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1 **microclimOz – a microclimate data set for Australia, with example applications**

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5
6 **Abstract**

7 Many problems in pure and applied ecology require the quantification of above and below
8 ground microclimates. Here I describe a data set of hourly microclimates for the Australian
9 continent, simulated from the years 1990 to 2017 across a grid of 1893 locations ~60 km
10 apart. The data were generated with the NicheMapR microclimate model, driven by 0.05°
11 gridded daily meteorological forcing data (air temperature, wind speed, humidity, cloud
12 cover, rainfall), 0.025° elevation and 0.008° soil texture data. The above ground microclimate
13 variables include horizontal plane solar radiation, solar zenith angle, sky temperature (from
14 which down-welling longwave radiation can be computed), air temperature, relative humidity
15 and wind speed at 1 cm and 120 cm height, and snow depth. The below ground variables
16 include soil temperature, pore humidity, soil moisture and soil water potential for 0, 2.5, 5,
17 10, 15, 20, 30, 50, 100 and 200 cm below ground. The computations are for four shade levels
18 (0, 50, 70 and 90%). The data set can be used for a wide variety of applications, including the
19 computation of heat and water budgets of organisms, the potential for vegetation growth, and
20 the computation of stress and growth indices. The use of daily forcing data also allows
21 assessments of the consequences of extreme events including heat waves. Example
22 applications are provided for computing plant growth potential, grasshopper egg
23 development, lizard body temperature and mammalian energy and water requirements.

25 **Key words: microclimate, NicheMapR, mechanistic niche modelling, soil temperature,**
26 **soil moisture, biophysical ecology**

27

28 **Introduction**

29 Microclimates are the environments experienced by organisms; in terrestrial environments
30 they are typically the ‘climates’ near the ground or beneath it (Geiger 1950; Bramer *et al.*
31 2018; Kearney 2018). Increasingly, ecologists are in need of microclimatic data to make
32 mechanistic connections between climatic and phenotypic variability (Bennie *et al.* 2014;
33 Bramer *et al.* 2018). At one extreme, microclimatic variables can be used to solve energy and
34 mass budgets for organisms (Porter and Gates 1969; Kearney, Munns, *et al.* 2018) and
35 thereby estimate their body temperature (and hence biological rates) and water loss (and
36 hence hydration state). At the other extreme, microclimatic data can be used to derive
37 descriptive indices of habitat suitability (Varner and Dearing 2014).

38

39 There is a growing set of computational tools for calculating different aspects of
40 microclimates and mesoclimates (Bennie *et al.* 2008; Ashcroft and Gollan 2012; Levy *et al.*
41 2016; Kearney and Porter 2017; Maclean *et al.* 2018). Modelled microclimatic data sets have
42 also been developed at a global scale (Kearney, Isaac, *et al.* 2014) and for North America
43 (Levy *et al.* 2016). Here I present a comprehensive microclimate data set for Australia,
44 computed using the recently released NicheMapR microclimate model (Kearney and Porter
45 2017). This model has been extensively tested for its ability to predict both soil temperature
46 (Kearney, Shamakhy, *et al.* 2014) and soil moisture (Kearney and Maino 2018) across
47 Australia, with accuracy to within 10% of measurement values. A data set of microclimatic
48 output from this model would thus be valuable for a wide range of pure and applied problems
49 in ecology, conservation, agriculture, health and pest management in the Australian context.

50

51 There are substantial computational and storage challenges to producing microclimatic data
52 sets; microclimates must be provided on fine (at least hourly) temporal scales to be
53 biologically relevant, and they change strongly through space on the scale of centimetres. The
54 approach taken here is to provide simulated microclimate data at high temporal resolution
55 based on long-term historical (daily) forcing data, at a sufficiently large sample of sites to be
56 able to make coarse inferences of distribution limits of species at the continental scale.
57 Accordingly, it comprises a 28 year, hourly series of key above and below ground conditions
58 for 1836 locations evenly sampled from ~5 km resolution interpolated daily weather data and
59 ~90 m resolution estimated soil properties. Conditions are provided for four shade levels,
60 allowing spatially implicit behavioural thermoregulation to be considered. Although based on
61 a 5 km resolution climatology (adjusted to a 250 m resolution elevation grid), the model
62 predicts the potential spatial variation at the cm scale in terms of vertical changes (height
63 above surface, depth below ground) and horizontal changes (between different shade levels).

64

65 This article describes the data set and provides example analyses ranging from simple
66 plotting of the raw data, to behaviourally-explicit calculations of animal activity, energy and
67 water budgets.

68

69 **Methods**

70 The NicheMapR microclimate model, now completely open source
71 <https://github.com/mrke/NicheMapR>, is described fully in Kearney and Porter (2017).
72 Briefly, it comprises a first-principles solar radiation module, algorithms for hourly
73 interpolation of vertical profiles of air temperature, wind speed and relative humidity,
74 algorithms for computing terrain, cloud and vegetation shading influences on short- and long-

75 wave radiation streams, a full heat and water budget for the soil profile including a water
76 infiltration model, and a coupled snow model. It requires as input the daily minima and
77 maxima (or hourly observations if available) of air temperature, wind speed and relative
78 humidity at a reference height, as well as cloud cover, substrate solar absorptivity and long-
79 wave emissivity, soil thermal and hydraulic properties (depth-specific, including vegetation
80 characteristics), and terrain characteristics (including elevation, slope, aspect, hill shade). It
81 produces hourly output of the soil temperature, humidity, fractional moisture and water
82 potential profiles, above ground air temperature, wind speed and relative humidity at a user-
83 specified height, solar radiation and zenith angles, and sky temperature (accounting for cloud
84 cover and shading) for determining down-welling longwave radiation.

85

86 To generate the microclimOz data set, the model, was run as described in Kearney and Maino
87 (2018), from the years 1990 to 2017 inclusive across a grid of 1836 locations approximately
88 60 km apart. At each site, daily forcing data from the Australian Water Availability Project
89 (AWAP) (Jones *et al.* 2009) on minimum and maximum air temperature, 9am and 3pm
90 vapour pressure, total solar radiation and total precipitation was extracted, as well as 1.2 m
91 wind speed from a daily gridded product (McVicar *et al.* 2008). It is important to note that
92 the forcing air temperature, vapour pressure, precipitation and wind speed data are
93 interpolations of weather station data. Minimum and maximum air temperatures were
94 adjusted with respective lapse-rate corrections [$0.0039\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C m}^{-1}$ and $0.0077\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C m}^{-1}$, Ruddell *et*
95 *al.* (1990)] from the 0.05° AWAP elevation grid to a 9 arc second DEM (Hutchinson *et al.*
96 2008), and depth-specific soil textural and density properties were extracted from the 3 arc
97 second Soil and Landscape Grid of Australia (SLGA) data set (Viscarra Rossel *et al.* 2015,
98 2015) and converted to hydraulic properties with a pedotransfer function (Cosby *et al.* 1984)
99 as described more fully in Kearney and Maino (2018). Flat ground was assumed. Substrate

100 solar reflectivity was fixed at 0.15 and long-wave emissivity was extracted from a monthly
101 0.05° data set (Seemann *et al.* 2008) and splined to a daily time step. All the forcing data and
102 terrain/soil variables for each location (minimum and maximum daily air temperature,
103 minimum and maximum relative humidity, wind speed, rainfall, elevation, soil hydraulic
104 properties), and the coordinates of the grid of 1836 points, are available in the data repository.
105 For computations of solar radiation, an aerosol attenuation profile is required (McCullough
106 and Porter 1971), which was based on data extracted for a single location from the eastern-
107 most 5 degree resolution pixel of the Global Aerosol Data Set (GADS) (Koepke *et al.* 1997).
108 All analyses were run in the statistical package R (R Development Core Team 2012).

