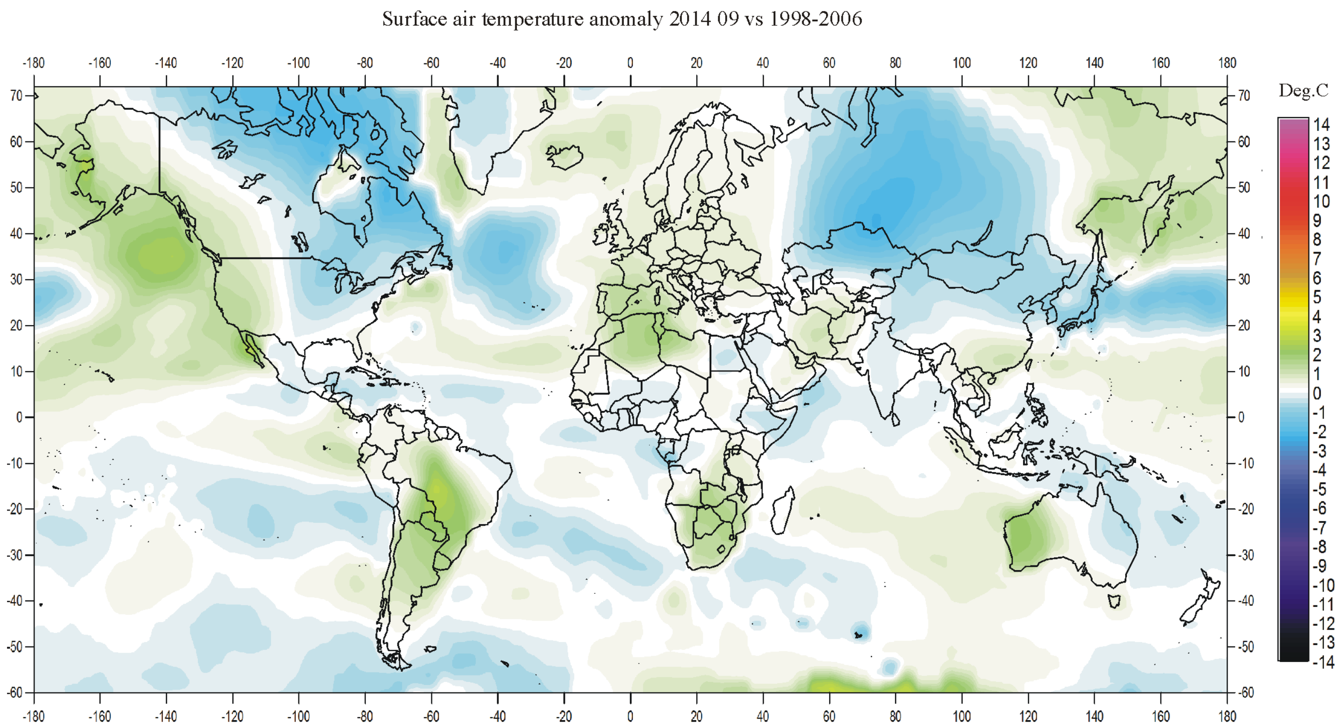
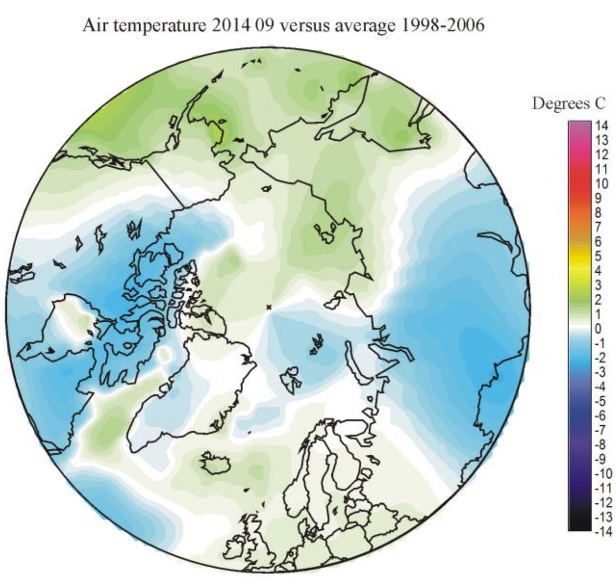
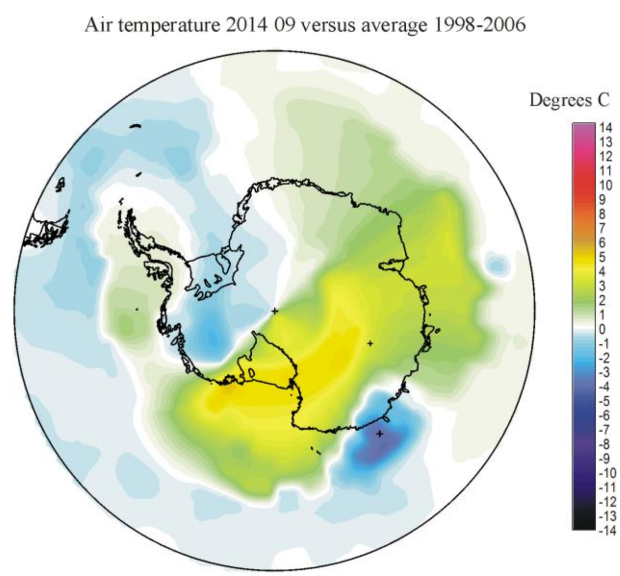
All diagrams in this newsletter as well as links to the original data are available on www.climate4you.com

September 2014 global surface air temperature overview







September 2014 surface air temperature compared to the 1998-2006 average. Green-yellow-red colours indicate areas with higher temperature than the 1998-2006 average, while blue colours indicate lower than average temperatures. Data source: Goddard Institute for Space Studies (GISS).

Comments to the September 2014 global surface air temperature overview

General: This newsletter contains graphs showing a selection of key meteorological variables for the past month. *All temperatures are given in degrees Celsius*.

In the above maps showing the geographical pattern of surface air temperatures, *the period 1998-2006 is used as reference period*. The reason for comparing with this recent period instead of the official WMO 'normal' period 1961-1990, is that the latter period is affected by the cold period 1945-1980. Most comparisons with such a low average value will therefore appear as warm, and it will be difficult to decide if modern surface air temperatures are increasing or decreasing. Comparing with a more recent period overcomes this problem.

In addition to the above consideration, the recent temperature development suggests that the time window 1998-2006 may roughly represent a global temperature peak (see, e.g., p. 4-6). However, it might be argued that the time interval 1999-2006 or 2000-2006 would better represent a possible temperature peak period. However, by starting in 1999 (or 2000) the cold La Niña period 1999-2000 would result in a unrealistic low reference temperature by excluding the previous warm El Niño in 1998. These two opposite phenomena must be considered together to obtain a representative reference average, and this why the year 1998 is included in the adopted reference period.

Finally, the GISS temperature data used for preparing the above diagrams show a pronounced temporal instability for data before 1998 (see p. 7). Any comparison with the WMO 'normal' period 1961-1990 is therefore influenced by monthly changing values for the so-called 'normal' period, which is therefore not suited as reference.

In the other diagrams in this newsletter *the thin line represents the monthly global average value*, and *the thick line indicate a simple running average*, in most cases a simple moving 37-month average, nearly corresponding to a three-year average. The 37-month average is calculated from values covering a range from 18 month before to 18 months after, with equal weight for every month.

The year 1979 has been chosen as starting point in many diagrams, as this roughly corresponds to both the beginning of satellite observations and the onset of the late 20th century warming period. However, several of the records have a much longer record length, which may be inspected in greater detail on www.Climate4you.com.

September 2014 global surface air temperatures

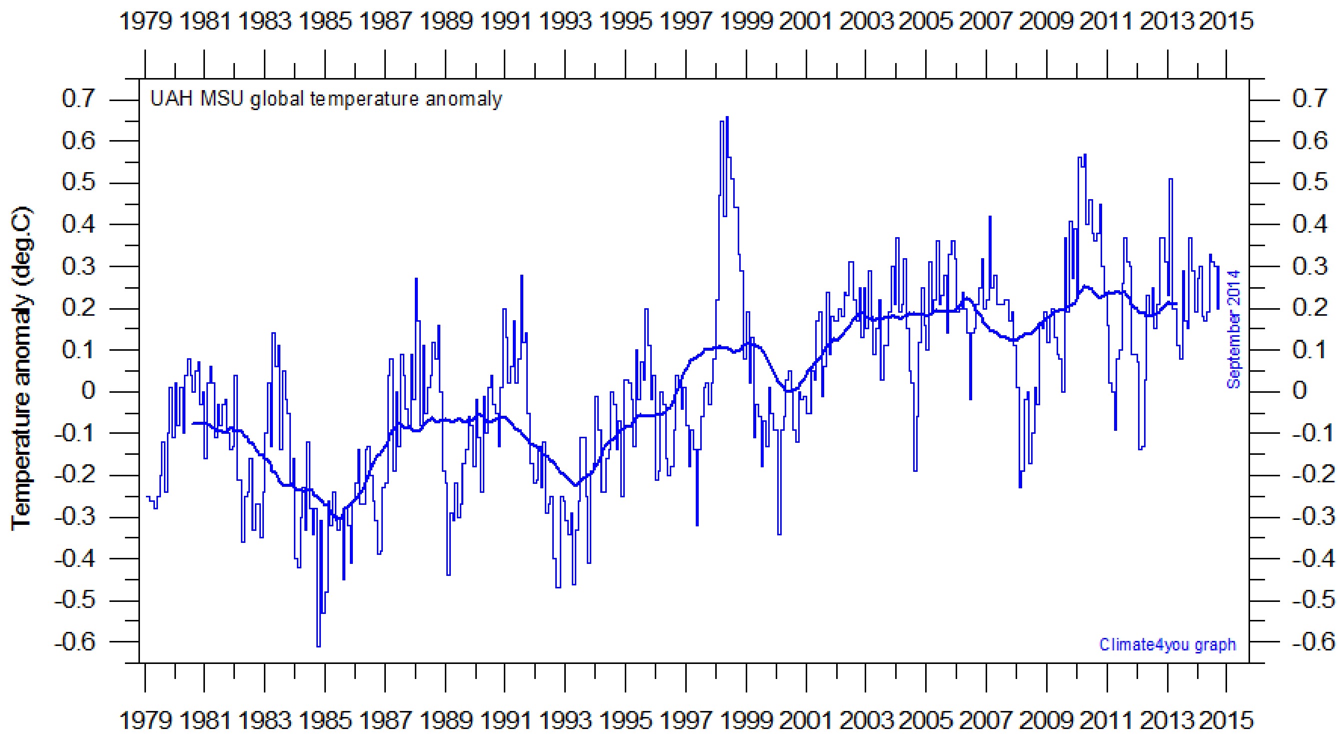
General: In general, the global air temperature was a little above the 1998-2006 August average, mainly due to relatively high temperatures over the near Equator and NH part of the Pacific Ocean.

The Northern Hemisphere was characterised by regional air temperature contrasts. Eastern North America and central Russia/Siberia had relatively low temperatures. Western North America, parts of the North Atlantic, Europe and eastern Siberia had above average temperatures. The Arctic was relatively cold in the Europe-Russia and Canada sectors. The Alaska and Siberian sectors were relatively warm.

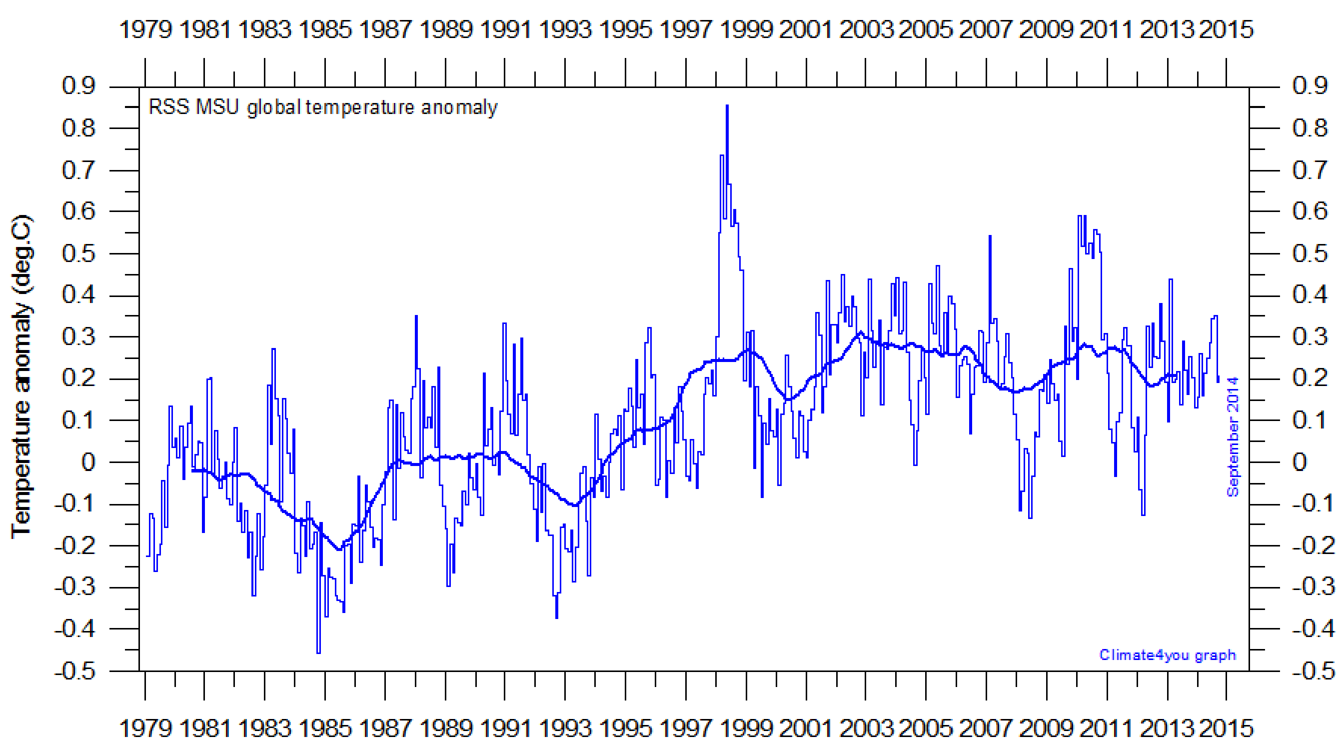
Near the Equator temperatures conditions were generally a little above the 1998-2006 average in the Pacific sector, but a little below average in the Atlantic-Africa-Indian Ocean sectors.

The Southern Hemisphere temperatures were mainly near average 1998-2006 conditions. Most continents had above average temperatures, but with East Australia having below average temperatures. The Antarctic generally was above average, although with most of West Antarctica being below average.

Lower troposphere temperature from satellites, updated to September 2014

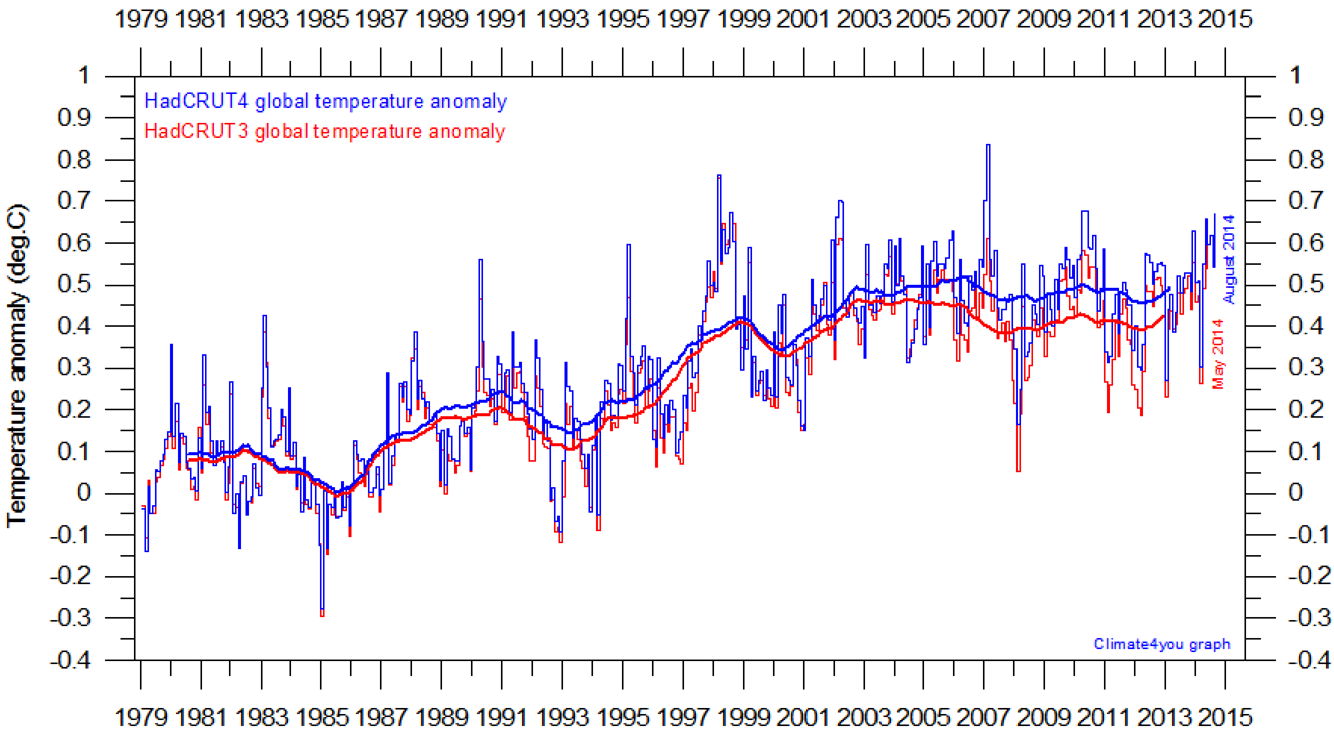


Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature (thin line) since 1979 according to University of Alabama at Huntsville, USA. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

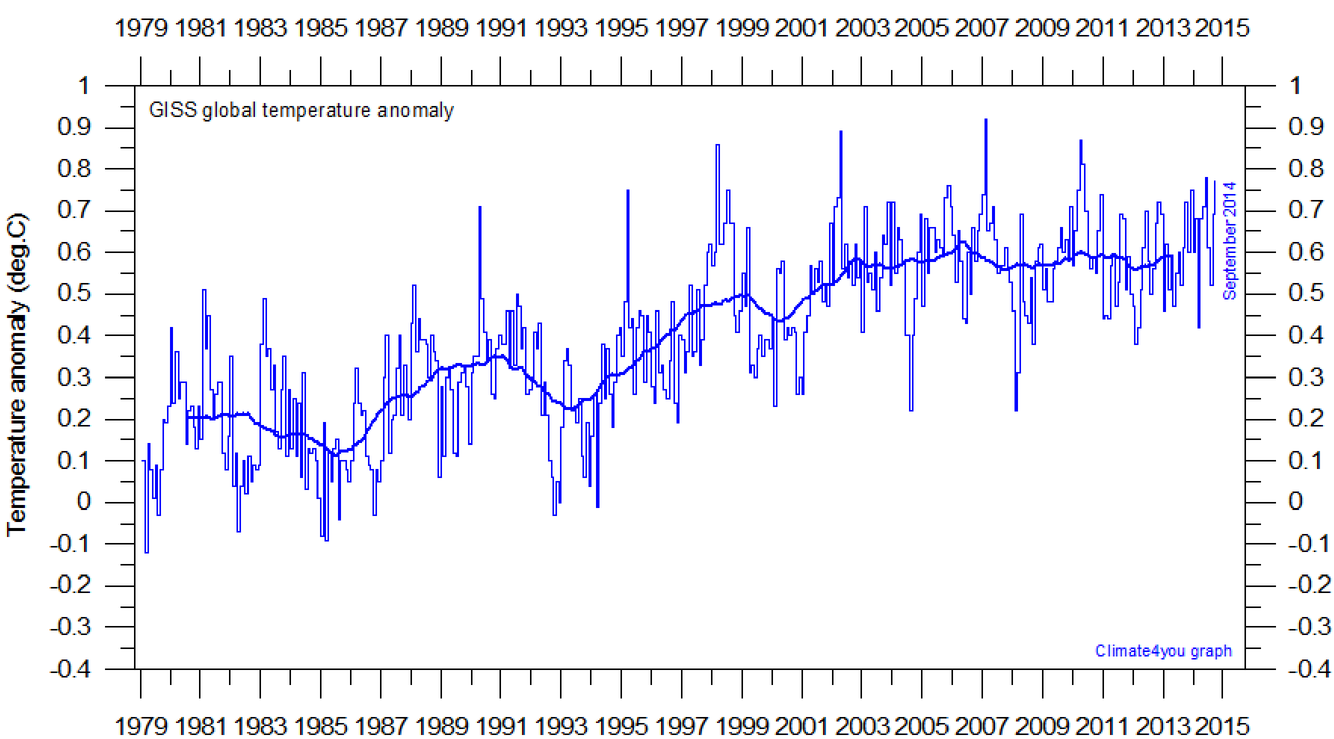


Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature (thin line) since 1979 according to according to Remote Sensing Systems (RSS), USA. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

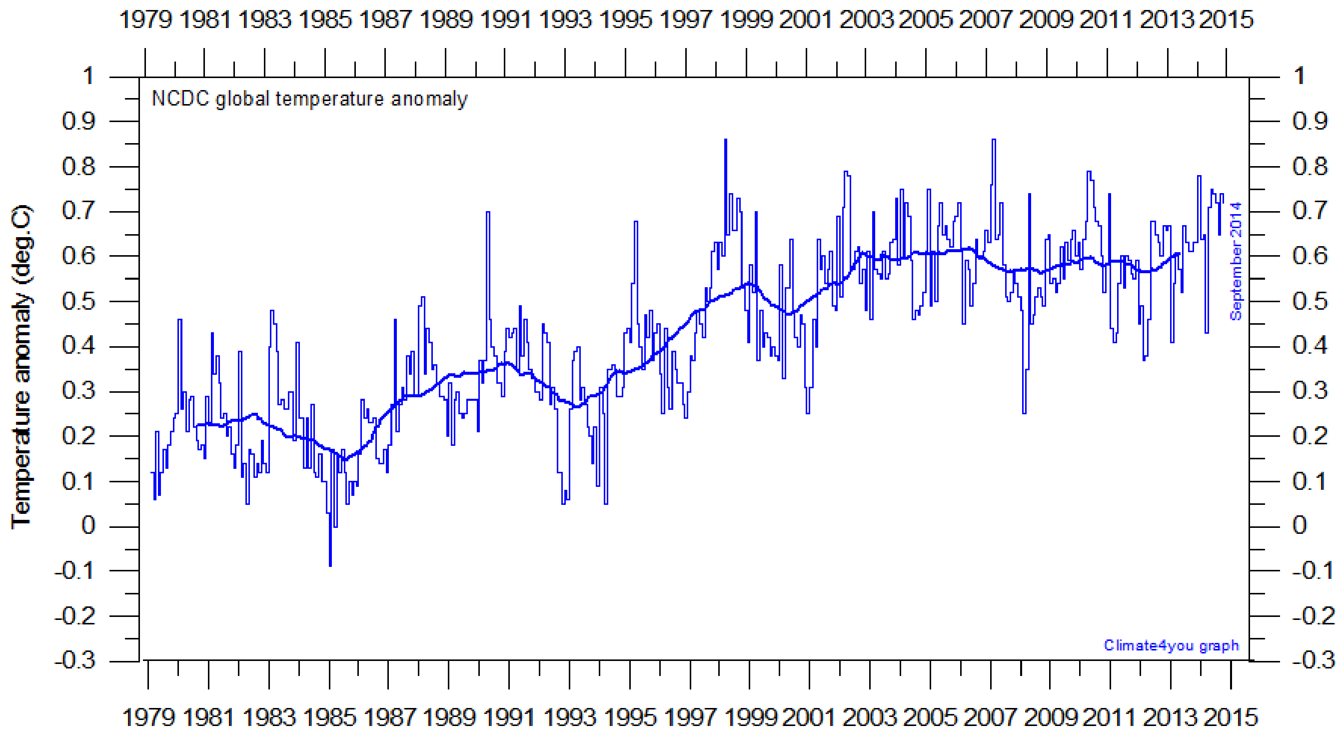
Global surface air temperature, updated to September 2014



Global monthly average surface air temperature (thin line) since 1979 according to according to the Hadley Centre for Climate Prediction and Research and the University of East Anglia's [Climatic Research Unit](#) ([CRU](#)), UK. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average. Version HadCRUT4 (blue) is now replacing HadCRUT3 (red). Please note that this diagram is not yet updated beyond August 2013.



