Towards a Mechanistic Understanding of One of the Rainiest Spots on Earth

John F. Mejia¹, Johanna Yepes², Juan J. Heano³, German Poveda⁴, David J. Raymond⁵, Zeljka Fuchs-Stone⁵, and Manuel D. Zuluaga⁶

¹Desert Research Institute ²Desert Research Institute, Institución Universitaria Colegio Mayor de Antioquia, Universidad Nacional de Colombia Sede Medellín,Universidad Nacional de Colombia Sede Medellín,Universidad Nacional de Colombia Sede Medellín ³GIGA, Escuela Ambiental, Facultad de Ingeniería, Universidad de Antioquia, Medellín, Colombia ⁴Universidad Nacional de Colombia Sede Medellín ⁵New Mexico Tech ⁶Universidad Nacional de Colombia

November 22, 2022

Abstract

According to TRMM and GPM satellite precipitation composites, a broad maritime area over the far eastern Tropical Pacific and western Colombia houses one of the rainiest spots on Earth. This study aims to present a suite of mechanistic drivers that help create such a world-record breaking rainy spot. Previous research has shown that this oceanic and nearly-continental precipitation maximum has a strong early morning precipitation peak and development of a high density of mesoscale convective systems. We examined new and unique observational evidence highlighting the role of both dynamical and thermodynamical drivers in the activation and duration of organized convection. Results show the existence of a rather large combination of mechanisms, including: (1) dynamics of the Choco (ChocoJet) and Caribbean Low-Level Jets along their confluence zone, including the Panama semi-permanent low; (2) land breeze favors ChocoJet deceleration offshore, enhancing the nighttime and early morning low-level convergence; (3) vertical wind shear and tilting of vertical wind shear into vorticity lines that interact with convective outflows; (4) action of mid-level gravity waves, which support the strong diurnal variability; (5) mesoscale convective vortices related to subsidence in the stratiform region in long lasting MCSs reinforcing (3); and (6) the likely role of land surface-atmosphere interactions and the rainforest over western Colombia. This study emphasizes the multi-scale environmental processes associated with the formation of one of the rainiest spots on Earth and showcases new observations gathered during the Organization of Tropical East Pacific Convection (OTREC; August-September, 2019) which support the outlined mechanisms.

1	Towards a Mechanistic Understanding of One of the Rainiest
2	Spots on Earth
3 4 5 6 7	John F. Mejía ¹ , Johanna Yepes ^{1,2} , Juan J. Henao ³ , Germán Poveda ² , Manuel D. Zuluaga ² , David J. Raymond ^{4,5} , and Željka Fuchs-Stone ^{4,5}
8	1. Division of Atmospheric Sciences, Desert Research Institute
9	2. Department of Geosciences and Environment, Universidad Nacional de
10	Colombia, Medellín, Colombia
11	3. GIGA, Escuela Ambiental, Facultad de Ingeniería, Universidad de Antioquia,
12	Medellín, Colombia
13	4. Climate and Water Consortium, New Mexico Tech, Socorro, NM, USA
14	5. Physics Department, New Mexico Tech, Socorro, NM, USA
15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24	Mejía: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6727-5541 Yepes: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2177-2777 Henao: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1141-7683 Poveda: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7907-6360 Zuluaga: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7184-9752 Raymond: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9877-6450 Fuchs-Stone: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5890-4211
24 25 26 27 28	Submitted to Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres

29 30

Abstract

31 According to TRMM and GPM satellite precipitation composites, a broad maritime area 32 over the far eastern Tropical Pacific and western Colombia houses one of the rainiest 33 spots on Earth. This study aims to present a suite of mechanistic drivers that help create 34 such a world-record breaking rainy spot. Previous research has shown that this oceanic 35 and nearly-continental precipitation maximum has a strong early morning precipitation 36 peak and development of a high density of mesoscale convective systems. We examined 37 new and unique observational evidence highlighting the role of both dynamical and 38 thermodynamical drivers in the activation and duration of organized convection. Results 39 show the existence of a rather large combination of mechanisms, including: (1) dynamics 40 of the Choco (ChocoJet) and Caribbean Low-Level Jets along their confluence zone, 41 including the Panama semi-permanent low; (2) land breeze favors ChocoJet deceleration 42 offshore, enhancing the nighttime and early morning low-level convergence; (3) vertical 43 wind shear and tilting of vertical wind shear into vorticity lines that interact with 44 convective outflows; (4) action of mid-level gravity waves, which support the strong 45 diurnal variability; (5) mesoscale convective vortices related to subsidence in the 46 stratiform region in long lasting MCSs reinforcing (3); and (6) the likely role of land 47 surface-atmosphere interactions and the rainforest over western Colombia. This study 48 emphasizes the multi-scale environmental processes associated with the formation of one 49 of the rainiest spots on Earth and showcases new observations gathered during the 50 Organization of Tropical East Pacific Convection (OTREC; August-September, 2019) 51 which support the outlined mechanisms.

52

54 **1 Introduction**

55 The latest generation of satellite precipitation products (Global Precipitation 56 Measurement, hereafter GPM; Huffman et al., 2018) show that rainiest spots on Earth is 57 located over the far Eastern Pacific (hereafter refer to as far EPAC) region, offshore from the Colombian coast with 25.42 mm day⁻¹ (9278 mm year⁻¹; averaged over 2000-2019; 58 59 Figure 1). Previous studies have also highlighted this tropical area as one of the rainiest 60 places on Earth (Poveda and Mesa, 2000; Sakamoto et al., 2011; Vallejo-Bernal et al., 61 2020). Snow (1976) and Poveda and Mesa (2000) reported rain gauge measurements 62 showing maximum values exceeding our GPM record (e.g., Lloró with a historical record of 12,541 mm year⁻¹); these rain gauges were located between the outlined GPM 63 64 maximum and the Western Andes foothills. We acknowledge that GPM products suffer from calibration and scale issues $(0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ})$ grid size; Tang et al., 2020) and that there 65 66 are sites like Lloró or other places on Earth showing long-term rain gauge records 67 exceeding this record-breaking GPM-based estimate. Regardless of the inherited 68 uncertainties of the remote sensing precipitation products (Vallejo-Bernal et al., 2020), 69 the region offshore the Colombian Pacific coast shows a striking, broad, coherent area of 70 precipitation maximum.

This precipitation hotspot sustains the Chocó rainforest, regarded as one of the most
biologically diverse areas in the world (Grau and Aide, 2008), and modulates the
hydroclimate of Central America and NW South America (Poveda, 2004; Rueda and
Poveda, 2006; Poveda et al., 2006; Poveda et al., 2014; Durán-Quesada et al., 2012; Ma
et al., 2018; Loaiza et al., 2020). The EPAC is genesis region of Tropical Storms/Tropical

53

76	Cyclones (Serra et al., 2010) and other extreme convection events that affect NW South
77	America, Central America and even Western Mexico and SW US (Mejía et al., 2016),
78	which can have long lasting consequences in the economy and security of the regions
79	(Christoplos et al., 2010; Murakami et al., 2013). Results from modeling sensitivity
80	experiments using a regional climate model showed that Mesoscale Convective Systems
81	(MCSs) in the far EPAC (Velasco and Frisch, 1987; Mejía and Poveda, 2005; Zuluaga
82	and Houze, 2015; Jaramillo et al., 2017) can be a significant contributing factor adding
83	variance to Tropical Easterly Waves (TEW) affecting the far EPAC cyclogenesis core
84	(Rydbeck et al., 2017). Measuring and understanding the local drivers that favor
85	convection and the upscale effects as the environment reacts to such precipitation and
86	heating disturbances (Huaman and Takahashi, 2016; Schneider et al., 1997) can help us
87	to understand the dynamical and thermodynamical processes involved in this rainy
88	region, and to address whether the parameterized models or increasing model resolution
89	in IPCC-WRCP Assessment Report model experiments are improving model fidelity and
90	reducing model uncertainty (Kharin eta al., 2007; Copola et al., 2014; Baranowski et al.,
91	2019; Na et al., 2020), thus leading to better prediction and projections of mean and
92	extreme events.
02	

Two main regional low-level flow features have been documented to partly modulate
the far EPAC precipitation regimes and spatial patterns: the Caribbean Low-level Jet
(CLLJ) and Choco LLJ (hereafter referred to as ChocoJet; Poveda and Mesa, 1999; 2000;
Yepes et al., 2019; Yepes et al., 2020). CLLJ is an important component of IntraAmericas Sea circulation patterns (Poveda and Mesa, 1999; Amador, 2008) and is related
to the enhanced easterly low-level flow over the central Caribbean. The variability of the