109

110 **Results and Discussion**

111

112 The microclimOz data set is summarised in Table 1, and is available at
113 <https://knb.ecoinformatics.org/view/doi:10.5063/F15Q4T9Q>. It comprises a series of netCDF
114 files (each ~60 megabytes), a self-describing array-holding file format. Each file contains
115 hourly values of a given variable for all 1836 locations evenly spaced ~60 km apart for each
116 year (1990 – 2017) with the exception of the zenith angle outputs which are provided for a
117 single leap and non-leap year. Most values have been multiplied by 10 and stored as integers
118 to reduce file size. Shade-specific outputs are provided for 1cm air temperature, 1 cm relative
119 humidity, sky temperature, snow depth, and for all soil outputs (temperature, moisture, water
120 potential and humidity). The total data set comprises 4653 files and totals ~350 gigabytes
121 representing over 74 billion hourly microclimate values.

122

123 The simulated microclimate data can be extracted for specific points or for selected grids, and
124 the user can employ interpolation functions to obtain estimates at intermediate shade level or

125 heights above the ground between 1cm and 120 cm if necessary. Interpolation of wind speed,
126 V , and air temperature, T , between these two heights to any other height z , assuming neutral
127 conditions (i.e. no strong free convection), can be achieved with the following equations
128 (Sellers 1965)

129

$$130 \quad V_z = (V^*/k) \ln \left(\frac{z}{z_0} + 1 \right)$$

$$131 \quad \frac{V_z}{V_r} = \frac{T_z - T_s}{T_r - T_s} = \frac{\ln \left(\frac{z}{z_0} + 1 \right)}{\ln \left(\frac{z_r}{z_0} + 1 \right)}$$

132

133 where V^* is the shear velocity (m s^{-1}), V_z is the wind speed at the new height, V_r is the
134 reference wind speed, z_r is the reference height (m), z_0 is the assumed surface roughness
135 (0.004 m in the present case), T_s is the surface temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), T_r is the air temperature at the
136 reference height, T_z is the air temperature at the new height, and k is the Karman constant
137 (0.4).

138

139 Some example plots and applications are provided below, with all the associated code and
140 detailed explanations provided in the online supplement Appendix S1.

141

142 Example output grids

143 Figure 1a illustrates output grids for four different variables on the 1st January 2009. This
144 includes the zenith angle of the sun, which is 0° when the sun is directly overhead and 90°
145 when it is below the horizon. This variable is computed directly by the NicheMapR
146 microclimate model following the equations in McCulloch and Porter (1971) and can be used
147 to assess the times of sunrise and sunset, as well as the intensity of solar radiation in

148 situations other than horizontal planes. In Figure 1 it can be seen that in early January the sun
149 is most directly overhead around the tropic of Capricorn.

150

151 The solar radiation grid in Figure 1a shows high intensity solar radiation ($> 1000 \text{ W m}^{-2}$) over
152 much of Australia but cloud cover in the north-eastern regions has reduced the radiation
153 levels substantially. The NicheMapR microclimate model computes clear sky solar radiation
154 from first principals (McCullough and Porter 1971) but the results are then adjusted
155 according to cloud cover which was inferred via the satellite-derived solar radiation from the
156 AWAP data set.

157

158 The two other panels in Figure 1 show the wind speed and air temperature at 1 cm above the
159 ground – a typical height for a small lizard, a large terrestrial insect, or a small forb. The wind
160 speed at this height is strongly reduced by friction with the ground, and the air temperature at
161 this time of the day is much higher than what would be measured by a weather station.

162

163 Example output time-series

164 Figure 2 shows some examples of hourly output extracted for the two locations indicated on
165 the maps in Figure 1: near Old Andado Station in the Simpson Desert of the Northern
166 Territory (Fig. 2a & b), and near Bendigo, Victoria (Fig. 2c & d), for 2009. Each file in the
167 microclimOz data set comprises 8760 layers (non-leap years), one for each hour of the day,
168 and such time series can be extracted for any of the 1836 locations. Appendix S1 (section 2)
169 includes a function for extracting a time series of data for a given location.

170

171 It is clear from the air temperature plots in Figure 2a & c how much the 1cm air temperature
172 differs from the 120 cm (weather station) air temperatures. Daily minimum and maximum air

173 temperatures were used to generate the microclimates, with the internal daily interpolation
174 algorithm of the NicheMapR microclimate model providing an estimate of the daily cycle.
175 There was a major heat wave in 2009 in early February in southern Australia, which is
176 evident for the Bendigo figures. Also note the substantial reduction in temperature variation
177 with depth for the soil temperature plots (Fig. 2b & d).

178

179 Computing plant growth potential

180 Figure 3 provides an example time series plot of soil water potential, a metric which
181 quantifies the ability of the soil to pull moisture out of e.g. a plant's roots or a lizard's eggs
182 (water potential is for water flow like temperature is for heat flow - the steeper the gradient,
183 the greater the flow). Water potential, which never rises above zero, is a function of both the
184 soil moisture content and the texture (particle size, as dictated by the % sand, silt and clay).
185 The more negative the water potential, the greater the pulling power. The microclimOz
186 calculations used soil texture data extracted from the 90 m Soil and Landscape Grid of
187 Australia for the nearest pixel to a given grid point. Grids of the actual soil hydraulic
188 properties used (19 depth-specific values per site) are included in the data set.

189

190 Figure 3 shows soil water potential data at 10 cm depth as well as the results of a calculation
191 of the cumulative summation of time above the permanent wilting point, assuming this to be -
192 1500 J kg^{-1} (resetting whenever the wilting point is reached). It thus provides a prediction of
193 cumulative plant growth potential, which should correlate with the greenness of vegetation
194 having roots around 10 cm deep (this calculation could be extended by including a
195 temperature dependence to growth). There is a stark contrast between the temperate and arid
196 site.

197

198 Figure 4 shows the sums of the time above the permanent wilting point across all 8760 grids
199 (i.e. hours of the year), thus providing an index of plant growth potential for 2009. Note the
200 two patches of very low values in inland Western Australia - these are areas of very uncertain
201 rainfall due to a dearth of weather stations, and are masked as zero in the AWAP data set.