Global monthly average surface air temperature (thin line) since 1979 according to according to the [Goddard Institute for Space Studies](#) (GISS), at Columbia University, New York City, USA. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.



Global monthly average surface air temperature since 1979 according to according to the National Climatic Data Center (NCDC), USA. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

A note on data record stability:

All the above temperature estimates display changes when one compare with previous monthly data sets, not only for the most recent months as a result of supplementary data being added, but actually for all months back to the very beginning of the records, more than 100 years ago. Presumably this reflects recognition of errors, changes in the averaging procedure, and the influence of other unknown phenomena.

None of the temperature records are entirely stable over time (since 2008). The two surface air temperature records, NCDC and GISS, show apparent systematic changes over time. This is exemplified the diagram on the following page showing the changes since May 2008 in the NCDC global surface temperature record for January 1915 and January 2000, illustrating how the difference between the early and late part of the temperature records gradually is growing by administrative adjustments.

You can find more on the issue of lack of temporal stability on www.climate4you (go to: *Global Temperature*, followed by *Temporal Stability*).

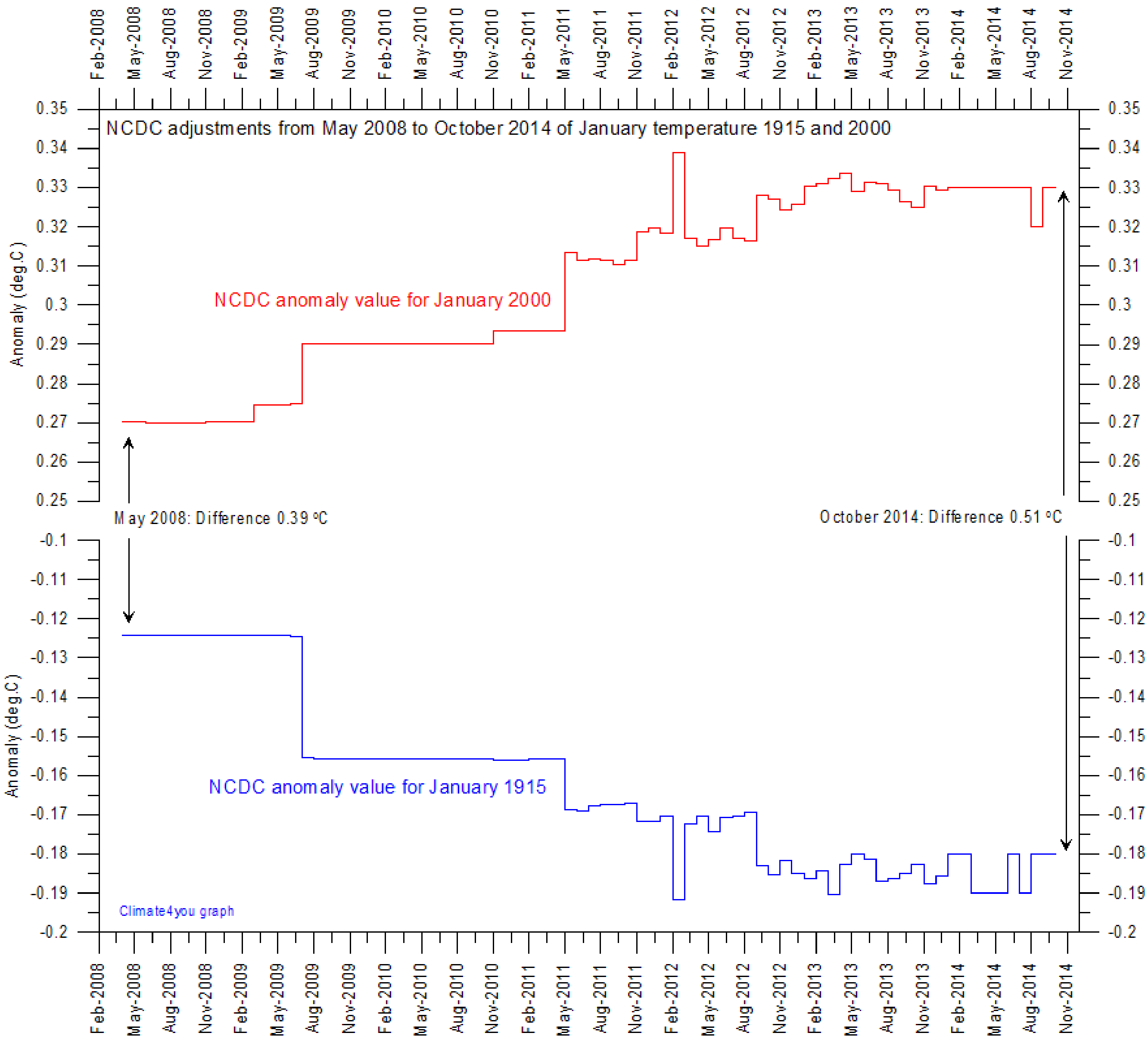


Diagram showing the adjustment made since May 2008 by the [National Climatic Data Center](#) (NCDC) in the anomaly values for the two months January 1915 and January 2000.

<u>Note:</u> The administrative upsurge of the temperature increase between January 1915 and January 2000 has grown from 0.39 (May 2008) to 0.51 °C (September 2014), representing an about 31% administrative temperature increase over this period.

Global air temperature linear trends updated to August 2014

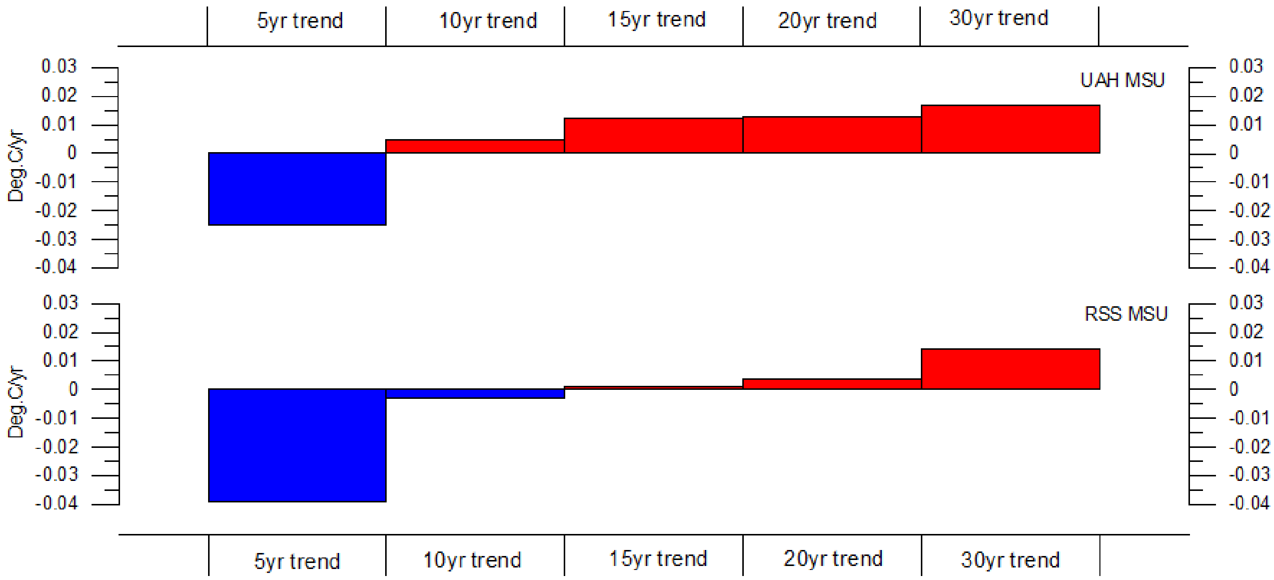


Diagram showing the latest 5, 10, 20 and 30 yr linear annual global temperature trend, calculated as the slope of the linear regression line through the data points, for two satellite-based temperature estimates (UAH MSU and RSS MSU). Last month included in analysis: August 2014.

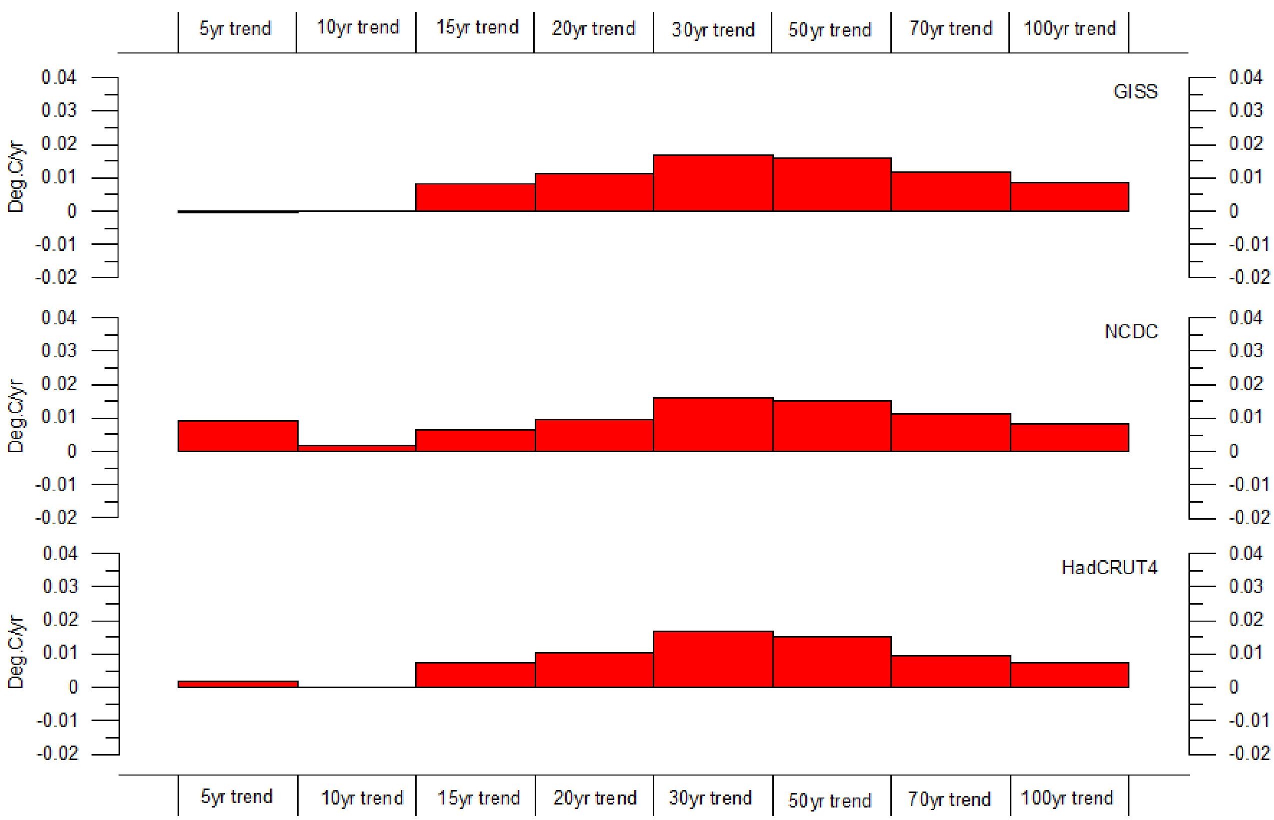
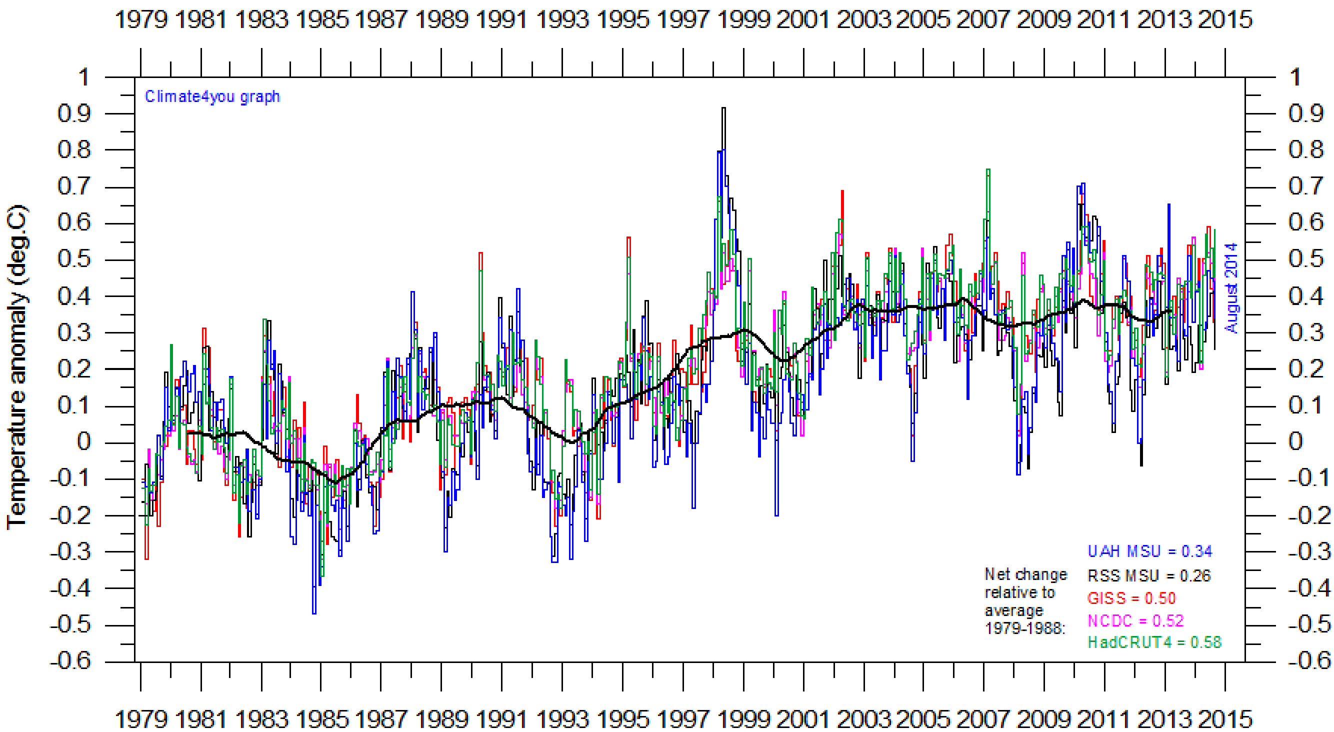


Diagram showing the latest 5, 10, 20, 30, 50, 70 and 100 year linear annual global temperature trend, calculated as the slope of the linear regression line through the data points, for three surface-based temperature estimates (GISS, NCDC and HadCRUT4). Last month included in all analyses: August 2014.

All in one, updated to August 2014

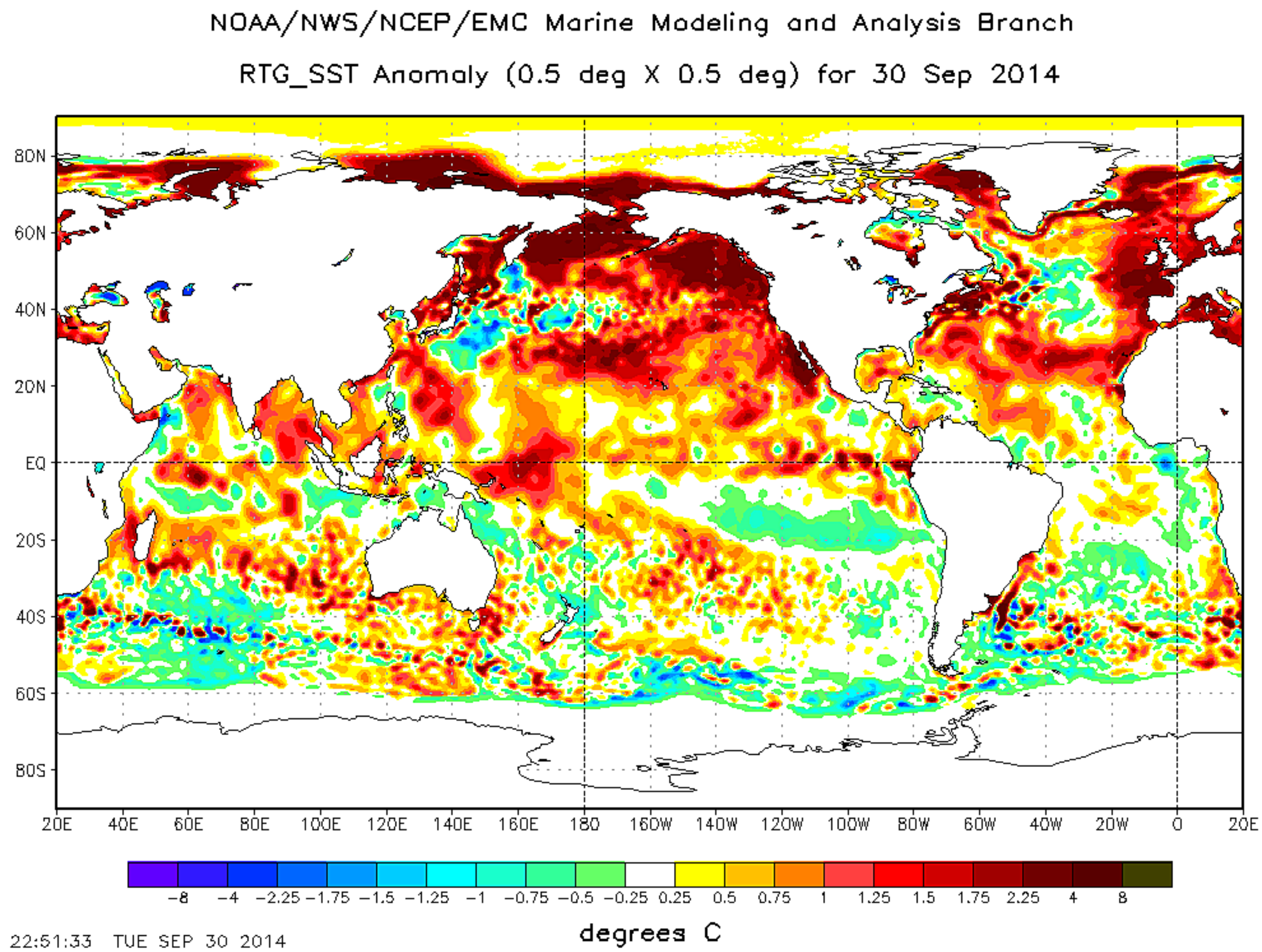


Superimposed plot of all five global monthly temperature estimates. As the base period differs for the individual temperature estimates, they have all been normalised by comparing with the average value of the initial 120 months (10 years) from January 1979 to December 1988. The heavy black line represents the simple running 37 month (c. 3 year) mean of the average of all five temperature records. The numbers shown in the lower right corner represent the temperature anomaly relative to the individual 1979-1988 averages.

It should be kept in mind that satellite- and surface-based temperature estimates are derived from different types of measurements, and that comparing them directly as done in the diagram above therefore may be somewhat problematical. However, as both types of estimate often are discussed together, the above diagram may nevertheless be of some interest. In fact, the different types of temperature estimates appear to agree quite well as to the overall temperature variations on a 2-3 year scale, although on a shorter time scale there are often considerable differences between the individual records.

All five global temperature estimates presently show an overall stagnation, at least since 2002. There has been no increase in global air temperature since 1998, which however was affected by the oceanographic El Niño event. This stagnation does not exclude the possibility that global temperatures will begin to increase again later. On the other hand, it also remain a possibility that Earth just now is passing a temperature peak, and that global temperatures will begin to decrease during the coming years. Time will show which of these two possibilities is correct.

Global sea surface temperature, updated to late September 2014



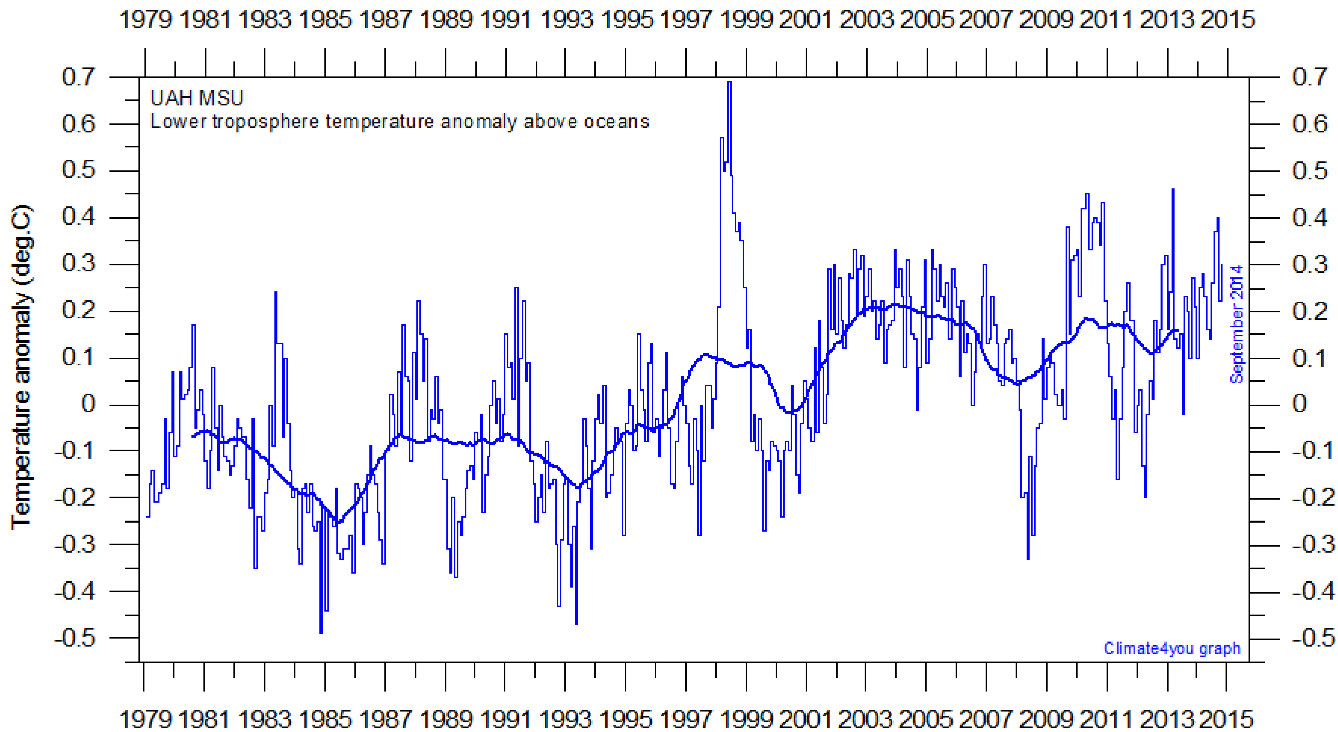
Sea surface temperature anomaly on 30 September 2014. Map source: National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NOAA).

