

1 **The “Dirty Weather” diaries of Reverend Richard**  
2 **Davis: Insights about early Colonial-era meteorology**  
3 **and climate variability for Northern New Zealand,**  
4 **1839-1851**

5

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10 **Abstract**

11 Reverend Richard Davis (1790–1863) was a Colonial-era missionary stationed in the  
12 Far North of New Zealand who was a key figure in the early efforts of the Church  
13 Mission Society. He kept meticulous meteorological records for the early settlements  
14 of Waimate North and Kaikohe, and his observations are preserved in a two-volume  
15 set in the rare manuscripts archive at the Auckland City Library. The Davis diary  
16 volumes are significant because they constitute some of the earliest land-based  
17 meteorological measurements that were continually chronicled for New Zealand.

18

19 The diary measurements cover nine years within the 1839–1851 timespan that are  
20 broken into two parts: 1839–1844 and 1848–1851. Davis’ meteorological recordings  
21 include daily 9 AM and noon temperatures and mid-day pressure measurements.  
22 Qualitative comments in the diary note prevailing wind flow, wind strength, cloud  
23 cover, climate variability impacts, bio-indicators suggestive of drought, and notes on

1 extreme weather events. “Dirty weather” comments scattered throughout the diary  
2 describe disturbed conditions with strong winds and driving rainfall.

3

4 The Davis diary entries coincide with the end of the Little Ice Age (LIA) and they  
5 indicate southerly and westerly circulation influences and cooler winter temperatures  
6 were more frequent than today. A comparison of climate field reconstructions derived  
7 from the Davis diary data and tree ring-based winter temperature reconstructions are  
8 supported by tropical coral palaeotemperature evidence. Davis’ pressure  
9 measurements were corroborated using ship log data from vessels associated with  
10 iconic Antarctic exploration voyages that were anchored in the Bay of Islands, and  
11 suggest the pressure series he recorded are robust and can be used as ‘station data’.

12 The Reverend Davis meteorological data are expected to make a significant  
13 contribution to the Atmospheric Circulation Reconstructions across the Earth (ACRE)  
14 project, which feeds the major data requirements for the longest historical reanalysis –  
15 the 20<sup>th</sup> Century Reanalysis Project (20CR). Thus these new data will help extend  
16 surface pressure-based re-analysis reconstructions of past weather covering New  
17 Zealand within the data-sparse Southern Hemisphere.

18

## 19 **1 Introduction**

20 New Zealand was one of the last places permanently settled on Earth (Wilmshurst et  
21 al. 2011) and meteorological records there do not extend back in time with regularity  
22 prior to the early 1860s (Fouhy et al. 1992). Qualitative climate and weather  
23 observations for New Zealand first came from exploratory voyages that entered  
24 waters around the country (Banks, 1768–1771). Subsequently, the increased number

1 of colonial settlers and supply ships arriving during the late 18<sup>th</sup> and early 19<sup>th</sup> century  
2 (Chappell and Lorrey, 2013) coincided with the earliest written accounts that  
3 documented local weather and climate conditions. These observations were often  
4 included in regular channels of communication to and from ‘newly found territory’,  
5 and some provide the first instrumental measurements of the physical environment.  
6 Early colonial-era settlers of New Zealand were very keen to understand the character  
7 of climate and weather for agricultural purposes (Holland and Mooney, 2006; Holland  
8 et al., 2009). Despite frequent mention of weather conditions in reports or diaries,  
9 however, observations were irregularly timed, sporadically spaced, and sometimes  
10 contained little quantitative data.

11

12 A key improvement for documenting New Zealand’s weather and climate occurred in  
13 the early 1850s with several fledgling observatories established within military  
14 fortifications (Fouhy et al. 1992). Instrument-based meteorological observations were  
15 recorded by the Royal Engineers in Auckland three times daily, and they constitute  
16 some of the earliest known ‘modern day’ long-term data for New Zealand. The Royal  
17 Engineers meteorological observations for Auckland also temporally overlap and  
18 merge with early-to-mid 1860s instrumental observations (Hessell, 1988) that were  
19 initiated in an orderly fashion and overseen by James Hector as part of the Geological  
20 Survey of New Zealand (Dell, 2013). The network Hector set up is essentially the  
21 precursor to the present day New Zealand Meteorological Service’s observing  
22 stations, with the long-term observations held by the National Institute of Water and  
23 Atmospheric Research (NIWA).

24

1 Australasian weather and climate accounts prior to the mid 1850s are sparse in  
2 general (Gergis, 2008; Holland et al., 2009; Gergis et al. 2009; 2010; Ashcroft et al.,  
3 2012; 2014). As such, additional information that can improve our understanding of  
4 past weather and climate for the region are important. Of significance, all types of  
5 historic weather observations are being sought by the Atmospheric Circulation  
6 Reconstructions across Earth (ACRE) initiative (Allan et al., 2011), which is  
7 recovering, digitizing and feeding old synoptic pressure observations into the 20<sup>th</sup>  
8 Century Reanalysis Project (20CR), a reanalysis without data input from radiosondes,  
9 aircraft or satellites (Compo et al., 2011, Cram et al., 2014). In this regard, there is a  
10 prominent opportunity to link New Zealand historic weather observations with  
11 massive data assimilation undertaken by supercomputers to provide realistic  
12 representations of regional atmospheric circulation spanning the Southwest Pacific  
13 and wider Southern Hemisphere. That effort is posed to make a significant  
14 contribution to our understanding of past weather and climate change.

15

16 As part of a search to identify early weather observations for New Zealand that could  
17 be supplied to the ACRE initiative, the National Register of Archives in New Zealand  
18 yielded a reference for an historic weather diary that was kept by Reverend Richard  
19 Davis, a missionary who lived north of Auckland (Lorrey et al., 2011a; 2011b). In this  
20 study, we have analyzed that record and we demonstrate the value of the  
21 meteorological observations that Reverend Richard Davis kept. To date, the Davis  
22 weather diary is the earliest reported quantitative meteorological account for New  
23 Zealand that was continuously kept over multiple years. We provide an analysis and  
24 modern climatological context for the Davis weather diary data (Figure 1), and are

1 able to quantify conditions he experienced to deduce similarities and differences in  
2 weather and climate relative to today.

## 3 **2 Background on Reverend Richard Davis and the climate of** 4 **Northland, New Zealand**

### 5 **2.1 Richard Davis biographical notes**

6 According to his memoir, written by friend and correspondent Reverend John  
7 Coleman, Reverend Richard Davis (born 18 January 1790, Dorset, England; died 28  
8 May 1863, Waimate North, New Zealand) was associated with the Church Mission  
9 Society (CMS) of England. He spent much of his time in northern New Zealand and  
10 was stationed for significant periods of time in the settlements of Waimate North  
11 (Figure 1 and Figure 2) and Kaikohe in Northland. In 1831, Davis arrived at Waimate  
12 North and established a farm. Davis was also ordained a deacon in Waimate North in  
13 the mid-1840s. He was a prolific writer and observer of the natural environment,  
14 evidenced by hundreds of letters sent back to England and the CMS that included  
15 commentary on physical geography and astronomy (noting the occurrences of comets  
16 and the *Aurora australis*). Davis also documented social perspectives of Colonial era  
17 settlers and interactions of Europeans with Māori, as well as general activities that  
18 occurred near the settlements of Russell, Marsden Vale, Kawakawa and Paihia  
19 (Coleman, 1865).

20

### 21 **2.2 Physical geography and climate of Northland**

22 Northland is a long peninsula of land that extends southeast-to-northwest (~34.425°S  
23 – 36.325°S) from north of the Auckland Isthmus to the most northern extent of New  
24 Zealand (Figure 2). The region contains multiple deep-water harbors that intersect the

1 coastline which were prized (though treacherous at times) during the Colonial era for  
2 anchorage, including Hokianga and north Kaipara in the west, and Whangarei, Bay of  
3 Islands, and Whangaroa in the east. In general, the Northland peninsula varies in  
4 breadth from 35 to 95km, and most of the densely settled locations are positioned at  
5 low elevations in close proximity to the sea. Topography can be variable, and local  
6 relief in some areas can exceed 500m over a 1km horizontal span, though in most  
7 cases it is only of the order of a couple hundred meters (Orange, 2012).

8

9 Chappell (2013) recently updated the climatology for the Northland region, and basic  
10 information contained therein is similar to Moir et al. (1986). In summary, the region  
11 has a mild, humid, and windy climate. Austral summers are warm and humid and  
12 winters are mild, with only a few sites receiving a couple of light frosts per year.  
13 Mean annual temperatures range between 14°C and 16°C (Figure 2), with eastern and  
14 northern locales being generally warmer than western and southern sites. The  
15 prevailing atmospheric circulation over Northland is from the southwest, particularly  
16 in winter and spring, but during summer the winds increase from the easterly quarter,  
17 especially in eastern districts to equal that from the southwest. This seasonal wind  
18 flow change arises from the changing location of the subtropical ridge (high pressure  
19 belt), which shifts further south in summer and early autumn relative to winter and  
20 spring (Figure 2). In addition, sea breezes add to the proportion of easterlies in eastern  
21 areas in summer and early autumn. Spring is generally the windiest season, except in  
22 exposed places such as Cape Reinga, where winter tends to be the windiest period.  
23 Summer and autumn usually have the greatest number of calm days (with mean daily  
24 wind speed <31 km/hr).

25

1 Rainfall is typically plentiful all year round in Northland, with sporadic very heavy  
2 falls. Annual rainfall totals range from 1200 mm in low-lying coastal areas, to 2000  
3 mm at higher elevations. Areas north of Kaitaia receive considerably less rainfall than  
4 further south. Dry spells may occur in summer and autumn, but they are generally not  
5 long-lived (average dry spell duration is 20 days). Rainfall in Northland  
6 predominantly occurs when there is a stationary anticyclone to the east or southeast of  
7 New Zealand, and humid northeasterly winds cause significant rain over Northland.  
8 Also, extra-tropical depressions or ex-tropical cyclones that pass over Northland on  
9 average once or twice per year may cause torrential rain and damaging winds (Lorrey  
10 et al., 2013b). Cold, showery weather occurs in Northland with southwesterly and  
11 southerly winds, following the passage of a depression from the northwest or west.  
12 Easterly winds associated with an anticyclone to the south of Northland may also  
13 cause showery weather. Fine weather in Northland mainly occurs when an  
14 anticyclone moves slowly over the North Island, and during phases of anticyclone  
15 replacement (which typically last two to three weeks during summer). Most parts of  
16 Northland receive about 2000 hours of sunshine per year, with northern and eastern  
17 areas recording more sunshine hours than western and southern areas. It can be very  
18 windy in exposed areas, and occasionally Northland experiences gales, sometimes in  
19 association with the passage of depressions of tropical origin (Chappell, 2013).

## 20 **3 Data and Methods**

### 21 **3.1 Location and “rescue” of the Reverend Richard Davis Diary**

22 A key word search of the term ‘meteorology’ within the New Zealand National  
23 Register of Archives in 2008 (now called the Community Archive: National Register  
24 of Archives and Manuscripts; [thecommunityarchive.org.nz](http://thecommunityarchive.org.nz)) yielded the Davis Diary

1 entry (Ref # NZ/MS/14, NZ/MS/378 held by Auckland City Libraries, Tamaki Pataka  
2 Korero). This source was considered as an important prospect to follow through on  
3 because the entry for the Davis diary was one of only a few search items that  
4 mentioned meteorological tables. Details for the Davis Diary showed it was held by  
5 the Auckland City Library (ACL), and a viewing to assess the quality of the  
6 meteorological measurements (in terms of physical state of the document, temporal  
7 completeness, legibility, and content) was undertaken. The collective components of  
8 the Davis meteorological diary numbered in the thousands in terms of entries and  
9 comments, and these are outlined in the results section. We describe the scanning and  
10 transcription procedure in the supplement.

11

### 12 **3.2 Corroborating Davis' observations and comparative information**

13 To examine the validity of the barometric pressure observations made by Davis, we  
14 also corroborated his measurements during days when available ship log data from the  
15 Bay of Islands were available. Three voyages from the 'heroic' era overlapped Davis'  
16 observations for short time spans; The *HMS Erebus* (Capt. Ross; Great Britain), The  
17 *USS Vincennes* (part of the US Exploring Expedition 1838-1842 lead by Capt.  
18 Wilkes) and two corvettes from a French expedition; the *Astrolabe* and the *Zelee*  
19 (Capt. Dumont D'Urville). Pressure data for times when these ships were anchored in  
20 the Bay of Islands and verification of historic ship tracks was supplied by ACRE  
21 through Dr. Rob Allan and Dr. Philip Brohan at the UK Met Office (UKMO). We  
22 consider the shipboard measurements were reliable because the barometers onboard  
23 would have been calibrated to the highest institutional standard. While no metadata  
24 exist about how the barometric measurements may have been regularly checked, it is  
25 likely that Reverend Richard Davis took the opportunity to periodically compare his



1 observations with those from ships in port at Russell, Bay of Islands. For the  
2 comparison between the pressure series, we show the data in native format (keyed;  
3 and in inches of mercury) and then discuss differences relative to measurement site  
4 elevations. We also include pressure data one day prior to and after departure from  
5 port. For comparison to present day, temperature measurements were converted from  
6 Fahrenheit to Celsius and pressure measurements recorded in inches of mercury were  
7 converted to hectopascals. The Davis pressure measurements are not corrected for  
8 temperature, altitude or gravity.

9

10 It is evident that the temperature data from the RDD has the least amount of  
11 associated metadata. As such, an assessment of those data in their native format was  
12 warranted prior to undertaking a correction that could introduce additional errors or  
13 biases to the pressure series. We are still considering the most appropriate way to  
14 undertake a correction – one way is to obtain enough overlapping data to be able to  
15 develop an informed correction using associated local temperature data, but this  
16 should only be done with full knowledge of the potential biases those temperature  
17 observations might include, in addition to any inherent technique errors. In terms of  
18 the altitude and gravity corrections for pressure observations, this can be applied  
19 directly on submission of the observations to the International Surface Pressure  
20 Databank, which accepts different formats of pressure observations (some native,  
21 some corrected, some not).