99	easterly trade winds and the CLLJ modulate the intensity of gap flows over Central
100	America and into the Pacific coast, namely the Tehuantepec Jet, Papagayo Jet and
101	Panamá Isthmus Jet. On the other hand, ChocoJet is related to the southwesterly
102	component of the trans-Equatorial trade winds located over the far EPAC and can extent
103	upstream as far south as the Chilean coast (Sakamoto et al., 2011). Both ChocoJet and
104	CLLJ are the main components of the mean and transient states of the ITCZ in the EPAC
105	region and play a significant role in providing moisture to the surrounding land regions
106	(Durán-Quesada et al., 2012). The confluence of ChocoJet and CLLJ over the far EPAC
107	and their interaction with the Andes mountains have been linked to convection activation
108	that results in the outlined precipitation hotspot (Arnett and Steadman, 1970; Snow, 1976;
109	Poveda and Mesa, 2000; Mapes et al., 2003; Sakamoto et al., 2011; Poveda et al., 2014;
110	King et al., 2017; Jaramillo et al., 2017; Yepes et al., 2019; Espinoza et al., 2020; Poveda
111	et al., 2020), and provide the favorable conditions for the increased occurrence of MCSs
112	when both CLLJ and ChocoJet converge over the region (Zuluaga and Houze, 2015).
113	A substantial proportion of the precipitation in the far EPAC falls from MCSs
114	(Velasco and Fritsch, 1987; Zuluaga and Houze, 2015, Jaramillo et al., 2017). Jaramillo
115	et al. (2017) showed that MCSs contribute to 57% of total rainfall over the region (60%
116	based on general tropical estimates; Roca et al., 2014). Over the far EPAC, Jaramillo et
117	al. (2017; Figure 4) showed that offshore MCSs features tend to develop early in the
118	morning, whereas non-MCSs convection tends to form over the costal lowlands and
119	foothills of the Western Andes but predominantly during the afternoon. Mejía and
120	Poveda (2005) used reanalysis products to estimate convective indices around MCSs
121	identified using the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) measurements. They

122 found that the environments related to MCSs in this region include enhanced CAPE, 123 suppressed CIN, and moderate vertical shear. The formation of early morning MCSs has 124 been linked to the propagation of the cool phase of a gravity wave (GW) that emanates 125 from the Andes during the afternoon and moves offshore (Mapes et al., 2003; Warner et 126 al., 2003; Biasutti et al., 2012; Jaramillo et al., 2017; Yepes et al., 2019, 2020), with its 127 cold phase helping to reduce the inhibition built by the layer of warmer and drier easterly 128 trade winds flowing over the Andes and moving over the relatively low-level cooler and 129 moist westerly ChocoJet (Yepes et al., 2020). However, the forcing mechanisms for the 130 offshore and early morning maximum can also be related to the land breeze circulation 131 and mechanically forced gravity waves (Coppin and Bellon, 2019; Wang and Sobel, 132 2017); or some form of gravity waves induced by afternoon convection farther inland to 133 the east (Ruppert and Zhang, 2019). For tropical MCSs, low-to-mid tropospheric wind 134 shear is believed to modulate storm severity (Liu et al., 2020) and lifetime (Weisman and Rotunno, 2004; Hagos et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2015). Low-level shear can favor the 135 136 generation of new cells by interacting with the storm's cool pool and surface and 137 boundary layer fluxes, whereas mid-level shear tends to interact with the warm core 138 mesovortices --induced by subsidence in the stratiform region vertical momentum and 139 vorticity advection (Zuluaga and Houze, 2015; Rydbeck et al., 2017)-- and modulate the mid-level moisture convergence and convection strength and organization (Velasco and 140 141 Fritsch, 1987; Chong and Bousquet, 1999; Houze, 2004). Although some far EPAC 142 regional modeling efforts have been performed to examine some of the processes 143 outlined above, few *in situ* observations are available to study the variations of the basic

states conducive to this exceptional generation of nocturnal and early morning MCSs andprecipitation.

146 Much of the work over EPAC is related to convection and mesoscale structures 147 (Raymond et al., 2004), but little has been developed to understand how regional 148 circulation basic states and their day-to-day variations modulate the dynamics and 149 thermodynamics of precipitation in the region. The formation and characteristics of 150 convective organization and precipitation, as well as its relationship to the CLLJ and 151 ChocoJet, have strongly relied on remote sensing and reanalysis data or very short 152 modelling experiments (Mapes et al., 2003; Warner et al., 2003). Few studies focused on 153 testing the fidelity of these data in representing the tropospheric circulation features of 154 the far EPAC (Colombian Pacific). Two elements make this needed research difficult to 155 pursue: first, the land/water distribution makes observational networks (surface and 156 upper-air) far from ideal, and secondly, the sparse operational network is intermittent and 157 targeted to satisfy basic operational tasks. 158 To fill some of the outlined scientific gaps, the Chocó Jet Experiment 159 (ChocoJEX) was developed during 2016 to observe and model the dynamics and 160 thermodynamics of ChocoJet (Yepes et al. 2019, 2020). ChocoJEX helped to confirm the 161 model-based GW hypothesis as a mechanism favoring the early morning offshore 162 convective hotspot. During Aug-Sept 2019, a field campaign called Organization of 163 Tropical East Pacific Convection (OTREC; Fuchs-Stone et al., 2020) was developed over 164 the East Pacific and extreme SW Caribbean to understand basic process that govern

165 convection in the region. Based on OTREC dropsonde measurements Fuchs-Stone et al.

166 (2020) showed that the far EPAC exhibits deeper convection and different

167 thermodynamic characteristics than those at corresponding latitudes in the EPAC and 168 Western Caribbean. For example, they found that relative to the EPAC and Western 169 Caribbean region, the saturation fraction (a proxy for precipitation amount) over the far 170 EPAC is less sensitive to low- to mid-tropospheric moist convective instability, which 171 further justifies seeking for other environmental mechanisms that help support the deep 172 convection in the area. It is worth noticing that this region exhibits the highest omega 173 values at 300 and 200 hPa worldwide, according to diverse reanalysis (Figure A-3). 174 Within OTREC, a radiosonde site strategically-located in Nuquí, along the 175 shoreline of the Colombian Pacific (5.7096° N, 77.2667° W; hereafter OTREC-Nuquí), 176 was established as a systematic field campaign effort to fill a surface and upper-air 177 observational gap over the far eastern Pacific (EPAC) and western Colombia, and to 178 support and complement the OTREC field campaign program. OTREC-Nuquí enabled us 179 to measure the environmental conditions favoring and controlling the GPM precipitation 180 record value, and its day-to-day and diurnal variability. 181 The objective of this study is to present OTREC-Nuquí measurements and discuss the 182 day-to-day and diurnal circulation and thermodynamics mechanisms that favor the 183 existence of one of the rainiest places on Earth. First, we describe the novel OTREC-184 Nuquí observations consisting of systematic and frequent radiosonde observations and 185 other OTREC observation platforms utilized here, including the NCAR Gulfstream-V 186 aircraft dropsonde data. Satellite and reanalysis datasets are also implemented and 187 examined by compositing the atmospheric environments to categorize days with 188 significant MCSs development (related to high precipitation days). Then, we examine 189 the mean flow conditions and describe the dynamical and thermodynamical

characteristics related to MCSs development (or lack thereof), as well as the structure and
shape of the GW phenomenon. We also present other surface and upper-level features
driven by the complex topography, by the tropical rainforest and the coastal shapes in the
area. The sections are organized as follows: Section 2 presents the OTREC-Nuquí data
and other ancillary datasets, including the methods used to categorize MCS events;
Section 3 presents the results, followed by a summary and concluding remarks in Section
4.

197 **2**

Data and Methodology

198 2.1 OTREC Nuquí Soundings

199 OTREC-Nuquí site was established as a unique and systematic observational effort 200 to fill surface and upper-air observational gaps over the far eastern Pacific and western 201 Colombia, and to support and complement the NSF-OTREC field campaign program 202 (Voemel et al. 2019; Fuchs-Stone et al., 2020). Nuquí is a small town located at the 203 shoreline of the Pacific Coast of Colombia (77.26°W, 5.71°N) near one of the rainiest 204 spots on Earth (Figure 1a). Field campaign details, quality assurance/quality control 205 procedures and other details are described in Mejía and Poveda (2020). Soundings were 206 performed using a Vaisala DigiCORA MW41 Sounding System and Vaisala RS41-SGP 207 radiosondes. Protocols were developed to transmit the observations in real-time for field 208 campaign support and assimilation by global forecasting systems. The OTREC-Nuquí site consisted in twice a day (00 and 12 UTC) upper-air radiosondes launched from 5th 209 August to 25th September, 2019, with two additional launches (06 and 18 UTC) on the 210 211 days of the 22 research flights of the NSF/NCAR Gulfstream-V (G-V). Nine of these 212 research flights took place off the Pacific coast of Colombia. Nuquí soundings provided

213	<i>in-situ</i> observations to characterize the circulation and thermodynamics convection
214	indices associated with the observed convective activity in the region. Unless stated
215	explicitly, composites use all the soundings available, but daily indices only average the
216	00 and 12 UTC soundings.
217	Additionally, we show an analysis of the August 11, 2019 research flights to examine the
218	mesoscale features taking place during one MCS event off the Pacific coast of Colombia.
219	Details of the 3DVAR analysis approach and early OTREC results on the vertical
220	characteristics of convection in the region are shown in Fuchs-Stone et al. (2020). The
221	data set for dropsondes used in the 3DVAR analysis is NCAR/EOL AVAPS Dropsonde
222	Quality Controlled Data Version 1.0 (Voemel, 2019).
223	2.2 Reanalysis ERA5
224	This study uses regional circulation composites based on the European Center for
225	Medium-Range Weather Forecasts ERA5 reanalysis at $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ grid size and hourly

time increments (C3S, 2017; Hersbach et al., 2020). OTREC-Nuquí data and other

227 OTREC upper-air sounding sites in Costa Rica were transmitted to the Global

228 Telecommunication System (GTS) systems and are presumed to be assimilated by the

229 forecasting agencies. UCAR/NCAR - Earth Observing Laboratory registered the sites and

230 provided the connection platform for promptly delivery of the observations to the GTS.