Because of the large surface areas near Equator, the temperature of the surface water in these regions is especially important for the global atmospheric temperature (p.4-6).

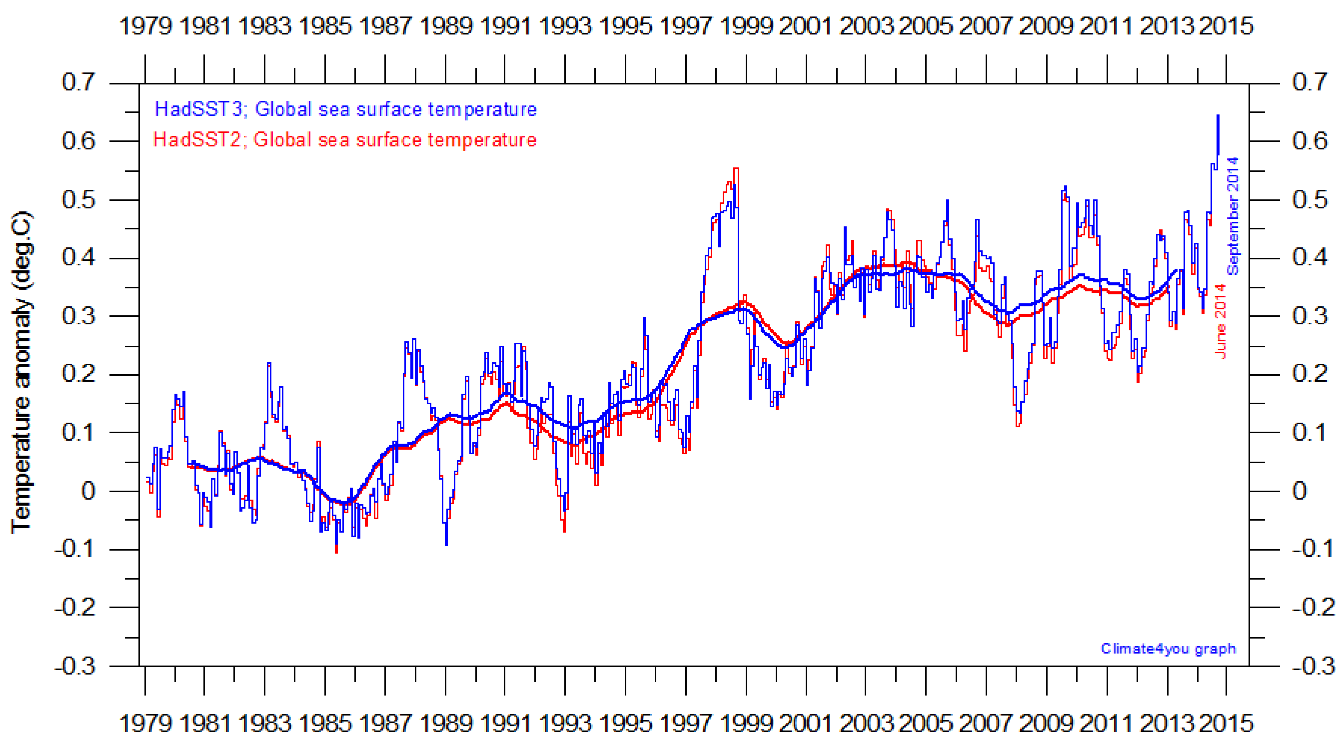
Relatively warm water is dominating the Pacific Ocean and Indian Ocean near the Equator, and is influencing global air temperatures now and in the months to come.

The significance of any such short-term cooling or warming reflected in air temperatures should not be over stated. Whenever Earth experiences cold La Niña or warm El Niño episodes (Pacific Ocean) major heat exchanges takes place between the Pacific Ocean and the atmosphere above, eventually showing up in estimates of the global air temperature.

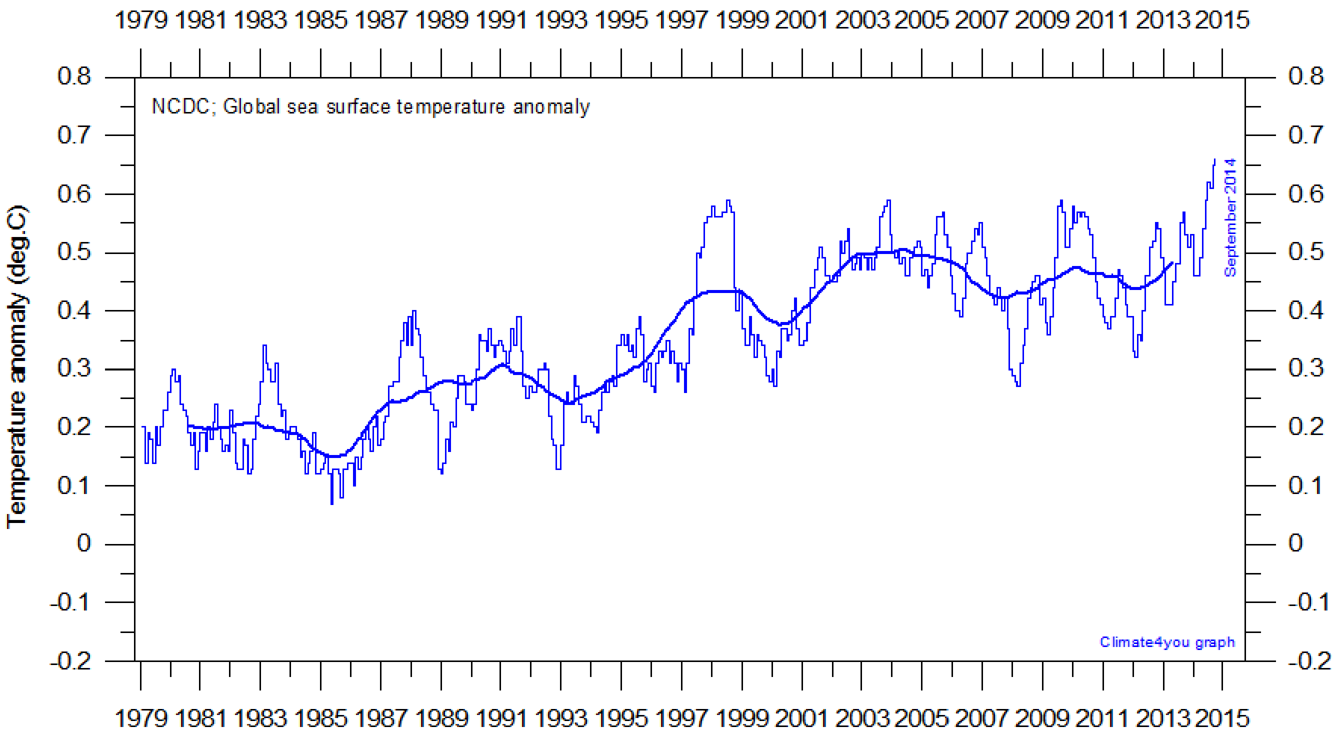
However, this does not reflect similar changes in the total heat content of the atmosphere-ocean system. In fact, global net changes can be small and such heat exchanges may mainly reflect redistribution of energy between ocean and atmosphere. What matters is the overall temperature development when seen over a number of years.



Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature over oceans (thin line) since 1979 according to University of Alabama at Huntsville, USA. The thick line is the simple running 37 month average.

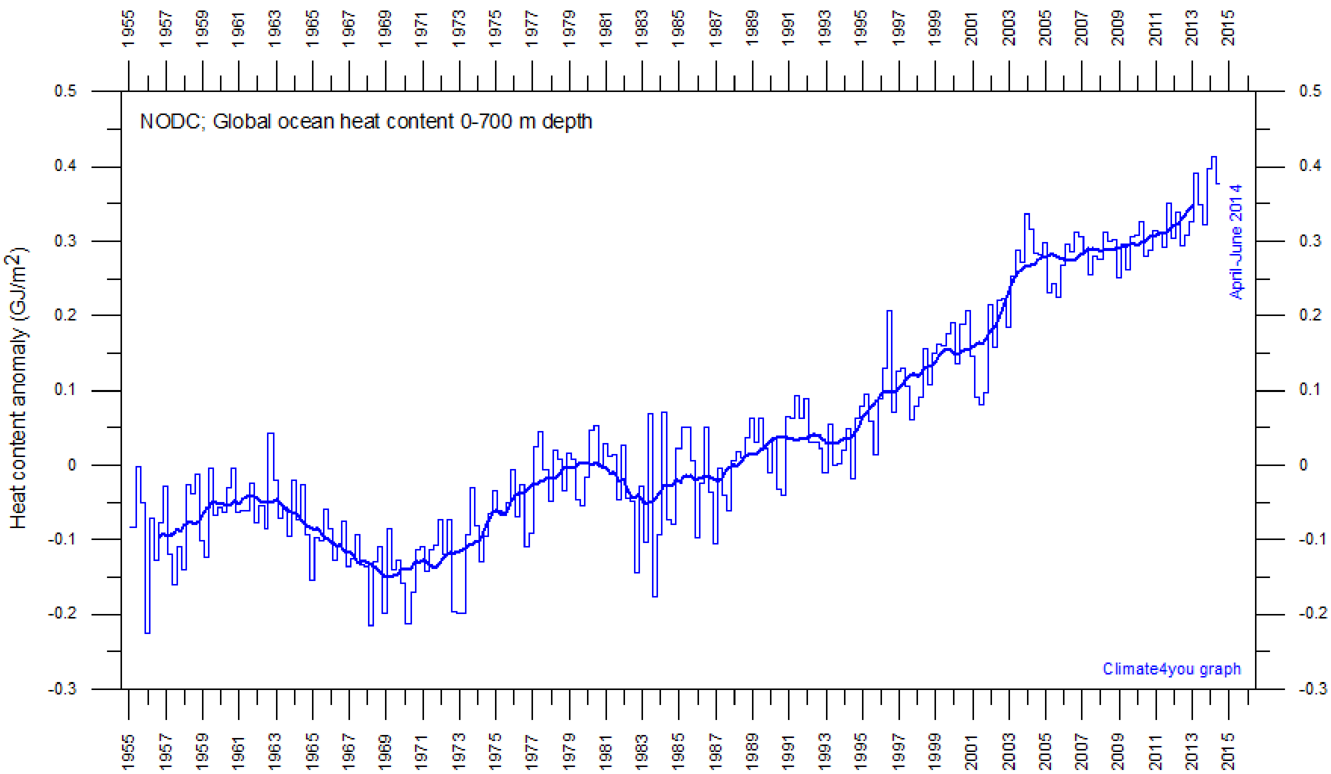


Global monthly average sea surface temperature since 1979 according to University of East Anglia's Climatic Research Unit (CRU), UK. Base period: 1961-1990. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

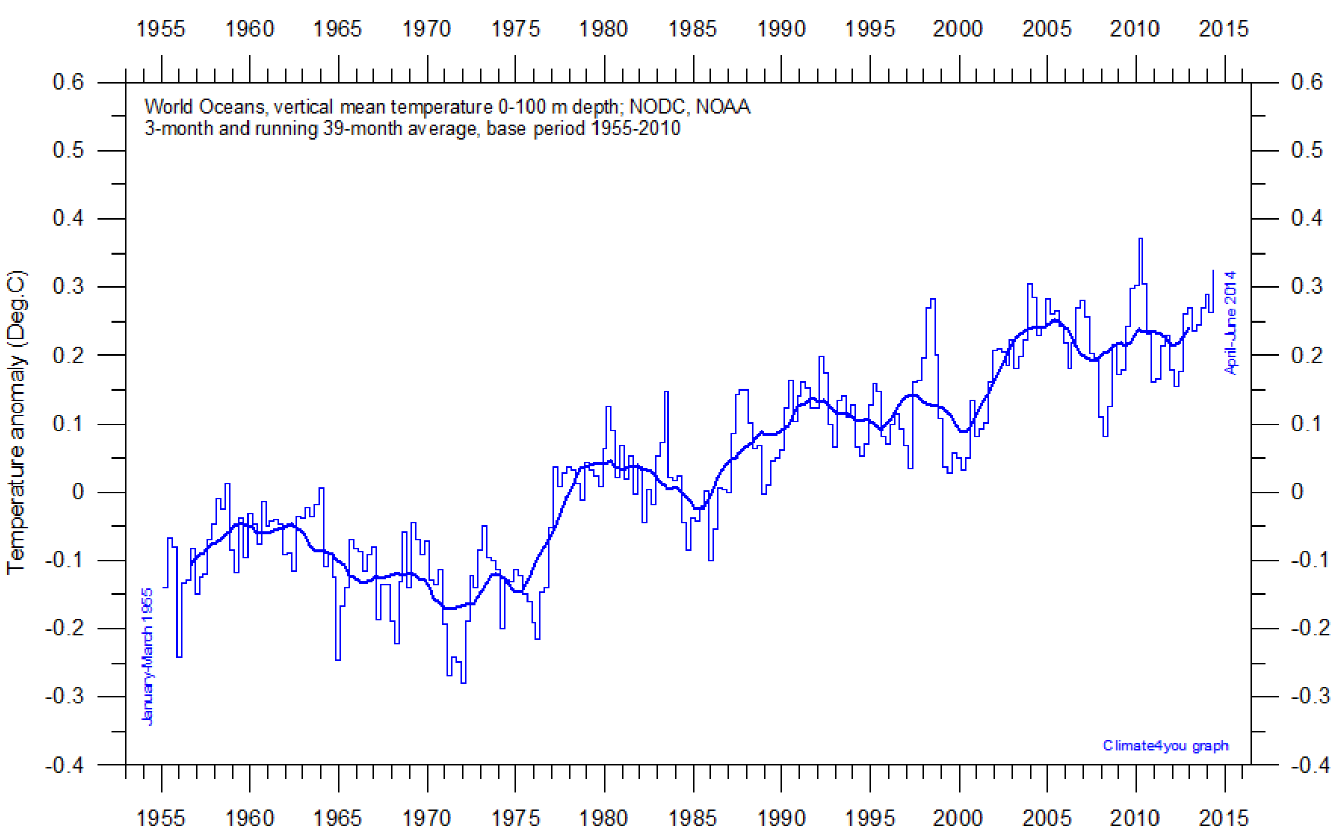


Global monthly average sea surface temperature since 1979 according to the [National Climatic Data Center](#) (NCDC), USA. Base period: 1901-2000. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

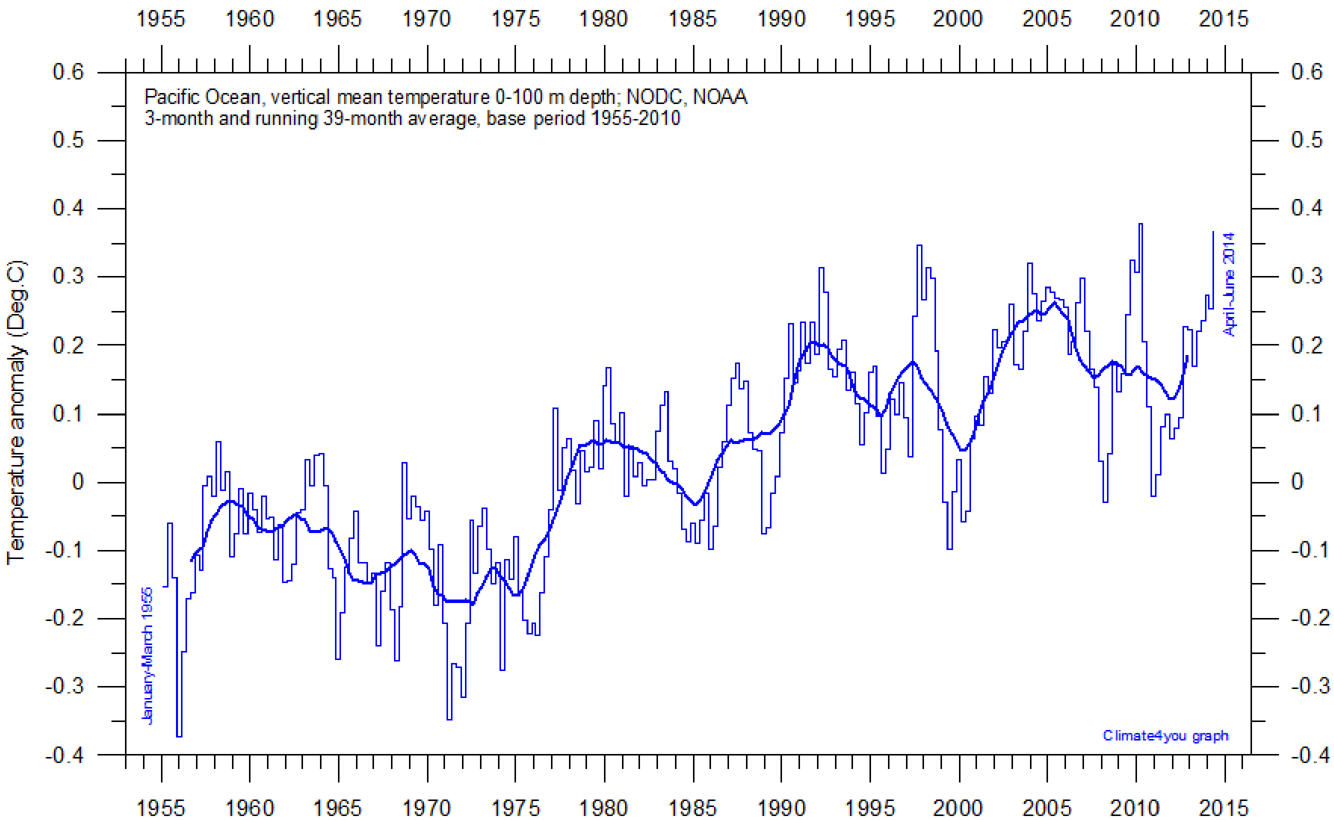
Ocean heat content uppermost 100 and 700 m, updated to June 2014



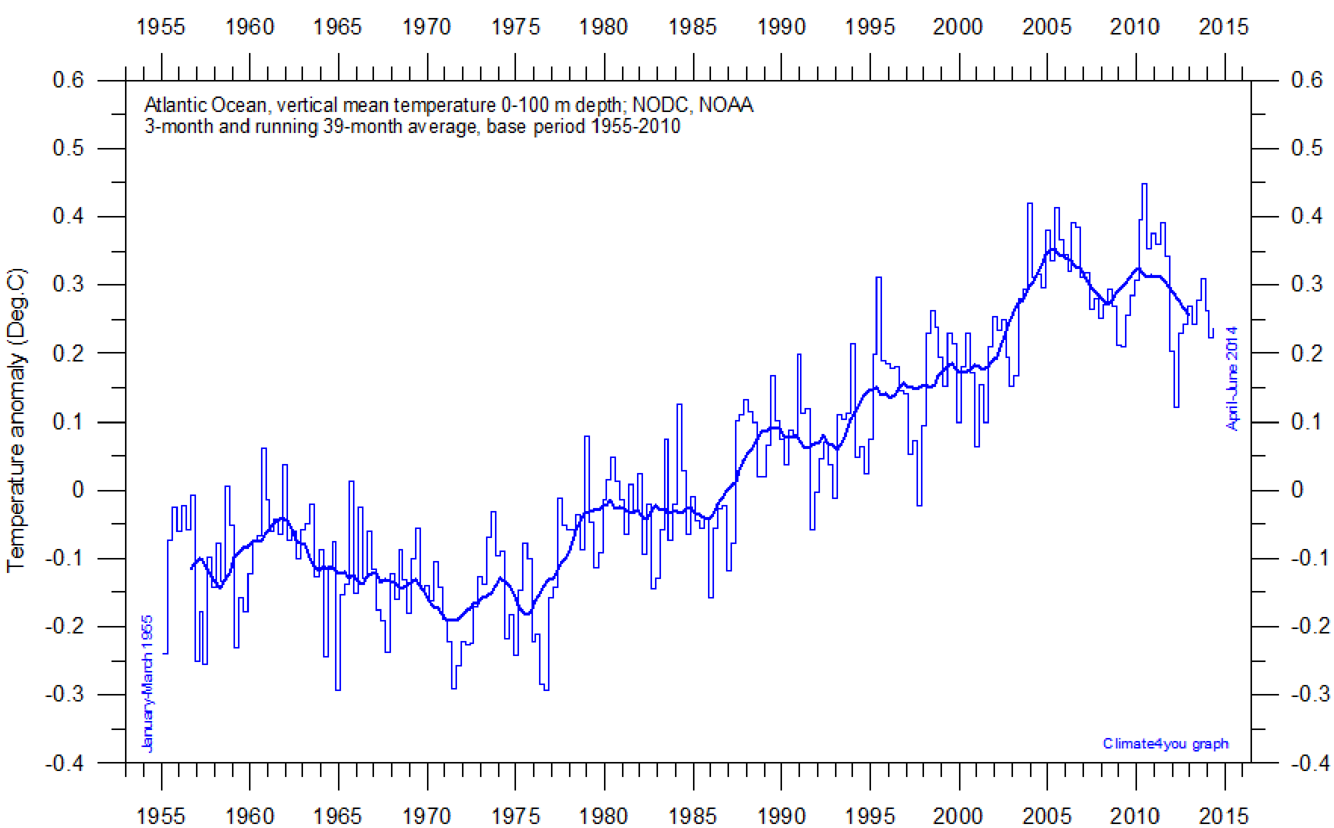
Global monthly heat content anomaly (GJ/m2) in the uppermost 700 m of the oceans since January 1955. Data source: National Oceanographic Data Center(NODC).