202

203 *Computing insect egg development*

204 Soil temperature estimates are important for many applications, one being the estimation of
205 insect egg development (Horton 2012). Figure 5 shows estimates of egg development for a
206 native Australian matchstick grasshopper, *Warramaba virgo*. This grasshopper is univoltine,
207 hatching in spring, living and feeding on shrubs (especially *Acacia*, *Senna*), and laying
208 batches of eggs about 3 cm underground through the summer, as described in detail in
209 Kearney *et al.* (2018). In Figure 5 its egg development is simulated at 5 cm depth assuming
210 oviposition times of 0, 30 and 60 days from the start of the simulation (1st January). Note that
211 at both sites some eggs would hatch before winter, but this does not happen in nature due to a
212 summer diapause mechanism (Kearney, Deutscher, *et al.* 2018). Figure 6 shows the
213 cumulative development time across all hours of 2009, indicating unsuitable conditions for
214 egg development in coastal south-eastern Australia and Tasmania.

215

216 *Computing ectotherm body temperature*

217 Figure 7 provides an example of the use of the microclimOz data set to compute the heat
218 budget of a lizard, based on the biology of the military dragon *Ctenophotus isolepis*. This
219 lizard occurs in hummock grasslands (*Triodia*) on sand plains throughout inland Australia
220 and forages in the open for ants (Losos 1987). The example results from computations of the
221 potential body temperature of the lizard in either the 0% or 90% shade scenarios, using the
222 voluntary foraging limits to choose between environments, i.e. to behaviourally

223 thermoregulate. This example uses a very simplified heat budget model of a lizard provided
224 in Gates (1980). The analysis indicates summertime constraints on foraging in open ground
225 due to overheating in both locations, and predicts that the Bendigo location would preclude
226 winter activity. Figure 8 illustrates the same calculations made across the whole spatial extent
227 of the microclimOz data set at midday on 1st January 2009. The cloud cover indicated in
228 Figure 1 is permitting cool enough conditions for activity in the north east of the country.

229

230 *Computing endotherm metabolic heat and water requirements*

231 In this final example, a heat budget is solved for an endotherm (mammal or bird) based on the
232 equations of Porter and Kearney (2009) for an ellipsoid-shaped endotherm. This analytical
233 solution, which is included in the NicheMapR package as function 'ellipsoid', is relevant for
234 'black body' radiation environments where the air and radiant temperatures are the same, as is
235 approximated in a room, a house, a cave or very deep shade.

236

237 The 'ellipsoid' function finds the metabolic heat generation required to attain a specified core
238 body temperature given the air temperature and wind speed of the environment and the size,
239 shape and insulation (fur/feather depth and thermal conductivity) of the animal. The resulting
240 solution may be above or below the basal metabolic rate for the animal in question. In the
241 former case, a precise estimate is obtained of the additional energy expenditure required to
242 for the animal to keep warm. In the latter case, an estimate is obtained of how much heat
243 needs to be lost (typically through evaporation, via panting or sweating) to keep cool.

244

245 This particular example is based on a small rodent, the ash-grey mouse *Pseudomys*
246 *albocinereus*, foraging under heavily shaded (90%) conditions or retreating to a 50 cm deep
247 burrow. The physiology is based on Barker *et al.* (2012) who found the species to exhibit

248 hyperthermia in hot conditions, allowing body temperature to rise to 37.8 °C when air
249 temperature rose above 34 °C. A test of the ability of the model to capture laboratory
250 observations is provided in Appendix S1. The analysis presented in Figure 9 incorporates
251 changing behavioural states (posture, piloerection, hyperthermia) based on the experienced
252 air temperature, as described fully in Appendix S1. Figure 10 shows the energy and water
253 requirements predicted in 90% shade at the surface, on the same hour of the same day as used
254 in the lizard analysis in Figure 7. The mouse is inferred to be significantly water stressed if
255 restricted to the surface in the inland regions of Western Australia, losing up to 4% of their
256 body mass in water per hour to remain cool.

257

258 **Summary**

259 The microclimOz data set provides the key microclimatic variables for computing the
260 fundamental processes of heat and mass exchange between terrestrial organisms and their
261 environments at the appropriate temporal resolution (hours). The calculated microclimatic
262 conditions are based on the highest available spatial resolution in gridded meteorological and
263 soil variables, and are provided a sufficient number of locations to provide a picture of factors
264 potentially limiting the broad distributions of species. Because they are based on daily
265 meteorological grids, they can be used to infer the effects of extreme conditions (Kearney *et al.*
266 *2012*; Briscoe *et al.* *2016*; Morán-Ordóñez *et al.* *2017*). Following preliminary analyses
267 with the microclimOz data set, more targeted analyses (e.g. at different locations, higher
268 resolution, different topographic settings, future climates) can be undertaken using the
269 NicheMapR microclimate model directly (Kearney and Porter *2017*).

270

271 The predictions incorporate a broad range of physical processes including interactions
272 between heat and water flow through layered soil, buffering effects of snow, vertical

273 gradients in air temperature, wind speed and relative humidity, based on fully physical
274 equations. However, it must be born in mind there is no incorporation of local terrain effects
275 (slope, aspect, hill shade) and the soil textural properties are drawn from the particular 90m
276 resolution pixel for each point. With these limitations in mind, the data set should provide a
277 way to rapidly compute a range of sophisticated metrics relating to the potential distribution
278 and abundance of Australian organisms.

279

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284

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377

Table 1. The microclimOz data sets, each containing grids of hourly values for one year. For the naming convention, the part in italics denotes the particular scenario as follows: *year* is the year simulated (1990 to 2017), *sh* is shade level in % (0, 50, 70, 90), *depth* is depth in cm below ground (0, 2.5, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 50, 100 & 200 cm).

variable	units	sublevels	naming convention	example
solar zenith angle	degrees	-	ZEN.nc or ZEN_leap.nc	ZEN.nc (solar zenith angles for non-leap years)
solar radiation	W m ⁻²	<i>year</i>	SOLR_ <i>year</i> .nc	SOLR_1990.nc (solar radiation for 1990)
sky radiant temperature	°C	<i>year, shd</i>	TSKYC_ <i>shpctShade_</i> <i>year</i> .nc	TSKYC_50pctShade_1990.nc (sky radiant temp. for 50% shade, 1990)
air temp. at 120 cm	°C	<i>year</i>	TA120cm_ <i>year</i> .nc	TA120cm_1990.nc (air temp. at 120 cm for January)
air temp. at 1cm	°C	<i>year, shd</i>	TA1cm_ <i>shpctShade_</i> <i>year</i> .nc	TA1cm_rock_50_1990.nc (air temp. at 1cm for 50% shade for 1990)
wind speed at 10 m	m s ⁻¹	<i>year</i>	V120cm_ <i>year</i> .nc	V10m_1990.nc (wind speed at 10m for January)
wind speed at 1cm	m s ⁻¹	<i>year</i>	V1cm_ <i>year</i> .nc	V1cm_1990.nc (wind speed at 1cm for January)