22

23 Comparative daily meteorological records from the NIWA climate database for  
24 Kaikohe and Waimate North come from sites that are positioned close to where Davis  
25 resided between 1839-1851. The closest high-quality daily meteorological

1 observations for the modern period that correspond to the site Davis was located at  
2 come from the Virtual Climate Station Network (VCSN; Tait et al., 2006), which is a  
3 5km<sup>2</sup> gridded field that includes 13 variables from interpolated from station data (see  
4 Supplement for more details). The VCSN data set provides 9AM pressure, daily  
5 maximum temperature (Tmax) and daily minimum temperature (Tmin) amongst other  
6 variables. Hourly meteorological measurements for the Far North are relatively  
7 sparse; however some do exist for Kaikohe, which overlaps one of Davis' observation  
8 locations, and it is very close to the Waimate North site. In order to extract added  
9 value from the Davis weather diary aside from describing his twice-daily temperature  
10 series, both of Davis' temperature recordings were transformed to be equivalent to  
11 VCSN Tmax and Tmin using an established relationship between the VCSN daily  
12 extremes and 9AM and noon temperature measurements from Kaikohe (established  
13 using all available data between 1972-2012). Tmax and Tmin were then derived from  
14 the Davis diary recordings, and were subsequently used to derive Tmean. So as to not  
15 introduce an interdependence element to the derived VCSN reconstruction, we were  
16 also able to produce a time series of 9AM temperatures independently for the VCSN  
17 grid using 9AM vapor pressure and the Antoine equation<sup>1,2</sup>. We also used monthly  
18 mean pressure measurements from nearby sites (Whangarei and Kerikeri) for  
19 comparative purposes (see Supplement for regression equations).

20

21 The Davis reconstructed temperatures were compared to extant tree ring proxy data  
22 sourced from the Past Global Changes (PAGES) Australasia database. These data  
23 have recently been collated for the purpose of undertaking global temperature  
24 reconstructions and were already standardized (Neukom and Gergis, 2012) using five

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<sup>1</sup> 9AM vapor pressure is independently derived from Tmax and Tmin.

1 different standardization techniques. We have used the ‘signal free’ (Melvin and  
2 Briffa, 2008) chronology produced by Neukom and Gergis (2012) for three cedar  
3 (*Libocedrus bidwillii*) tree ring records to establish new, significant correlations to  
4 austral cool season (and winter) temperatures (Lorrey, unpublished) from Takapari,  
5 Moa Park and Flanagan’s Hut (original chronologies from Xiong and Palmer, 2000)  
6 to corroborate the Davis diary winter observations. The relationship between cedar  
7 tree rings and temperature was established via correlating the standardized signal free  
8 chronologies to the closest VCSN grid at a monthly level, then aggregating monthly  
9 temperatures into seasonal and longer composite averages and re-running the  
10 correlations to achieve the strongest correlation. This exercise clearly indicated that  
11 the cedar tree ring growth is sensitive to austral cold season and winter temperatures.  
12 The regression equations from these correlations allowed the standardized index  
13 values to be transformed to a quantitative temperature, which was then converted to  
14 an anomaly relative to the modern period (1972–2012).

15

16 The collective temperature anomaly reconstructions from the Davis diary and the tree  
17 ring-based temperature conditions for 1839–1843 and 1848–1851 were fed into the  
18 Past Interpretation of Climate Tool (PICT) to derive local, southwest Pacific and  
19 Southern Hemisphere climate fields, following the approach used by Lorrey et al  
20 (2013a). The PICT reconstruction approach is essentially a modern analog spatial  
21 field method that uses detrended gridded local and global data (Tait et al., 2006;  
22 Kalnay et al., 1996) to assess what the local atmospheric circulation would have been  
23 like based on terrestrial palaeoclimate data. A reconstructed temperature anomaly for  
24 a proxy site is first compared directly to detrended climatological temperature  
25 quintiles for a corresponding grid point. All of the analog seasons that fall within each

1 quintile are then selected and composited with equal weighting to produce mean  
2 geopotential height patterns, which are based on detrended daily NCEP1 reanalysis  
3 data (Kalnay et al. 1996) The fact that several sites can then be compiled into an  
4 ensemble, and that each of the proxies will have different analogs selected helps to  
5 provide weighting toward the most commonly selected analog seasons. The synoptic  
6 types are classified according to Kidson (2000) and later Renwick (2011) based on the  
7 daily output, and relies on the assumption of stationarity for local climatic responses  
8 to incident circulation in the maritime climate of New Zealand (i.e. when it is more  
9 southerly, it is cooler than normal, and vice versa for more northerly atmospheric  
10 circulation conditions). Full details of the PICT method, the significance testing of  
11 the synoptic type changes and differences of the mean geopotential height patterns  
12 relative to modern are described further in Lorrey et al. (2013a). This approach was  
13 used to a) provide a comparative national-scale context for the temperature anomalies  
14 recorded by Davis and b) provide a wider atmospheric regime context for the  
15 observed temperatures. These results are brought to bear in the discussion to  
16 contextualize the mean climate conditions recorded by Reverend Davis.

## 17 **4 Results**

### 18 **4.1 Components of the Davis diary and ‘dirty weather’ comments**

19 Reverend Richard Davis’ weather diary consists of two parts: 1839–1844 and  
20 1848–1851. A partial year of weather observations were made by Davis for both 1844  
21 and 1851 and we have transcribed them; 1844 is not considered further in this study  
22 because it constitutes less than half a year of observations. The temporal break in the  
23 diary corresponds to the time when Davis was ordained as a Deacon and left Te  
24 Waimate Mission Station to establish Kaikohe Mission Station. The diary break also

1 marks a period when tumultuous activity occurred in Northland that relates to the  
2 onset of the Maori Land Wars (King, 2003). There is mention by Davis in his  
3 personal diary of an insurrection in Kaikohe being “crushed” in January 1846. To our  
4 knowledge, the collective observations and measurements made by Davis comprise  
5 the earliest historic land-based meteorological register for New Zealand that has  
6 survived to date. It significantly pre-dates other informal weather observations for  
7 New Zealand that come from personal diaries as noted by previous researchers  
8 (Holland and Mooney, 2006). However, it is possible that earlier missionaries (i.e.  
9 Samuel Marsden, who resided in New Zealand from 1816), military personnel, or  
10 people involved in agriculture and viticulture (i.e. the viticulturist James Busby; who  
11 is mentioned by Davis as having provided him with 50 grape plants on 8 December  
12 1835) could have kept similar quantitative records that are even older.

13

14 The two Davis diary components collectively contain >13000 meteorological  
15 measurements and local environmental observations. Quantitative instrumental  
16 observations include 9AM and 12 noon temperature and noon pressure recordings.  
17 Qualitative observations include daily wind direction, which are divided into eight  
18 basic compass bearings relative to true north, and an additional category termed  
19 ‘variable’ (where multi-directional wind flow was noted). Climatology for the  
20 instrumental measurements and qualitative observations (both temporal intervals  
21 integrated) are presented below (Figure 4). The comments column within the  
22 meteorological register includes mention of frost, ice, hail, wind strength, relative  
23 rainfall, cloud, snowfall, thunder, lightning, sunsets, and wildlife behavior (including  
24 bio-indicators about migratory waterfowl and insect life).

25

1 The Davis diary also includes 67 remarks about “dirty weather” spread throughout the  
2 two-volume meteorological register. Davis commonly associated dirty weather with  
3 atmospheric circulation from northern and eastern quadrants and in connection to  
4 southerly quadrant flow. Rainfall was common during days characterized as having  
5 dirty weather, with strong, blustery winds and low cloud cover. The general  
6 indication is that the dirty weather remarks made by Davis were indicative of  
7 generally gloomy conditions.

## 8 **4.2 Pressure**

### 9 **4.2.1 Davis’ barometer**

10 Analysis of Davis’ personal diary entries (Davis, Richard: Letters and Journals,  
11 1824–1863, MS-1211, sourced from Hocken Heritage Collections, Dunedin, New  
12 Zealand) was undertaken to try and gain knowledge about the type of barometer he  
13 used, where it was purchased, how he received it and how it may have been  
14 calibrated. A mention of the word ‘barometer’ is made five times in Davis’ personal  
15 diary. Two of the entries associated with that word are:

- 16 ○ 9 February 1836: In a letter to Rev. W. Jowett in London (clerical  
17 secretary of the CMS), a request was made for Davis’ friend Nicholas  
18 Broughton to obtain a barometer and send it to New Zealand (MS-  
19 1211, Vol. 1, p. 118).
- 20 ○ 11 April 1839: A comment is made by Davis about inclusion of three  
21 months of barometer and thermometer data with the letter to Rev. W.  
22 Jowett (MS-1211, Vol. 2, p. 9).

23 Contact with archivists at the CMS of England did not yield any leads about the  
24 purchase of the barometer Davis used. We have also made an enquiry with the Clarke

1 Family in Northland (George Clarke was a fellow missionary with Davis at Te  
2 Waimate), as well as Heritage New Zealand, who are the curators of the mission  
3 house that Davis was based at (to no avail). We do know that a friend of Davis who is  
4 mentioned in his letters, Mr. Nicholas Broughton, lived at Swanyard in Holbourn  
5 Bridge, London. A census from that era indicates many skilled tradesmen who  
6 participated in the manufacture of chronometers, timepieces and ship instruments  
7 circa 1835 (The Horological Foundation, 2015) resided in Holbourn Bridge, which  
8 included a hive of barometer makers who were based locally. It seems likely that Mr.  
9 Broughton would have purchased equipment there. We recognize that observers in the  
10 early to mid 1800s had access to multiple types of barometers (see Jones et al. 1997  
11 for an example); however metadata about calibration and correction of the Davis  
12 barometer are lacking. A common type of barometer made in the mid-1830s that was  
13 highly portable was a mercury ‘wheel’ barometer of ‘banjo’ morphology. Davis  
14 mentions a ‘screw’ as part of the metadata associated with his observations, which is  
15 consistent with that type of equipment. There are no other entries that indicate what  
16 instrument he had and how the instrument was calibrated.

17

#### 18 **4.2.2 Comparison of Davis pressure measurements with ships at** 19 **anchorage**

20 Prior to discussing the observed climatology and extreme pressure values, we outline  
21 a corroboration of Davis pressure measurements. Several ships of exploration  
22 transited through New Zealand waters or were based in New Zealand on military  
23 operations report being anchored east of Waimate North and Kaikohe in the Bay of  
24 Islands (Figure 2). Three separate occasions in 1840 are used to compare the Davis  
25 pressure measurements to parallel observations made on British, American and

1 French vessels (the *HMS Erebus*, the *USS Vincennes*, and the *Astrolabe* (and *Zelee*),  
2 respectively; Data provided from ACRE by Rob Allan, UKMO). As such, the Davis  
3 pressure series and the shipboard observations comprise a measurement pair (n=29)  
4 that can be examined to see a) how inland/upland station pressure and ‘near sea level’  
5 pressure compare and b) to determine how the Davis pressure measurements (see  
6 Figure 3 top panel) compare in general to other reference series. The common pattern  
7 of variability for the aggregated ship data and Davis measurements and their  
8 correlation are significant ( $r=0.93$ ; Figure 3, middle panel). The Davis daily pressure  
9 observations are consistently offset lower than those reported by all of the shipboard  
10 observations (by an average of  $-0.64\pm 0.10$  inches of mercury). This negative pressure  
11 measurement offset of  $-0.64$  inches of mercury corresponds to the altitude increase  
12 from the harbour where the ships were anchored to the altitude of the site where  
13 Davis’ land-based measurements were made (Figure 1). The variance for the Davis  
14 and shipboard pressure measurements is also similar (0.19 and 0.25, respectively). As  
15 such, we consider the pressure measurements recorded by Reverend Davis to be a  
16 robust indication of surface pressure at both sites where he was located, and note that  
17 these measurements can be employed as station data which are not corrected for  
18 temperature, gravity or reduced to sea level.

19

#### 20 **4.2.3 Climatology of pressure measurements**

21 The monthly climatology for noon pressure indicates an annual cycle with lower  
22 pressure in austral winter and spring and the highest average pressure for late summer  
23 and autumn (Figure 4). Davis’s pressure measurements indicate an annual mean value  
24 of 1016.47 hPa (when adjusted to sea level), which is similar to average annual values  
25 for modern measurements recorded at nearby stations (Kerikeri Aero, 1016.85 hPa;



1 Whangarei Aero, 1016.81 hPa) of equivalent latitude. Across the year, Davis’  
2 meteorological diary indicates the highest pressures were most frequent from January-  
3 April, with a decrease to the lowest values in winter (Figure 4; Table 1). Seasonal  
4 average pressures recorded by Davis also compare similarly to modern pressure  
5 values for autumn, but suggest summer pressures in the early-mid 1800s were higher  
6 than present for summer, and lower than present for winter and spring. There are  
7 significant intra-seasonal and inter-annual variations in the pressure observations  
8 recorded by Davis (Figure 3), which can be attributed to the wide range of synoptic  
9 weather systems he witnessed (supported by qualitative descriptions of clouds,  
10 precipitation, wind direction and wind strength). Davis also notes some key  
11 occurrences of unusually low pressures associated with specific storms (See Figure 3),  
12 which are discussed below along with other observations of weather extremes.

13

14 Davis also made comments about unusually high pressures during the first five  
15 months of 1848, and he suggested that the screw on the bottom of the barometer  
16 might have been adjusted without his knowledge to cause an artificial inflation of  
17 pressure observations by 4/10ths of an inch. This particular period corresponds to the  
18 re-initiation of observations being made after a key temporal break in his  
19 meteorological diary. We discuss the context of these ‘high’ pressure anomalies noted  
20 by Davis in the discussion.