By the time this study was developed there were no records of the success in the

transmission and assimilation of the data. It is likely that a few (3 out of 141) delayed

soundings were not assimilated (see Mejía and Poveda, 2020 for details). For

completeness, we also use independent measurements (not made available to the GTS)

from five surface stations from the meteorological network managed by the Red de

Medición de Parámetros Oceanográficos y de Meteorología Marina/Dirección General
Marítima (hereafter referred to as DIMAR). DIMAR observations were quality
assured/quality controlled by visual inspection and basic diurnal and composite
distribution assessment. Although these surface station sites proved to be very useful, we
highlight some siting constrains and data quality issues that limited the insight they
provided.

242 2.3 GPM Satellite

243 Precipitation fields in this paper use the NASA Global Precipitation Measurement-244 interpolated and intercalibrated merge data (GPM-IMERG V06B; Huffman et al. 2018; 245 hereafter GPM) for 2000-2019. These GPM products combine satellite microwave 246 precipitation estimates, together with microwave-calibrated infrared (IR) satellite 247 estimates, into final values calibrated against precipitation gauges. Products are created 248 at half-hourly time increments and $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$ as spatial grid size, which enable adequate 249 the detailed characterization of the diurnal cycle of precipitation for this study (Tan et al. 250 2019). The GPM data were also used to examine precipitation spatio-temporal patterns, 251 from diurnal to day-to-day scales during OTREC campaign (August-September, 2019).

252

2.4 MCSs and Wet and Dry Days

 consecutive time increments. We tested the sensitivity of the precipitation threshold and the overlap area criteria and found that the approach is robust in uniquely identifying MCS events. Herein, we use the days with MCSs occurring over the Colombian Pacific region $(3.5^{\circ} N - 7^{\circ} N, 82^{\circ} W - 76^{\circ} W)$ lasting more than 6 h to define days with enhanced convection activity (hereafter Wet days; see MCS trajectories in Figure A-1); days with less organized, scattered showers are defined as relatively drier days (hereafter Dry days). Based on these criteria, a total of 19 (31) days are considered Wet (Dry) days.

266 This study does not address the relationship of MCSs to TEW or any other source 267 of synoptic variability in the area. An aspect adding robustness to the discriminatory 268 power of the environment of our Wet and Dry index is that at this time of the year the 269 daily precipitation in the study region does not correlate well to daily precipitation over 270 the Western Caribbean (Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.16; 9° N – 13° N, 83.5° W – 271 80° W), where sub-seasonal burst and breaks appear more apparent and more strictly 272 linked to TEW passages (or lack thereof) and other large-scale conditions adding lower-273 frequency variability, such as the phase of the Madden-Julian Oscillation (Poveda et al., 274 2005). Therefore, it is fair to suggest that departures of the environmental conditions 275 related to Wet or Dry days favor or suppress MCS development, which in turn lead to the 276 copious precipitation record within the westward moving maritime precipitation signal.

MCS characteristics, including duration and size, depend on their definition. For example, it is likely that more or different days could be considered as MCS days if they were characterized by their cloud-top temperature or mid-tropospheric vorticity signatures. For all composite estimates in this study we tested their statistical robustness by bootstrapping --with replacement—Wet and Dry days. Unless otherwise described,
most composite results are robust and independent of MCS definition and precipitation
threshold.

284 **3 Results**

285 **3.1 Precipitation During OTREC**

286 Figure 1a shows that the eastern end of the ITCZ over the EPAC, just off the Colombian coast, houses a coherent precipitation maximum with 25.4 mm day⁻¹ (77.6° 287 288 W, 3.9° N), with the rainy season peaking between August-October (not shown; Mejía et 289 al., 1999; Martinez et al., 2019). This seasonal peak coincides with the northernmost 290 extent of the ITCZ over the EPAC and the west Atlantic regions (Martinez et al., 2019). 291 Figure 1c, d show the climatological conditions for August-September precipitation 292 emphasizing the copious amounts of precipitation that fall over the far EPAC, and the 293 precipitation and anomaly patterns during the OTREC campaign (August-September, 294 2019), respectively. During OTREC, precipitation anomalies show a meridional dry-wet 295 pattern suggesting that the ITCZ was anomalously shifted northward, a condition that has 296 been linked to a relatively weak CLLJ (Hidalgo et al., 2015). TEW frequency and 297 intensity and MJO-like modes can also modulate the ITCZ location and precipitation over 298 the EPAC (García-Martínez et al., 2020). For example, over the far EPAC the active 299 phase of the MJO tends to shift the region of active convection east and northward 300 (Molinari and Vollaro, 2000), and to intensify the amplitude of the diurnal cycle of 301 rainfall over the Andes of Colombia (Poveda et al., 2005). Two MJO active phases were 302 reported over the Western Hemisphere during OTREC, a mild and short incursion during 303 mid-August, and a longer and stronger incursion during the second half of September

- 304 (using the MJO monitoring index from the Australian Government, Bureau of
- 305 Meteorology). Although other subseasonal to seasonal and circulation patterns could
- 306 have helped redistribute the regional precipitation, this study assumes that the outlined
- 307 precipitation anomalies do not preclude examining the day-to-day mechanisms (sub-
- 308 synoptic temporal scales) that took place.





310 Figure 1 GPM-IMERG precipitation over EPAC for: a) Long-term (2000-2019) annual mean, b) long-term

August-September mean, c) August-September, 2019 and d) 2019 August-September anomalies. Nuquí

312 location is indicated by the black dot. Precipitation averages were performed in the box $(3.5^{\circ} \text{ N} - 7^{\circ} \text{ N}, 82^{\circ} \text{ N})$

313 $W - 76.5^{\circ} W$) indicated in (a).



317	westward over the coast by 03-04 UTC ($22 - 23$ Local Time; -5 GMT) and extending
318	several hundreds of kilometers into the ocean. The outlined westward propagation seems
319	to start at 07-08 UTC (02-03 LT). A striking feature in this westward propagation of
320	precipitation is the burst of intense and relatively narrow embedded precipitation band
321	(50-100km) just offshore (78 $^{\circ}$ N and the coast), reaching a maximum in precipitation at
322	around 11-12 UTC (05-06 LT). This pronounced burst is collocated with the record-
323	breaking precipitation hotspot (Figure 1) and coincides with the preferred timing of the
324	upscale growth of convection into MCSs shown in Jaramillo et al. (2017); this region has
325	the highest frequency of cloud clusters on Earth (Hennon et al., 2013), and contains the
326	largest values of vertical velocity (omega) at 300 hPa in the world (Figure A-3).
327	Figure 2b-c show composites of the diurnal cycle discriminating Wet and Dry
328	days. Not surprisingly, Colombian coast Wet days have a more intense and apparent
329	westward propagation characteristic. The strong maritime diurnal cycle of precipitation
330	with such long-range has been documented in several locations around the world (Yang
331	and Slingo, 2001; Mapes et al., 2003; Huang et al., 2018; Yokoi et al., 2019; Yulihastin et
332	al., 2020). For example, the west coast of Sumatra shows similar precipitation diurnal
333	characteristics, including the westward propagation of long-lasting convective clusters
334	mainly driven by low-level vertical shear (Yokoi et al., 2019). Over the Colombian
335	Pacific, it has been linked with the propagation of gravity waves that emanate from the
336	Andes (Mapes et al. 2003; Jaramillo et al., 2017; Yepes et al., 2019, Yepes et al., 2020).
337	In the following sections, we reinforce these connections and postulate other plausible
338	mechanisms revealed by the OTREC-Nuquí measurements.

339	Figure 3 shows the longitudinal evolution of precipitation over the 3.5° N - 7° N
340	belt highlighting the westward moving characteristics of convection clusters in the form
341	of MCSs, with a significant 2- to 5-day spectral signal (not shown). Note that some
342	westward moving MCSs over the far EPAC (represented by the continuous long-lasting
343	burst of precipitation) are related to westward moving precipitation signatures over the
344	Andes, while others appear to develop without preexisting signatures. It is likely,
345	however, that not all westward moving synoptic disturbances are convectively coupled
346	over the Andes. Alternatively, it is possible that some of the day-to-day variability is
347	locally generated over the far EPAC (Rydbeck et al., 2017). The relationship of
348	precipitative systems to convectively coupled waves will be developed as a separate
349	study.