relative humidity at 1.2 m	%	<i>year</i>	RH120cm_ <i>year</i> .nc	RH120cm_1990.nc (relative humidity at 120cm for January)
relative humidity at 1cm	%	<i>year, shd</i>	RH1cm_ <i>shpctShade_</i> <i>year</i> .nc	RH1cm_50_1990.nc (relative humidity at 1cm for sand substrate and 50% shade for January)
snow depth	cm	<i>year, shd, depth</i>	SNOWDEP_ <i>shpctShade_</i> <i>year</i> .nc	SNOWDEP_50_1990.nc (snow depth for 50% shade 1990)
soil temperature at specific depths	°C	<i>year, shd, depth</i>	soildepthcm_ <i>shpctShade_</i> <i>year</i> .nc	soil5cm_50_1990.nc (substrate temperature at 5 cm depth for 50% shade 1990)
soil water potential specific depths	J kg ⁻¹	<i>year, shd, depth</i>	potdepthcm_ <i>shpctShade_</i> <i>year</i> .nc	pot5cm_50_1990.nc (soil water potential at 5 cm depth for 50% shade 1990)
soil moisture at specific depths	%	<i>year, shd, depth</i>	moistdepthcm_ <i>shpctShade_</i> <i>year</i> .nc	moist5cm_50_1990.nc (soil moisture at 5 cm depth for 50% shade 1990)
soil humidity at specific depths	%	<i>year, shd, depth</i>	humiddepthcm_ <i>shpctShade_</i> <i>year</i> .nc	humid5cm_50_1990.nc (soil humidity at 5 cm depth for 50% shade 1990)

Figure 1. Example mapped outputs of a) solar zenith angle, b) horizontal plane solar radiation, c) 1 cm wind speed and d) 1 cm air temperature (0% shade) extracted from the microclimOZ data set for a particular hour. The two black dots indicate the sites for which example time series are extracted in Figs. 2, 3, 5, 7 & 9.

Figure 2. Hourly trajectories of 1 cm and 120 cm air temperature (a, c) and 0 cm, 5 cm and 50 cm soil temperature (b, d) extracted for two sites for the year 2009 under 0% shade. The site locations are indicated in Figure 1.

Figure 3. Hourly soil water potential estimates from the microclimOz data set for 2009 (0% shade) at two locations (a, c) and associated estimates of cumulative growth potential (b, d) based on time above the permanent wilting point (PWP) of -1500 J/kg.

Figure 4. Summation for 2009 of cumulative time spent above the permanent wilting point (-1500 J kg⁻¹) based on microclimOz estimated 10 cm soil water potential (0% shade).

Figure 5. Development rate of the matchstick grasshopper *Warramaba virgo* estimated from microclimOz estimated 5 cm soil temperature (0% shade) at two sites in 2009 (a, c) and cumulative developmental completions assuming oviposition dates days 1, 30 and 60 of that year (b, d).

Figure 6. Cumulative development of the matchstick grasshopper *Warramaba virgo* estimated over the year 2009 based on microclimOz soil temperature estimates at 5 cm (0% shade).

Figure 7. Estimates of potential body temperature (a, c), and activity time (b, d) for the military dragon *Ctenophorus isolepis* at two locations in 2009. Estimated body temperature in panels a & c includes that expected if the lizard stayed in full sun (Tb_{sun}), in full shade (Tb_{shade}), as well as the final body temperature after a thermoregulation algorithm is applied (Tb_{treg}). Gaps along horizontal hourly lines indicate when daytime activity in the sun is not thermally possible. These calculations are based on a simple biophysical model of heat exchange for a lizard (Gates 1980, p.349) and driven by microclimOz estimates of solar radiation, 1 cm air temperature, soil surface temperature, sky radiant temperature, 1 cm wind speed and solar zenith angle under 0% and 90% shade. Daytime shade requirements are also indicated (dark green vertical lines in a, c), with activity assumed to occur only in the open.

Figure 8. Estimates of a) potential body temperature in the open, b) activity state (green = active), c) body temperature after thermoregulation, and d) shade required (green = in shade) for the military dragon *Ctenophorus isolepis* at midday on 1st January 2009. These calculations are based on a simple biophysical model of heat exchange for a lizard (Gates 1980, p.349) and driven by microclimOz estimates of solar radiation, 1 cm air temperature, soil surface temperature, sky radiant temperature, 1 cm wind speed and solar zenith angle under 0% and 90% shade.

Figure 9. Estimated energy requirements (multiplicative increase on basal metabolic rate) and water requirements (% of hydrated body mass lost per hour) for the ash-grey mouse *Pseudomys albocinereus* at two depths (on the surface and in a burrow at 50 cm) and two locations in 2009. These calculations are based on a simple ellipsoid model of heat exchange for an endotherm (Porter and Kearney 2009) and driven by microclimOz estimates of either

air temperature, wind speed and relative humidity at 1 cm (90% shade), or 50 cm soil temperature (assuming 0.1 m s^{-1} wind speed and 100% relative humidity).

Figure 10. Estimated energy requirements (a & b) and water requirements (c & d) for the ash-grey mouse *Pseudomys albocinereus* in deep (90%) shade on the surface at midday on 1st January 2009. These calculations are based on a simple ellipsoid model of heat exchange for an endotherm (Porter and Kearney 2009) and driven by microclimOz estimates of 1 cm air temperature (90% shade), 1 cm wind and relative humidity. The sudden drops in metabolic rate, which are particularly apparent in the burrow simulations, represent simulation of torpor (see Appendix I).

Figure 1.