21

## 22 **4.3 Temperature**

### 23 **4.3.1 Temperature recordings and thermometer metadata**

24 Davis recorded twice-daily (9AM and noon) temperature at the Te Waimate mission  
25 house grounds and Kaikohe (Figures 1 & 4), and several comments related to

1 temperature recordings are made by Davis in his writings to others and in his personal  
2 diary. Davis also made sporadic observations about soil temperature and contrasted  
3 temperature measurements in the direct sunlight as well as in the shade. The general  
4 commentary from Davis (below) suggests that the thermometer was kept in a  
5 ventilated shed in the shade.

6           ○ 4 November 1833: “Today the thermometer stood at 80 in the shade;  
7           this I have never known it to do before since I have been in the  
8           country.” (MS-1211, Vol. 3, p. 70).

9           ○ 9 November 1833: “In the shed the thermometer stood at 78; plunged  
10          into the garden soil in the sun it stood at 110.” (MS-1211, Vol. 3, p.  
11          70)

12          ○ 18 January 1834: “Thermometer stood at 82 in the shade and at 125 in  
13          the sun.” (MS-1211, Vol. 3, p. 75)

14 We note here that there could be some issues with regard to radiation errors  
15 (Nakamura and Mahrt, 2005) for these temperature measurements in the absence of  
16 metadata about where the thermometer was positioned in the shed, which is not a  
17 standard type of enclosure (Parker, 1994), and we also assume Davis used a mercury-  
18 in-glass instrument.

### 19 **4.3.2 Climatology and extremes from 9AM and noon temperature**

20 9AM and noon temperatures recorded by Davis (Figure 4, Table 1) ranged from a  
21 maximum in January to a minimum in July (19.3°C to 8.9°C for 9am; 22.2°C to  
22 11.4°C for noon). Mean 9AM vapor pressure and the Antoine equation were used to  
23 derive a local 9AM temperature from the VCSN relative humidity values

1 (instantaneous) to compare to climatic means calculated from the Davis diary<sup>2</sup>. Mean  
2 annual 9AM temperature (based on only the years with fully complete measurements;  
3 1839-1843; 1848-1850) indicates an average of 14.4°C, which is 2°C lower when  
4 compared to a VCSN average 9AM temperature of 16.4°C (Table 2). Monthly 9AM  
5 temperature variance was greatest for December and lowest for March in the Davis  
6 record. The 9AM temperature derived from the VCSN grid closest to the Waimate  
7 and Kaikohe sites also indicates that Davis' measurements of maximum extreme  
8 monthly 9AM temperature were categorically cooler than those observed during the  
9 modern era (1972-2012). In addition, many of the 9AM minimum extreme  
10 temperatures appear cooler than present day, with the exception of February-April,  
11 June and October (Table 2).

12

### 13 **4.3.3 Tmax, Tmin and Tmean derived from Davis temperature** 14 **measurements**

15 Comparisons between local high-resolution hourly temperature measurements at  
16 Kaikohe and the corresponding Kaikohe VCSN grid were used to generate correlation  
17 functions for Tmax and Tmin, where use of noon and 9AM temperatures as measured  
18 by Davis were converted to Tmax and Tmin respectively. This was done so the Davis  
19 diary measurements could be directly compared to a modern VCSN-based  
20 climatology representative of the Waimate North and Kaikohe sites where Davis took  
21 temperature measurements. The fidelity of the correlation functions (and therefore the

---

<sup>2</sup> This was done because the VCSN temperature data include minimum and maximum values that can occur at any time during a day rather than a set time. Tmean can be calculated from those categories; however, use of Tmean, Tmax or Tmin to compare to Davis 9AM temperature creates an interdependence issue when subsequent correlation exercises will employ 9AM Davis data to reconstruct Tmean anomalies relative to present day.

1 VCSN reconstructed temperatures from the Davis diary) are better for noon temp and  
2 Tmax than for 9AM temp and Tmin. In addition, correlations are strongest for the  
3 austral cool season (Tmax vs. noon  $r > 0.75$  for Apr – Oct inclusive; Tmin vs. 9AM  
4  $r > 0.65$  for Apr-Aug inclusive) than for the warm season (Tmax vs. noon  $r < 0.75$  for  
5 Nov-Mar inclusive; Tmin vs. 9AM  $r < 0.53$  Sep-Mar inclusive; See Supplementary  
6 Materials for more details).

7

8 The comparison of reconstructed Tmean, Tmax, Tmin, and diurnal range from the  
9 Davis diary relative to VCSN statistics are presented in Table 3. We note specific  
10 occurrences when more than  $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$  difference exists between the reconstructed  
11 Davis monthly temperature values and the VCSN, but do not attach any significance  
12 to these differences due to the large discrepancy in sample size for the individual  
13 monthly correlation functions, because of the associated errors in this style of  
14 reconstruction, and because of the limitations on the metadata for the thermometer  
15 Davis used. Nevertheless, Tmax, Tmin and Tmean for December, January and March  
16 (and Tmax and Tmean for November) appear warmer in the Davis record relative to  
17 present day, while May-August are categorically cooler. Diurnal temperatures were  
18 only relatively different (warmer) for January in the Davis record. Qualitative  
19 observations made by Davis about extremes related to temperature, such as snowfall,  
20 ice, and frost are brought to bear in the discussion about the realism of these  
21 differences.

22

#### 23 **4.4 Rainfall**

24 Qualitative comments by Reverend Davis about rainfall were summed from the daily  
25 observations and indicate  $\sim 34\%$  of all days had some form of precipitation (Figure 5).

1 Comments about fine, dry and/or calm conditions were aggregated and tallied and  
2 indicate 38% of the time constituted absence of rain. Consecutive dry day stretches  
3 (as noted by no mention of significant precipitation) documented by Davis topped out  
4 at 18 days duration (days 207-224) during late July-mid August 1839. That is slightly  
5 longer than the maximum interval of 13 consecutive dry days that occurred during  
6 August 1987 as indicated by rain data from the VCSN grid point that corresponds to  
7 Davis' site. Overall, the climatology of rainfall (derived from aggregating days with  
8 all rain key word indicators) shows December and January were the driest months,  
9 while June, July and August were the wettest months that Davis experienced (Figure  
10 5). This is very similar to what the VCSN data indicate for the grid point that  
11 corresponds to Davis' site (with January and February being the driest months, and  
12 June-August being the wettest). The opposing annual trends for wet vs. dry days also  
13 lends to the same assertion. By proportion, 'dirty weather' was most frequent during  
14 July, and least frequent in December. Comments about cloud cover suggest greater  
15 frequency of cloudy skies from January-May, and less so during July-December;  
16 however this general pattern (Figure 5) may be skewed by the fact that clouds may  
17 have not been mentioned during rainy days.

18

#### 19 **4.5 Winds**

20 The general wind direction recorded by Davis was used to develop a wind  
21 climatology (Figure 4; Table 4) that can be used to gauge the local conditions he  
22 experienced, including how incident atmospheric circulation changed through the  
23 seasons. This analysis can also be used to determine whether there are differences in  
24 the frequency of general prevailing winds during Davis' time relative to present day.  
25 Davis mentions 'variable' or squally/disturbed conditions ~11% of the time, with

1 almost twice as frequent occurrence during summer than other seasons (Figure 6). On  
2 an annual basis via percentage, southerly, southwesterly, and westerly winds were  
3 most common (constituting ~50% of all entries). Grouped by direction quarter,  
4 westerly winds were most frequent (and more so during spring) and easterlies were  
5 least frequent across the year (Table 4). In addition, the departures from the annual  
6 mean climatology indicates Davis experienced more frequent easterlies during  
7 summer (with reduced westerly frequency) and diminished easterly flow in spring.  
8 Relative to modern wind direction frequencies for Northland (Chappell, 2013),  
9 southerly quarter winds were more frequent across the year during Davis' time at  
10 Waimate North and Kaikohe - at the expense of diminished easterly quarter winds in  
11 particular.

## 12 **4.6 Weather Extremes**

### 13 **4.6.1 Thunder, lightning, floods and gale winds**

14 Davis made several observations regarding extreme types of weather, including  
15 thunder and lightning, hail, frost, ice and floods. Comments about thunder are greatest  
16 in October and January and least frequent in March. There is no mention of lightning  
17 during August-November, with highest frequency of comments in March and June. In  
18 general, lightning and thunder are poorly correlated in the Davis diary, typically  
19 because remarks about thunder were commonly made when it was 'off in the  
20 distance'. Commentary related to 'rivers in flood' that are mentioned in the Davis  
21 diary indicates that December was the most common month when floods happened,  
22 followed by February and November (Figure 6). Davis also makes mention of 'gale'  
23 winds which are interpreted here as blustery stronger-than-normal winds that lasted  
24 for a substantial time during the day. The climatology of those comments (Figure 6)

1 indicates a general rise in frequency beginning at the end of summer, culminating in  
2 October.

3

#### 4 **4.6.2 Ex-tropical cyclone of 1 March 1840**

5 A significant commentary about an extreme weather event was made by Reverend  
6 Richard Davis at the end of the February 1840 meteorological diary register and also  
7 in his personal diary. Davis wrote about sustained strong winds with heavy rain that  
8 wrought damage to a fence he had recently installed on his farmland. The personal  
9 diary entry mentions ‘a hurricane’ and the meteorological diary comment section  
10 specifically indicates that anomalous low pressure influenced the Waimate site, with a  
11 minimum pressure in native format of 28.09 inches (28.73 inches when adjusted to  
12 sea level) recorded close to midnight on 1 March 1840. Davis remarks that the  
13 “mercury rebounded rapidly to 29.22 inches (29.86 inches when adjusted to sea level)  
14 by noon the following day” as the storm passed. When the adjusted sea-level pressure  
15 recordings are converted to hectopascals, the antecedent and follow-on conditions  
16 from the low pressure anomalies are close to 1011 hPa, which are reasonable values  
17 for late summer-early autumn when compared to present day values for early March.  
18 The adjusted low pressure anomaly of 28.73 inches (973 hPa) recorded at midnight 1  
19 March 1840 by Davis is significant in that it, along with preceding and following high  
20 pressures and general wind direction changes, are akin to a signature of an ex-tropical  
21 cyclone interaction, which are well documented for Northland (Lorrey et al., 2013b).  
22 The suggestion from the qualitative and quantitative measurements made by Davis is  
23 that he experienced a direct hit or near miss of an ex-tropical cyclone, which passing  
24 over or close to Waimate North on 1 March 1840. An assessment of the South Pacific  
25 Enhanced Archive for Tropical Cyclone Research (Diamond et al., 2012) does not

1 show a track interacting with New Zealand in 1840; however d'Aubert and Nunn  
2 (2012) note a significant storm that impacted Fiji and the Cook Islands in late  
3 February 1840 which may have exited the tropics and subsequently made landfall in  
4 Northland as a decaying storm system. Future work will focus on the other extreme  
5 pressure values recorded by Davis, which may have a polar rather than a tropical  
6 origin.

7

### 8 **4.6.3 Extreme temperatures**

9 A comparison of the monthly average Tmean, Tmax and Tmin, 9am average,  
10 minimum single-day and maximum single-day extreme temperatures are shown for  
11 the Davis diary with reference to the VCSN for the same location (Table 2 & 3). For  
12 the mean extreme high monthly values, the Davis diary is categorically cooler across  
13 all months relative to present day by an average of -2°C. For 9 AM single day  
14 maximum 9AM temperatures, none of the extreme values from the Davis diary  
15 exceed extreme temperatures for the modern era. On average across the year, the  
16 VCSN 9AM single-day extreme high temperatures for each month are  $2.9^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1.6^{\circ}\text{C}$   
17 higher than those Davis recorded, with significantly larger differences in the monthly  
18 9AM extreme relative to the modern era in March-May and July-September (Table 3).  
19 However, it is interesting to note that for extreme 9AM temperatures, the modern  
20 period has some occurrences of colder mornings for February-April, June and October  
21 relative to the time Davis was residing in the Far North.

22

### 23 **4.6.4 Frost, ice, hail and snow**

24 Several qualitative remarks related to cold temperatures and frost can be found in  
25 Davis's personal and meteorological diaries. Davis's sent a letter to John Coleman



1 dated 21 June 1834 (Coleman, 1865: 180): “Last night was our first night of frost this  
2 year. The ice this morning was the thickness of a shilling” (approximately 1.2mm  
3 thick). Davis again mentions ice in the meteorological diary on 15 July 1839  
4 indicating “ice ¼ inch thick” (6.35mm), presumably observed on the surface of the  
5 millpond at the Waimate North site. Frost is noted 106 times by Davis spanning nine  
6 years. His observations suggest no frosts occurred during November-March and that  
7 the frostiest month was July, with more than half of the frost events occurring in  
8 winter (June-August).

9

10 Hail was also observed by Richard Davis for all seasons except summer (Figure 6),  
11 with a peak occurrence in winter (July), dropping away to no hail accounts in  
12 December. Snowfall was also mentioned in the Davis meteorological diary once as  
13 an isolated event spanning two days for 30–31 July 1849. For the two days of snow  
14 that were mentioned, Davis’s meteorological diary comments are:

15           ○ (30 July 1849) Hail storms. This morning the southern hills and  
16           Poutahi covered with snow.

17           ○ (31 July 1849) This morning the hills were again covered with snow.

18

19 In a personal letter to a friend in England, Davis also affords a parallel description  
20 (Coleman, 1865: 350):

21           ○ (30 July 1849) The hills were covered with snow, the first ever seen by  
22           the natives inhabiting this part of New Zealand. The Putahi (sic) was  
23           also covered.

24           ○ (31 July 1849) This morning the hills were again white with snow.