351

Figure 2 Longitudinal transect of the diurnal cycle based on GPM-IMERG precipitation (mm/30 min)
 averaged between 3.5° N - 7° N during OTREC (Aug-Sept, 2019). Blue lines indicate the longitudinal

- 354 location of Nuquí over the Colombian Pacific coast (77.4° W) and the western range rim over the Andes
- 355 (76.2° W).



356

- 357 Figure 3 Longitudinal Hovmöller diagram of GPM-IMERG precipitation using 30 min time increments
- 358 averaged between 3.4° N 7° N during OTREC (Aug-Sept, 2019). Blue lines indicate the longitudinal
- 359 location of Nuquí over the Colombian Pacific coast (77.4° W) and the western range rim of the Andes (76°
- 360 W). Arrows indicate MCS development days (Wet days).

361 **3.2 On the Observed Circulation**

362 3.2.1 Nuquí Vertical Composites

- 363 The ChocoJet is a prominent climatic feature over the Far Eastern Pacific (EPAC)
- and one of the dynamic forces that supports the rainiest place on Earth (Poveda and Mesa

365 1999, 2000) during September-October-November. The presence of ChocoJet over the 366 Colombian Pacific has been linked with moisture transport from cold waters of the 367 tropical EPAC into the Andes mountains over NW South America (Rueda and Poveda, 368 2006; Poveda et al., 2006, 2014, 2020; Espinoza et al., 2020), which by orographic lifting 369 along with relatively drier easterlies at mid-levels help produce unstable conditions 370 further reinforcing the precipitation record. Recently, the ChocoJEX experiment 371 measured the ChocoJet for the first time and shed some light on its role in precipitation 372 generation (Yepes et al., 2019). Now, OTREC-Nuquí offers longer and more systematic 373 measurements of the ChocoJet and how its variability is related to convection and its 374 organization into MCSs.

375 Figure 4a-c show the wind, specific humidity and moisture flux profiles composited 376 by Wet and Dry days, respectively; Figure 4d-e show corresponding Wet minus Dry 377 differences and their statistical significance. In general, Nuquí wind profiles show a 378 pronounced southwesterly "nose-shaped" characteristic of a low-level jet flow with 379 maximum at 500-750 m (950-925 hPa) and confined below 2000 m. Wet and Dry wind 380 composites highlight that ChocoJet is significantly enhanced and more southwesterly 381 during Wet days. Low-level specific humidity also increases during Wet days resulting 382 in an enhancement of zonal moisture flux convergence over the western slopes of the 383 Andes. When ChocoJet hits the western slopes of the Andes, orographic lifting occurs and creates a large gradient of precipitation with a local maximum starting during the 384 385 afternoon (15 LT) over the western foothills and a precipitation shadow to the east 386 (Figure 2). Therefore, MCS occurrences appear to be strongly discriminated by ChocoJet 387 intensity, which broadly agrees with findings based on reanalysis products. For example,

at the storm scale, Zuluaga and Houze (2015) found that deeper and more organized

389 storms systems were related to an 850 hPa westerly wind anomaly and its interaction with

390 the Andes. Furthermore, at seasonal-to-interannual scales, a stronger than normal

391 ChocoJet has been related to anomalously wet seasonal patterns over Colombia (Poveda,

392 2004; Poveda et al., 2006; Arias et al., 2015; Bedoya-Soto et al., 2019).

393 At around 2000 m ASL, the OTREC Nuquí wind profiles change from southwesterly 394 to mostly easterly-southeasterly (Figure 4). This rather sharp sign change in the zonal 395 component coincides with the mean height of the Andes western range (see elevation 396 inset in Figure 2), and with the location of the mid-level easterly atmospheric jet crossing 397 over the Andes from NW South America into the Pacific Ocean (Poveda and Mesa, 398 1999). Throughout OTREC field campaign, the easterly trade winds prevail over the 399 Andes. Above the Andes and up to 4000 m, Wet days are related to a significant 400 enhancement of the southeasterly wind component linked to a layer of enhanced specific 401 humidity (Figure 4b, e). These results suggest that convection organization is also linked 402 to enhanced mid-level moisture flux convergence. These day-to-day transient scale 403 results support the role of the northern Amazon climatological airflow pathways as 404 source of moisture convergence over Western Colombia suggested by Sakamoto et al. 405 (2011), Poveda et al. (2014) and Hoyos et al. (2018). Note that by construction the local 406 enhancement of convection organization and precipitation could be partly responsible of 407 the outlined moistening of the atmosphere (Figure 4e). A detailed moisture budget 408 analysis can help elucidate the relative role of surface and low- to mid-level moisture 409 sources in convection organization.

a)

b)



Figure 4 OTREC-Nuquí (August-September, 2019) wind vertical composites during convectively active (Wet) and non-convective (Dry) days (assuming 00-23UTC days) for (a) zonal (U) and meridional (V) median wind, (b) specific humidity, and (c) moisture flux. Shaded areas show the interquartile range of each composite sample. (d-f) show the respective Wet minus Dry differences and one-sided p-values evaluating the significance of the sample independence using the Student's t-test.

To identify the diurnal relationships of the circulation and precipitation, Figure 5 shows the zonal Wet and Dry wind profiles further composited by time of the day, 00 UTC (19 LT; late afternoon) and 12 UTC (07 LT; early morning). In general, results show discernable changes in amplitude of local circulation according to the convection regime. Assuming that day-to-day variation of ChocoJet is derived from regional- to 420 large-scale drivers, then we list the possible drivers of such differences in the local421 circulation:

422	1.	Land and sea breezes: Not surprisingly for this coastal site, and regardless of the
423		convective regime, results show that the sea breeze reinforces ChocoJet during the
424		afternoon, while the land breeze decelerates the flow early in the morning. Even
425		though the prevailing near-surface wind is westerly-southwesterly, the Nuquí
426		soundings show that there are days with an early morning offshore wind
427		component in the surface winds. The occurrence of an offshore flow seems to be
428		more consistent during Dry days, as showed by the weaker westerly flow and more
429		concentrated distribution of offshore wind component. Locally, this offshore flow
430		can be related to a combination of drainage flow due to high elevations (a few
431		hundred meters height) near the coast and the inertial thermal contrast. It is likely
432		that drier and less cloudy environments allow more inland cooling at night,
433		facilitating the occurrence of the rather shallow offshore wind.
434	2.	Diurnal cycle amplitude: A striking feature in Figure 5 is the contrasting
435		differences between AM and PM composite zonal wind medians during Wet and
436		Dry days for the low-level winds. Wet day composites show that ChocoJet is
437		much stronger during the afternoon and weaker during the morning, whereas Dry
438		composites show relatively smaller diurnal cycle differences. Surface flow to the
439		east of Nuquí (inland direction) implies that Wet days are related to a significantly
440		stronger ChocoJet, which might increase the low-level moisture convergence as
441		the flow approaches the Andes. The nighttime and early morning precipitation
442		burst is related to a stronger deceleration of ChocoJet, likely due to the land-breeze

443 enhancing the low-level moisture convergence offshore of the Nuquí location. The 444 offshore scale of the precipitation burst (Figure 2) further supports this idea as land 445 breeze influence scales typically range ~50-100 km (Drobinski and Dubos 2009). 446 3. Sequence of events: Vertical profiles of wind composites provide supporting 447 evidence of diurnal cycle of circulation and its relationship to the propagating 448 precipitation signature suggested in FiguresFigure 2 and Figure 3. During the 449 afternoon, the enhanced ChocoJet triggers storms over the foothills and western 450 plains. By nighttime, convection organizes and propagates towards the coast, with 451 related cold pools and convective outflows supporting the enhanced thermal 452 contrast that help deaccelerate ChocoJet (Mejía et al., 2016). Of note is that Wet 453 AM composites (Figure 5) show a deeper ChocoJet deacceleration contrasting the 454 shallower Dry AM easterly wind profile described above. By early morning, the 455 Wet AM wind composites suggest that there is an enhanced deacceleration 456 resulting in an enhanced offshore moisture flux convergence (neglecting a diurnal 457 oscillation of the regional maritime low-level flow) that provide the low-level 458 support for long-lived MCSs and newer storms development. These sequence of 459 events agree well with those presented in the modeling studies of Mapes et al. 460 (2003) and Yepes at al. (2020), and those shown in TRMM-based MCSs of 461 Jaramillo et al. (2017).



Figure 5 OTREC-Nuquí (August-September, 2019) zonal wind vertical composites during convectively
active (Wet) and no convective (Dry) days and further composited by launching times 00 UTC (late
afternoon) and 12 UTC (early morning). See text for characterization of wet/dry days. Shades show the
interquartile range of each composite sample.