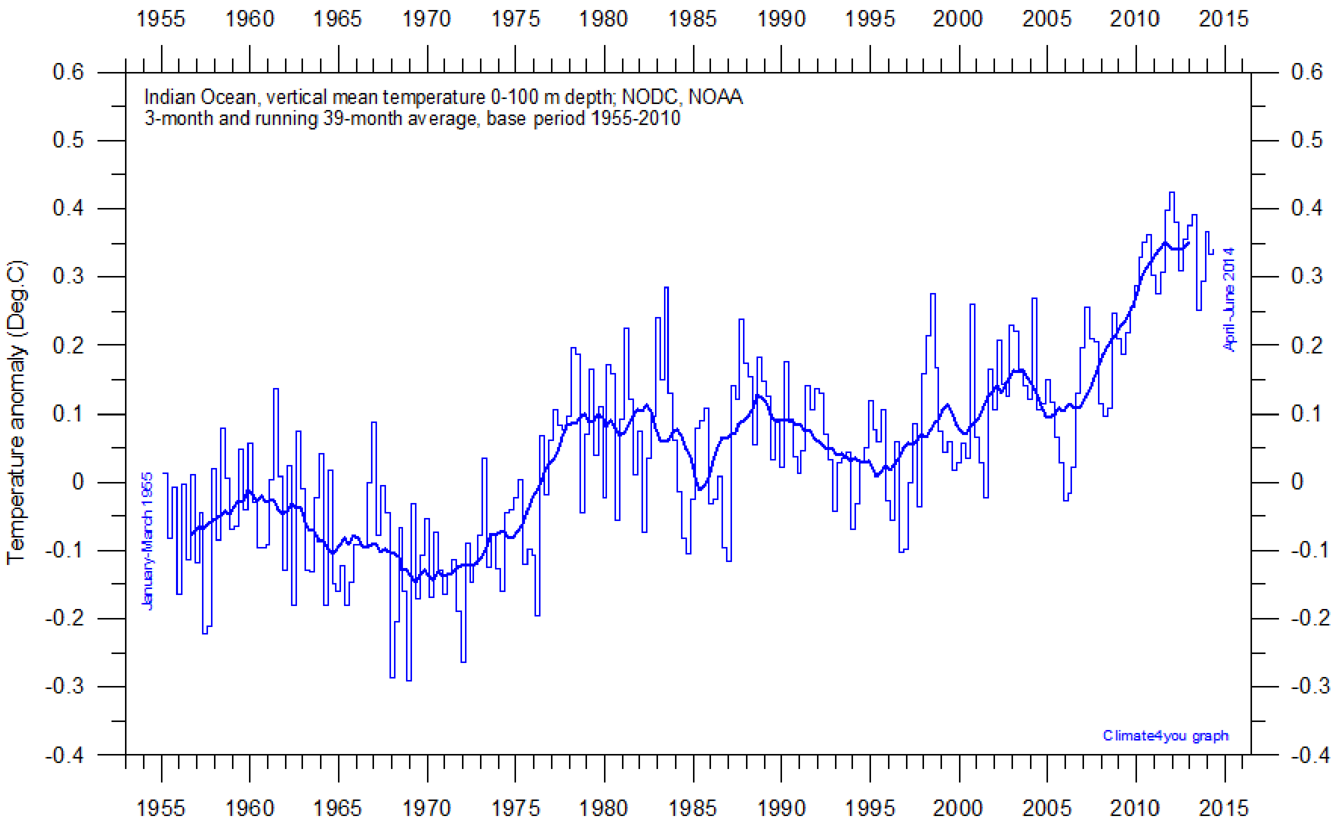
World Oceans vertical average temperature 0-100 m depth since 1955. The thin line indicate 3-month values, and the thick line represents the simple running 39-month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: [NOAA National Oceanographic Data Center](#) (NODC). Base period 1955-2010.



Pacific Ocean vertical average temperature 0-100 m depth since 1955. The thin line indicate 3-month values, and the thick line represents the simple running 39-month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: NOAA National Oceanographic Data Center (NODC). Base period 1955-2010.

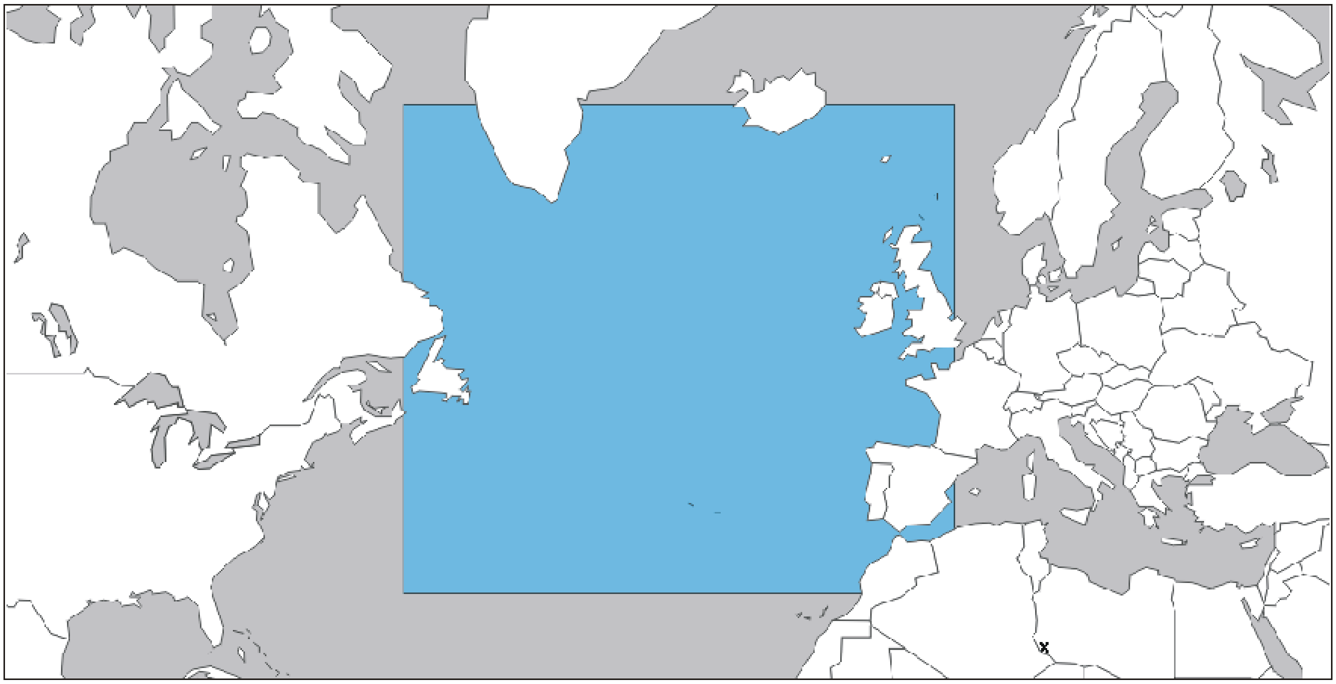


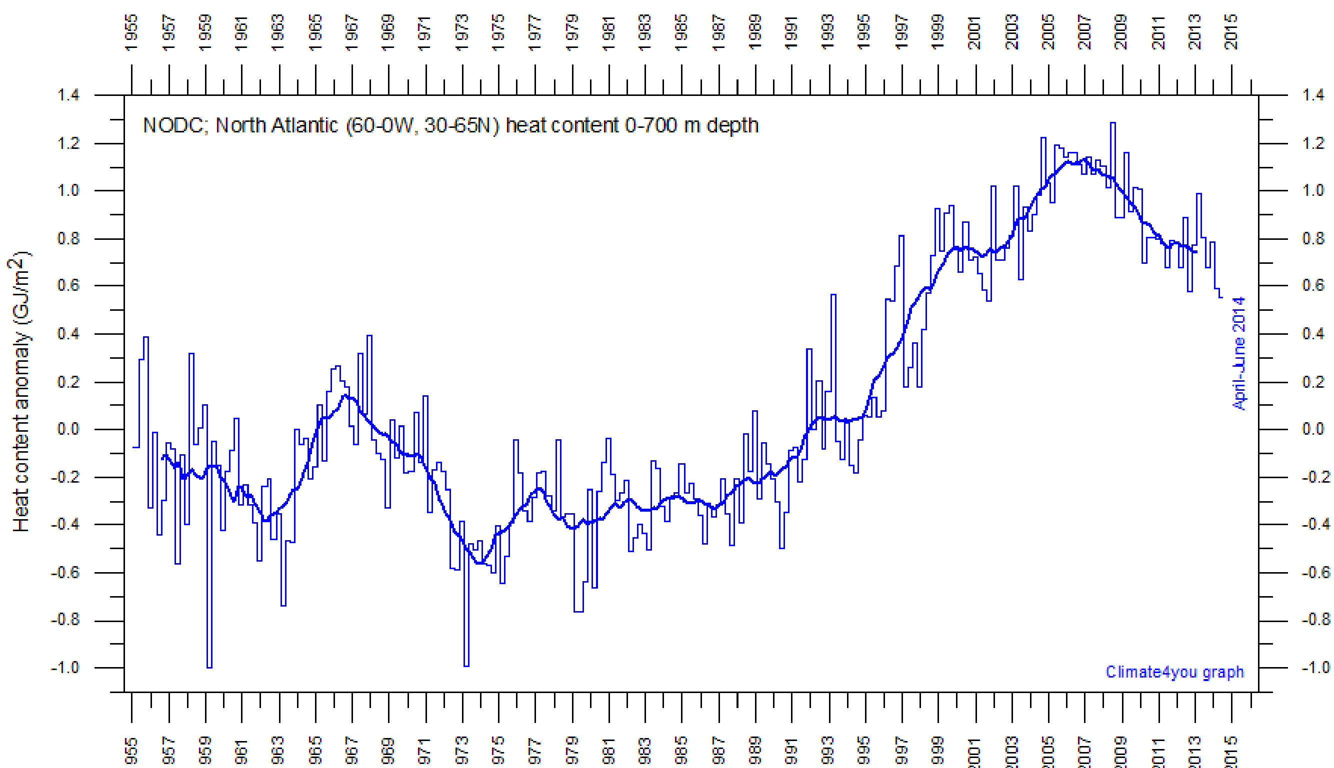
Atlantic Ocean vertical average temperature 0-100 m depth since 1955. The thin line indicate 3-month values, and the thick line represents the simple running 39-month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: NOAA National Oceanographic Data Center (NODC). Base period 1955-2010.



Indian Ocean vertical average temperature 0-100 m depth since 1955. The thin line indicate 3-month values, and the thick line represents the simple running 39-month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: [NOAA National Oceanographic Data Center](#) (NODC). Base period 1955-2010.

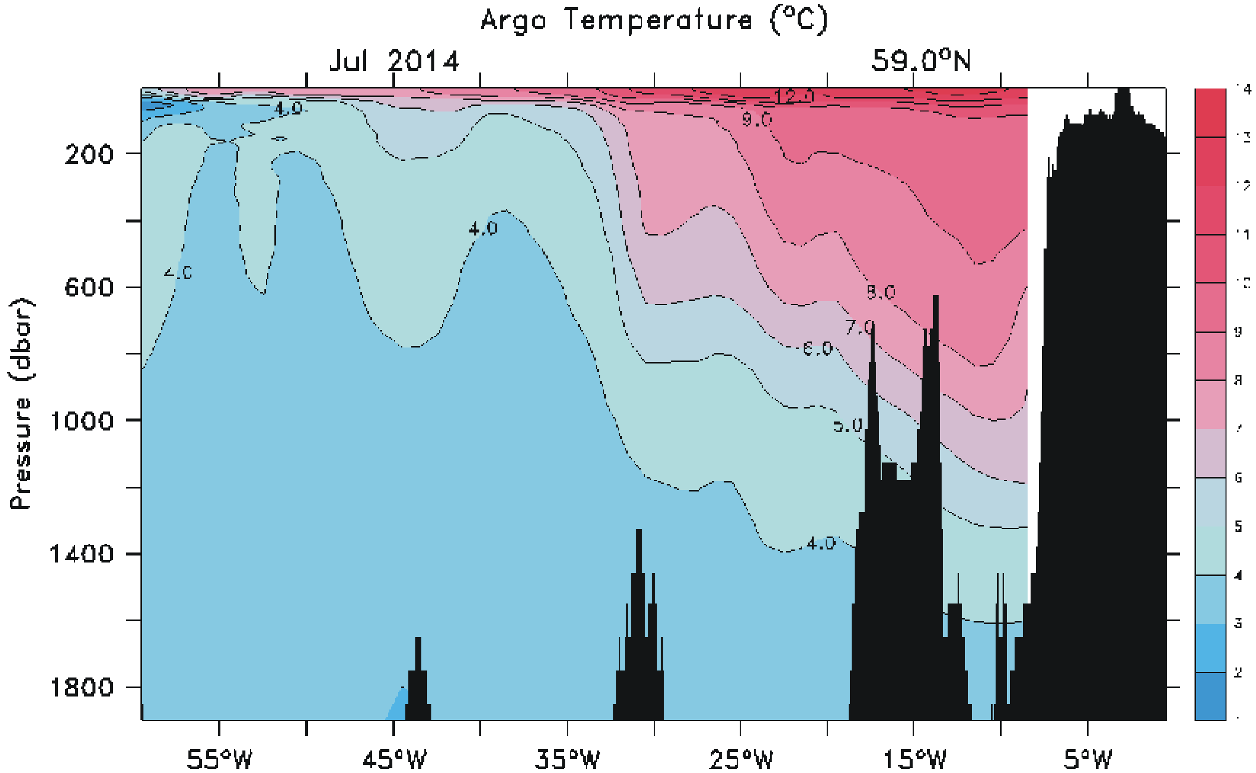
North Atlantic heat content uppermost 700 m, updated to June 2014

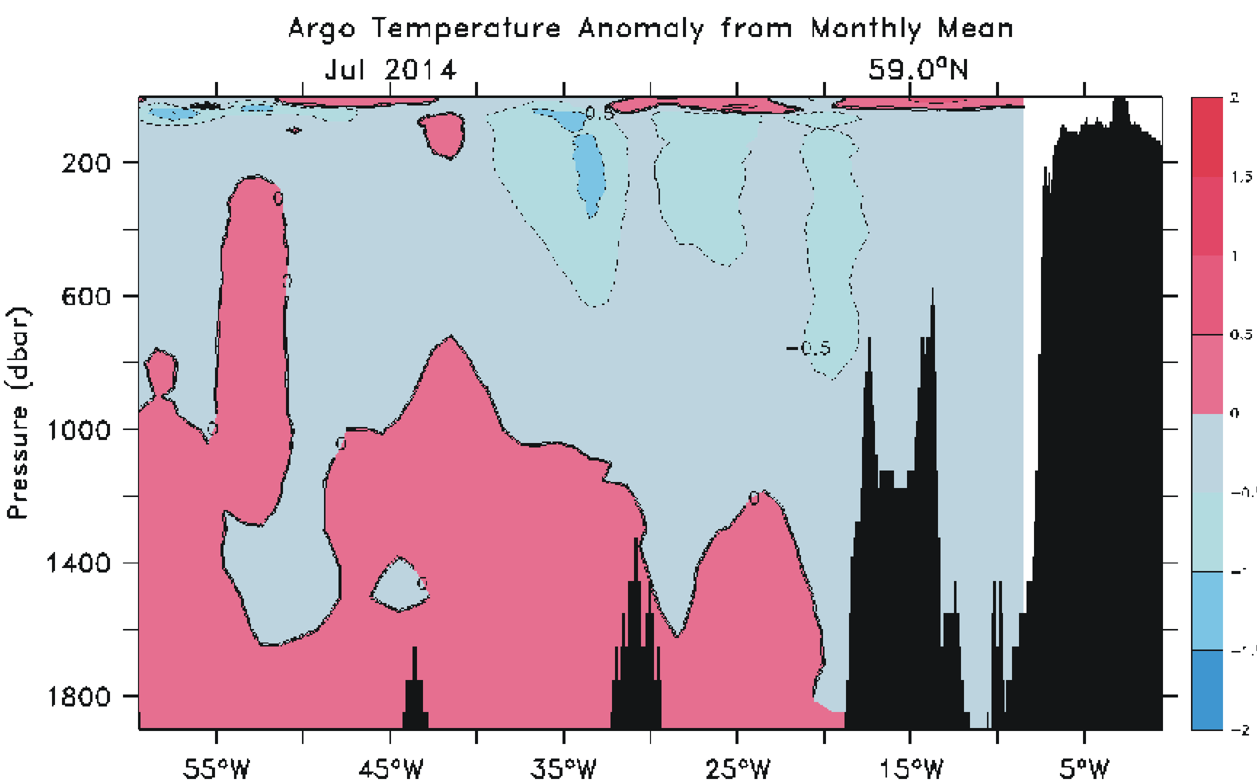




Global monthly heat content anomaly (GJ/m2) in the uppermost 700 m of the North Atlantic (60-0W, 30-65N; see map above) *ocean since January 1955. The thin line indicates monthly values, and the thick line represents the simple running 37 month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: National Oceanographic Data Center (NODC).*

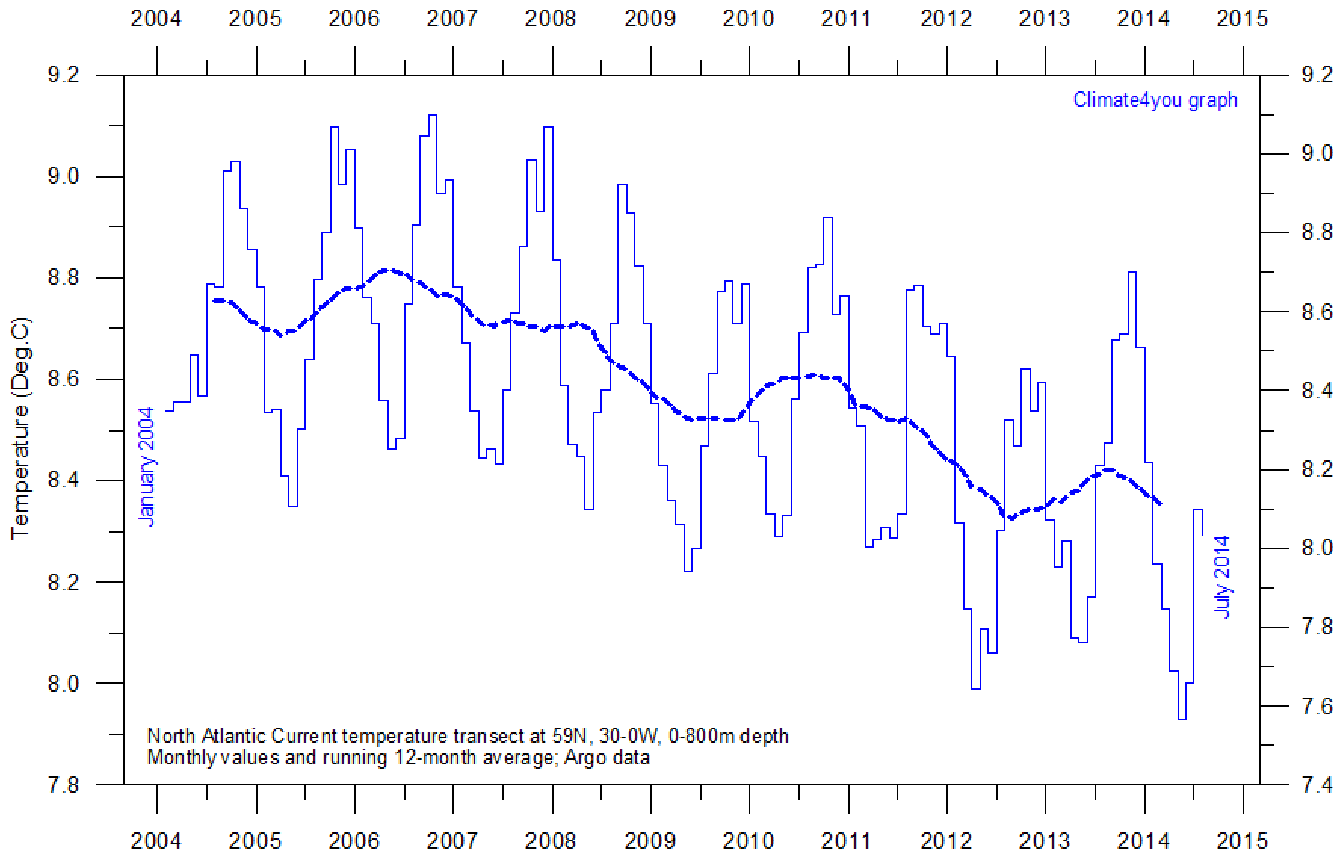
North Atlantic sea temperatures along 59N, updated to July 2014





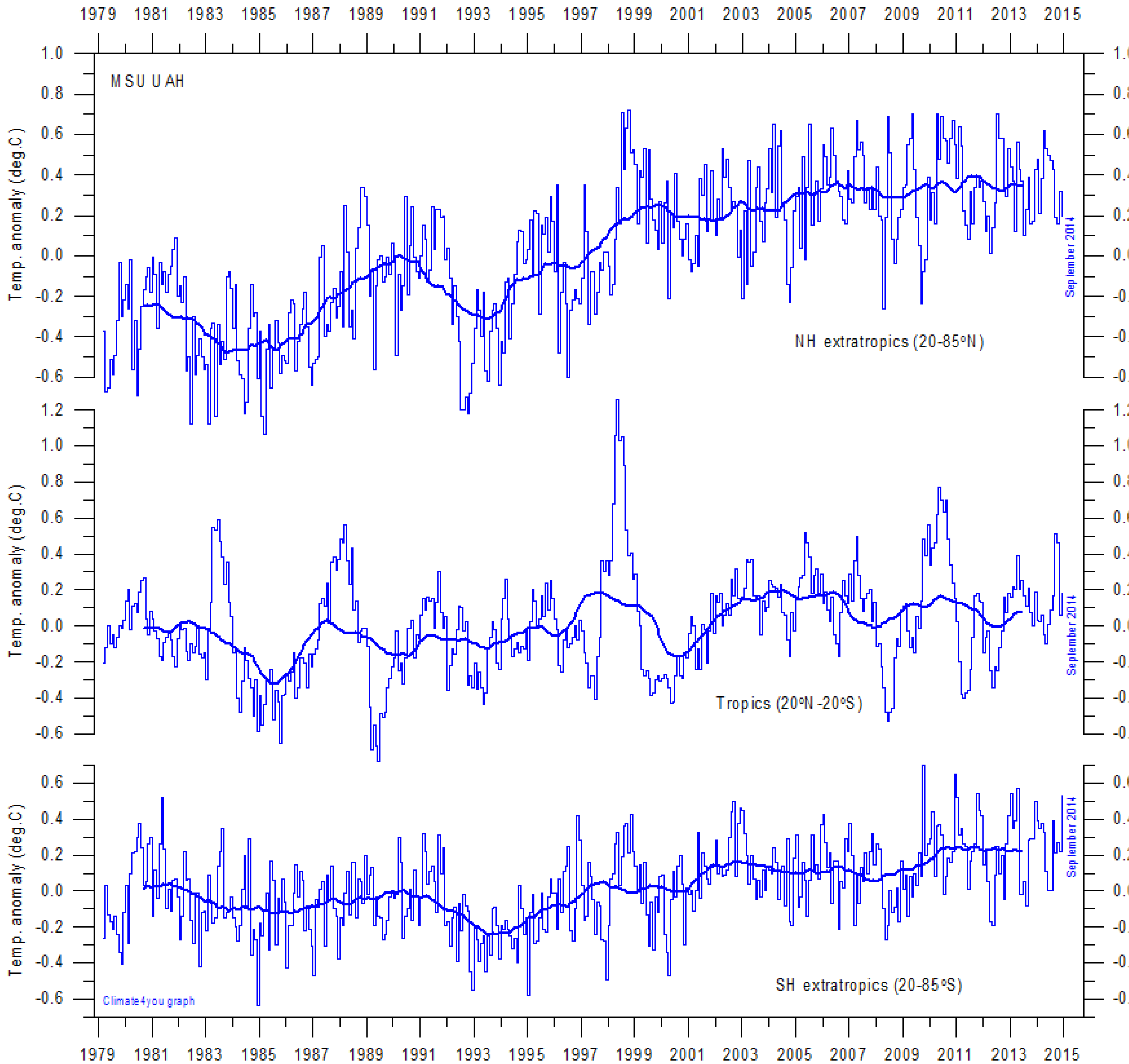
Depth-temperature diagram along 59 N across the North Atlantic, extending from northern Labrador in the west to northern Scotland in the east, using Argo-data. The uppermost panel shows the temperature, and the lower diagram shows the temperature anomaly, using the monthly average temperature 2004-2013 as reference. Source: Global Marine Argo Atlas.