25

1 Contrary to widely held belief that it never snows in northern New Zealand, there are  
2 six historic accounts of frozen precipitation for Auckland/Northland (Figure 7a & 7b)  
3 that can be brought to bear for reference. Two of the events (1939 and 2011) are noted  
4 as having delivered at least some light snow to high elevations. Geographic coverage  
5 of eyewitness accounts for the occurrence of frozen precipitation including snow  
6 (and/or sleet and/or graupel) related to six historic Auckland/Northland events (Figure  
7 7a) suggests the 1849 snow seen by Davis may have been akin to the 1939 event,  
8 which saw snowfall on isolated ridges as far north as Cape Reinga, with the next  
9 closest analog being the 2011 event. The similarities and diagnostics for these analogs  
10 are brought to bear in the next section.

## 11 **5 Discussion**

### 12 **5.1 How similar or different are Reverend Davis' weather observations of** 13 **the early Colonial era from today?**

14

15 The Reverend Davis meteorological diary from Waimate North and Kaikohe contains  
16 years of continuous daily instrumental and qualitative observations for several key  
17 variables. The most notable components of this diary are quantitative measurements  
18 of temperature and barometric pressure (Figure 3). A comparison of the barometric  
19 pressure from Waimate North to reference series from ships (Figure 3) suggest the  
20 Davis' pressure measurements can be used as station data. When compiled into a  
21 climatology and compared to reference data series derived from the VCSN, there are  
22 elements of the Davis meteorological register that undeniably indicate he was making  
23 faithful measurements of local conditions. The annual cycle pattern is evident in all  
24 three instrumental data sets, and their patterns are phase locked in terms of the timing

1 of the peaks and troughs seen in modern climatology records. The relative  
2 temperature changes for the 9AM and noon temperature climatology (Table 2; Figure  
3 4) between summer and winter are also quite similar to the modern era, with a change  
4 of  $\sim 10^{\circ}\text{C}$  between summer and winter. The distinctions of the Davis diary  
5 observations with respect to modern times, however, are observed for the overall  
6 offsets in mean monthly temperatures and some of the daily temperature extremes  
7 (Tables 1-3).

## 8 **5.2 Can we corroborate the general indications of past temperature** 9 **anomalies noted in the Davis diary and determine their cause?**

10 Recent work of the Australasia palaeoclimate research community has gathered high-  
11 resolution climate proxy data (Neukom and Gergis, 2012) and made it available in a  
12 centralized database (Kaufman et al., 2014). There is thus an opportunity to examine  
13 some of those proxy data, which in the case of New Zealand constitute tree ring  
14 chronologies, alongside the reconstructed temperatures for 1839–1851 (exclusive of  
15 the missing years between the diary components) based on Reverend Davis’s  
16 observations. Collectively, the Davis diary anomalies and corresponding tree ring  
17 reconstructed anomalies for winter temperatures can be integrated in PICT (see  
18 Lorrey et al., 2014 and [pict.niwa.co.nz](http://pict.niwa.co.nz) for details of the reconstruction technique and  
19 prior application) to provide greater context for the local conditions Reverend Davis  
20 experienced in his lifetime.

21

22 The Davis diary mean winter temperatures ( $-0.9^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) are comparable to anomalies for  
23 *Libocedrus* tree ring-based reconstructions from Takapari ( $-1.9^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), Moa Park ( $-$   
24  $0.36^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and Flanagan’s Hut ( $-0.90^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) (See Xiong and Palmer, 2000 for chronology  
25 details). The resulting synoptic type changes that would have caused colder winter

1 temperatures for all sites, as indicated by the PICT-based reconstructed climate fields,  
2 would have been driven by an increase in ‘Trough’ types (Kidson, 2000), a reduction  
3 in ‘highs’ over the country (the “H” zonal type of Kidson, 2000) and a reduction of  
4 ‘Blocking’ synoptic types that typically are known for increasing the frequency of  
5 northerly quarter flow (Kidson, 2000). There are clear ‘differences in opinion’  
6 amongst the proxy data with regard to what the specific change in frequency of  
7 occurrence for individual synoptic weather types may have been for 1839–1851  
8 (Figure 8). However the integration of all sites together shows confidence in the  
9 reconstructed regional atmospheric circulation field (z1000) in the New Zealand  
10 sector, with increased lows to the east of the country and over the Chatham Islands  
11 (Figure 9). This regional atmospheric circulation pattern would have produced more  
12 frequent S and SW winds with cooler-than-normal temperatures for New Zealand  
13 (Figure 9).

14

15 Moreover, a projection of anomalous temperatures for the SW Pacific, that is a result  
16 of the integrated New Zealand tree ring reconstructions, with the Davis instrumental  
17 temperature observations suggest an El Niño-like pattern existed for the mean winter  
18 climate state during 1839–1851 (Figure 9). Those signals are corroborated against  
19 existing coral palaeotemperature reconstructions (albeit annually resolved; see Delong  
20 et al., 2012 and Dunbar et al., 1994) that indicate the integration of the Davis  
21 temperatures with the tree ring data and their collective ‘opinion’ about the tropical  
22 Pacific mean climate state is robust. Looking further afield at the wider Southern  
23 Hemisphere z1000 field (Figure 10) the atmospheric circulation is characterized by an  
24 anomalous high pressure in the Bellinghousen Sea paired with a low pressure east of  
25 the Drake Passage. This configuration has a spatial pattern similar to what is observed

1 for the Pacific-South American mode (PSA; Mo and Paegle, 2001). Overall, the  
2 indication from the PICT spatial field projections are that at least two key  
3 teleconnections and climate drivers may have had an important influence on the ‘dirty  
4 weather’ that Reverend Davis observed during 1839–1851. Some parts of the  
5 observed pattern (Figure 9 & 10) are similar to what has been implicated for mean  
6 summer conditions based on 22 equilibrium line altitude temperature reconstructions  
7 for the LIA (Lorrey et al., 2013a). The integration with tree ring evidence also lends  
8 to an interpretation that the Davis meteorological diaries provide a crucial eyewitness  
9 account for the end of this recent but (locally) poorly understood climate episode.

10

### 11 **5.3 How different are the mean and extreme conditions observed by** 12 **Davis relative to today?**

#### 13 **5.3.1 Temperatures and the presence of ice**

14 The direct 9AM temperature comparison of the VCSN and the Davis recordings  
15 suggest that categorically the 9AM average temperature and the most extreme 9AM  
16 temperature that Davis experienced was colder than the modern era (Table 2). The  
17 transformation of the Davis diary 9AM and 12 noon temperature recordings to be  
18 directly comparable to the VCSN modern climatology of daily mean temperature and  
19 temperature extremes (Tmax, Tmin and Tmean) indicates the most significant  
20 differences were colder daily mean and daily extreme temperatures for May-August.  
21 These anomalies are congruent with wider climate change syntheses that have  
22 recognized long-term warming trends in minimum temperatures (Pittock and Wratt,  
23 2001). The Davis diary also suggests that average monthly temperatures were  
24 relatively warmer for November-March, with the clearest signature of warm  
25 anomalies for December and January (Table 3). However, we recognize that some of

1 the climatological results for summer and winter appear consistent with findings  
2 related to poor thermometer ventilation and/or exposure (Nicholls et al., 1996). In the  
3 context of climate driver associations, proxy evidence of past El Niño Southern  
4 Oscillation (ENSO) activity indicates swings occurred between El Niño and La Niña  
5 episodes in the early-to-mid 1800s when Davis was making observations (Gergis and  
6 Fowler, 2009). This probably means the climatological mean values presented here  
7 ‘blend’ successive ENSO events (and anomalies for Northland) via the averaging  
8 process. It may be likely that one particularly strong El Niño and/or a protracted event  
9 could skew this perception. While we have opted to not analyze the individual  
10 seasonal climate anomalies from the Davis diary in this study, future work looking  
11 further afield using Australian weather diary records could prove fruitful for  
12 integration, corroboration and delineation of past ENSO teleconnections and activity.

13

14 The documentation of surface ice on two separate occasions by Reverend Davis  
15 appears unusual. The 15 July 1839 ice event indicates temperatures at 9AM were  
16 4.4°C. This is not the coldest 9AM temperature noted by Davis. Omission of other ice  
17 comments may indicate something to the effect that observations of ice as a  
18 phenomenon may have been sporadic, infrequent, confounded with frost, or only  
19 noted for highly significant events. The alternative is that the conditions for ice  
20 formation and/or persistence into the early morning may have only been amenable  
21 during the days when Davis noted its presence where he was living. The 9AM  
22 temperatures from the Davis diary indicate an extreme low value of 1.7°C occurred  
23 on 8 July 1850, which is clearly colder than the temperature on 15 July 1839. In  
24 consideration of the fact that early morning temperatures are typically colder than  
25 those at 9AM, our VCSN-based Tmin reconstructed temperature of -1.4°C for 8 July

1 1850 suggests that freezing temperatures at nighttime (and associated surface ice  
2 formation) probably occurred episodically during the early Colonial era in Northland.  
3 While little photo-documentary information about freezing cold and past ice presence  
4 in Northland exists, evidence from other undiscovered historic weather journals might  
5 shed more light on this phenomenon. Moreover, traditional Maori knowledge has  
6 suggested surface ice formation in the recent past that coincided with the early part of  
7 the instrumental observation period may have been more frequent than the present day  
8 (King et al., 2008), and that sentiment is congruent with palaeoclimate proxy  
9 interpretations.

### 10 **5.3.2 Snowfall (frozen precipitation)**

11 It is difficult to compare the atmospheric conditions related to the historic Northland  
12 snowfall events. Extended reanalysis integrations that are meaningful for New  
13 Zealand are not available yet for 1868, and in general past daily weather depictions  
14 are data sparse within the 20<sup>th</sup> Century reanalysis for the pre-1950 interval (Cram et  
15 al., 2015). The 1904 snowfall analog cannot be fairly compared to the other analogs  
16 due to data sparseness (and this sentiment is probably applicable to the 1939 analog  
17 because of high latitude data sparseness). However there are similarities in terms of  
18 the geopotential spatial field signatures of the 1939, 1976, and 2011 events (Figure  
19 7b). A significant ‘low’ anchored south of the Chatham Islands extending to the fringe  
20 of the Ross Sea (which was potentially blocked to the east) and a strong ‘high’ over  
21 southeast Australia and Tasmania are common to those three analogs. The general  
22 atmospheric circulation pattern for each of the snowfall events facilitated a corridor of  
23 strong southerly air drawn off of the Antarctic continent fringe that was transmitted to  
24 northern New Zealand. The connection of modern day events that overlap the

1 satellite-observation period which have a similar depiction in reanalysis data indicate  
2 the 30-31 July 1849 event was probably of similar origin.

3

#### 4 **5.4 Pressure observation metadata**

5 In the Davis diary, there is a written note underneath January 1844 (before January  
6 1848) that states:

- 7 • “Note: in the following pages, from Jan. 1 1848 to August the 1<sup>st</sup> 1848 the  
8 barometer was caused to range 40 parts of an inch higher than usual from an  
9 alteration having been made in the bottom stopper screw by some unknown  
10 hand. This was not found until August 2 1848. The month of July was  
11 arranged in copying.”

12 The range of pressure observations that were made during the January-June interval in  
13 question appear higher than normal relative to the rest of the record. We have no  
14 reason to not trust the metadata comment by Reverend Davis found in the diary. As  
15 such, we have corrected the first six months of data in 1848 by subtracting 4/10<sup>ths</sup> of  
16 an inch of pressure prior to converting the measurements to hectopascals and  
17 analyzed these data according to the corrected version. Future work that will see those  
18 measurements integrated into the International Surface Pressure Databank (ISPD)  
19 (Cram et al, 2015) will mean the scale of the pressure adjustments can be tested in  
20 subsequent reanalyses and this will afford an additional opportunity to examine the  
21 Davis pressure series (including means, variability and extremes) in more detail.

#### 22 **6. Conclusions**

23



1 The observations in Reverend Richard Davis's two-volume meteorological diary  
2 represent some of the oldest surviving instrumental observations from the Colonial  
3 era in New Zealand. The data in this historical register are not as comprehensive as  
4 the observations subsequently taken by the Royal Engineers in Auckland during the  
5 early to mid 1850s (thrice daily), or those from James Hector's fledgling  
6 meteorological service network of the late 1860s. However it is fitting that Davis  
7 should be recognized as having made some of the most significant and earliest  
8 contributions to New Zealand meteorology and climatology. The extent and breadth  
9 of the observations as well as their general antiquity suggests Reverend Richard Davis  
10 probably deserves the title of New Zealand's first meteorologist.

11

12 When Davis' temperature observations are transformed to be comparable to modern  
13 day VCSN Tmean, Tmax and Tmin observations, it appears as though temperatures  
14 were categorically cooler during winter when he was resident in the Far North. The  
15 wind observations that are provided by Reverend Davis also suggest southerly-  
16 quadrant flow was more frequent than present day. The timing and descriptions of  
17 monthly and seasonal climate anomalies, when compared to tree ring and coral proxy  
18 data (Figures 8-10) suggest a connection to ENSO and potentially the PSA existed for  
19 New Zealand climate during the mid 19<sup>th</sup> century. It is likely that these two climate  
20 drivers guided some of the local anomalies and synoptic variability that Reverend  
21 Davis observed. With the addition of new data fed into an extended reanalysis, the  
22 depiction of past conditions will be clearer, and these hypotheses can be tested more  
23 rigorously.