462

467 It is worth noticing that the inland precipitation maximum can be also related to 468 the enhanced afternoon surface and boundary layer fluxes by the tropical rainforest 469 located between the western range of the Andes and the Pacific shoreline. Tropical 470 forests exhibit a clear-cut diurnal cycle of evapotranspiration and biogenic activity 471 including the emission of volatile organic compounds (Gu et al., 2017) that get converted 472 into cloud condensation nuclei. Also, such a diurnal cycle is associated with processes 473 such as latent and sensible heat fluxes near the surface (evaporative cooling from the 474 forest transpiration and from reevaporation of water intercepted and held by the 475 vegetation) and condensation heating aloft. Another source of surface cooling lies in the 476 high aerodynamic conductance of the forest, more so during Dry days, which constitutes 477 the main surface cooling factor (Panwar et al., 2020; Davin and de Noblet-Ducoudré,

2010; Boisier et al., 2012; Lejeune et al., 2015). All these processes play an important
role in the dynamics of atmospheric turbulent transfer within the boundary layer and
therefore on the development and life cycle of convective processes in the region. This is
a topic of on-going research.

482 **3.2.2 Regional Patterns**

483 To derive regional scale circulation changes related to Wet and Dry convection 484 activity, the ERA5 reanalysis data are used. Recall that some confidence is gained in the 485 ERA5 products as most *in situ* upper-air data were assimilated on real-time. For 486 completeness and to address potential ERA5 uncertainties in this sparse data area, we 487 also composited surface station observations made available by DIMAR. ERA5 and 488 DIMAR observations agree generally well, with a few particular exceptions. For 489 example, Malpelo island (4.002577 °N, 81.60429 °W) shows Wet minus Dry differences 490 that are offset in relation to ERA5. We attributed such differences to surface station 491 siting issues: Malpelo is a small rocky island that perturbs the circulation as the station is 492 located (for practical reasons) in the lee side relative to the predominant flow (DIMAR 493 personal communications). We assume, however, that ERA5 products over EPAC are 494 relatively well-constrained by surface observations due to the high ship traffic in the area 495 (Gallego et al., 2019).

Figure 6 shows the prevailing surface flow during the OTREC period, with
westerly-southwesterly flow dominating over the far EPAC and easterly flow over the
Caribbean basin. The confluence zone of these two broad and coherent circulation
features form the ITCZ over the far EPAC. The northerly flow over Panama is known as

500 the Isthmus gap flow and typically flows from the Caribbean into the far EPAC this time 501 of the year, with a return component from the far EPAC to Northern Colombia over the 502 Colombia-Panama border. The latter low-level cyclonic circulation feature is known as 503 the Panama Bight semi-permanent low (Chelton et al., 2000; Rodríguez - Rubio et al., 504 2003; hereafter Panama low). Figure 6c and f show that this surface circulation pattern is 505 more accentuated during Wet days (more so during the nighttime and early morning): 506 The Panama low is more pronounced, which might enhance surface convergence owing 507 to stronger easterlies over the Caribbean and stronger south westerlies over the EPAC. 508 The enhanced cyclonic flow related to Wet days and located to the NW of Nuquí 509 reinforces the idea of a stronger convergence zone just offshore during the morning 510 precipitation burst. Again, the enhanced convergence patterns are related to early 511 morning deacceleration of ChocoJet as revealed by the Nuquí observations (Figure 5).

512 Figure 7 shows the Panama low extending vertically and underscoring the 513 modification produced by its orography; this feature disappears above 800 hPa where the 514 easterly flow dominates (not shown). Over the far EPAC, the low-level circulation 515 (Figure 7a, b) clearly depicts the Panama Isthmus gap flow and ChocoJet confluence 516 zone wrapping cyclonically offshore the Colombia-Panama border. During Wet days, 517 defined as days with long-lasting organized convection, the ERA5 composites show an 518 accentuated cyclonic curvature suggesting that a thermodynamical adjustment could have 519 contributed to the lowering of the pressure produced by the storms. A momentum and 520 vorticity budget can help elucidate better the dominant forces in place. A similar 521 cyclonic pattern was found by Zuluaga and Houze (2015) and Liu et al. (2020) when 522 examining the environmental conditions driving convection organization and high-flash523 rete thunderstorms over the Northern Andes. This cyclonic curvature is shifted north 524 from the one found in Zuluaga and Houze (2015), and it is collocated with the positive 525 anomalies of rain shown in Figure 1d. Figure 7c and f show Wet minus Dry differences 526 highlighting the low-level enhanced southwesterly flow over Pacific and Caribbean 527 coasts of Colombia, which moves around the northern flank of the Andes and into the 528 Magdalena River Valley (central Colombian valley). These results correspond well to 529 those presented by Liu et al. (2020), who found that moisture surges moving from the far 530 EPAC into the Northern Andes help increase both low-level moisture flux convergences 531 and low-level bulk shear into the region. It is worth noticing the spatial coherence of the 532 Wet minus Dry flow differences indicating that a stronger CLLJ appears to be related to 533 Wet days. Over the Caribbean Sea, the CLLJ intensity is modulated by TEWs (Serra et 534 al., 2010) which are seemingly sources of synoptic variability in the area. The coherence 535 patterns between Wet days and TEWs incursions over the Caribbean is currently being 536 addressed in a separate study.





537 Figure 6 Surface ERA5 and DIMAR station composites for wind vectors and sea-level pressure (contours) 538 during OTREC (August-September, 2019) for (a) convectively active days (Wet), (b) non convective days 539 (Dry) and (c) Wet minus Dry differences; (d-f) for nighttime and early morning times only (00-08 LST; 05-540 13 UTC). Black wind barbs correspond to ERA5 (subsample every other grid point), red bards correspond 541 to DIMAR stations. For Wet and Dry, full wind barb is 1 m/s, half is 0.5 m/s, flag is 5 m/s; For Wet minus 542 Dry, full barb is 0.5 m/s, half is 0.1 m/s. Bold barbs in (c) show differences that are statistically significant 543 with a 95% confidence level. Shaded contours represent ERA5 SLP differences (hPa) and red numbers next 544 to station locations are observed SLP differences in hPa. Coastline is shown in blue.

545



925 hPa



Figure 7 ERA5 pressure level circulation and wind speed composites during OTREC (August-September,
2019) for 975, 925, and 850 hPa during convectively active days (Wet), non-convective days (Dry) and
Wet minus Dry day differences. Topography is also included above the corresponding pressure level (using
a hydrostatic approximation) for reference of the flow and topography interaction.

550 **3.3 Wind Shear**

551 Both the ChocoJet and the easterly winds above the Andes were significantly 552 more intense during Wet days (Figure 5), which suggests the existence of a vertical shear 553 environment capable of controlling convection organization into MCSs. In this study, 554 low-level wind shear is defined as the magnitude of the difference vector between 555 ChocoJet (500-750 m ASL) and the lowest level at which easterly trade winds reach their 556 maximum intensity (3000-3500 m ASL). Figure 8a shows that ChocoJet wind speed 557 discriminates Wet from Dry days (99% confidence level) and is a good environmental 558 factor of convection organization and precipitation amount, whereas the relationship of 559 the mid-level wind speed and shear (Figure 8b and c) from the Wet and Dry days is

560 relatively weaker (only to the 80% confidence level). Although the shear-convective 561 regime is not monotonically increasing, it suggests that a critical vertical shear of 10 and 14 m s⁻¹ is needed for days with organized and persistent convective systems. It is worth 562 563 noticing that this result is sensitive to the shear definition (i.e., Markowski and 564 Richardson, 2006) and the significance of the relationship is given by the selection of the 565 shear layers, leading to different shear critical values and variance in the significance of 566 the relationship (Chen et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the directionality of the results was 567 consistent, indicating that the environmental vertical shear induced by the Andes and the 568 mid-tropospheric jet modulate convection organization into MCSs. The influence of the 569 environmental vertical shear agrees well with previous studies in the area (Mejía and 570 Poveda, 2005); a similar shear environment has been linked to high population of MCSs 571 over the Sierra Madre Occidental (Mejía et al., 2016); interaction of a similar low-level 572 vertical shear with convective outflows support long-live midlatitude and tropical squall 573 lines (Rotunno et al., 1988; Weisman and Rotunno, 2004). Diurnally, Yepes et al. (2020) 574 also pointed out the role of wind shear in the development of thunderstorms during early 575 morning over this region. The role of vertical wind shear, which is observable and 576 predictable, is encouraging.

577 The resultant down shear vector (not shown) is mainly westward owing to the 578 strength of the easterlies, which helps support the westward propagating precipitation 579 patterns shown in Figure 2Figure 3 and Figure A-1. The vertical shear is important as it 580 interacts with low-level vorticity generated by the convective outflows helping develop 581 new convective cells or maintain the existing ones (Markowski and Richardson, 2006). 582 The observed vertical shear and its relationship to convection organization suggest that vertical vorticity can be tilted and stretched by deep convection and support the
development of Mesoscale Convective Vortices (Davis and Galarneau 2009), which
constitutes yet another well-known dynamic support for long lasting MCSs (Weisman
and Rotunno, 2004; Hagos et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2015). A case study of an MCS
observed during OTREC will be presented later as an effort to strengthen and reconcile
the multiple ingredients in this composite work.