North Atlantic sea temperatures 30-0W at 59N, updated to July 2014



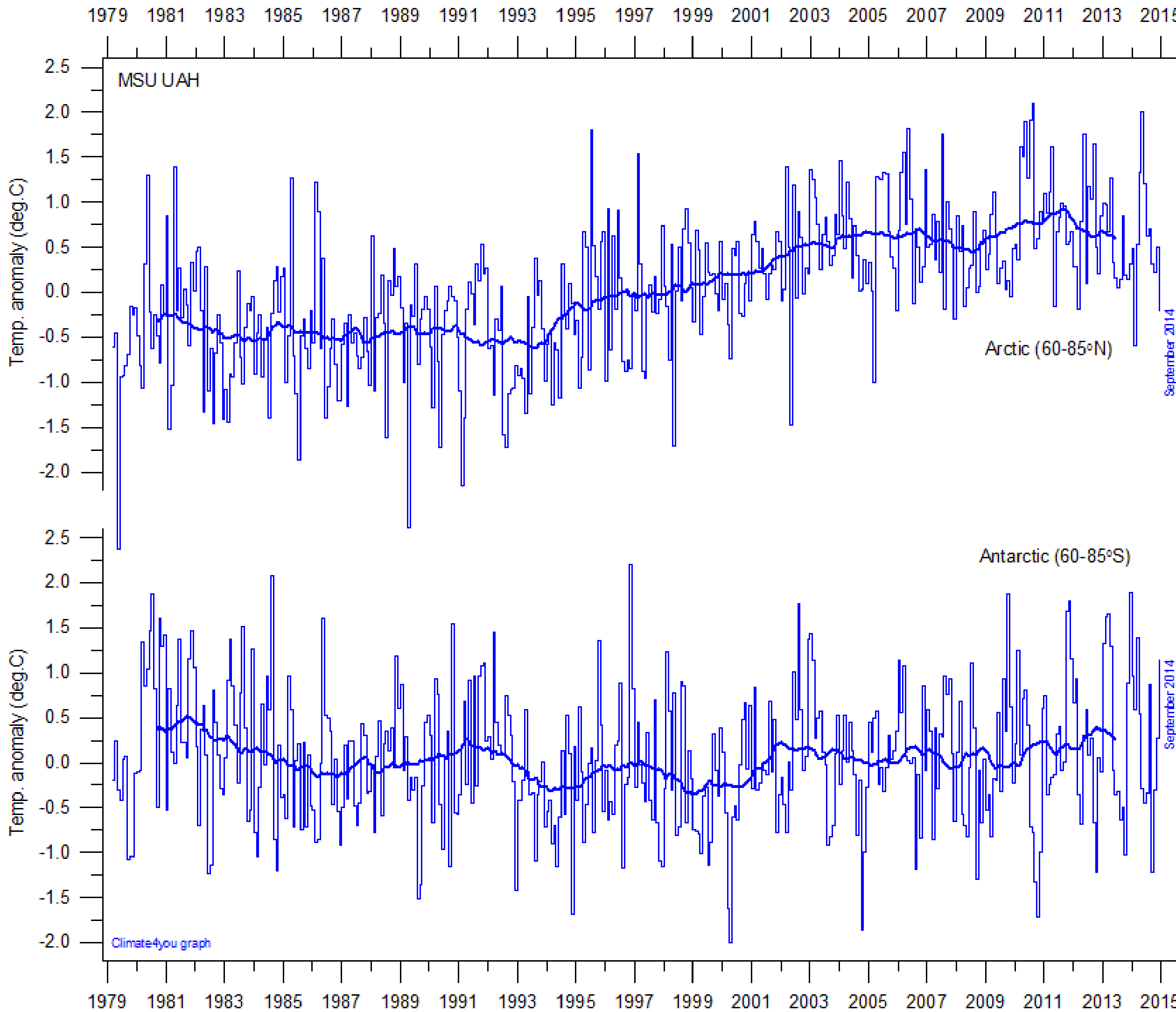
Average temperature along 59 N, 30-0W, 0-800m depth, corresponding to the main part of the North Atlantic Current, using [Argo](#)-data. Source: [Global Marine Argo Atlas](#). Additional information can be found in: Roemmich, D. and J. Gilson, 2009. The 2004-2008 mean and annual cycle of temperature, salinity, and steric height in the global ocean from the Argo Program. [Progress in Oceanography](#), 82, 81-100.

Zonal lower troposphere temperatures from satellites, updated to September 2014



Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature since 1979 for the tropics and the northern and southern extratropics, according to [University of Alabama](#) at Huntsville, USA. Thin lines show the monthly temperature. Thick lines represent the simple running 37-month average, nearly corresponding to a running 3 yr average. Reference period 1981-2010.

Arctic and Antarctic lower troposphere temperature, updated to September 2014



Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature since 1979 for the North Pole and South Pole regions, based on satellite observations ([University of Alabama](#) at Huntsville, USA). Thin lines show the monthly temperature. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average, nearly corresponding to a running 3 yr average.

Arctic and Antarctic surface air temperature, updated to August 2014

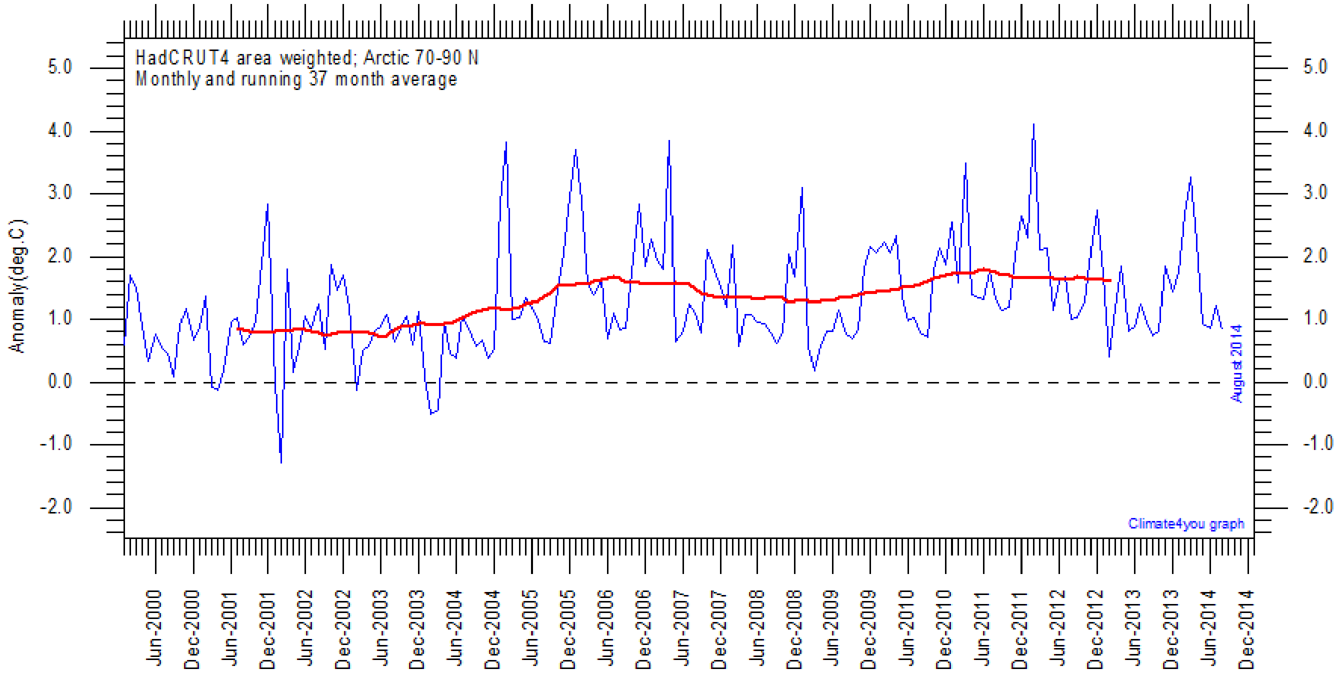


Diagram showing area weighted Arctic (70-90ºN) monthly surface air temperature anomalies (HadCRUT4) since January 2000, in relation to the WMO normal period 1961-1990. The thin blue line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker red line shows the running 37 month (c.3 yr) average.

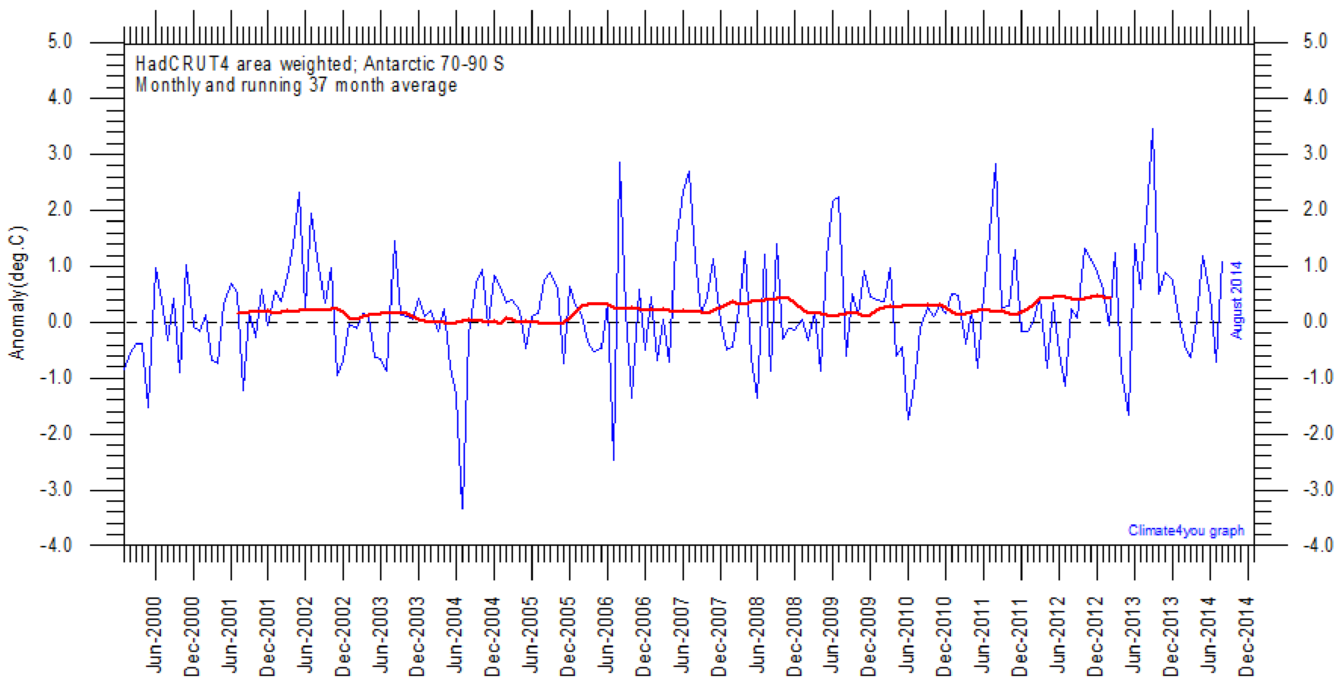


Diagram showing area weighted Antarctic (70-90ºN) monthly surface air temperature anomalies (HadCRUT4) since January 2000, in relation to the WMO normal period 1961-1990. The thin blue line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker red line shows the running 37 month (c.3 yr) average.

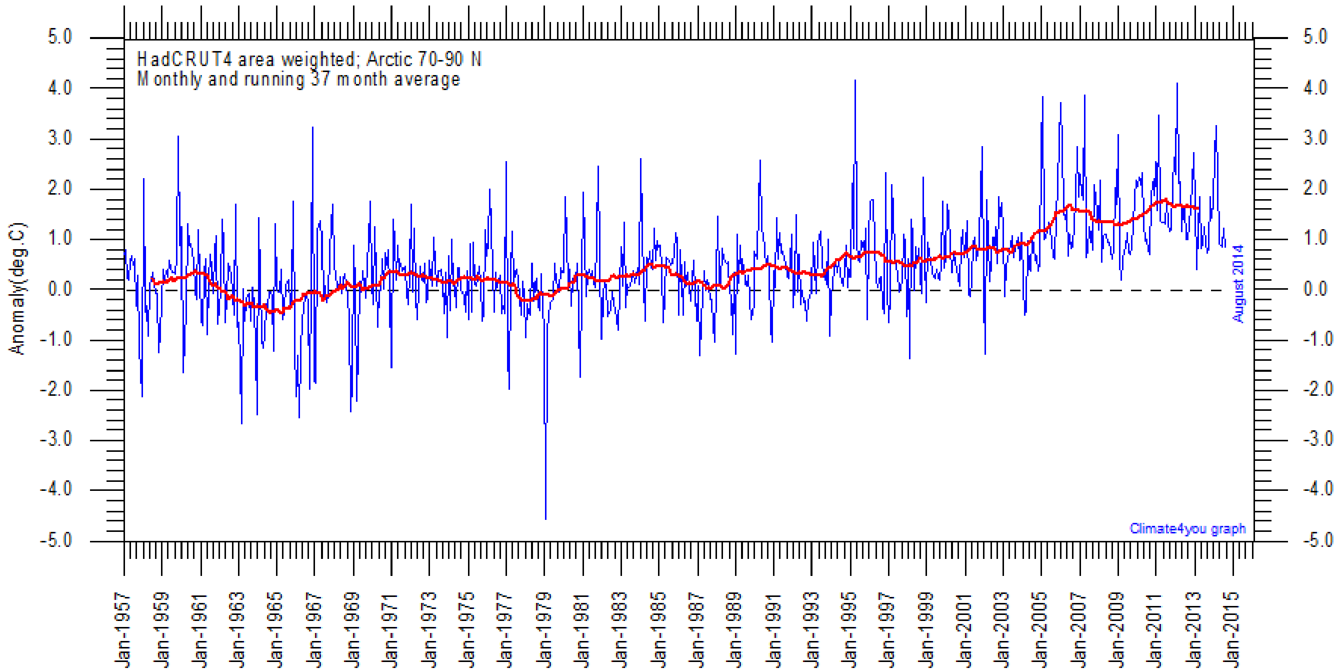


Diagram showing area weighted Arctic (70-90°N) monthly surface air temperature anomalies ([HadCRUT4]) since January 1957, in relation to the WMO [normal period] 1961-1990. The thin blue line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker red line shows the running 37 month (c.3 yr) average.

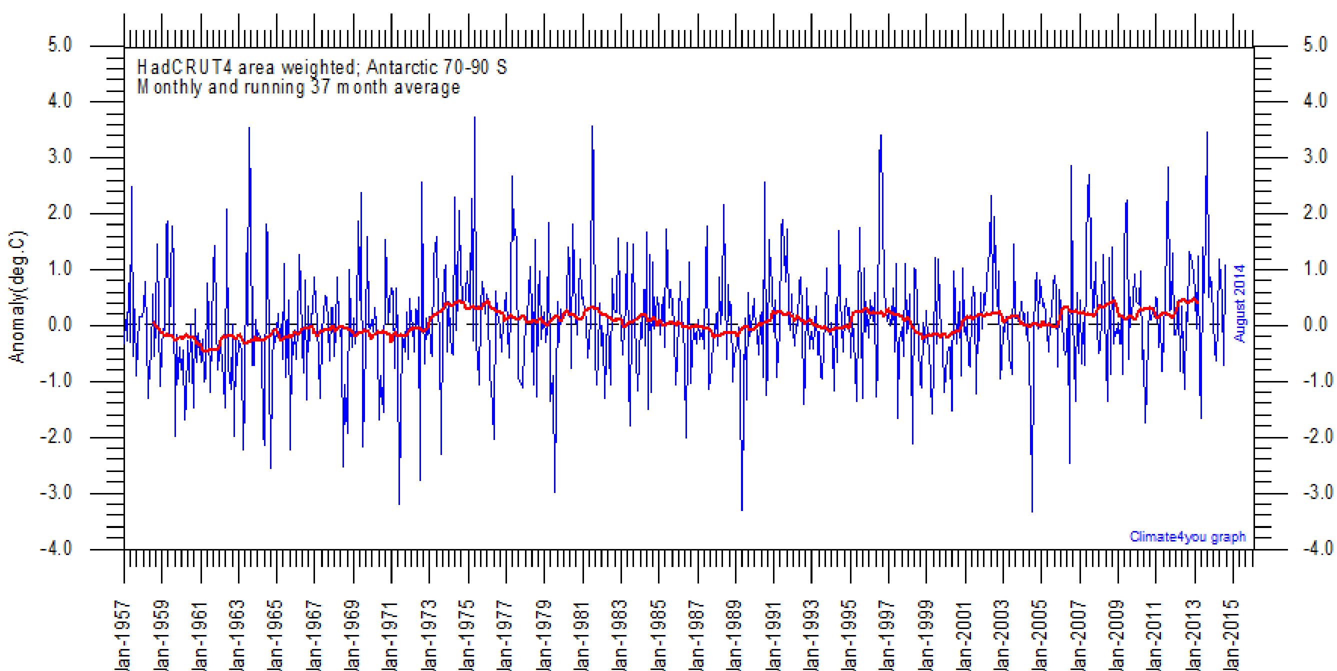


Diagram showing area weighted Antarctic (70-90°N) monthly surface air temperature anomalies ([HadCRUT4]) since January 1957, in relation to the WMO [normal period] 1961-1990. The thin blue line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker red line shows the running 37 month (c.3 yr) average.

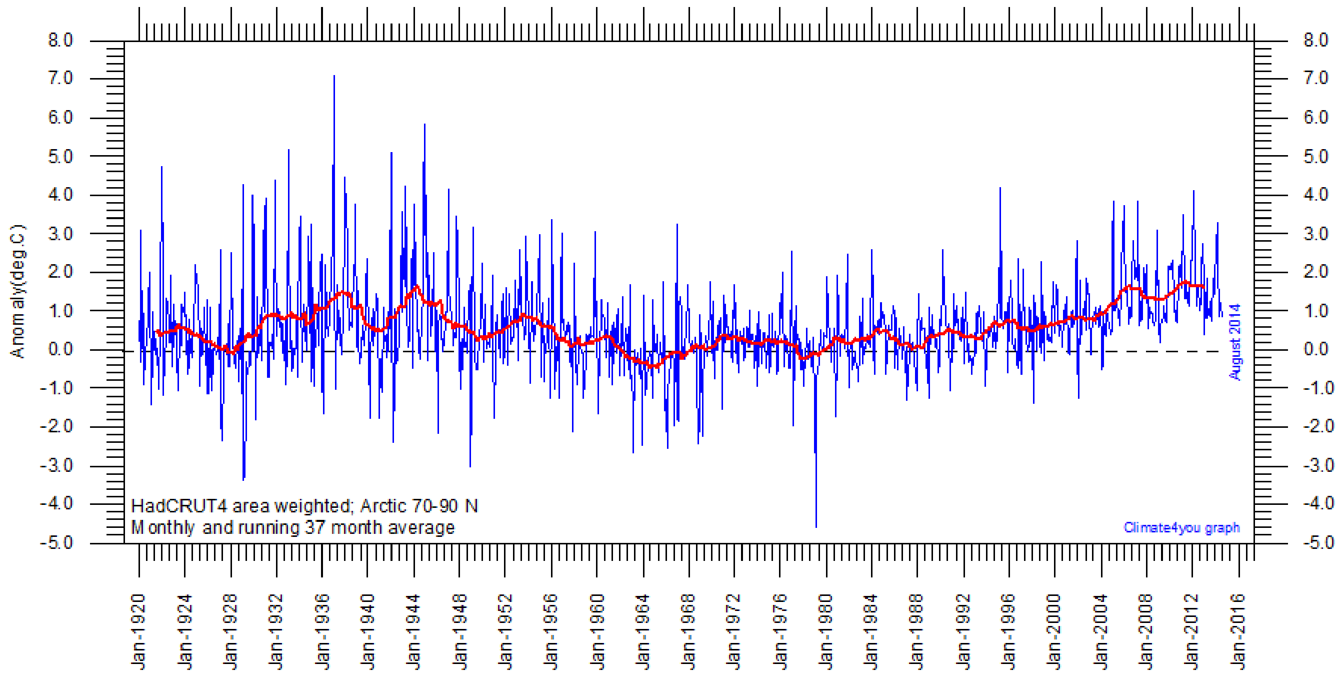


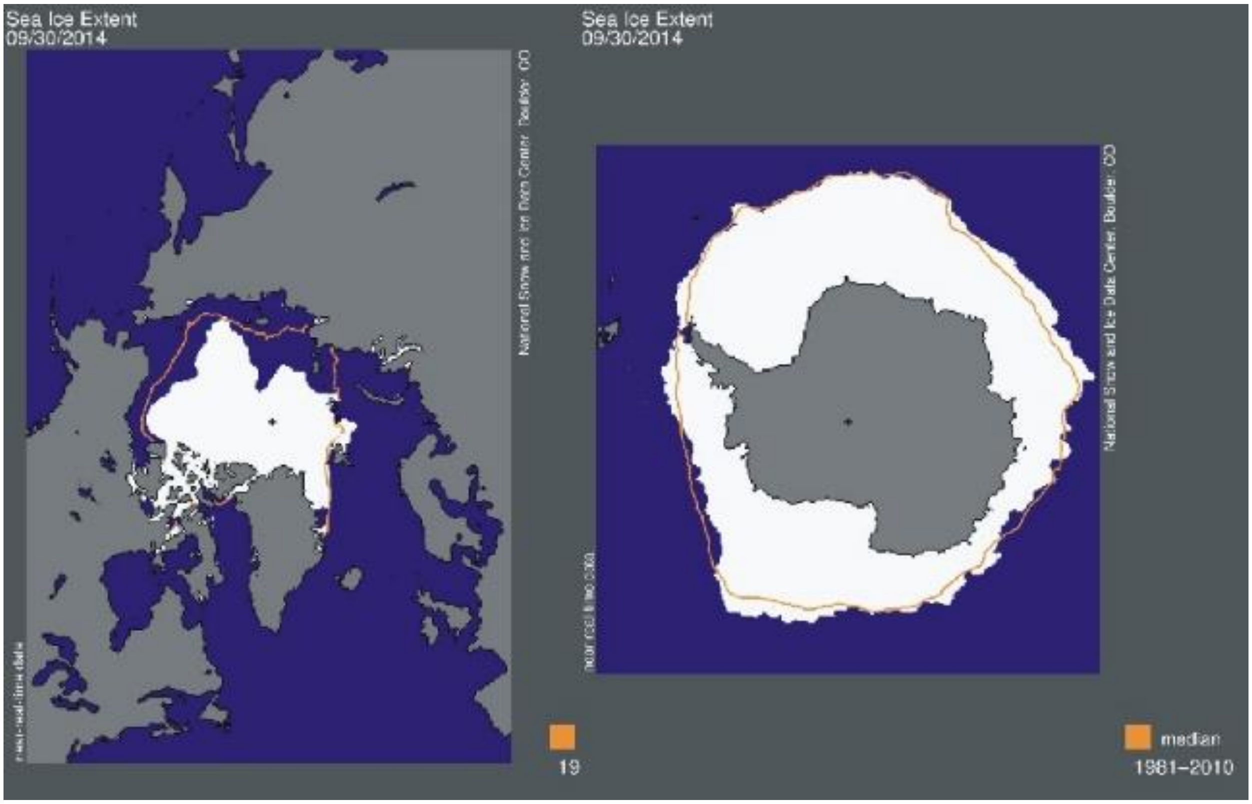
Diagram showing area-weighted Arctic (70-90°N) monthly surface air temperature anomalies (HadCRUT4) since January 1920, in relation to the WMO normal period 1961-1990. The thin blue line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker red line shows the running 37 month (c.3 yr) average. Because of the relatively small number of Arctic stations before 1930, month-to-month variations in the early part of the temperature record are larger than later. The period from about 1930 saw the establishment of many new Arctic meteorological stations, first in Russia and Siberia, and following the 2nd World War, also in North America. The period since 2000 is warm, about as warm as the period 1930-1940.