24

1 Extreme temperature values, potentially linked to a subtly different mean climate state  
2 (Mann et al., 2009), suggest Davis experienced a relatively higher proportion of what  
3 are normally uncommon occurrences of frost and rare events (freezing, ice, snow) that  
4 do not typify the modern climate and weather of Northland. Overall, the ‘dirty  
5 weather’ comments Davis penned with his extensive instrumental observations  
6 provide an eyewitness account of the Little Ice Age conclusion in New Zealand. The  
7 LIA culmination is notoriously indicated by historic photos and paintings of ice  
8 margin positions with juxtaposed moraines along the Southern Alps margin to the  
9 south of where Davis lived that unequivocally show glaciers were much more  
10 extensive relative to today (Chinn et al., 2012). Extended evidence from the Southern  
11 Alps using equilibrium line altitude-based summer temperature reconstructions  
12 (Lorrey et al., 2013a) similarly suggest generally cooler conditions existed during  
13 Davis’s time in the Far North, with other proxy evidence demonstrating seasonal  
14 variability – including both cold and warm temperatures – was associated with  
15 enhanced ENSO activity (Fowler et al., 2012). As such, the anomalies of colder  
16 winters and warmer summers on average during Davis’ time are not unexpected, and  
17 this evidence enriches our understanding that early settlers may have faced significant  
18 climate anomalies (such as drought and deluge) that New Zealanders continue to  
19 grapple with today.

20

21 The ‘discovery’ of this meteorological gem in a local archive raises the interesting  
22 point that future prospects for historic climate work in New Zealand are numerous.  
23 There are clear indications that historical documents contain instrumental weather  
24 observations and some of these observations overlap and even antedate the Davis  
25 diary, based on initial investigations about ships that transited into New Zealand

1 waters during the Colonial era (Chappell and Lorrey, 2013). Our expectation is that  
2 extension of historic climate work utilizing a range of documentary archives will  
3 enrich the knowledge about the range of natural weather and climate variations that  
4 are possible, and this endeavor is requisite for contextualizing past-to-present historic  
5 trends and for making adequate preparations for future changes.

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21

22

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2

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- 3

1 Figure Captions

2 Figure 1. (top, left) Print of a photomechanical portrait of Reverend Richard Davis  
3 taken c. 1860, from the file print collection, Box 16. Ref: PAColl-7344-97, Alexander  
4 Turnbull Library, Wellington, New Zealand sourced from  
5 <http://natlib.govt.nz/records/23073407> (top, right) a digital scan of the Davis  
6 meteorological diary for July 1849 which also includes commentary about dirty  
7 weather and snow (bottom) The Waimate North mission house in the Far North of  
8 New Zealand where Davis lived.

9 Figure 2. Map of Northland, New Zealand including major points of interest in  
10 Reverend Richard Davis' meteorological diary. The inset map shows New Zealand's  
11 location in the Southwest Pacific and a box around the Northland region. The base  
12 map displays the median annual temperature for the region, based on the 1981-2010  
13 climatology period (temperature legend on right). The top bar plot shows monthly  
14 rainfall (1985-2010 period) and the bottom bar plot shows monthly temperature  
15 (1985-2010 period) for Kaikohe, with frost day occurrences (triangles) inset on the  
16 temperature plot.

17

18 Figure 3. (top) Monthly pressure observations from the Reverend Richard Davis  
19 (RRD) meteorological diary for 1839-1843. Number on x-axis denotes month of each  
20 year. Circles represent values that are 1.5 to 3 times the interquartile range away from  
21 the middle 50% of all of the data, while stars represent extremes are more than 3  
22 times the interquartile range away (middle) comparison of pressure observation in  
23 inches mercury from RRD relative to ship data in the Bay of Islands for the same day  
24 (bottom) RRD pressure observation vs. expedition measurements (leader noted in

1 parenthesis) from USS Vincennes (Wilkes), the corvettes Astrolabe & Zelee  
2 (D'Urville) and the HMS Erebus (Ross). There are 29 pairs of daily observations and  
3 so the x-axis simply shows the comparisons of Davis' record to the three ships in a  
4 sequence with the specific intervals noted.

5

6 Figure 4. (top) Climatology of 9AM temperature and noon temperature and pressure  
7 measured by Reverend Richard Davis at Waimate North and Kaikohe (means for  
8 1839-1843 and 1848-1851 inclusive). (bottom) seasonal wind climatology (%  
9 frequency observation) for the same sites and interval.

10

11 Figure 5. Climatology of qualitative observation for 'dirty weather' rain days and  
12 'dry' days (left hand scale) vs. 'dirty weather and cloud (right hand scale) percentage  
13 of days per month in the Reverend Davis' meteorological diary.

14

15 Figure 6. Climatology of qualitative observation for 'gale' winds and frost days (left  
16 hand scale) with flood and hail (right hand scale) percentage of days per month in the  
17 Reverend Davis' meteorological diary.

18

19 Figure 7a: (top, left) Distribution of historic frozen precipitation events (snowfall,  
20 sleet and graupel) for northern New Zealand. (bottom, left) Reported elevations for  
21 the eyewitness accounts above plotted by latitude, with demarcation lines separating  
22 the minimum estimated settling elevation for frozen precipitation for each event. The  
23 diamond colors note evidence for distinct events: red – 2008, green – 1976, orange –  
24 1868 & 1904, grey – 2011, blue – 1939. The maroon (encircled) diamond indicates

1 the 30-31 July 1839 event recorded by Reverend Davis for the Putahi volcanic cone  
2 when he was living at Waimate North.

3

4 Figure 7b. 500hPa wind strength and streamlines for the aforementioned snowfall  
5 events, courtesy of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century reanalysis v2.

6

7 Figure 8: (Top) Frequency of New Zealand synoptic types (X-axis) during austral  
8 winter as determined by an ensemble composite of reconstructions from three tree  
9 ring proxy sites and the Reverend Richard Davis weather diary for 1839 CE - 1851  
10 CE. Grey bars indicate climatological frequencies in terms of percentage (Y-axis,  
11 left), box and whiskers indicate distribution of anomalies in terms of change in  
12 frequency (Y-axis, right) indicated by the ensemble reconstruction. The black  
13 horizontal line in each box is the median bound by the 25th and 75th percentile while  
14 whiskers are 5th and 95th percentile. Synoptic type abbreviations follow Kidson  
15 (2000; See Supplementary Materials for full details). (Bottom) Heat map of New  
16 Zealand synoptic type (X-axis) frequency changes with respect to climatology for  
17 individual site members (Y-axis) of the ensemble composite for 1839 CE - 1851 CE.  
18 Significance of synoptic type frequency changes was assessed using a Monte Carlo  
19 approach. 10000 simulations of synoptic type evolution were realized based on  
20 Markov chains constrained by the observed frequency and transition probabilities  
21 between Kidson's (2000) synoptic types observed during the modern reanalysis era  
22 (1972-2012). Circles and stars represent anomalies significant at the 90th and 95th  
23 level, respectively. Figures generated using the Past Interpretation of Climate Tool  
24 (PICT) courtesy of National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research (NIWA).  
25 See Lorrey et al. 2014 and <http://pict.niwa.co.nz> for details.

1  
2 Figure 9: (top, left) June-August (JJA) geopotential height anomaly at 1000hPa  
3 (z1000) over the New Zealand region for 1839 CE - 1851 CE determined by an  
4 ensemble composite of reconstructions from three tree ring proxy sites (Moa Park,  
5 Takapari and Flanagan's Hut) and the Reverend Richard Davis weather diary .  
6 Anomaly height is in meters. Reanalysis data is courtesy of the National Centers for  
7 Environmental Prediction (NCEP). Confidence intervals (90th and 95th) are noted  
8 with black (dashed and solid) contour lines. (top, right) Temperature anomalies for  
9 JJA as reconstructed using the selected analog circulation patterns from 4 sites for  
10 1839 CE - 1851 CE. Temperature anomalies are degrees Celsius. (bottom) JJA sea  
11 surface temperature (SST) anomaly over the Southwest Pacific region for 1839 CE -  
12 1851 CE determined by an ensemble composite of reconstructions from four proxy  
13 sites. Temperature anomaly is in C. SST reanalysis data is courtesy of the Hadley  
14 Centre (HADSSTa v3). Confidence intervals (90th and 95th) are noted with black  
15 (dashed and solid) contour lines. Supporting temperature reconstructions for years  
16 corresponding to the New Zealand data and associated errors are shown as purple  
17 symbols on the map to denote locations of reconstructions and alongside the SSTa  
18 scale with associated 1 standard deviation errors. The SSTa reconstructions are based  
19 on coral Sr/Ca from the Great Barrier Reef (triangle), New Caledonia (circle) and Fiji  
20 (square) in Delong et al., (2012) and from d18O for the Equatorial Pacific at the  
21 Galapagos Islands (hexagon) after Dunbar et al., (1994). Base figures were generated  
22 using the Past Interpretation of Climate Tool (PICT) courtesy of National Institute of  
23 Water and Atmospheric Research (NIWA). See Lorrey et al. 2014 and  
24 <http://pict.niwa.co.nz> for details.

25

1

2 Figure 10. July-August geopotential height anomaly at 1000hPa (z1000) over the  
3 Southern Hemisphere for 1839 CE - 1851 CE determined by an ensemble composite  
4 of reconstructions from the Reverend Davis diary temperatures and three tree-ring  
5 proxy data series (same as Figure 9). Anomaly height is in meters. Reanalysis data is  
6 courtesy of the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP). Confidence  
7 intervals (90th and 95th) are noted with black (dashed and solid) contour lines. Figure  
8 generated using the Past Interpretation of Climate Tool (PICT) courtesy of National  
9 Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research (NIWA). See Lorrey et al. 2014 and  
10 <http://pict.niwa.co.nz> for details.

11

12 Figure 11. Pressure series for the second half of the Reverend Richard Davis  
13 meteorological record showing adjusted and unadjusted (clear/white boxes) pressure  
14 series for January – June 1848. Circles represent values that are 1.5 to 3 times the  
15 interquartile range away from the middle 50% of all of the data, while stars represent  
16 extremes are more than 3 times the interquartile range away



Table 1. Monthly average 9AM temperature, Noon temperature and Noon pressure from the Reverend Richard Davis meteorological diary converted from Fahrenheit to Celsius and inches of mercury to hectopascals.

<b>Thermometer 9am</b>	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1839	17.4	18.4	18.4	14.8	12.4	10.4	9.1	9.3	11.7	12.7	16.2	15.6
1840	17.9	18.4	18.1	16.8	12.5	11.0	10.2	9.5	10.7	14.0	14.6	20.5
1841	21.0	18.5	18.3	14.4	11.7	8.8	8.2	10.0	11.6	15.5	16.3	18.4
1842	20.6	19.4	17.4	15.4	11.0	8.8	8.1	8.3	11.2	13.2	16.6	18.0
1843	18.5	19.0	17.6	14.9	11.5	9.4	8.6	10.2	11.8	13.0	16.1	18.8
1848	19.8	18.5	17.7	15.5	12.8	11.6	10.3	11.0	12.2	12.8	16.7	19.1
1849	19.0	19.3	19.1	15.9	13.0	9.9	9.6	9.2	12.1	14.3	16.0	18.7
1850	20.5	20.8	18.4	14.7	12.2	10.4	7.2	10.5	11.9	13.4	16.6	18.3
1851	20.5	20.9	19.5	13.8	12.7	10.4	9.2	10.1	12.9			
Average	19.5	19.2	18.3	15.1	12.2	10.1	8.9	9.8	11.8	13.6	16.1	18.4
<b>Thermometer noon</b>	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1839	21.6	22.5	22.0	19.0	15.1	13.6	12.1	12.1	14.4	15.9	19.0	19.6
1840	21.7	20.7	21.3	19.3	16.4	14.0	12.5	11.9	13.0	17.5	17.3	24.7
1841	25.1	22.4	21.0	17.4	14.6	12.3	11.3	12.5	14.6	18.2	18.3	20.5
1842	23.4	22.5	20.7	17.4	14.3	11.5	11.5	11.6	14.7	15.9	19.3	21.5
1843	21.1	21.4	20.5	16.8	14.1	12.2	11.2	12.9	14.6	14.8	18.6	21.2
1848	21.5	20.0	19.5	17.4	14.0	13.3	13.0	12.7	13.6	14.8	18.8	20.7
1849	20.9	20.8	20.6	17.6	14.3	11.6	10.9	10.9	13.6	15.7	17.4	20.6
1850	22.2	21.6	19.6	16.0	13.8	11.6	9.1	11.8	13.6	15.0	18.3	19.6
1851	22.2	22.7	20.6	15.6	14.3	11.9	11.2	12.1	14.7			
Average	22.2	21.6	20.7	17.4	14.5	12.5	11.4	12.1	14.1	16.0	18.4	21.0
<b>Barometer noon</b>	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1839	990.7	994.9	997.4	997.3	999.9	994.6	990.3	993.0	997.4	991.5	992.8	992.7
1840	996.6	993.9	994.8	992.8	994.7	992.7	994.9	987.8	993.0	998.2	993.1	1000.1
1841	992.5	995.1	997.8	996.7	996.1	990.9	992.7	996.2	997.9	995.7	991.8	988.7
1842	996.5	997.9	997.0	992.5	990.8	990.4	993.5	992.8	994.5	987.7	990.6	994.1
1843	992.7	999.0	998.3	996.0	998.1	991.7	991.5	992.6	988.9	986.7	993.4	996.3

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1851	993.6	996.3	990.0	999.7	992.9	988.3	988.3	989.3	992.0			
Average	998.1	998.5	999.1	998.4	996.2	992.6	992.1	993.2	994.2	993.7	994.0	996.0

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Table 2. VCSN-equivalent temperatures from the Davis diary for 9AM mean, 9AM extreme minimum and 9AM extreme maximum values with reference to VCSN 9AM temperature data for 1972-2012.