Figure 8 Scatter plots for OTREC daily precipitation total during the Wet (Green dots) and Dry (Brown) days against (a) low-level (500-700 m ASL) or ChocoJet wind speed, (b) mid-level (3000-3500 m ASL) or easterly trade wind speed, and (c) vertical shear estimated as the magnitude of the vector differences between levels used in (a) and (b). Box plots show the median, interquartile range and extreme distribution of the samples for each axis. P-values in the upper-right corner of each panel were only estimated for the independent parameters (x-axis) evaluating the significance of the independence of the Wet and Dry

- samples using the Student's t-test.
- 596 **3.4 On Gravity Waves**

597 To support the observed early morning and offshore precipitation maximum shown in 598 Figure 2, we now examine the thermodynamic profile and its relationship to the gravity 599 wave phenomenon. Using soundings from ChocoJEX, Yepes et al. (2019) and Yepes et 600 al. (2020) found a nighttime and early morning cold temperature disturbance between 601 800-600 hPa, likely related to the gravity wave phenomenon postulated by Mapes et al. 602 (2003). OTREC-Nuquí field campaign further supports this finding with a longer data 603 record. Figure 9 shows the mean Moist Static Energy (MSE) and Saturated MSE 604 (SMSE) diagrams measured during both ChocoJEX IOP3 in Quibdó (2016) and OTREC-605 Nuquí. Despite the differences in location (Ouibdó is located 65 km inland to the east of 606 Nuquí) and interannual and seasonal differences (not shown), both observation sites show 607 similar thermodynamic and diurnal characteristics, including: a built-up SMSE inversion 608 layer at 00 UTC (19 LT) and low-level stable conditions (surface to 800 hPa) at 12 UTC 609 (07 LT). Additionally, observations suggest that the cold phase of the gravity wave 610 erodes the SMSE inversion and increases the mid-level convection potential. To better characterize the diurnal thermodynamical contrast, Figure 9c and d show 611 612 OTREC-Nuquí mean 12 UTC minus 00 UTC differences for θ and SMSE, respectively. 613 Results show pronounced 900 to 400 hPa early morning cool layers collocated with the 614 enhanced SMSE. A striking result is that Wet days are characterized by a more 615 pronounced middle-layer diurnal thermal difference, with its corresponding more 616 unstable thermodynamic profile. Hence, the timing and day-to-day variance of the cold 617 phase of the mid-level gravity wave mechanism consistently supports the potential 618 occurrence of an offshore precipitation maximum. 619 It is possible that some kind of cold advection and propagating phenomenon from the 620 Andes support such diurnal middle-level thermal contrast. Since we cannot attribute to 621 other phenomena and results support the idea of a gravity wave mechanisms that favor an

622 afternoon combination of advection and propagation of warm air over the Andes that

helps to build the observed inversion layer. This picture is completed by the nighttime

624 middle-level cooler air that helps erode the inversion, while enhancing the convective

625 potential energy aloft. Recall that Wet days are related to enhanced mid-level easterlies,

626 which can support enhanced thermal advection, with everything else assumed the same 627 (Figure 5). Rydbeck et al. (2017) modeling study found that westward moving MCSs 628 ceased when the Andes were removed, underscoring the importance of the gravity wave 629 produced by high rise topography. They acknowledge, however, that removing the 630 Andes can modulate the base state of other features highlighted here as crucial drivers in 631 the formation of MCSs and the precipitation hotspot, including the vertical shear, the 632 intensity of the land-breeze, the afternoon convection near the coast, and the intensity and 633 location of the CLLJ and ChocoJet.

634 It is possible that the westward extent of the gravity wave helps explain the relatively 635 long distance travelled by the offshore migration of convective systems during Wet days 636 (Figure 2). Using offshore upper-air soundings launched from a ship vessel, Yepes et al. 637 (2019) showed that the effect of the outlined gravity wave persists several hundred 638 kilometers offshore. However, there are other plausible mechanisms that can explain the 639 relatively long extent of the westward migration of the offshore precipitation. In 640 Sumatra, Yokoi et al. (2017, 2019) suggested that inland afternoon convection can help 641 activate gravity waves that can possibly play a role in the offshore migration of 642 precipitation. Idealized simulations for flat islands (Coppin and Bellon, 2019a) or islands 643 with mountains (Coppin and Bellon, 2019b) suggest that land breeze-related convection 644 can propagate far from the coast by the formation of mid-tropospheric gravity waves that 645 can trigger new convection or reinforce existing convection. They suggested that the 646 distance of propagation away from the shore is particularly sensitive to humidity and 647 temperature at the top of the boundary layer, citing the gravity wave phenomenon (Mapes 648 et al., 2003) as a plausible mechanisms in such sensitivity. All of these studies highlight

649 the role of gravity wave displacements as modulators of the nighttime and early morning



650 convective activity of their surroundings.

Figure 9 Mean Moist Static Energy (MSE) diagrams during (a) ChocoJEX (Quibdó, October 2016) and (b)
OTREC-Nuquí (August-September 2019; right) average at 00 UTC (19 LT) and 12 UTC (07 LT); Dotted
and Solid lines show the MSE and saturated MSE (SMSE), respectively. Mean OTREC Wet and Dry days
composites of (c) θ and (d) SMSE 12 minus 00 UTC differences.

- 655 **3.5 August 11th, 2019 MCS**
- To illustrate and further reinforce the role of circulation processes and
- 657 thermodynamics in the generation of precipitation and convection organization outlined
- above, Figure 10 shows the dropsonde 3DVAR (Fuchs-Stone et al., 2020) temperature,
- 659 circulation and vorticity analysis based on the OTREC dropsonde observations released
- 660 from the NSF/NCAR Gulfstream V during the morning of August 11, 2019 (Voemel,

661 2019). During the day of the flight, an MSC (Wet day) developed inland early morning, 662 and then moved offshore due west persisting until past noon. For reference, GOES 663 brightness temperature, GPM precipitation totals, and wind barbs from 12 and 18 UTC 664 Nuquí sounding are also shown. At low-level (Figure 10f, 950 hPa) streamline and 665 temperature analysis show a confluence line (and low-level convergence around 5.5° N) 666 separating two distinct air masses, the relatively cooler ChocoJet and the warmer 667 Isthmus gap flow. At this level, southwesterly flow is much stronger than reported by the 668 Nuquí sounding, likely due to storm blocking or the demise of the land breeze. This situation suggests low-level convergence over the eastern side of the flight pattern. Flow 669 670 veered with height reaching a persistent easterly component just above the Andes (Figure 671 10c, 650 hPa) and underscoring the existing low-to-mid level environmental shear. 672 The dropsonde analysis clearly resolved what appears to be a coherent MCV between 673 650 and 300hPa (Figure 10a and Figure 11a). This MCV pattern, however, shows two 674 distinctive layers with an onion-shaped thermodynamic profile in the upper half (300-450 675 hPa), with collocated cold and warm temperature anomalies above and below, 676 respectively. This characteristic is indicative of the MCV cyclonic support in mid-levels 677 to the related subsidence produced by the stratiform region of the MCSs (Figure A-2). 678 Figure 12a show that the outlined convective system was dominated by a top-heavy mass 679 profile, indicative of strong stratiform precipitation (Fuchs-Stone et al., 2020). The lower 680 half of the MCV developed in a moist layer above the warmer and drier easterlies. We 681 speculate that the deep cyclonic vorticity layer (4-9 km; Figure 12b) may be the result of 682 stretching associated with the vertical mass flux profile, as suggested by the net mass flux 683 increasing strongly with height, which implies horizontal mass convergence. Other flow

684 conditions are likely to contribute to the cyclonic shear, such as the perturbed flow by the 685 wake zone related to upstream convective blocking, as evidenced by the flow around the 686 southernmost deep convective cells, or event tilting of the sheared environment. Future 687 research will perform a vorticity budget to examine the relative importance of the 688 outlined mechanisms for this and other OTREC research flights and using cloud-689 resolving modeling tools.

b)









80°W





78°W

Figure 10 MCSs event during August 11, 2019 and 3DVAR contours of relative vorticity (left panels; s⁻¹) and temperature (right panels; °C) at 550, 650 and 950 hPa pressure levels. Streamlines and wind vectors at the dropsonde release location (green) and Nuquí soundings at 12 UTC (grey) and 18UTC (black) are included in each panel. Background imagery corresponds to GOES channel 14 at 15 UTC (bottom-left panel) and GPM IMERGv6 accumulated precipitation for 13-18 UTC (bottom-right panel). Different pressure levels and the dropsonde 3DVAR (Fuchs-Stone et al., 2020) temperature, circulation and vorticity analysis based on the OTREC dropsonde observations released from the NSF/NCAR Gulfstream V during

the morning of August 11, 2019.