As the HadCRUT4 data series has improved high latitude coverage data coverage (compared to the HadCRUT3 series) the individual 5°x5° grid cells has been weighted according to their surface area. This is in contrast to Gillet et al. 2008 which calculated a simple average, with no consideration to the surface area represented by the individual 5°x5° grid cells.

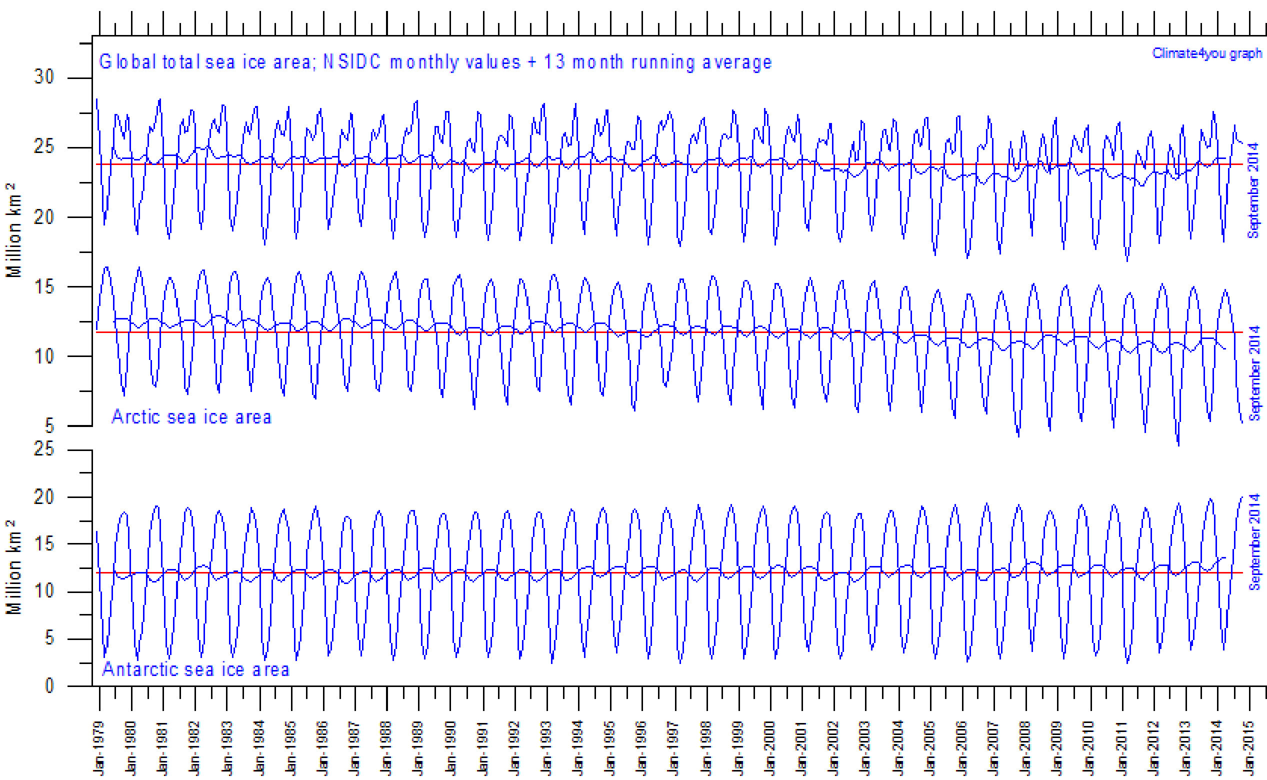
Literature:

Gillett, N.P., Stone, D.A., Stott, P.A., Nozawa, T., Karpechko, A.Y.U., Hegerl, G.C., Wehner, M.F. and Jones, P.D. 2008. Attribution of polar warming to human influence. *Nature Geoscience* 1, 750-754.

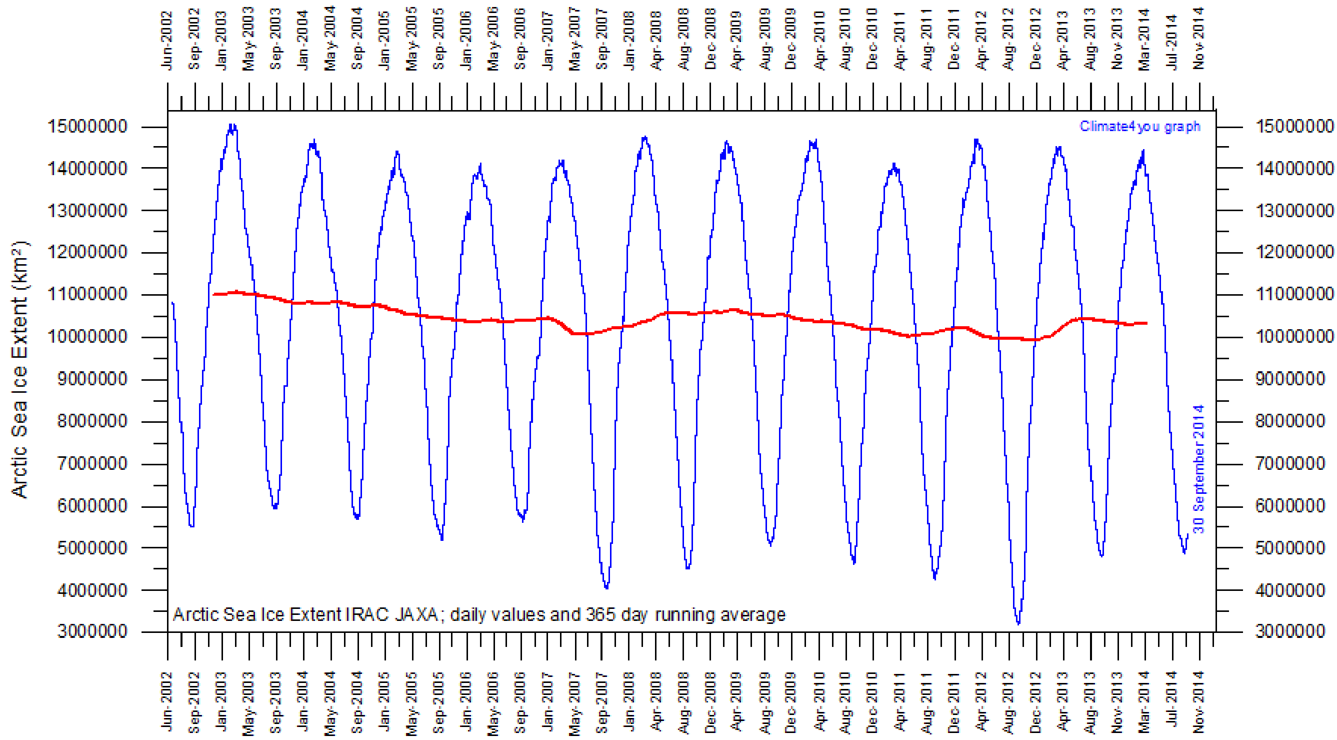
Arctic and Antarctic sea ice, updated to September 2014



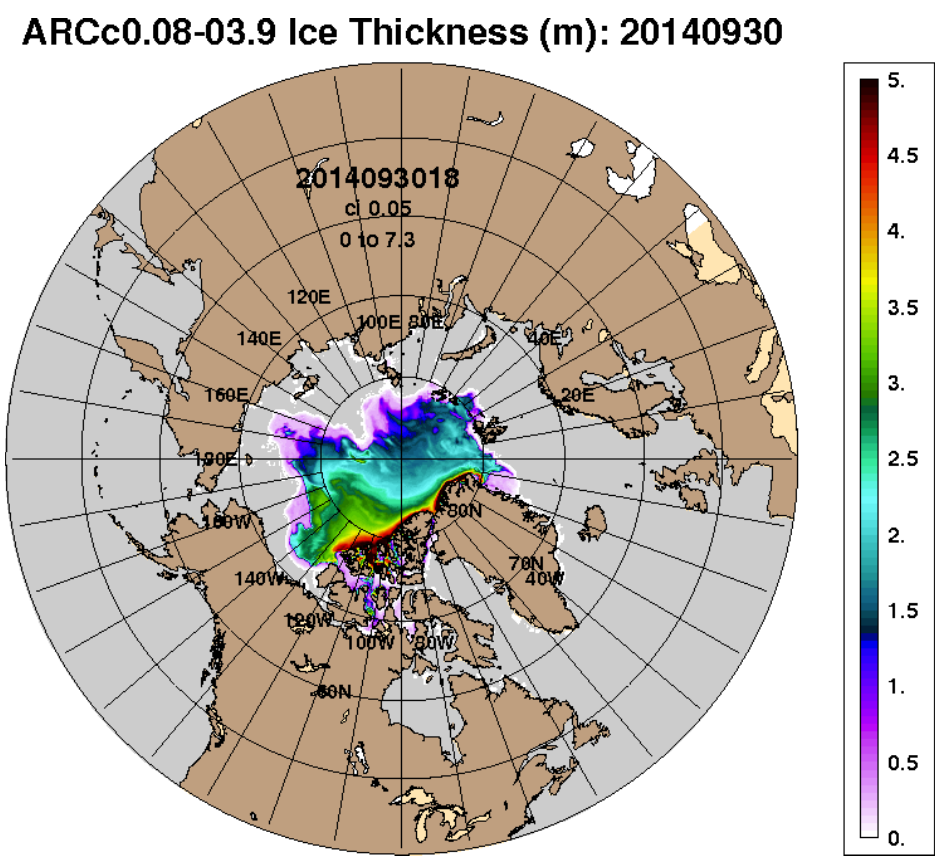
Sea ice extent 30 September 2014. The 'normal' or average limit of sea ice (orange line) is defined as 15% sea ice cover, according to the average of satellite observations 1981-2010 (both years inclusive). Sea ice may therefore well be encountered outside and open water areas inside the limit shown in the diagrams above. Map source: National Snow and Ice Data Center *(NSIDC).*



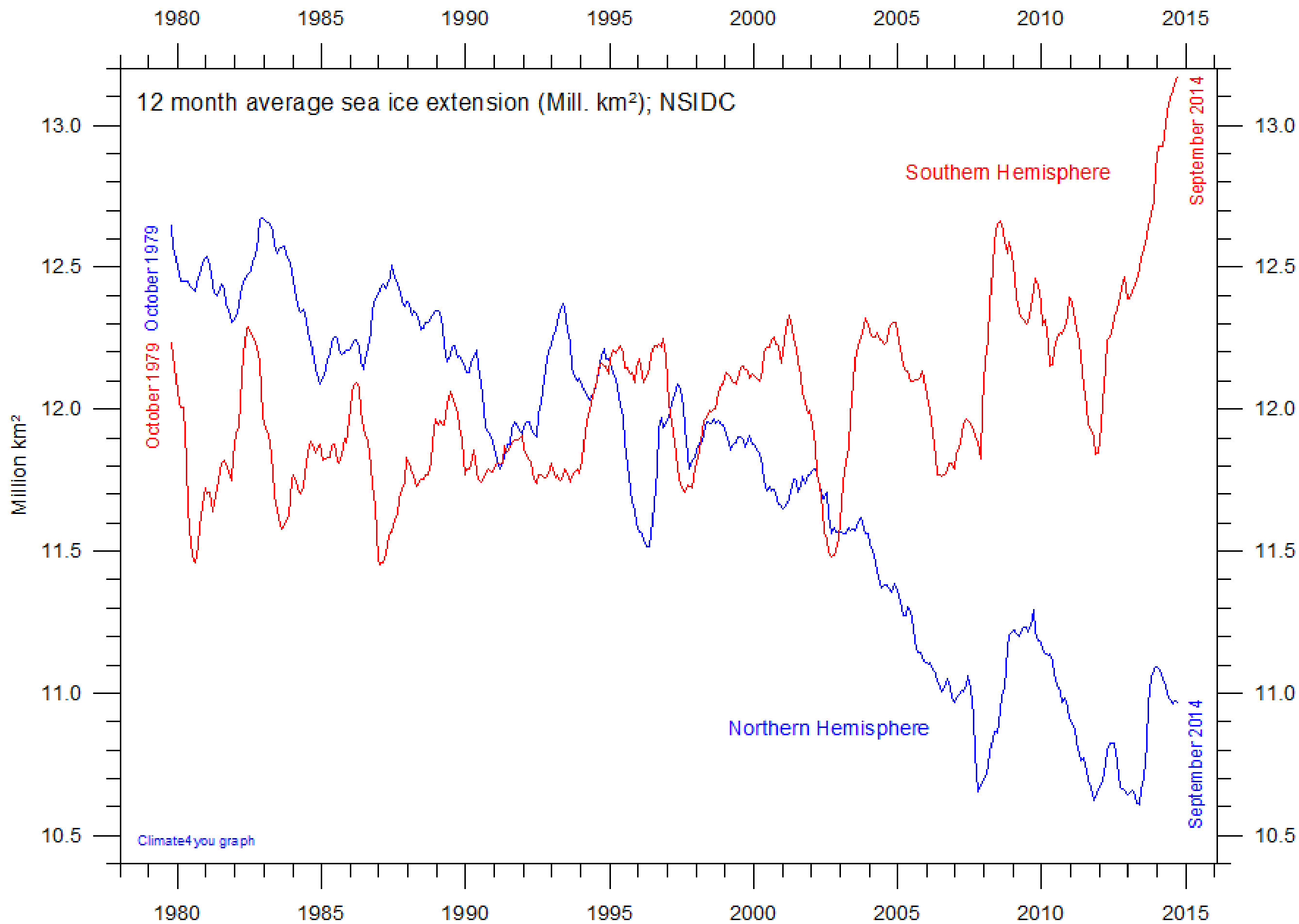
Graphs showing monthly Antarctic, Arctic and global sea ice extent since November 1978, according to the [National Snow and Ice data Center](#) (NSIDC).



Graph showing daily Arctic sea ice extent since June 2002, to 30 September 2014, by courtesy of [Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency](#) (JAXA).

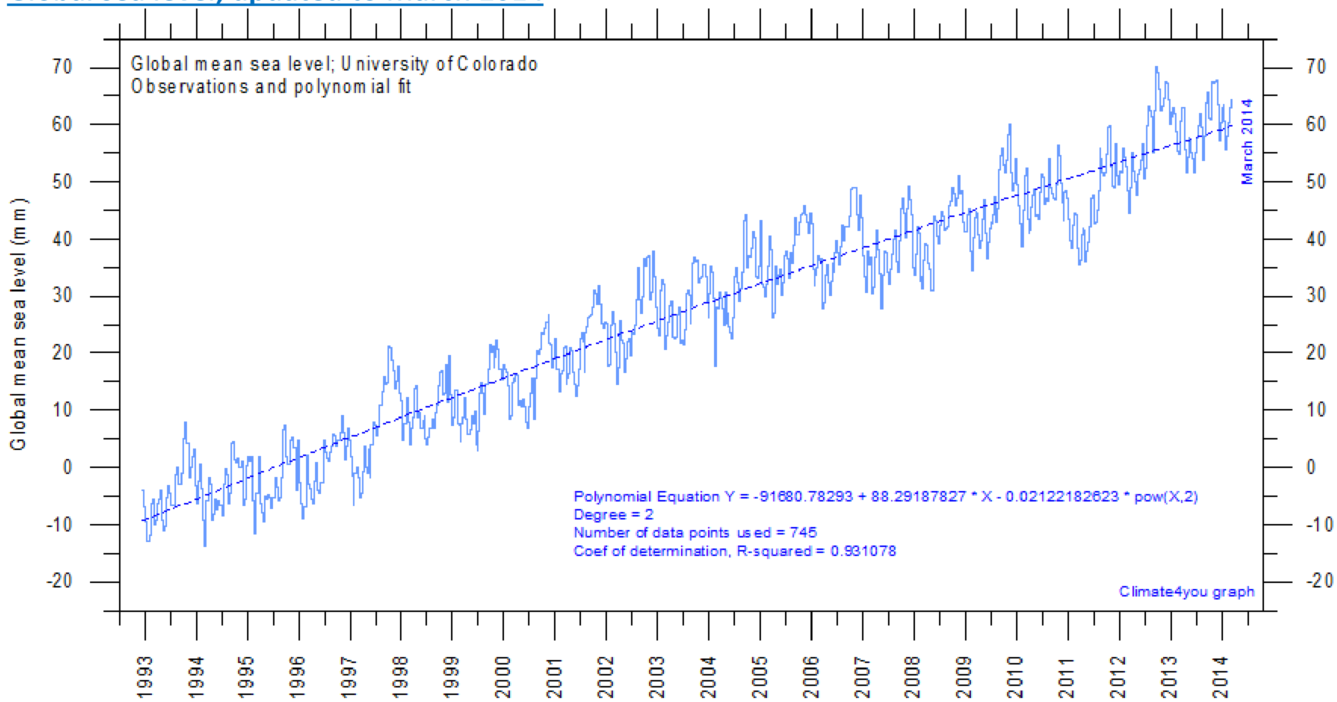


Northern hemisphere sea ice extension and thickness on 30 September 2014 according to the [Arctic Cap Nowcast/Forecast System](#) (ACNFS), US Naval Research Laboratory. Thickness scale (m) to the right.

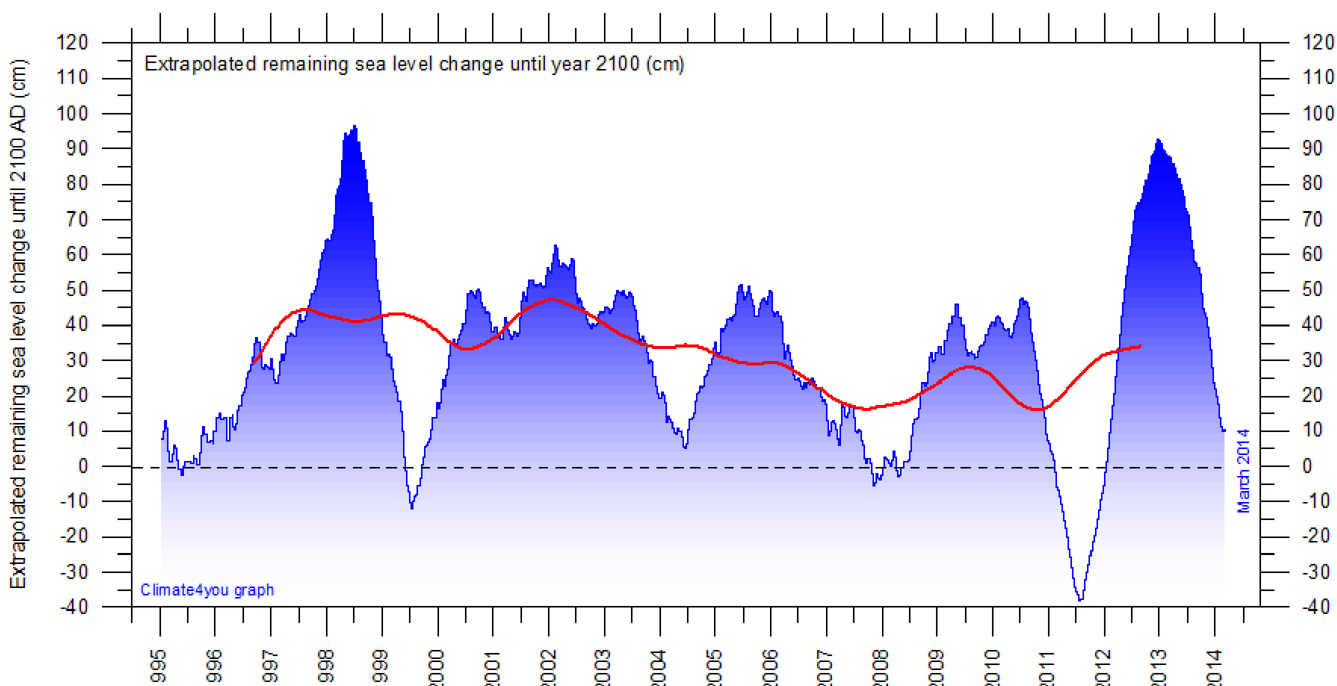


12 month running average sea ice extension in both hemispheres since 1979, the satellite-era. The October 1979 value represents the monthly average of November 1978 - October 1979, the November 1979 value represents the average of December 1978 - November 1979, etc. Last month included in the 12-month calculations: September 2014. Data source: National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC).