9am mean	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Davis	19.3	19	18.1	15.3	12.1	10	8.9	9.7	11.7	13.6	16.1	18.4
VCSN	19.8	20.3	19.5	17.7	15.6	13.7	12.7	13.1	14.1	15.1	16.6	18.5
Difference	-0.5	-1.3	-1.4	-2.4	-3.5	-3.7	-3.8	-3.4	-2.4	-1.5	-0.5	-0.1
Davis era	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder

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9am extreme min	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Davis	11.1	13.9	12.2	5.6	5.6	3.9	1.7	2.2	5.6	8.3	8.9	8.9
VCSN	11.2	9.9	9.7	2.9	6.3	2.1	3.9	5.2	6.5	5.9	9.7	9.2
Difference	-0.1	4	2.5	2.7	-0.7	1.8	-2.2	-3	-0.9	2.4	-0.8	-0.3
Davis era	colder	warmer	warmer	warmer	colder	warmer	colder	colder	colder	warmer	colder	colder

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9am extreme max	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Davis	26.7	24.4	23.9	21.1	19.4	20	15.6	16.1	16.7	21.1	22.2	24.4
VCSN	27.5	26.3	27.3	24.8	23.8	21.5	19.8	21.1	21.9	22.8	24.3	24.9
Difference	-0.8	-1.9	-3.4	-3.7	-4.4	-1.5	-4.2	-5	-5.2	-1.7	-2.1	-0.5
Davis era	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder	colder

Table 3. VCSN-equivalent average monthly Tmin, Tmax, Tmean and diurnal temperature range based on Reverend Davis 9AM and Noon temperatures compared to modern climatology (for 1972-2012). Bold (italic) highlighting indicates warmer (colder) differences of more than 0.5°C for Davis observations relative to the present.

Davis - reconstructed	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual
Tmin(C)	14.5	14.7	14.1	12.0	9.1	7.0	6.0	6.4	7.8	9.4	11.4	13.6	10.5
Tmax(C)	24.4	24.1	22.8	19.5	16.5	14.5	13.5	14.1	16.0	18.1	20.4	23.0	18.9
Tmean(C)	19.5	19.4	18.5	15.7	12.8	10.7	9.8	10.3	11.9	13.8	15.9	18.3	14.7
Diurnal range	9.9	9.4	8.7	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.6	7.4	8.2	8.7	9.0	9.4	8.4
VCSN modern	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual
Tmin(C)	14.0	14.5	13.5	11.8	9.9	8.0	7.1	7.3	8.3	9.4	10.9	12.7	10.6
Tmax(C)	23.3	23.7	22.2	19.8	17.3	15.2	14.5	14.8	16.2	17.6	19.5	21.6	18.8
Tmean(C)	18.6	19.1	17.9	15.8	13.6	11.6	10.8	11.1	12.2	13.5	15.2	17.1	14.7
Diurnal range	9.3	9.2	8.7	8	7.5	7.2	7.3	7.5	7.9	8.2	8.6	8.9	8.2
Davis era difference	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual
Tmin(C)	0.5	0.2	<b>0.6</b>	0.2	-0.8	-1.0	-1.1	-0.9	-0.5	0.0	0.5	<b>0.9</b>	-0.1
Tmax(C)	<b>1.1</b>	0.4	<b>0.6</b>	-0.3	-0.8	-0.7	-1.0	-0.7	-0.2	0.5	<b>0.9</b>	<b>1.4</b>	0.1
Tmean(C)	<b>0.9</b>	0.3	<b>0.6</b>	-0.1	-0.8	-0.9	-1.0	-0.8	-0.3	0.3	<b>0.7</b>	<b>1.2</b>	0.0
Diurnal range	<b>0.6</b>	0.2	0.0	-0.4	-0.1	0.2	0.3	-0.1	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.2

Table 4. Percentage frequency per month (and averaged by season) for qualitative wind direction observations by Reverend Richard Davis for the entire span of his observations.

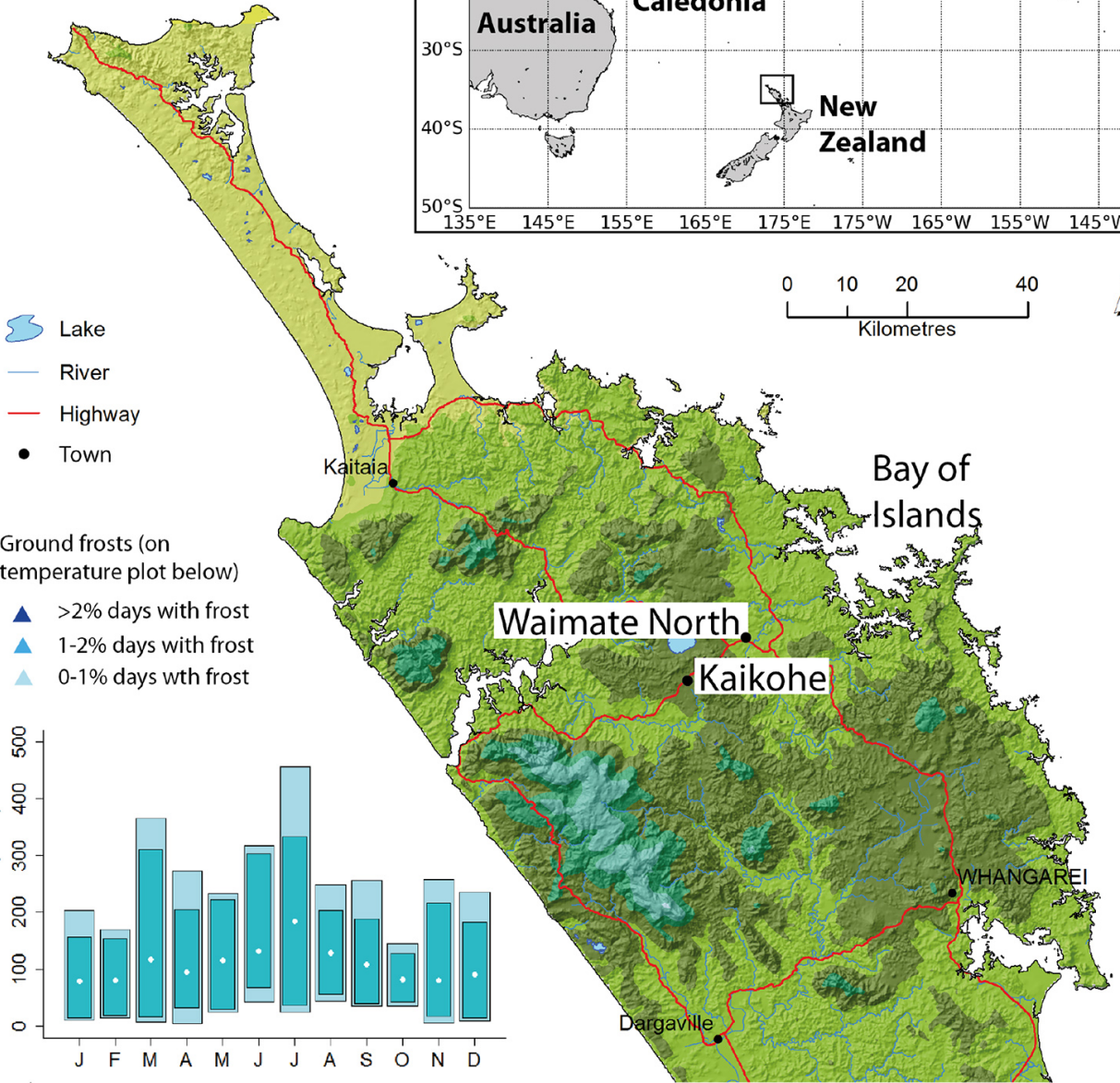
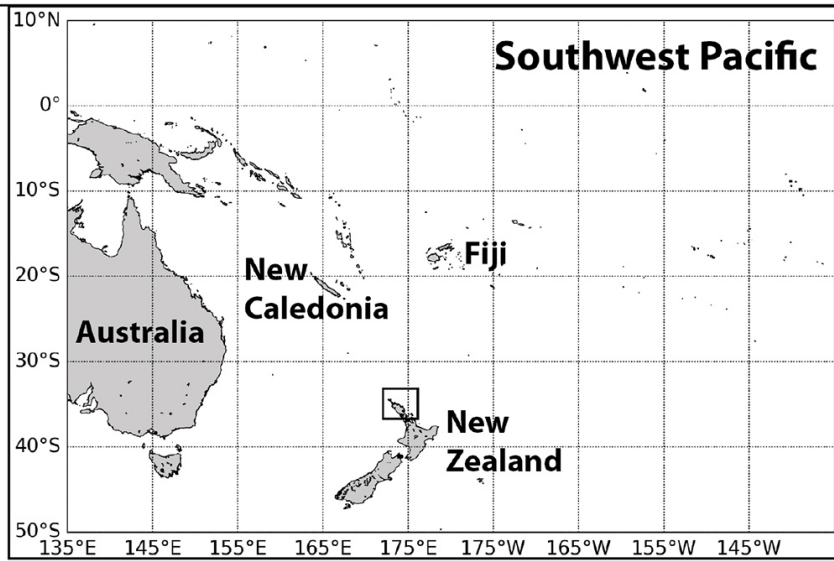
Month	N	NE	E	SE	S	SW	W	NW	VRB
Jan	11.1	2.9	10.0	5.0	14.3	16.8	14.7	6.5	18.6
Feb	10.2	5.9	11.4	13.0	16.5	12.2	9.1	5.5	16.1
Mar	7.9	4.3	16.1	12.2	15.4	14.3	12.2	6.5	11.1
Apr	8.9	5.2	7.4	9.3	24.4	15.6	11.5	9.6	8.1
May	7.9	3.6	4.3	5.7	21.9	20.4	13.6	14.7	7.9
Jun	13.0	2.2	6.3	9.3	15.9	15.9	17.8	12.2	7.4
Jul	9.7	5.7	4.3	11.1	19.0	12.2	15.4	12.2	10.4
Aug	10.0	4.7	6.1	13.3	13.6	17.9	16.1	9.0	9.3
Sep	12.1	7.1	8.8	6.7	12.9	10.8	17.1	12.9	11.7
Oct	9.3	2.4	6.5	5.2	13.7	16.5	23.8	16.1	6.5
Nov	17.1	7.9	3.8	3.8	10.0	13.8	21.3	12.1	10.4
Dec	7.7	8.5	11.3	4.8	12.5	13.7	17.7	7.3	16.5
AVG	10.4	5.0	8.0	8.3	15.9	15.0	15.9	10.4	11.2
SON	12.8	5.8	6.3	5.2	12.2	13.7	20.7	13.7	9.5
DJF	9.7	5.7	10.9	7.6	14.5	14.3	13.8	6.4	17.1
MAM	8.2	4.4	9.3	9.1	20.6	16.8	12.4	10.3	9.0
JJA	10.9	4.2	5.6	11.2	16.2	15.3	16.4	11.1	9.0



Day	Date	Therm. at 9 A.M.	Therm. at 3 P.M.	Baromet. at Noon	Wind	General Remarks July 1849
Tu	1	56	58	29.29	N. Westly	Wet and rough with thunder
W	2	54	55	29.26	N. Westly	Cloudy but dry
Th	3	47	50	29.20	S. Eastly	Heavy Showers
F	4	53	50	29.25	S. Eastly	Cloudy
Sa	5	54	57	29.20	Southerly	Light Showers
Su	6	52	53	29.24	S. Westly	Heavy Showers Full Moon.
M	7	55	56	29.27	N. Westly	Dry
Tu	8	53	57	29.20	N. Westly	Showers
W	9	49	54	29.20	N. Westly	Fine. Lightly in the evening
Th	10	40	47	29.20	N. Westly	Showers
F	11	40	40	29.20	S. Eastly	Showers
Sa	12	49	49	29.29	Southerly	Showers
Su	13	46	40	29.25	Southerly	Heavy Showers, wind strong
M	14	45	40	29.30	Southerly	Showers
Tu	15	40	50	29.30	Southerly	Showers - Wind strong
W	16	49	50	29.45	Southerly	Dry but cloudy and cold
Th	17	40	50	29.45	South	Dry but cold
F	18	40	50	29.53	Variable	Showers
Sa	19	52	51	29.32	N. Eastly	Continues rain, but little wind
Su	20	47	50	29.20	N. Westly	Dry. New Moon.
M	21	40	52	29.24	N. Westly	Showers
Tu	22	51	54	29.25	N. Westly	Showers
W	23	48	51	29.26	N. Westly	Showers
Th	24	49	52	29.22	S. Westly	Hard Showers
F	25	40	47	29.20	Variable	Continued rain - wind moderate
Sa	26	49	50	29.20	South	Showers
Su	27	46	49	29.20	South	Showery dirty weather
M	28	40	50	29.10	S. Westly	Showers
Tu	29	47	40	29. . .	N. Westly	Dry dirty weather. Fair
W	30	42	46	20.90	S. Westly	Light Showers this morning the Southern Hill is quite covered with snow.
Th	31	46	51	29.15	S. Westly	This morning the hills were again covered with snow.