Figure 11 Longitude-pressure 3DVAR analysis for (a) relative vorticity (s⁻¹) and (b) temperature
disturbance (°C) at 5.5 °N for flight shown in Figure 10.

b)



Figure 12 Vertical profile of 3DVAR analysis for (a) vertical max flux (kg m⁻² s⁻¹) and (b) relative vorticity (ks⁻¹) spatial averaged (78-80° W, 5-7° N) for flight shown in Figure 10.

702 4 Summary and Conclusions

703 This study uses new observations gathered during Organization of Tropical East

704 Pacific Convection (OTREC; August-September, 2019) to better understand the

mechanisms responsible for the precipitative systems that occur in the rainiest spot on

Earth, according to GPM data annual totals. We examined upper-air soundings

707 observations launched at Nuquí, a Colombian coastal town located at the far EPAC and

708 near the record-breaking precipitation maximum.

Associated with this record maximum is a pronounced nighttime and early morning

710 diurnal precipitation distribution mostly falling in the form of recurrent and long lasting

711 MCSs, predominantly moving westward from the Andes to several hundreds of

712 kilometers into the ocean. OTREC-Nuquí field campaign was long enough (51 days) to

713 develop robust statistical composites of the local and regional environment related to the

714 development or reinforcement of MCSs.

We examined the local and regional environmental drivers modulating the circulationand thermodynamics during several MCS days. Additionally, a mesoscale analysis of an

717	indivio	dual MCS event observed during one of the OTREC GV research flights helped
718	reinfo	rce such connections. Both the composite analysis and mesoscale analysis
719	provid	led an interesting set of mechanisms, not necessarily complete, that help understand
720	the co	nvective forces that can trigger, control their diurnal variance, or support MCS
721	duratio	on, which we now summarize:
722	-	ITCZ: Enhanced low-level convergence formed by the ChocoJet and Panama gap
723		jet, which constitute the ITCZ over the far EPAC. Orographic blocking help
724		create the semi-permanent low that cyclonically wraps the ITCZ near the
725		Colombian coast. This process seems to be regionally modulated by CLLJ and
726		ChocoJet intensity.
727	-	Land breeze: Land breeze favors ChocoJet deceleration offshore, enhancing the
728		nighttime and early morning low-level convergences.
729	-	Vertical wind shear: Sheared flow provides vertical dynamical support (Rotunno
730		et al., 1988). This shear can interact with the low-level vorticity (generated by
731		gravity currents and outflows) to further support upper motion and the down shear
732		motion (predominantly westward). Days with stronger shear than average
733		correlate well with organized and persistent convective systems.
734	-	Mid-level gravity wave: Previous studies and the observations made here helped
735		confirm the existence of the interaction of a gravity wave emanating from the
736		Andes (Mapes et al., 2003). During the nighttime and early morning, the cold
737		phase of the gravity wave enhances convection potential and helps erode the
738		inversion layer that forms in the interface of the cold and moist EPAC airmass
739		and the drier and warmer easterly airmass that flows above the Andes. More

research is needed to pinpoint the sources of the gravity wave and itscorresponding propagating characteristics.

742 MCV: Dropsonde observations show evidence of a well-organized MCV that 743 developed during the occurrence of an MCS. Mid-level MCVs support upward 744 motion than can help maintained and invigorate their parent MCS. This mid-level 745 vorticity is most likely generated by stretching of ambient vorticity by the top-746 heavy vertical mass flux profile. We suggest that the combination of the vertical 747 shear, the mid-level gravity wave and MCVs provide support for the maintenance 748 and the relatively long distance travelled by the offshore convection. MCSs over 749 the far EPAC constitute a source of local generation of mid-level vorticity that 750 may contribute to downstream tropical cyclones development (Rydbeck et al., 751 2017).

This list of environmental and mesoscale drivers is by no means complete. We acknowledge that OTREC-Nuquí field campaign constitute an incomplete snapshot within the large annual and interannual variability of precipitation in the region. Future analysis of all OTREC G-V research flights is warranted, as is the analysis on *how* representative are the outlined mechanisms in the annual cycle context.

It is likely that synoptic-to-interannual variability of precipitation in the region is
modulated through one or several of the outlined mechanisms. However, it is also likely
that additional mechanisms are added when synoptic or large-scale transients occur (e.g.,
2-day wave, TEW, MJO, etc.). Convection organization and spatial distribution is clearly
modulated by the TEWs. Hence, a more in-depth analysis of variance added by synoptic

762 disturbances (including TEWs) can help us assess the roles of the far EPAC MCSs in 763 triggering or amplification of easterly waves into tropical cyclogenesis in the core region. 764 The rainforest of the Chocó-Darién corridor between the western Andes and the 765 Pacific coast of Colombia plays a fundamental role on the diurnal cycle through the 766 supply of moisture from transpiration and reevaporation of intercepted rainfall and the 767 ensuing surface evaporative cooling, but also cooling owing to the strong aerodynamic 768 conductance of heat from the soil to the atmosphere (Davin and de Noblet-Ducoudré, 769 2010; Panwar et al., 2020), and their impact on the dynamics and thermodynamics of the 770 boundary layer, convective processes and condensation aloft. The role of biogenic 771 activity and remote aerosols (Riipinen et al., 2011; Bourgeois et al., 2015) in the clouds 772 properties and precipitation of the region need to be investigated. 773 The results presented here can shed light about the mechanisms controlling the well-774 known large scale intraseasonal-to-seasonal teleconnection and variability drivers 775 affecting the regional hydroclimate. Furthermore, the results provide hard observable 776 and predictable constrains to global and regional models in the simulation of such 777 outstanding precipitation hotspot. Note that several of the mechanisms in our list are 778 model resolution dependent (e.g., land breeze, MCV). Hence, this list constitutes a recipe 779 of basic environmental processes to diagnose and examine the fidelity and confidence in 780 simulating MCSs in the region.

781

782 Acknowledgements: Support for this work was provided under NSF grant 1922918.

- 783 Universidad Nacional de Colombia at Medellin, Colegio Mayor de Antioquia, and
- 784 Universidad de Antioquia sponsored the time for OTREC-Nuquí participating students,
- 785 while NSF funding sponsored all travel related expenses. We would like to acknowledge

- 786 operational, technical, and scientific support provided by NCAR's Earth Observing
- 787 Laboratory, sponsored by the National Science Foundation. OTREC data are provided
- 788 by NCAR/EOL under the sponsorship of the National Science Foundation
- 789 https://data.eol.ucar.edu/project/OTREC. Data is available through Mejia and Poveda
- 790 (2020) and Voemel et al. (2019). Mejia and Yepes were supported by NSF grant
- 791 1922918. Henao received funding by the Colombian Administrative Department of
- 792 Science, Technology and Innovation (COLCIENCIAS) under the National Doctoral
- 793 Grant 727 (2015). Poveda's work was supported by Universidad Nacional de Colombia
- at Medellín. Raymond and Fuchs-Stone were supported by NSF grant 1758513. Zuluaga
- 795 was supported by Patrimonio Autónomo Fondo Nacional de Financiamiento para la
- 796 *Ciencia, la Tecnología y la Innovación, Francisco José de Caldas (ref. 80740-128-2019).*
- 797 Special thanks to all OTREC-Nuquí participants and to DRI administration for
- facilitating this international field campaign. Administration personnel from Hotel
- 799 Puerta del Sol, Nuquí (Patricia Lozano and Don Ramon) for their continue logistic
- 800 support during the field campaign. We also thank NASA for providing GPM dataset, and
- 801 DIMAR for sharing surface station observations in the region.

802 **5 References**

- Amador, J. (2008), The Intra-Americas Sea low-level jet: overview and future research. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, *1146*, 153–188.
 http://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1446.012
- Arias, P.A., Martínez, J.A. & Vieira, S.C. (2015), Moisture sources to the 2010–2012
 anomalous wet season in northern South America. *Clim Dyn*, 45, 2861–2884.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-015-2511-7
- Arnett, A.B. & C.R. Steadman (1970), Low-level wind flow over eastern Panama and
 northwestern Colombia, ESSA Technical Memorandum ERLTM-ARL 26, U. S.
 Department of Commerce, Environmental Science Services Administration
- 812 Research Laboratories, Air Resources Lab., Silver Spring, Maryland, 73 pp.