Global sea level, updated to March 2014

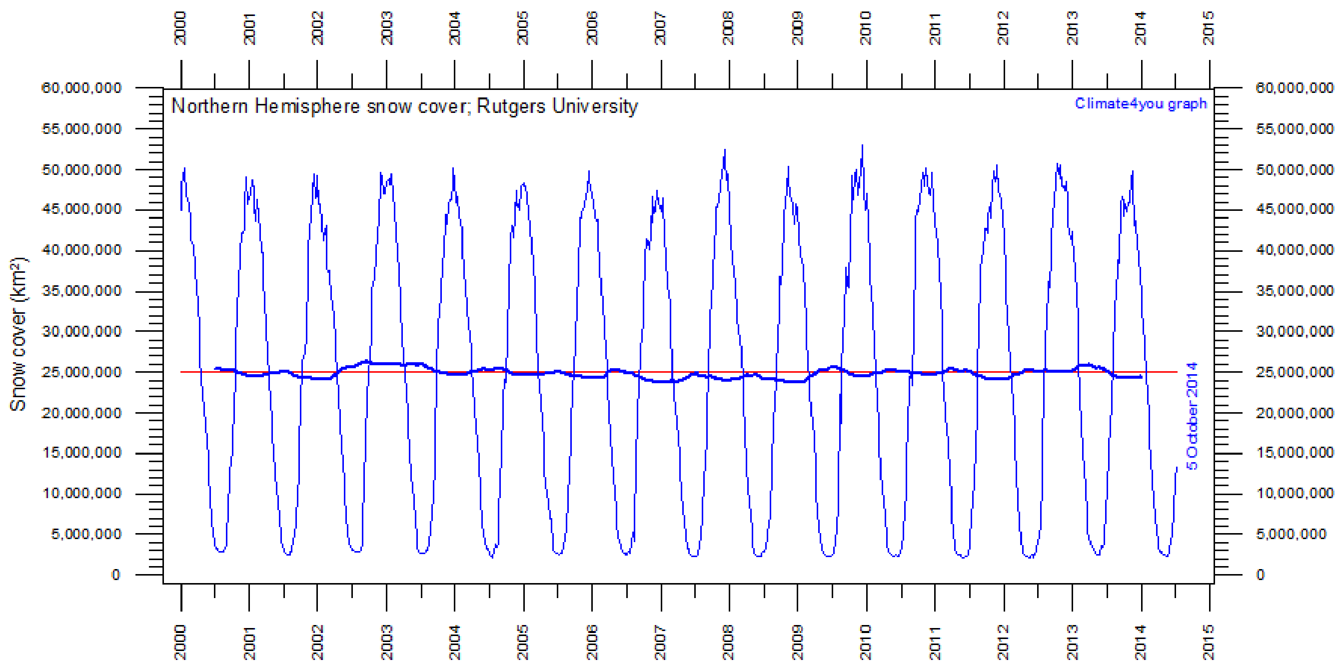


Global sea level (thin line) since late 1992 according to the Colorado Center for Astrodynamics Research at University of Colorado at Boulder. The thick stippled line represents a two-degree polynomium. The polynomium suggests the rate of the ongoing global sea level rise to be slowly decreasing. Time is shown along the x-axis as fractions of calendar years.

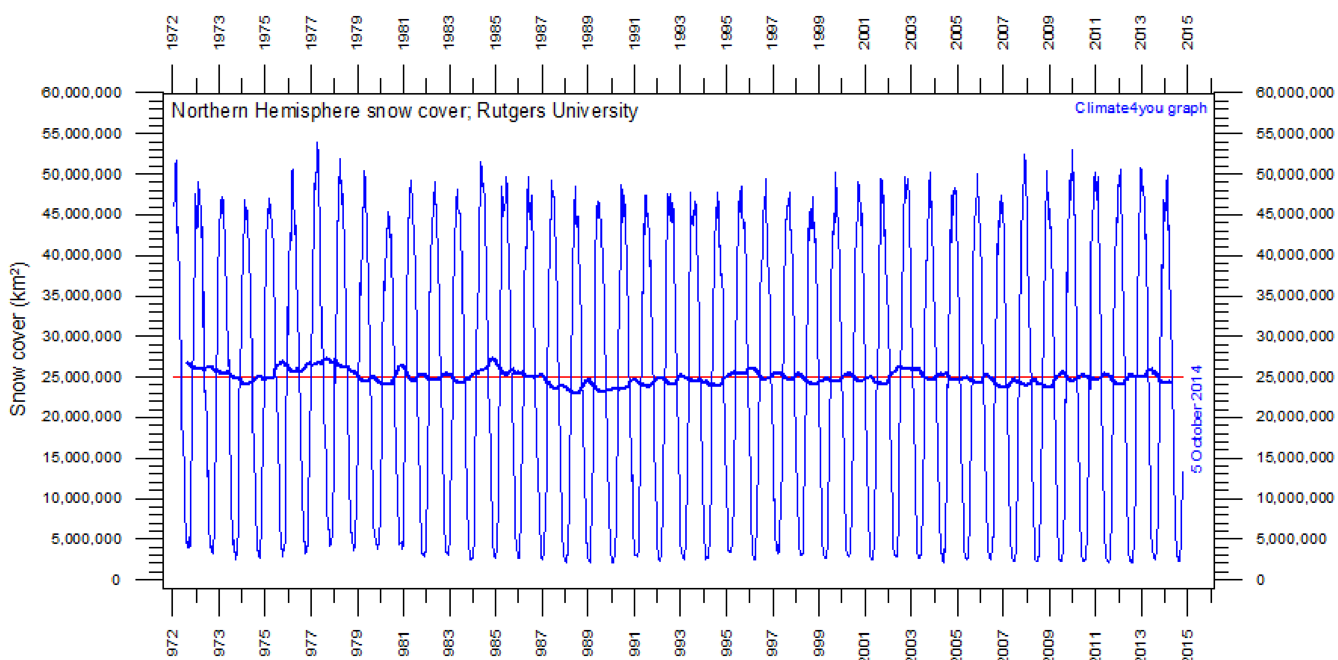


Forecasted change of global sea level until year 2100, based on simple extrapolation of measurements done by the Colorado Center for Astrodynamics Research at [University of Colorado at Boulder](), USA. The thick line is the simple running 3 yr average forecast for sea level change until year 2100. Based on this (thick line), the present simple empirical forecast of sea level change until 2100 is about +34 cm.

Northern Hemisphere weekly snow cover, updated to early October 2014

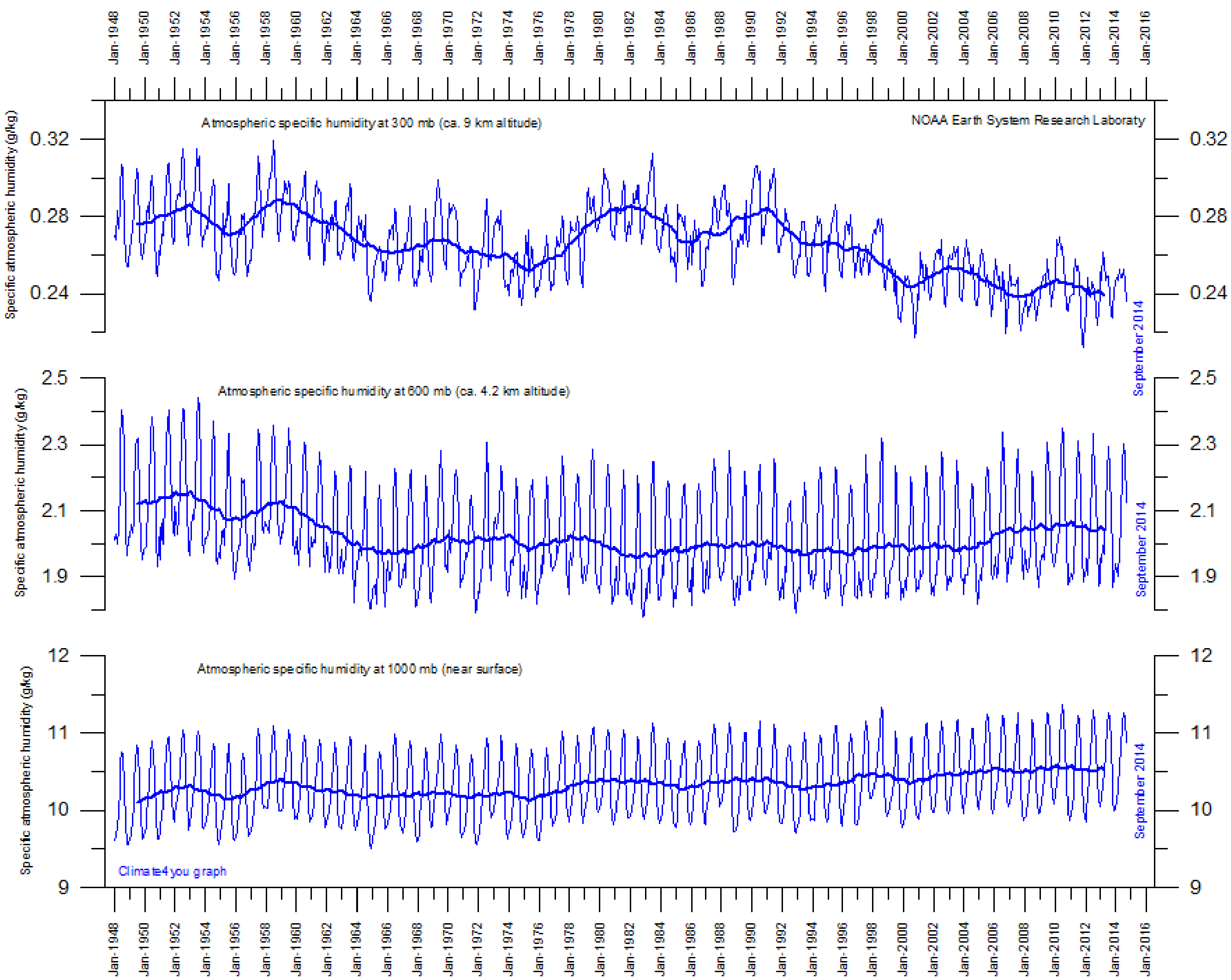


Northern hemisphere weekly snow cover since January 2000 according to Rutgers University Global Snow Laboratory. The thin blue line is the weekly data, and the thick blue line is the running 53-week average (approximately 1 year). The horizontal red line is the 1972-2013 average.



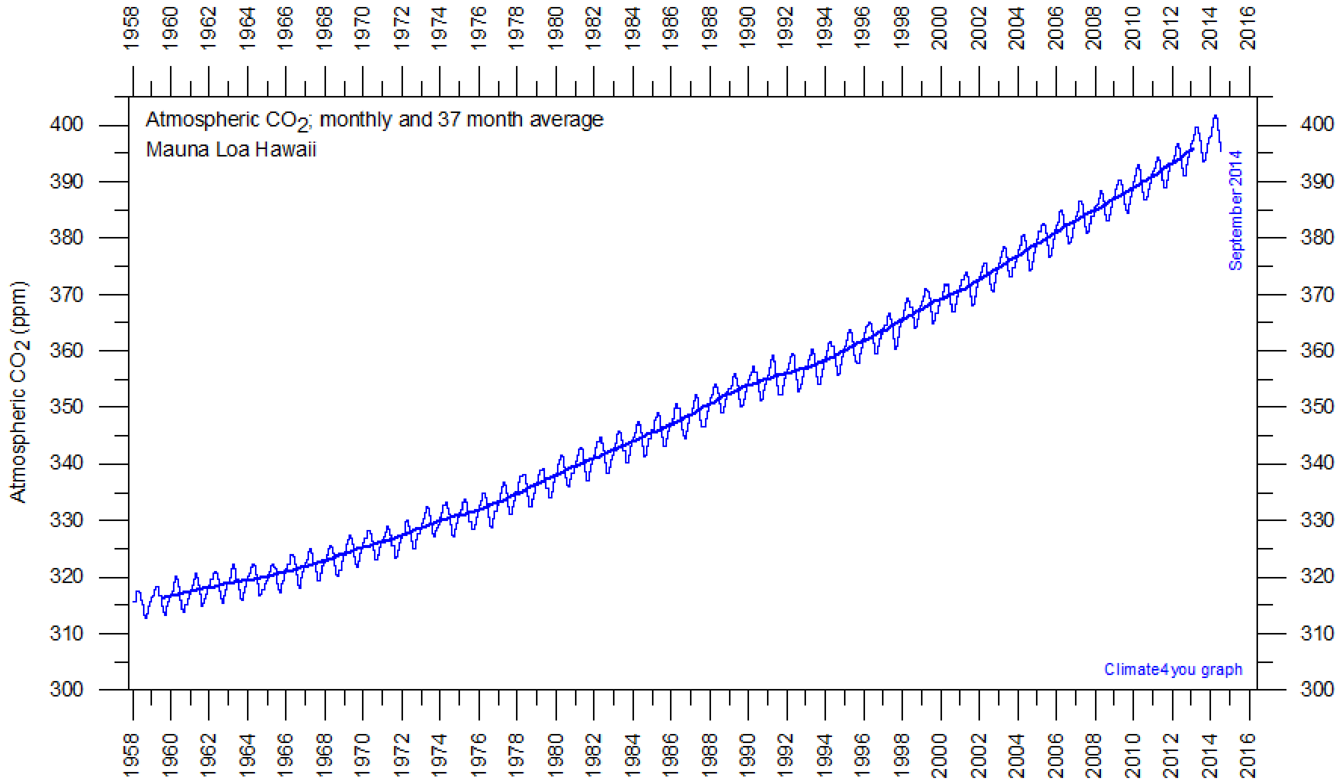
Northern hemisphere weekly snow cover since January 1972 according to Rutgers University Global Snow Laboratory. The thin blue line is the weekly data, and the thick blue line is the running 53-week average (approximately 1 year). The horizontal red line is the 1972-2013 average.

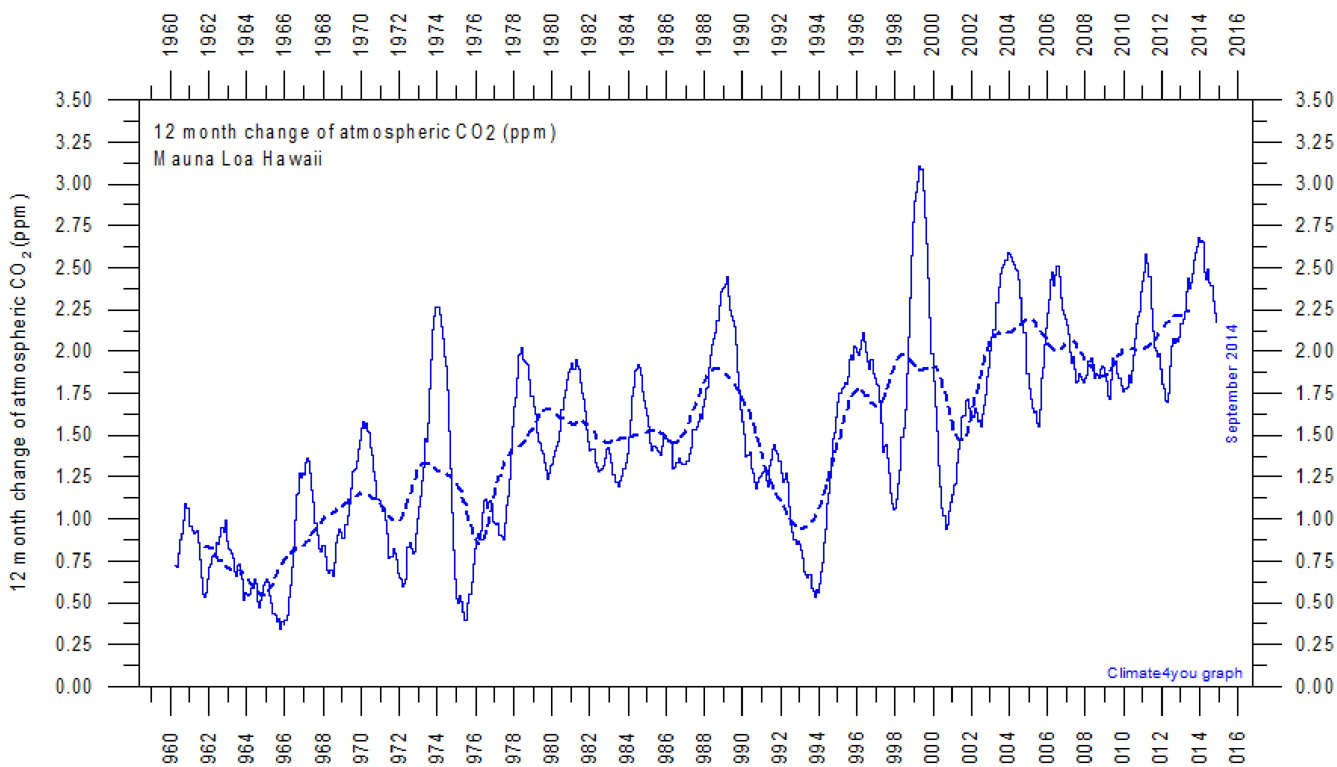
Atmospheric specific humidity, updated to September 2014



Specific atmospheric humidity (g/kg) at three different altitudes in the lower part of the atmosphere (the Troposphere) since January 1948 (Kalnay et al. 1996). The thin blue lines shows monthly values, while the thick blue lines show the running 37-month average (about 3 years). Data source: Earth System Research Laboratory (NOAA).

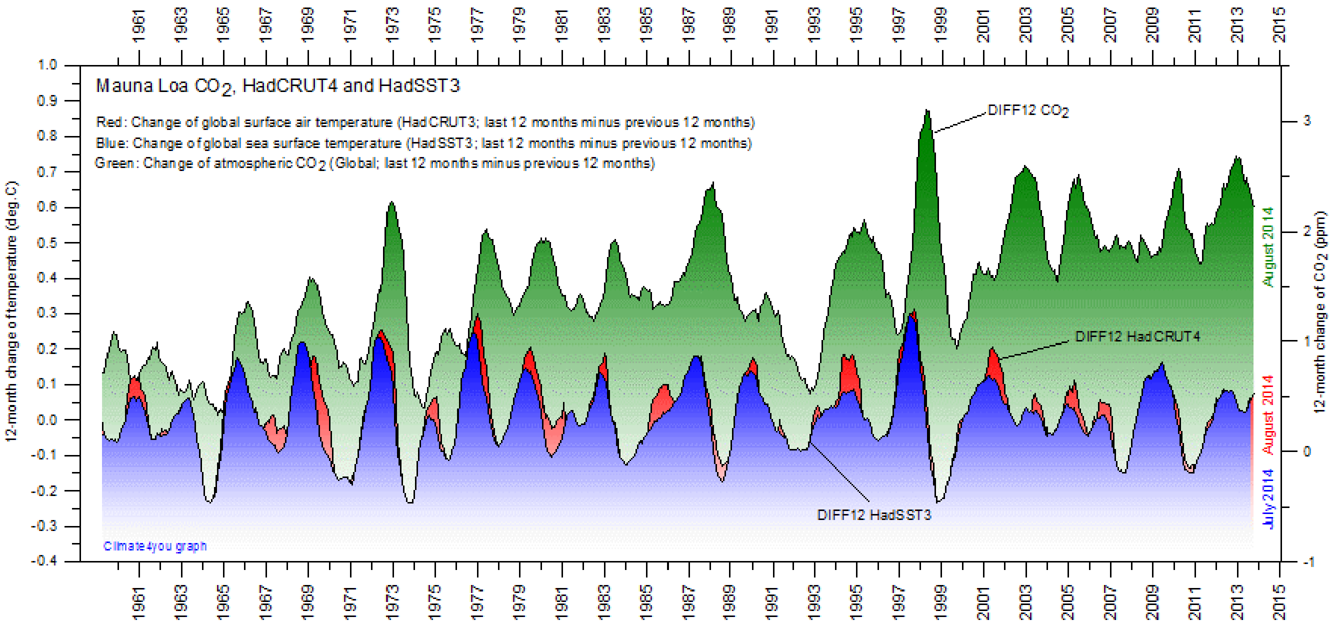
Atmospheric CO_2, updated to September 2014





Monthly amount of atmospheric CO_2 (upper diagram) and annual growth rate (lower diagram); average last 12 months minus average preceding 12 months, thin line) of atmospheric CO_2 since 1959, according to data provided by the [Mauna Loa Observatory](), Hawaii, USA. The thick, stippled line is the simple running 37-observation average, nearly corresponding to a running 3 yr average.