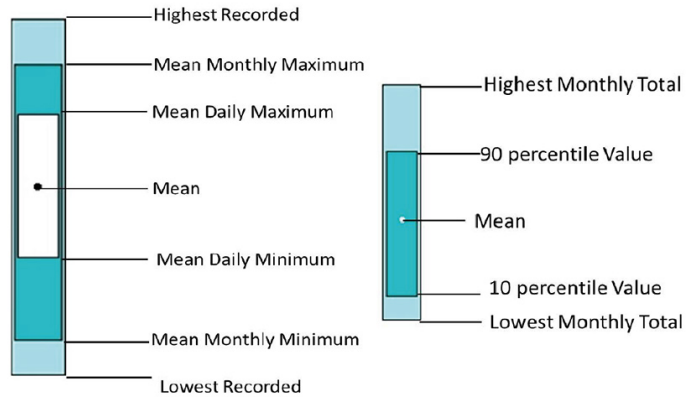
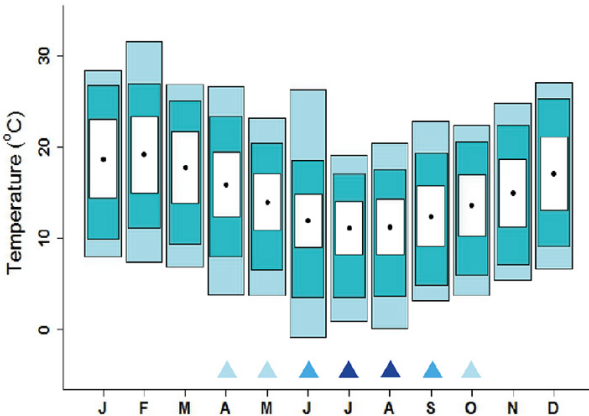
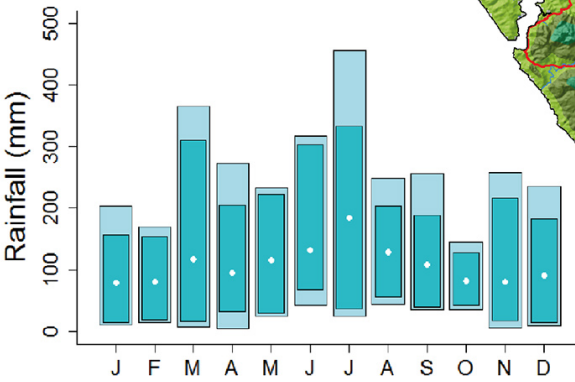


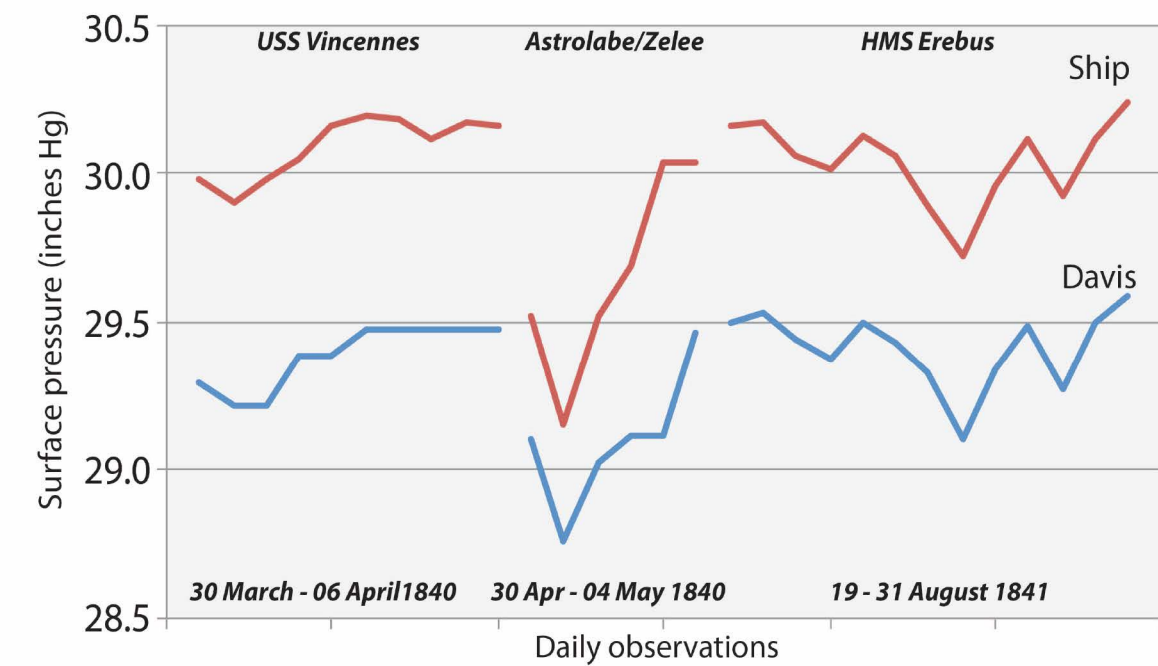
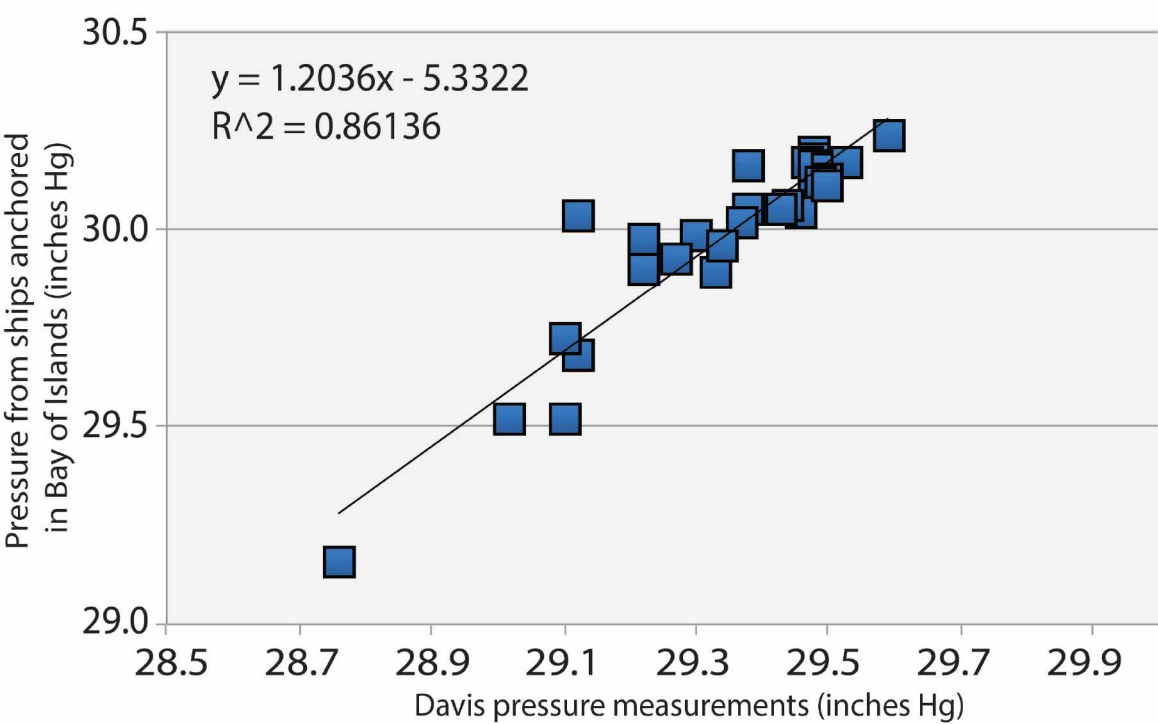
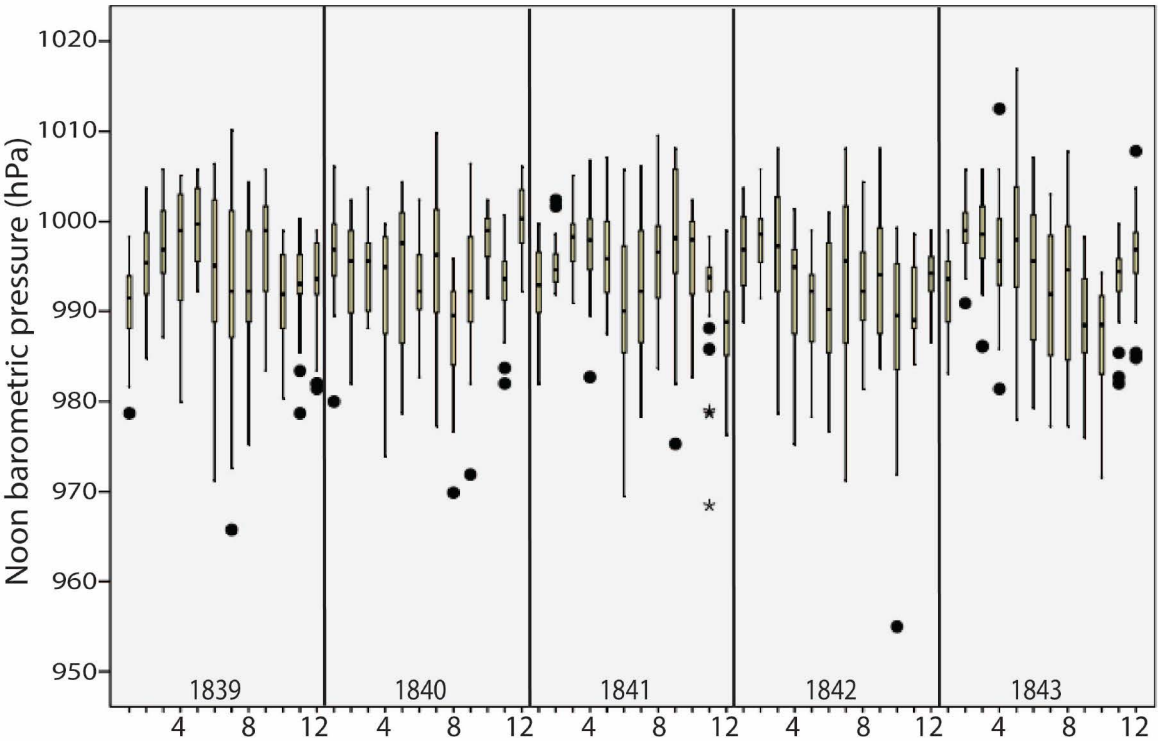
# Northland New Zealand



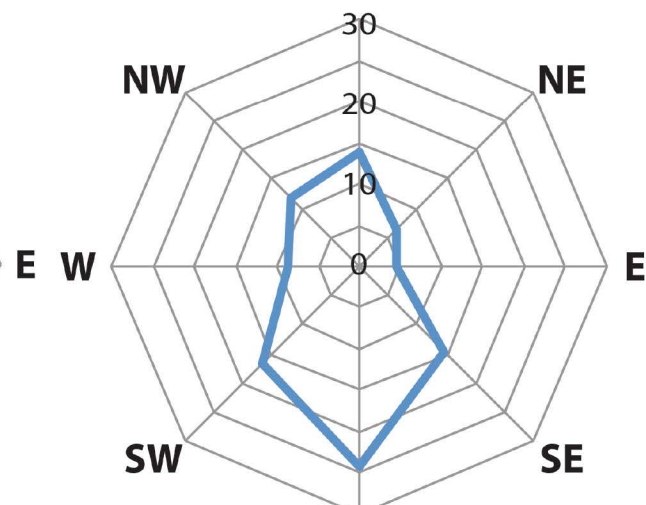
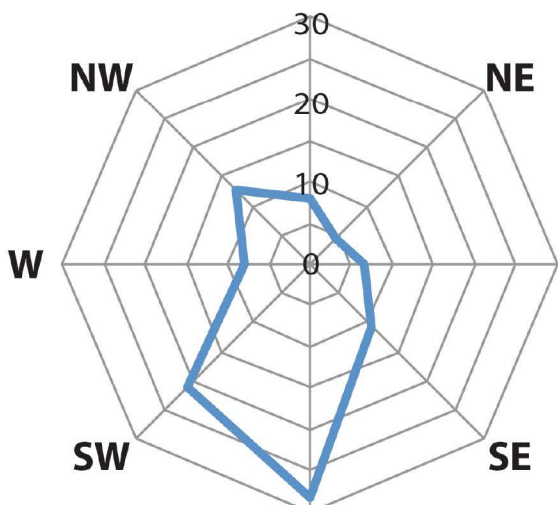
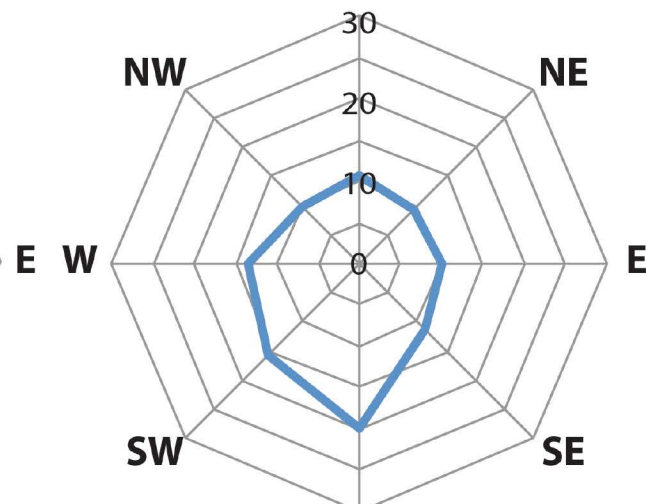
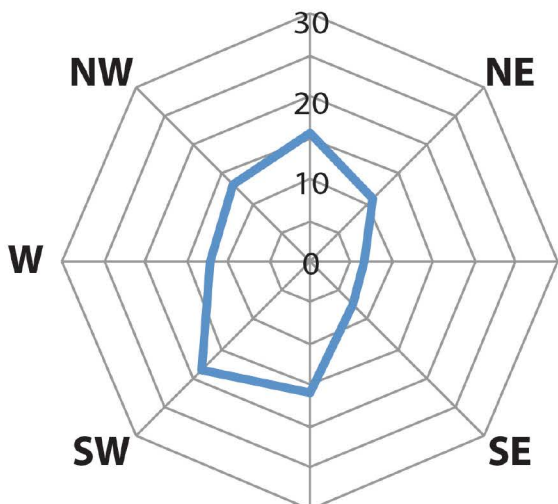
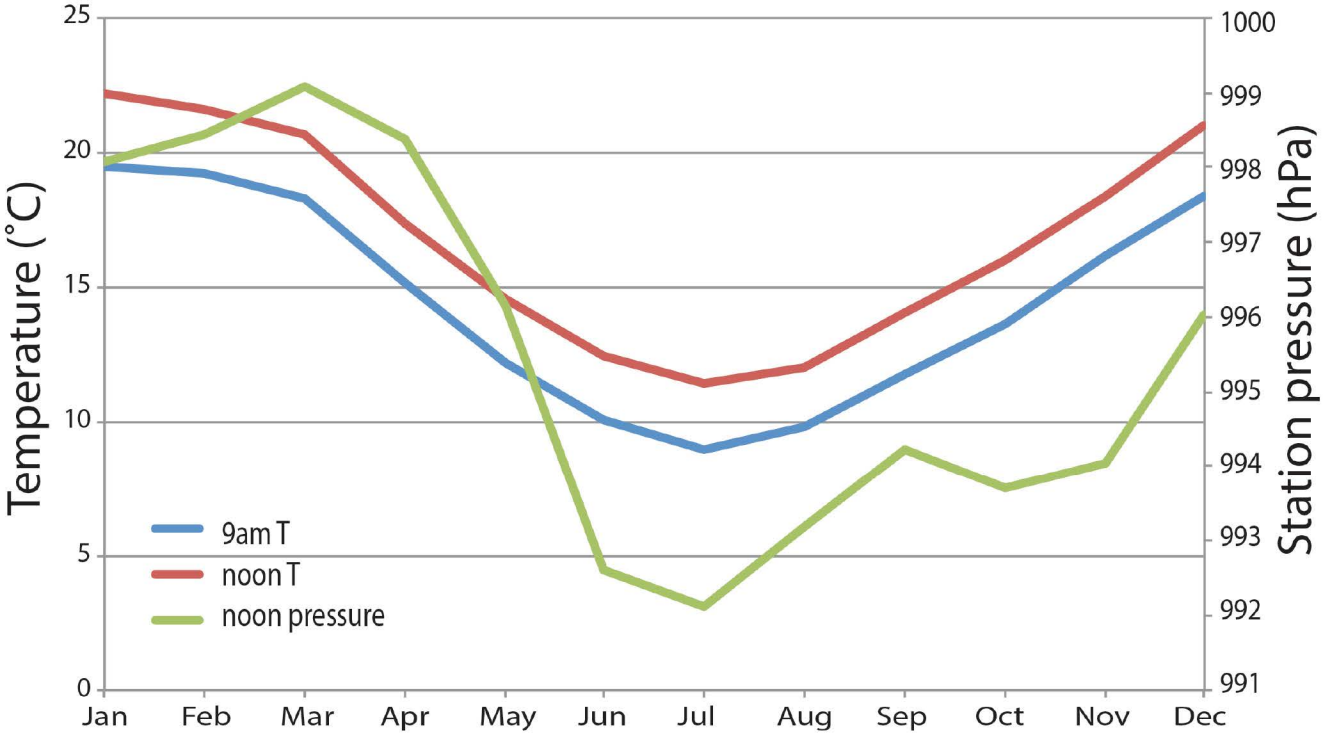
Ground frosts (on temperature plot below)