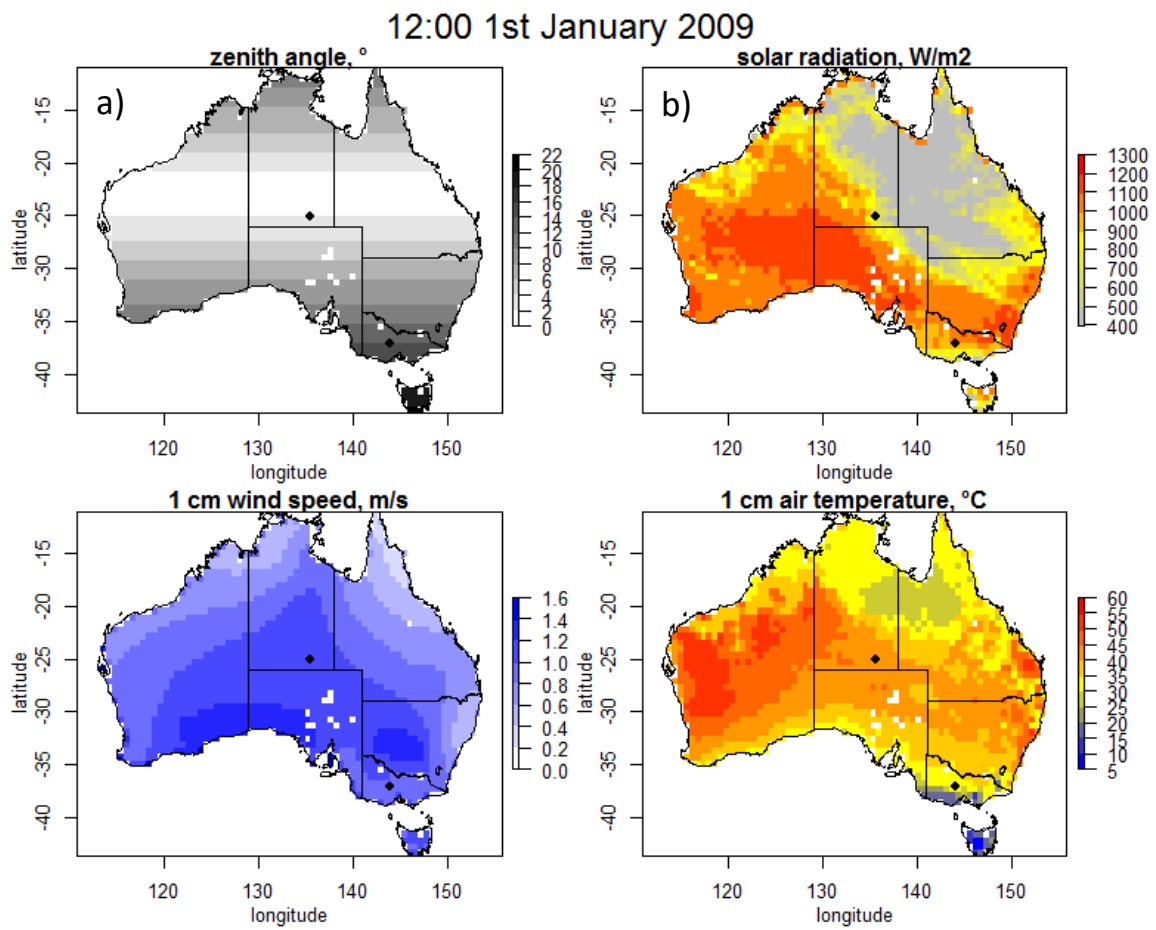
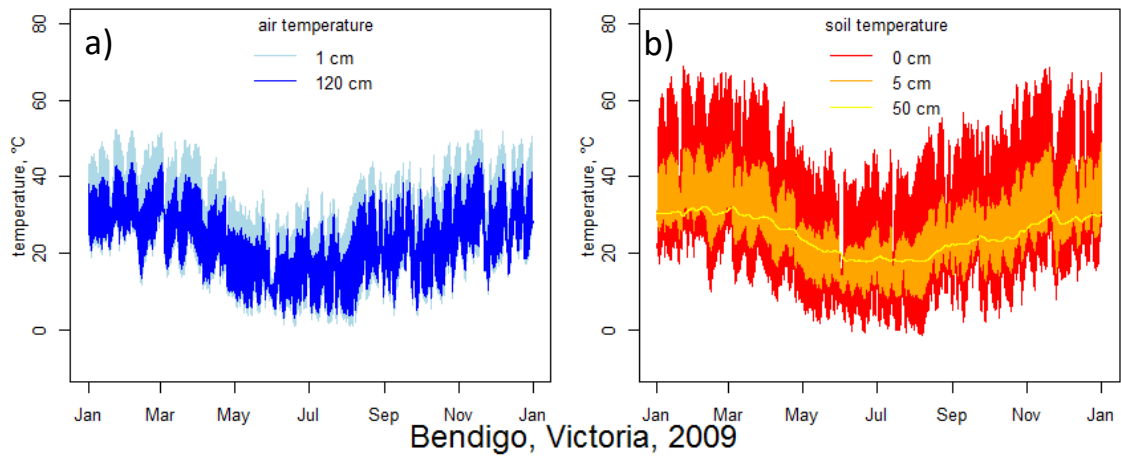


Figure 2.

Old Andado, Simpson Desert, 2009



Bendigo, Victoria, 2009

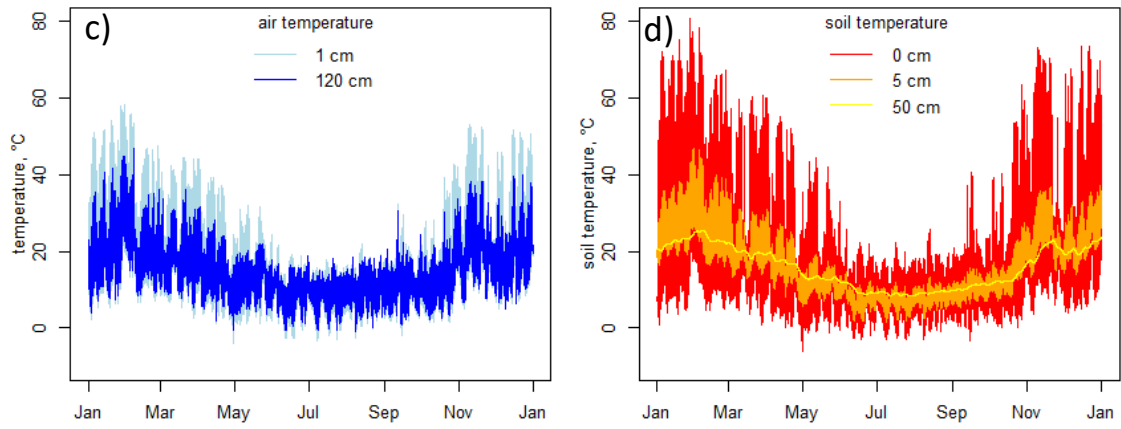
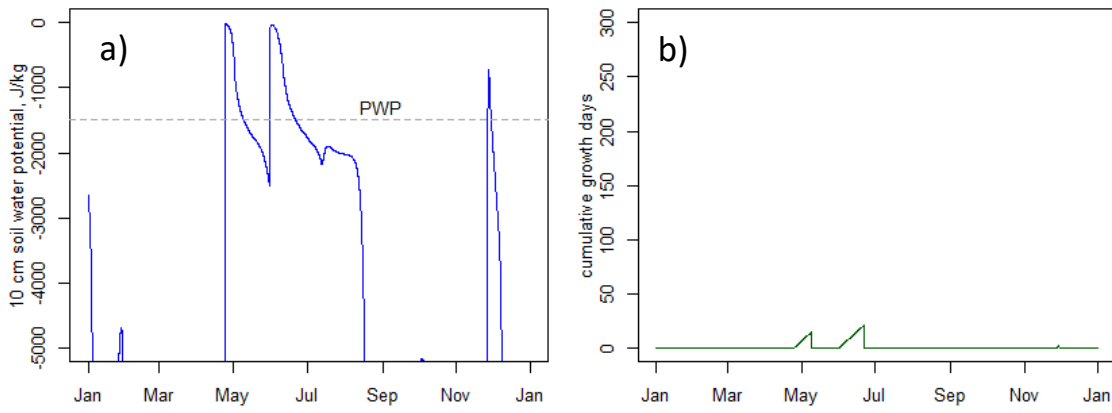


Figure 3.