The phase relation between atmospheric CO_2 and global temperature, updated to August 2014

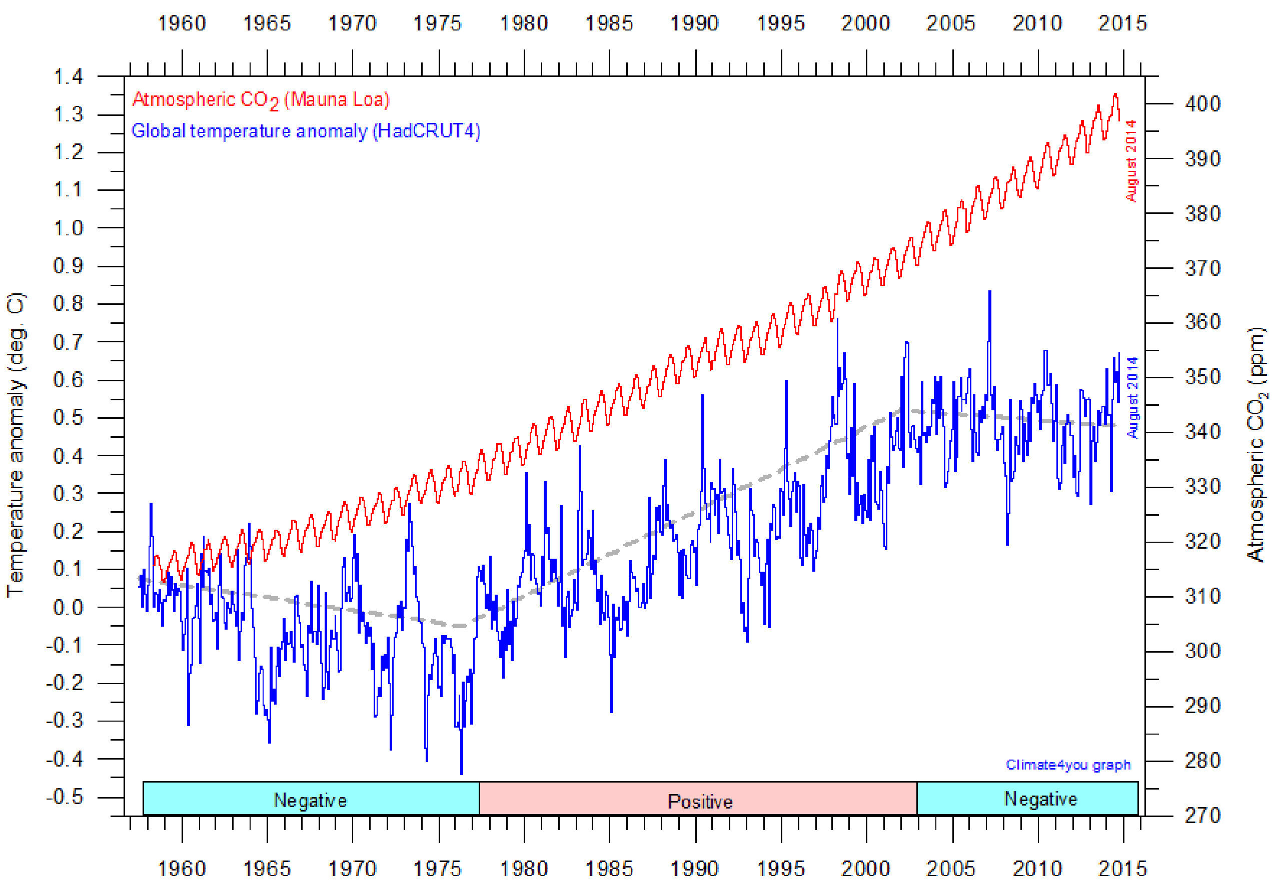


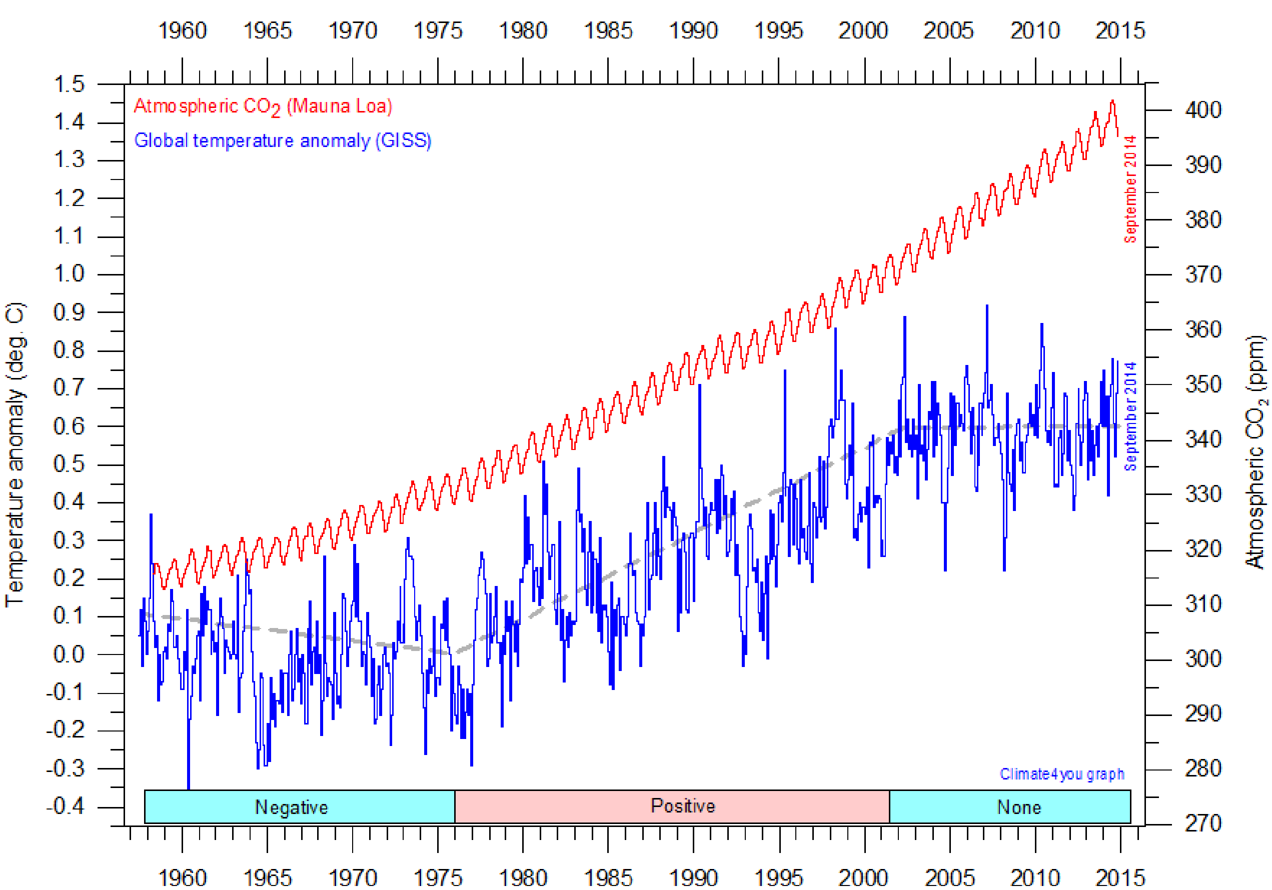
12-month change of global atmospheric CO_2 concentration (Mauna Loa; green), global sea surface temperature (HadSST3; blue) and global surface air temperature (HadCRUT4; red dotted). All graphs are showing monthly values of DIFF12, the difference between the average of the last 12 month and the average for the previous 12 months for each data series.

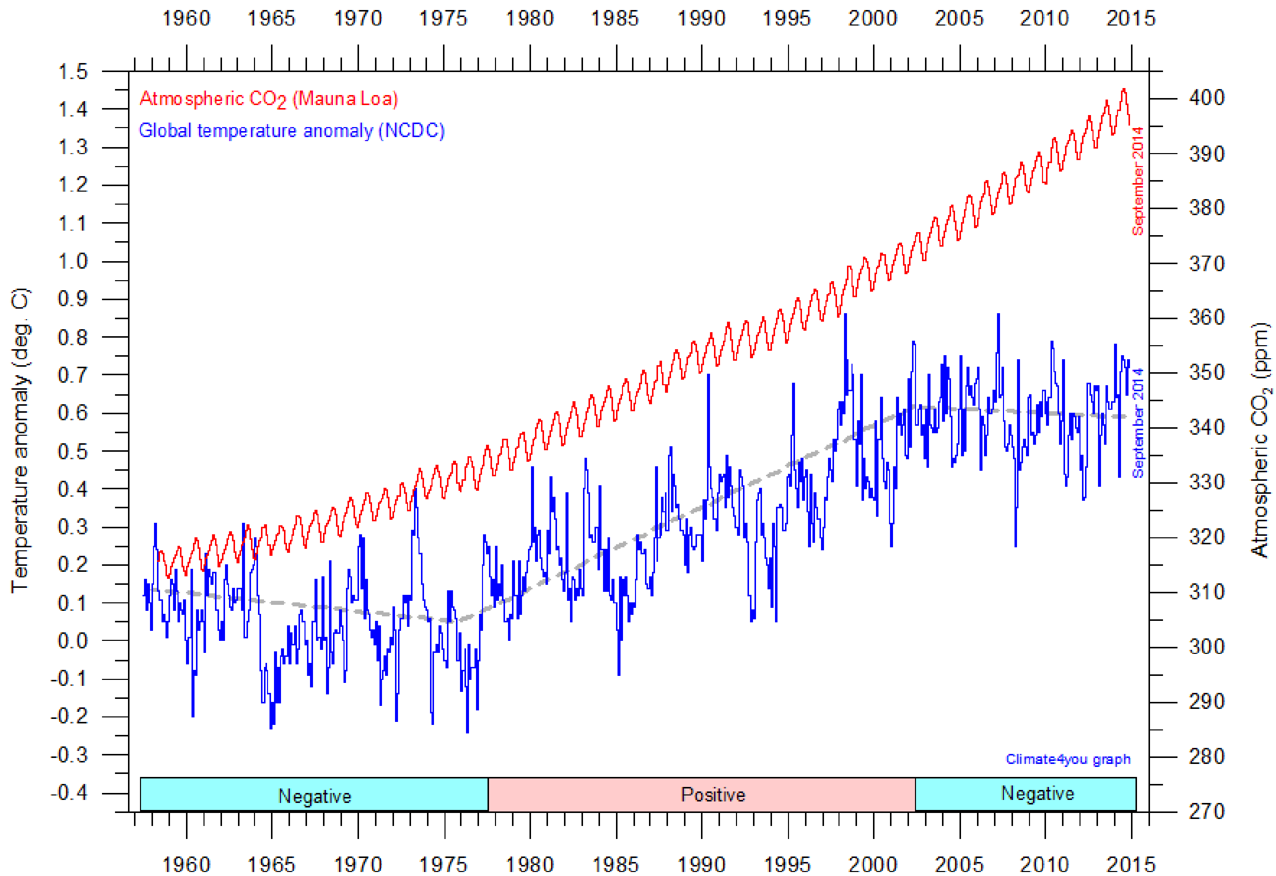
References:

Humlum, O., Stordahl, K. and Solheim, J-E. 2012. The phase relation between atmospheric carbon dioxide and global temperature. Global and Planetary Change, August 30, 2012. http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0921818112001658?v=s5

Global surface air temperature and atmospheric CO_2, updated to September 2014







Diagrams showing HadCRUT3, GISS, and NCDC monthly global surface air temperature estimates (blue) and the monthly atmospheric CO_2 content (red) according to the [Mauna Loa Observatory](), Hawaii. The Mauna Loa data series begins in March 1958, and 1958 was therefore chosen as starting year for the diagrams. Reconstructions of past atmospheric CO_2 concentrations (before 1958) are not incorporated in this diagram, as such past CO_2 values are derived by other means (ice cores, stomata, or older measurements using different methodology), and therefore are not directly comparable with direct atmospheric measurements. The dotted grey line indicates the approximate linear temperature trend, and the boxes in the lower part of the diagram indicate the relation between atmospheric CO_2 and global surface air temperature, negative or positive. Please note that the HadCRUT4 diagram is not yet updated beyond August 2014.

Most climate models assume the greenhouse gas carbon dioxide CO_2 to influence significantly upon global temperature. It is therefore relevant to compare different temperature records with measurements of atmospheric CO_2, as shown in the diagrams above. Any comparison, however, should not be made on a monthly or annual basis, but for a longer time period, as other effects (oceanographic, etc.) may well override the potential influence of CO_2 on short time scales such as just a few years. It is of cause equally inappropriate to present new meteorological record values, whether daily, monthly or annual, as support for the hypothesis ascribing high importance of atmospheric CO_2 for global temperatures. Any such meteorological record value may well be the result of other phenomena.

What exactly defines the critical length of a relevant time period to consider for evaluating the alleged importance of CO_2 remains elusive, and is still a topic for discussion. However, the critical period length must be inversely proportional to the temperature sensitivity of CO_2, including feedback effects. If the net temperature effect of atmospheric CO_2 is strong, the critical time period will be short, and vice versa.

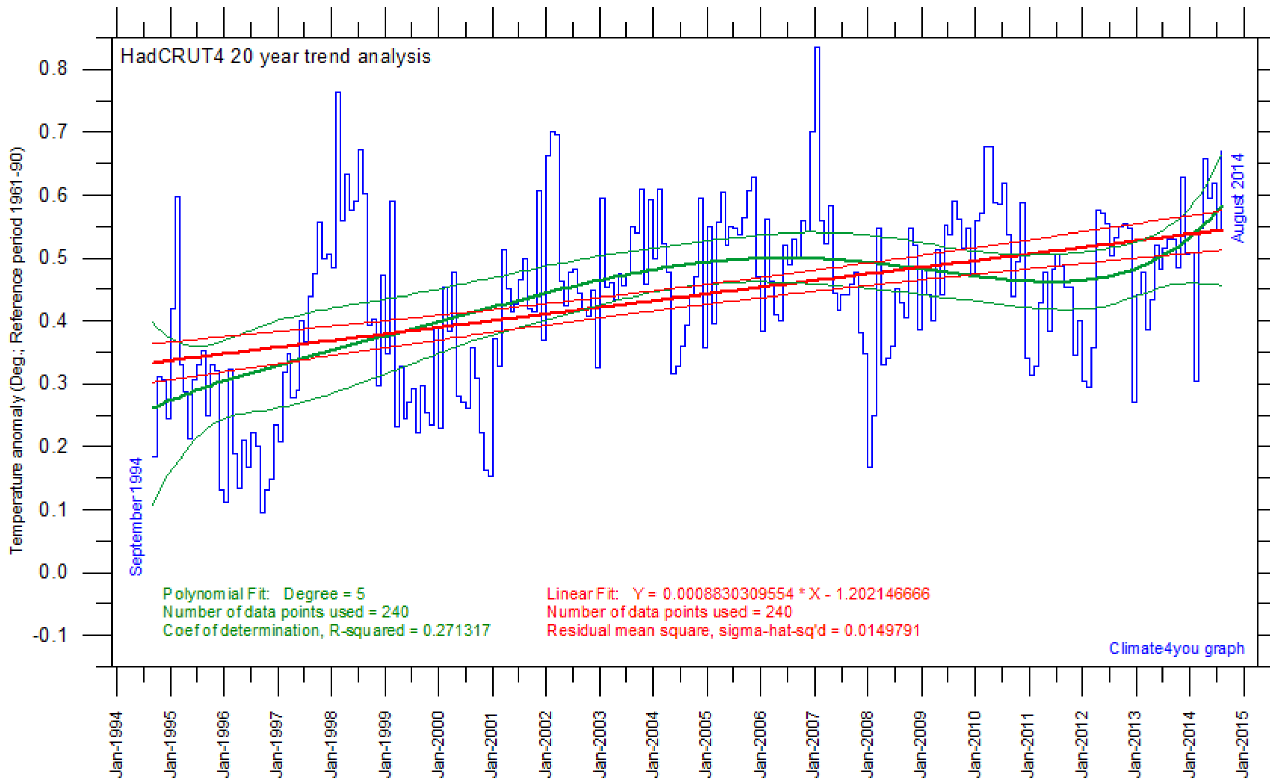
However, past climate research history provides some clues as to what has traditionally been considered the relevant length of period over which to compare temperature and atmospheric CO_2.

After about 10 years of concurrent global temperature- and CO_2-increase, IPCC was established in 1988. For obtaining public and political support for the CO_2-hyphotesis the 10 year warming period leading up to 1988 in all likelihood was important. Had the global temperature instead been decreasing, politic support for the hypothesis would have been difficult to obtain.

Based on the previous 10 years of concurrent temperature- and CO_2-increase, many climate scientists in 1988 presumably felt that their understanding of climate dynamics was sufficient to conclude about the importance of CO_2 for global temperature changes. From this it may safely be concluded that 10 years was considered a period long enough to demonstrate the effect of increasing atmospheric CO_2 on global temperatures.

Adopting this approach as to critical time length (at least 10 years), the varying relation (positive or negative) between global temperature and atmospheric CO_2 has been indicated in the lower panels of the diagrams above.

Last 20 year monthly surface air temperature changes, updated to August 2014



Last 20 years global monthly average surface air temperature according to Hadley CRUT, a cooperative effort between the Hadley Centre for Climate Prediction and Research and the University of East Anglia's Climatic Research Unit (CRU), UK. The thin blue line represents the monthly values. The thick red line is the linear fit, with 95% confidence intervals indicated by the two thin red lines. The thick green line represents a 5-degree polynomial fit, with 95% confidence intervals indicated by the two thin green lines. A few key statistics is given in the lower part of the diagram (note that the linear trend is the monthly trend). Please note that the linear regression is done by month, not year.

It is quite often debated if the global surface air temperature still increases, or if the temperature has levelled out during the last 15-18 years. The above diagram may be useful in this context, and demonstrates the differences between two often used statistical approaches to determine recent temperature trends. Please also note that such fits only attempt to describe the past, and usually have limited predictive power. In addition, before using any linear trend (or other) analysis of time series a proper statistical model should be chosen, based on statistical justification.

For temperature time series there is no *a priori* physical reason why the long-term trend should be linear in time. In fact, climatic time series often have trends for which a straight line is not a good approximation, as can clearly be seen from several of the diagrams in the present report.

For an excellent description of problems often encountered by analyses of temperature time series analyses please see Keenan, D.J. 2014: Statistical Analyses of Surface Temperatures in the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report.

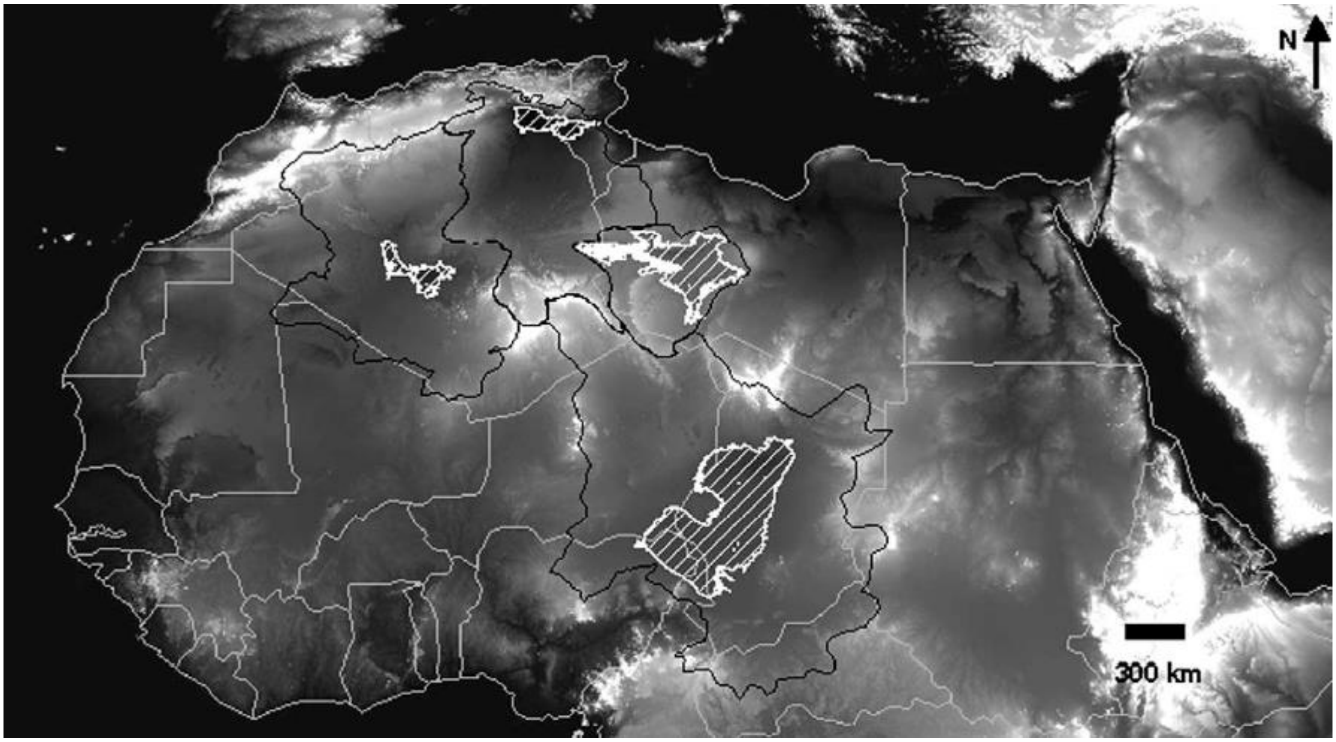
7000 BP: Large lakes in Sahara

Old shorelines in southern Sahara visible in Google Earth. The picture measures about 20 km across (W-E).

Ole lake shorelines in Sahara were discovered early last century in the Chad Basin, central North Africa, when the former existence of giant palaeolake Megachad was first postulated and described as an African Caspian Sea (Tilho 1925).

Initial estimates of the lake area by Tilho (1925) were 200000 km2 although this was later revised 320000 km2 (Schneider, 1967) with lake levels fluctuating because of climatic change during the Holocene. Further investigation of the archaeology and sedimentology of the ridges (Thiemeyer, 1992) led to the confirmation of the megalake theory, and several of the old shorelines are visible on Google Earth imagery.

Interpretation of satellite imagery clearly reveals a wide array of coastal landforms in the Chad Basin including beach ridges, spits, cuspate forelands and deltas that were formed around palaeolake Megachad (Drake and Bristow 2006). The evidence of wave action preserved in the coastal landforms is attributed by Drake and Bristow (2006) to a combination of northeasterly and southwesterly winds at the time when the lake existed.



Megalakes of the Sahara, about 7000 years before now. Lakes overlaid on the SRTM 1 km DEM of northern Africa. As altitude increases the shades of grey change from black to white. Lakes are marked with a diagonal white line pattern with the lake catchment areas marked in a black line. Picture source: Drake and Bristow 2006.

The winds appear to have been seasonal with northeasterly winds in the winter and southwesterly winds due to an enhanced monsoon in the summer. Enhancement of the southwesterly monsoon is important because it contributed to increased rainfall in the Chad basin and to the filling of palaeolake Megachad.

The palaeoshorelines have been traced around the former Lake Megachad lake and found at similar altitudes even when separated by thousands of kilometres.

At its maximum extent Lake Megachad was larger than any lake that exists on Earth today. At around 7500-6950 BP it was 3610009 /13000 km^2; by 4000 BP it had shrunk even further and split into three smaller separate lakes, Lake Chad, Lake Fitri and Lake Bodele.

As the catchment of Lake Megachad adjoins that of other large lakes to the north (see figure above) it is possible that these lakes together provided a humid corridor across the Sahara that would not have existed had the Sahara not been dominated by large closed basins. Such a corridor may have implications for palaeoanthropology and biogeography as the Sahara usually is thought to provide a barrier to the movement of hominids and animals out of Africa.

The Cave of Swimmers is a cave with ancient rock art in the mountainous Gilf Kebir plateau of the Libyan Desert section of the Sahara. This cave is located in the New Valley Governorate of southwest Egypt, near the border with Libya.

The cave and rock art was first discovered in October 1933 by the Hungarian explorer László Almásy. It contains Neolithic pictographs (rock painting images) of people swimming (see figure next page).

Almásy's theory of a previous moist Sahara climate was so new in 1933, that his first book editor added several personal footnotes, to make it clear that he certainly did not share this opinion.

Rock painting in the Cave of Svimmers, Sahara.

Rock painting in the Cave of Beasts, Sahara.

The Cave of the Beasts (also named Mestikawi-Foggini Cave or Cave Wadi Sura II) is a huge natural rock shelter in the Libyan Desert featuring more than 7000 years old Neolithic rock paintings with about 5000 figures. The rock paintings were created more than 7000 years ago at the beginning of the Neolithic age. At that time there was a lake at the foot of the rock shelter. At the end of the Holocene climatic optimum about 6000 years ago, the climate pattern changed to arid, the large lakes began to dry out, and the area was depopulated.

References:

Drake, N. and Bristow, C. 2006. Shorelines in the Sahara: geomorphological evidence for an enhanced monsoon from palaeolake Megachad. *The Holocene* 16, 901-911.

László Almásy 1934. *The Unknown Sahara*. Translation of the Hungarian original Az Ismeretlen Szahara, 2002, by Andras Zboray.

Thiemeyer, H. 1992. On the age of the Bama Ridge A new 14C- record from Konduga area, Borno state, NE-Nigeria. *Zeitschrift für Geomorphologie* 36, 113-118.

Tilho, J. 1925. Sur l'aire probable d'extension maxima de la mer paleo-tchadienne. *Comptes Rendus Academie des Sciences de Paris* 181, 643-646.

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All the above diagrams with supplementary information, including links to data sources and previous issues of this newsletter, are available on www.climate4you.com

Yours sincerely,

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October 20, 2014.