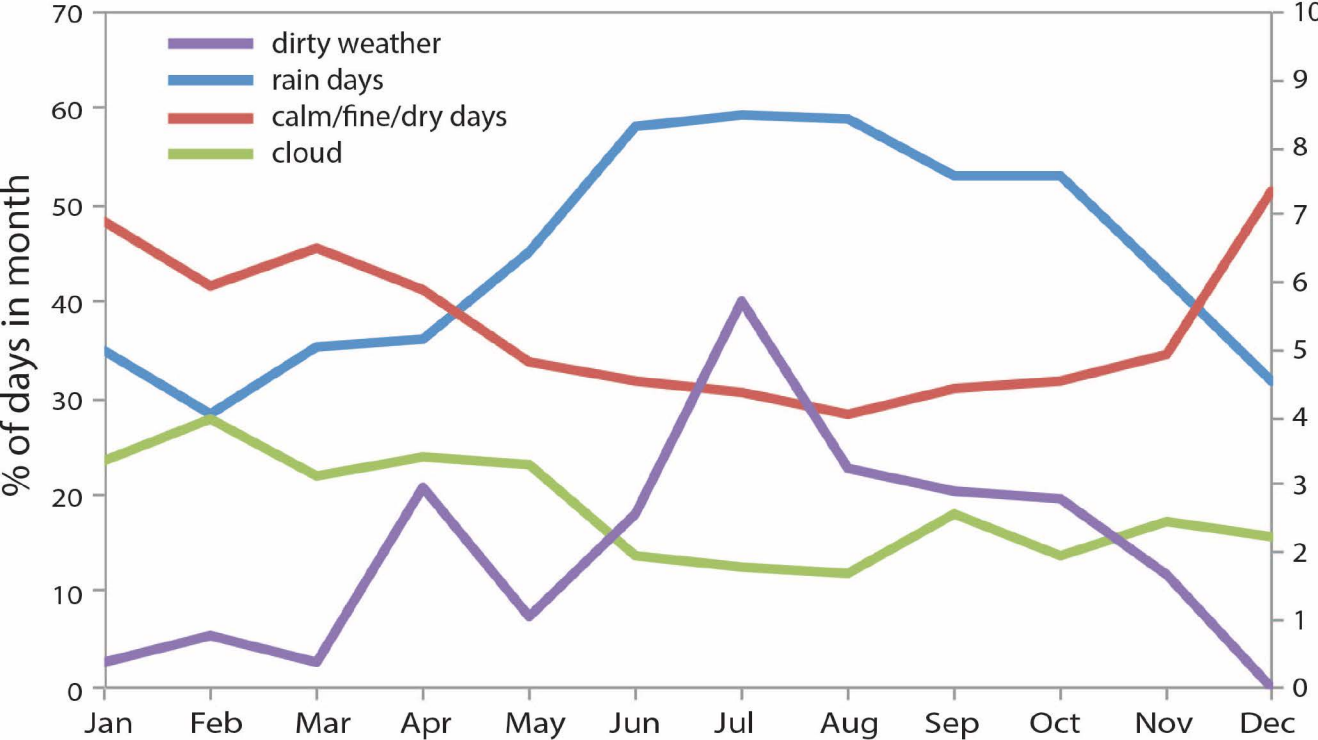
- ▲ >2% days with frost
- ▲ 1-2% days with frost
- ▲ 0-1% days with frost

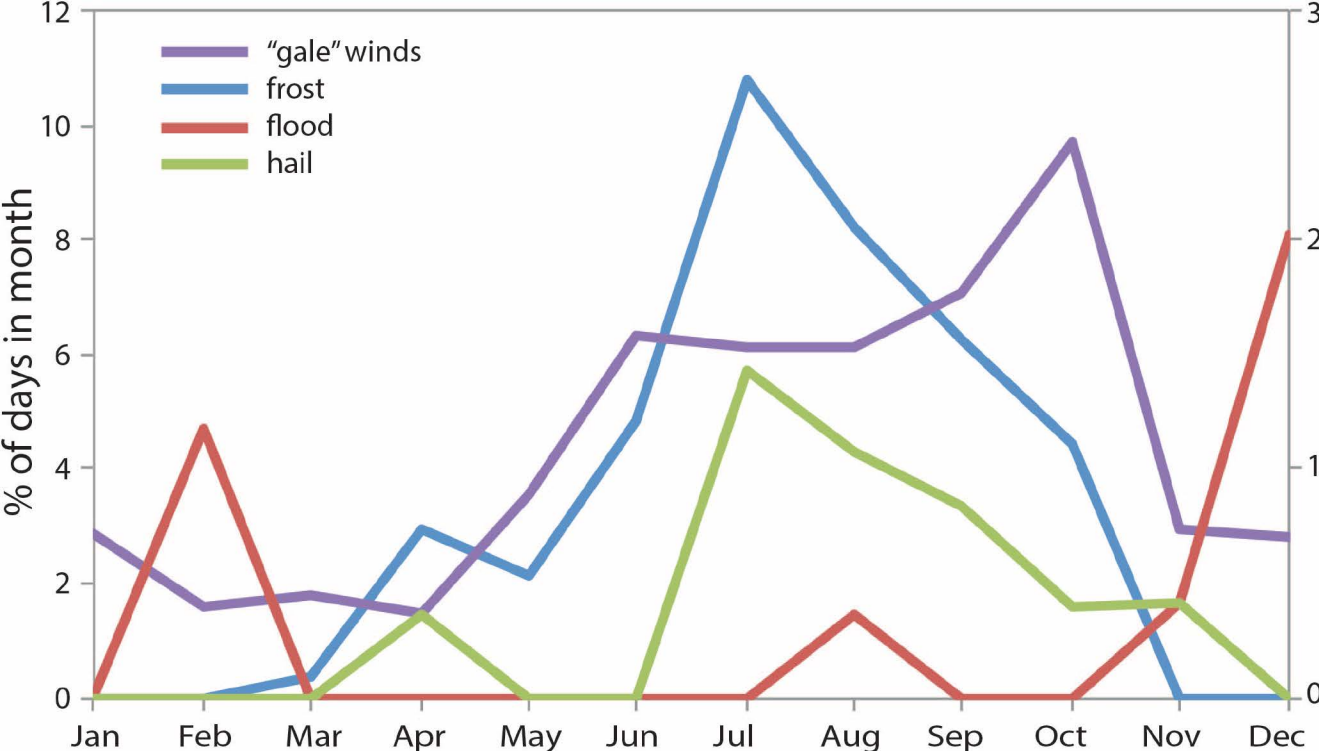






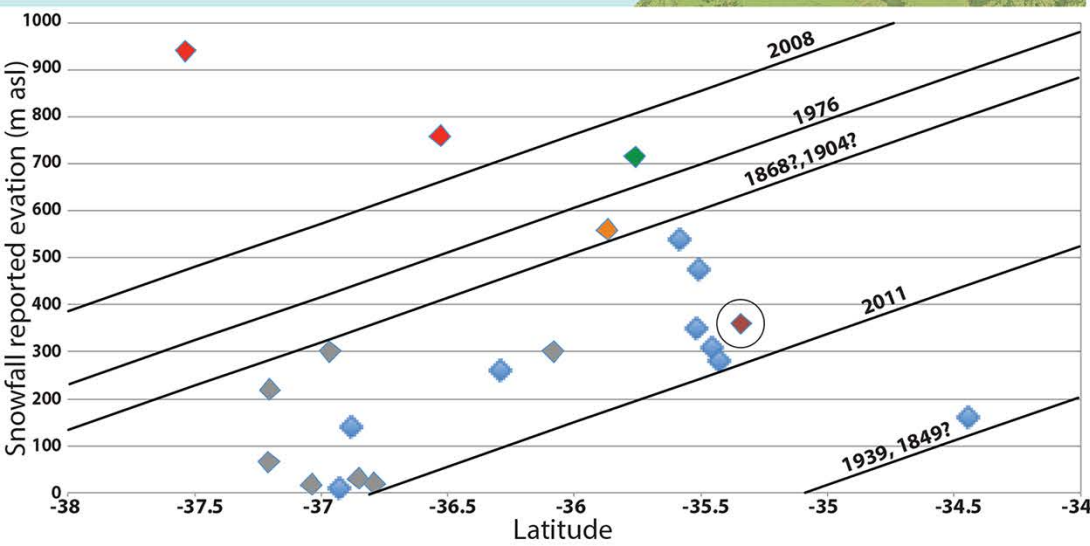
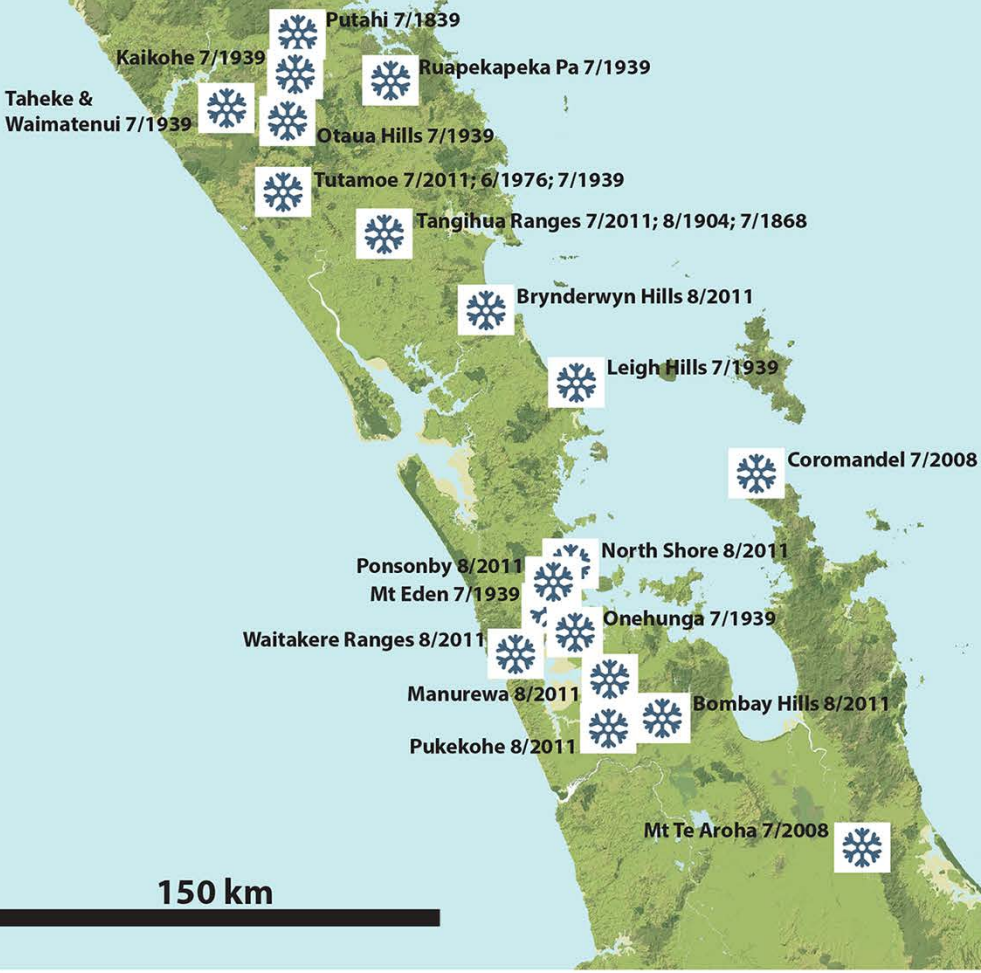






(a)

Cape Maria Van Diemen ridges 7/1939



(b)