Old Andado, Simpson Desert, 2009



Bendigo, Victoria, 2009

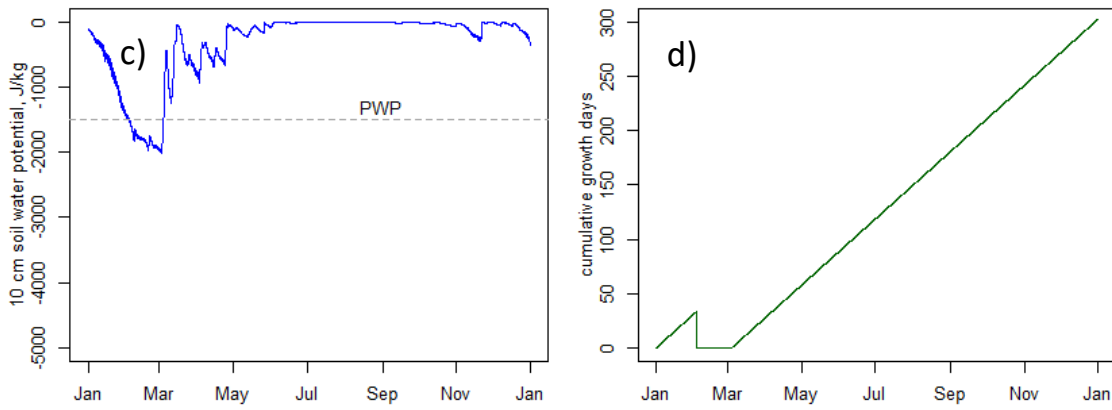


Figure 4.

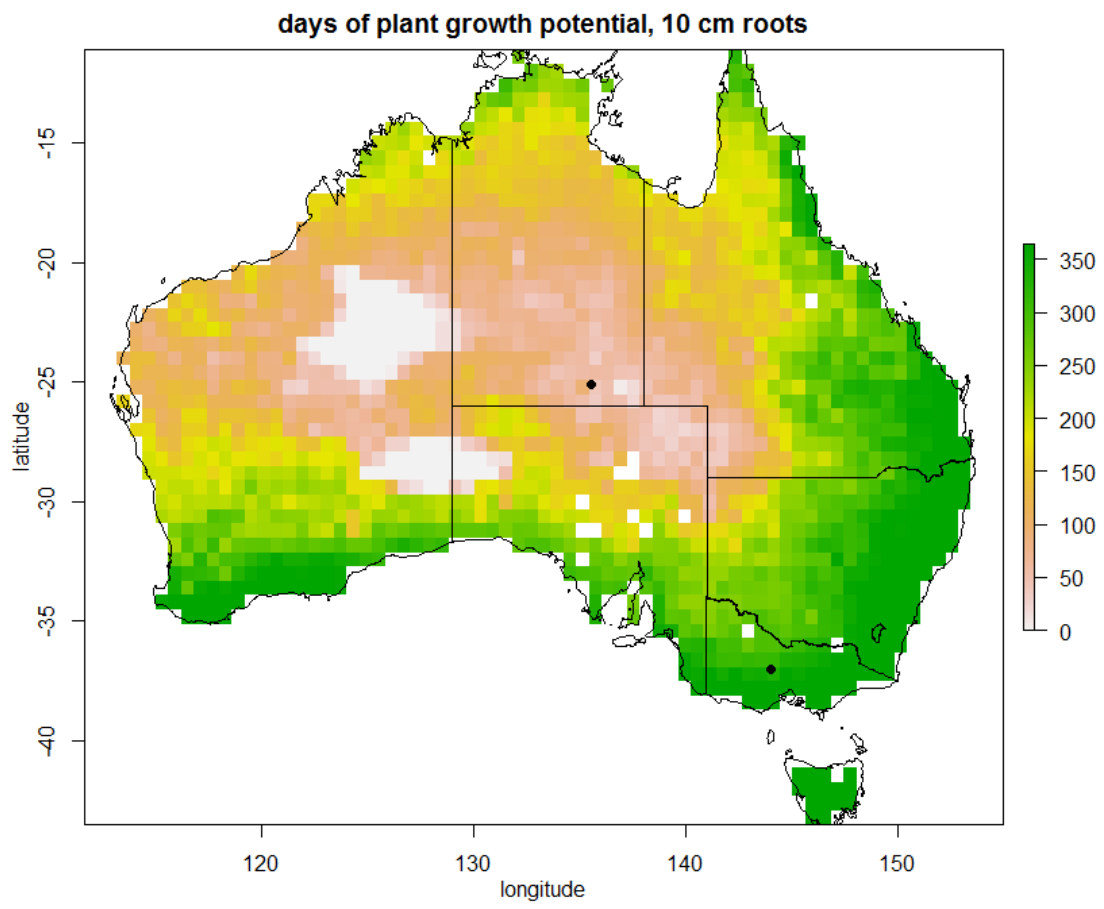
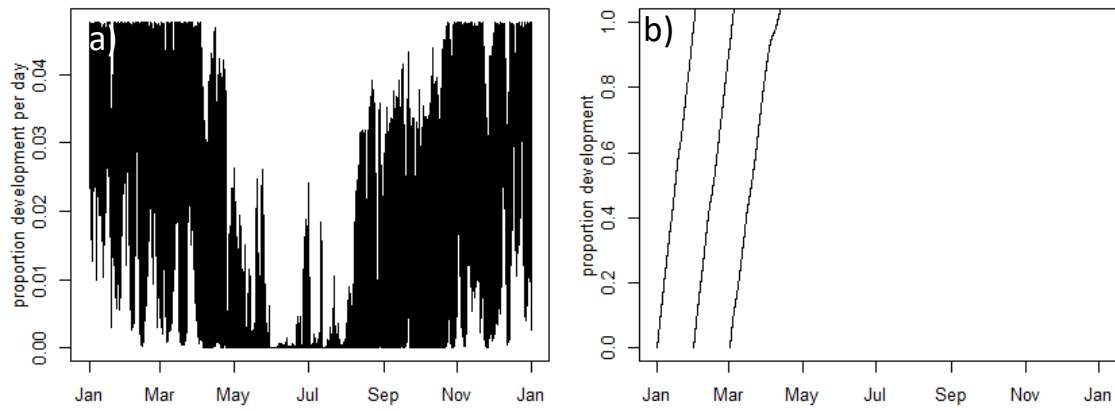


Figure 5.

Old Andado, Simpson Desert, 2009



Bendigo, Victoria, 2009

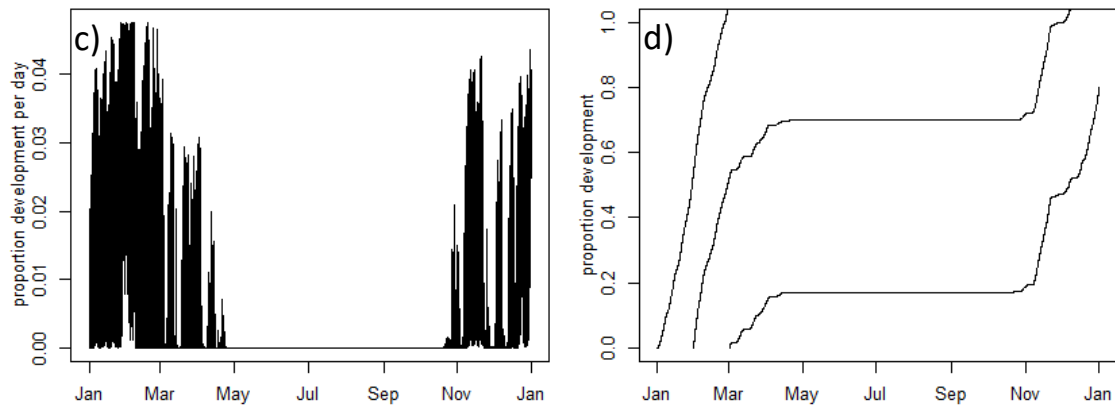


Figure 6.

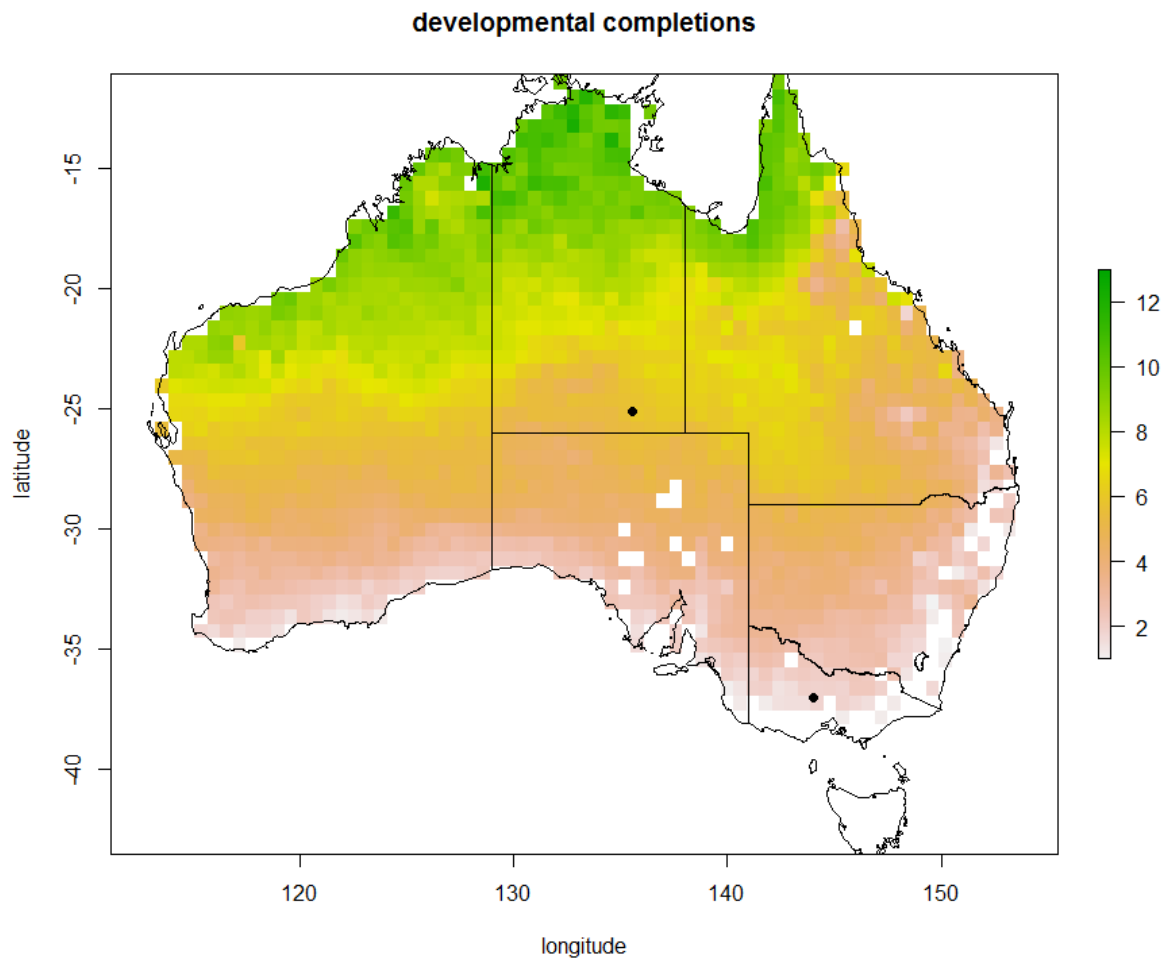


Figure 7.

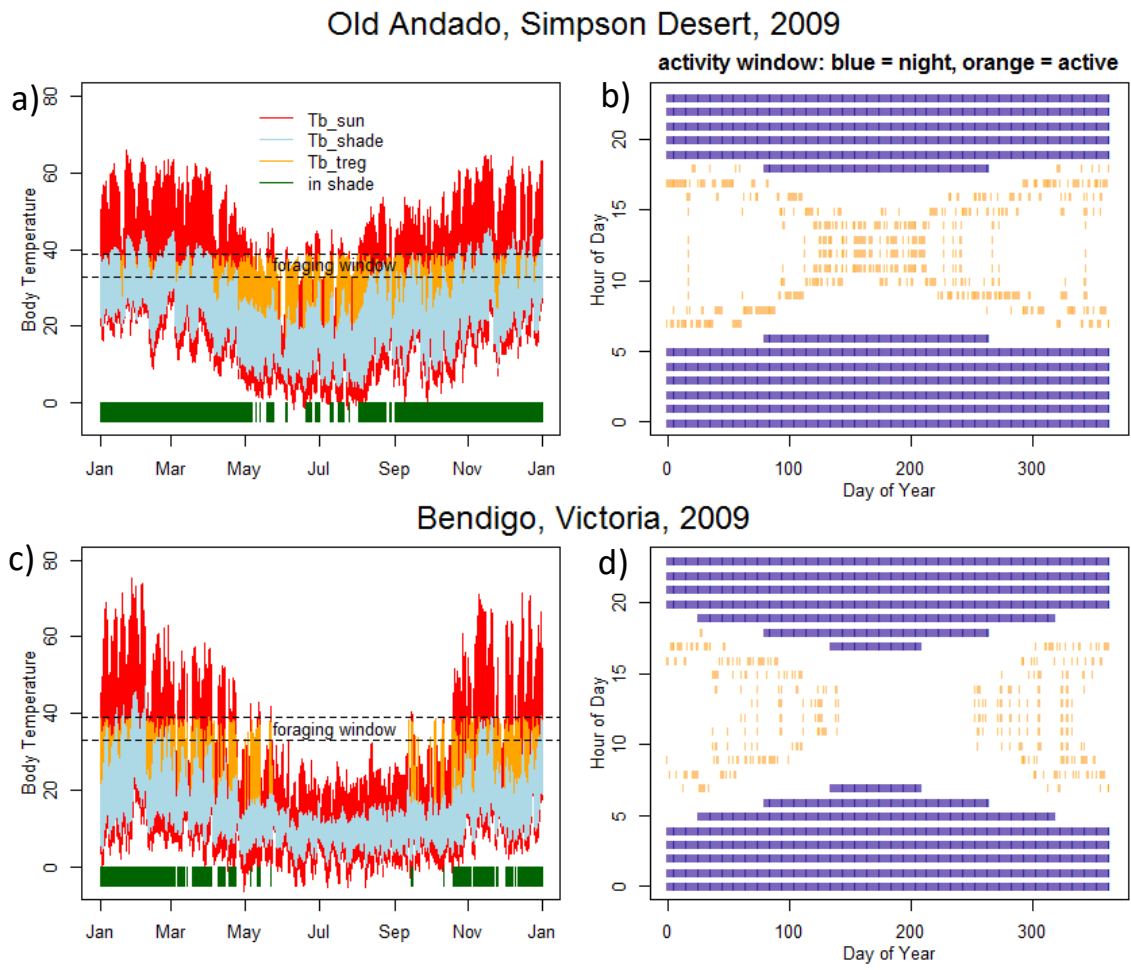


Figure 8.

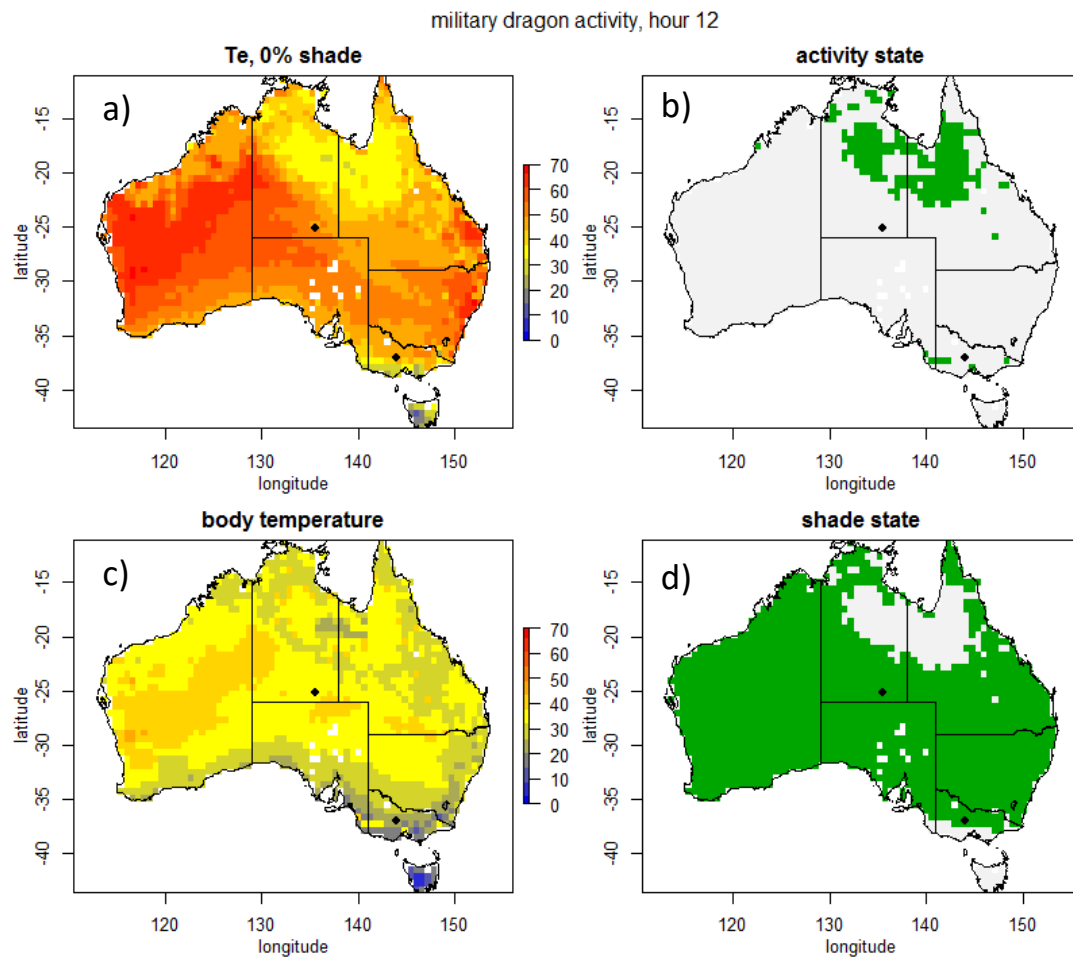


Figure 9.

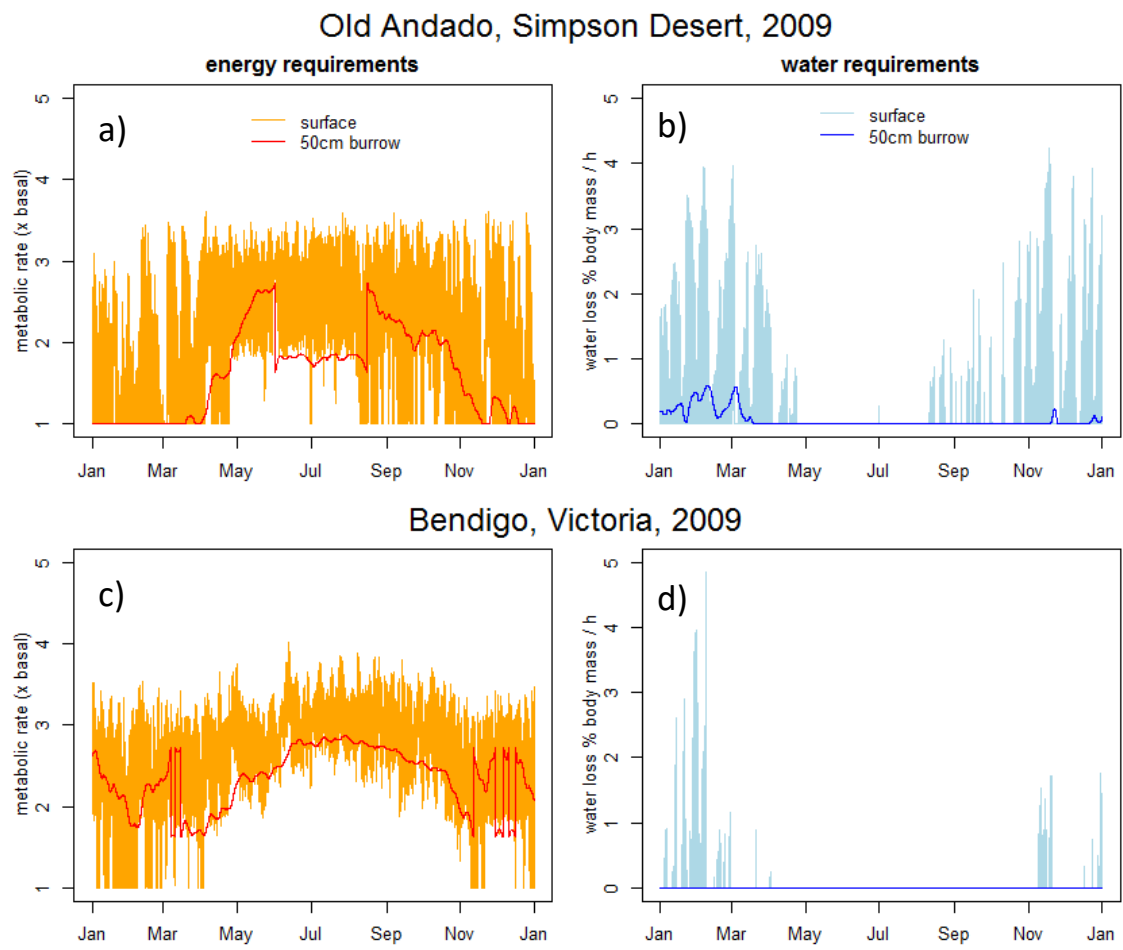


Figure 10.