813	Baranowski, D. B., Waliser, D. E., Jiang, X., Ridout, J. A., & Flatau, M. K. (2019),
814	Contemporary GCM fidelity in representing the diurnal cycle of precipitation over
815	the Maritime Continent. J. Geophys. Res. Atmos., 124 (2), 747-769.
816	Bedoya-Soto, J. M., Aristizábal, E., Carmona, A. M., and Poveda, G. (2019), Seasonal
817	shift of the diurnal cycle of rainfall over Medellin's valley, central Andes of
818	Colombia (1998–2005). Front. Earth Sci., 7:92. doi: 10.3389/feart.2019.00092
819	Biasutti, M., Yuter, S.E., Burleyson, C.D. et al. (2012), Very high-resolution rainfall
820	patterns measured by TRMM precipitation radar: seasonal and diurnal cycles.
821	Clim Dyn, 39, 239–258. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-011-1146-6
822	Boisier, J., de Noblet-Ducoudré, N., Pitman, A., et al. (2012), Attributing the impacts of
823	land-cover changes in temperate regions on surface temperature and heat fluxes to
824	specific causes: results from the first lucid set of simulations. J. Geophys. Res.
825	<i>Atmos.</i> , <i>117</i> (D12), 1-16.
826	Bourgeois, Q., Ekman, A. M. L., and Krejci, R. (2015), Aerosol transport over the Andes
827	from the Amazon Basin to the remote Pacific Ocean: A multiyear CALIOP
828	assessment, J. Geophys. Res. Atmos., 120, 8411-8425,
829	doi:10.1002/2015JD023254.
830	Cárdenas, S. G., Arias, P. A., & Vieira, S. C. (2017), The African Easterly Waves over
831	Northern South America. In Multidisciplinary Digital Publishing Institute
832	<i>Proceedings</i> (Vol. 1, No. 5, p. 165)
833	Chelton, D.B., M.H. Freilich, and S.K. Esbensen (2000), Satellite Observations of the
834	Wind Jets off the Pacific Coast of Central America. Part II: Regional
835	Relationships and Dynamical Considerations. Mon. Wea. Rev., 128, 2019–2043,
836	https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493(2000)128<2019:SOOTWJ>2.0.CO;2
837	Chen, Q., J. Fan, S. Hagos, W. I. Gustafson Jr., and L. K. Berg (2015), Roles of wind
838	shear at different vertical levels: Cloud system organization and properties, J.
839	Geophys. Res. Atmos, 120, 6551-6574, doi:10.1002/2015JD023253.
840	Chong, M., & Bousquet, O. (1999), A mesovortex within a near-equatorial mesoscale
841	convective system during TOGA COARE. Mon. Wea. Rev., 127(6), 1145-1156.
842	Christoplos, I., Rodríguez, T., Schipper, E.L.F., Narvaez, E.A., Bayres Mejía, K.M.,
843	Buitrago, R., Gómez, L. and Pérez, F.J. (2010), Learning from recovery after
844	Hurricane Mitch. Disasters, 34: S202-S219. doi:10.1111/j.1467-
845	7717.2010.01154.x
846	Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S): ERA5: Fifth generation of ECMWF
847	atmospheric reanalyses of the global climate, Copernicus Climate Change Service
848	Climate Data Store (CDS), available at:
849	https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/home, last access: 11 May 2020.
850	Coppin, D., & Bellon, G. (2019b), Physical mechanisms controlling the offshore
851	propagation of convection in the tropics: 2. Influence of topography. Journal of
852	Advances in Modeling Earth Systems, 11, 3251–3264.
853	https://doi.org/10.1029/2019MS001794
854	Coppin, D., & Bellon, G. (2019a), Physical mechanisms controlling the offshore
855	propagation of convection in the tropics: 1. Flat island. Journal of Advances in
856	Modeling Earth Systems, 11(9), 3042-3056.

857	Coppola, E., Giorgi, F., Raffaele, F. et al. (2014), Present and future climatologies in the
858	phase I CREMA experiment. <i>Climatic Change</i> , 125, 23–38.
859	https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-014-1137-9
860	Davin, E.L., de Noblet-Ducoudré, N. (2010), Climatic impact of global scale
861	deforestation: radiative versus nonradiative processes. J. Climate, 23(1), 97-112.
862	Davis, C.A. and T.J. Galarneau (2009), The Vertical Structure of Mesoscale Convective
863	Vortices. J. Atmos. Sci., 66, 686–704, https://doi.org/10.1175/2008JAS2819.1
864	Dominguez, C., Done, J.M. & Bruyère, C.L. (2020), Easterly wave contributions to
865	seasonal rainfall over the tropical Americas in observations and a regional climate
866	model. Clim Dyn, 54, 191–209. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-019-04996-7
867	Drobinski, P., and Dubos, T. (2009), Linear breeze scaling: from large-scale land/sea
868	breezes to mesoscale inland breezes. Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.: A journal of the
869	atmospheric sciences, applied meteorology and physical oceanography, $135(644)$,
870	1766-1775.
871	Durán-Ouesada, A. M., Reboita, M., and Gimeno, L. (2012), Precipitation in tropical
872	America and the associated sources of moisture: a short review. <i>Hydrological</i>
873	sciences journal. 57(4), 612-624.
874	Espinoza, J. C., Garreaud, R., Poveda, G., Arias, P. A., Molina-Carpio, J., Masiokas, M., et
875	al. (2020). Hydroclimate of the Andes Part I: main climatic features. <i>Front. Earth</i>
876	<i>Sci.</i> 8:64. doi: 10.3389/feart.2020.00064
877	Fuchs-Stone, Ž., Raymond, D. J., & Sentić, S. (2020), OTREC2019: Convection over the
878	East Pacific and Southwest Caribbean. Geophys. Res. Letts, 47,
879	e2020GL087564.https://doi.org/10.1029/2020GL087564
880	Gallego, D., García Herrera, R., Delgado, G., de Paula, F., Ordóñez Pérez, P., & Ribera,
881	P. (2019), Tracking the moisture transport from the Pacific towards Central and
882	northern South America since the late 19th century. <i>Earth system dynamics</i> ,
883	10(2), 319-331.
884	García-Martínez, I.M., Bollasina, M.A. (2020), Sub-monthly evolution of the Caribbean
885	Low-Level Jet and its relationship with regional precipitation and atmospheric
886	circulation. Clim Dyn, 54, 4423–4440. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-020-05237-
887	y y
888	Grau, H.R. and M. Aide (2008), Globalization and land-use transitions in Latin America.
889	Ecology and Society, 13(2), 16, www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol13/iss2/art16/.
890	Gu D, Guenther AB, Shilling JE, Yu H, Huang M, Zhao C, Yang Q, Martin ST, Artaxo
891	P, Kim S, Seco R, Stavrakou T, Longo KM, Tóta J, de Souza RAF, Vega O, Liu
892	Y, Shrivastava M, Alves EG, Santos FC, Leng G, Hu Z (2017), Airborne
893	observations reveal elevational gradient in tropical forest isoprene emissions. Nat
894	Commun., 8:1–7. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms15541
895	Hagos, S., Z. Feng, S. McFarlane, and L. R. Leung (2013), Environment and the lifetime
896	of tropical deep convection in a cloud-permitting regional model simulation, J.
897	Atmos. Sci., 70, 2409–2425, doi:10.1175/jas-d-12-0260.1.
898	Hennon, Christopher C., Philippe P. Papin, Christopher M. Zarzar, Jeremy R. Michael, J.
899	Adam Caudill, Carson R. Douglas, Wesley C. Groetsema et al. (2013), Tropical
900	cloud cluster climatology, variability, and genesis productivity. J. Climate, 26, no.
901	10: 3046-3066.

902	Hersbach, H., and Coauthors (2020), The ERA5 Global Reanalysis. Q. J. R. Meteorol.
903	Soc., qj.3803, https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.3803.
904	Hidalgo, H.G., Durán-Quesada, A.M., Amador, J.A. and Alfaro, E.J. (2015), A Proposed
905	Dynamical Mechanism Linking Pacific and Caribbean Climate. Geografiska
906	Annaler: Series A, Physical Geography, 97: 41-59. doi:10.1111/geoa.12085
907	Houze, R. A. (2004), Mesoscale convective systems, <i>Rev. Geophys.</i> , 42, RG4003,
908	doi:10.1029/2004RG000150.
909	Hoyos I., F. Dominguez, J. Cañón-Barriga, J. A. Martínez, R. Nieto, L. Gimeno and P. A.
910	Dirmever (2018). Moisture origin and transport processes in Colombia, northern
911	South America, <i>Clim Dvn</i> , 10.1007/s00382-017-3653-6, 50, 3-4, (971-990).
912	Huaman, L., and Takahashi, K. (2016), The vertical structure of the eastern Pacific
913	ITCZs and associated circulation using the TRMM Precipitation Radar and in situ
914	data, Geophys. Res. Lett., 43(15), 8230-8239
915	Huang, X., Hu, C., Huang, X. et al. (2018), A long-term tropical mesoscale convective
916	systems dataset based on a novel objective automatic tracking algorithm. <i>Clim</i>
917	Dyn 51, 3145–3159. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-018-4071-0
918	Huffman, G., Bolvin, D. T., Braithwaite, D., Hsu, K., Joyce, R., Kidd, C., Xie, P. (2018),
919	NASA Global Precipitation Measurement (GPM) Integrated Multi-satellitE
920	Retrievals for GPM (IMERG) Prepared for: Global Precipitation Measurement
921	(GPM) National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA).
922	Jaramillo, L., G. Poveda, and J. F. Mejía (2017) Mesoscale convective systems and other
923	precipitation features over the tropical Americas and surrounding seas as seen by
924	TRMM. Int. J. Climatol., 37(S1), 380–397.
925	Kharin, V. V., Zwiers, F. W., Zhang, X. & Hegerl, G. C. (2007), Changes in temperature
926	and precipitation extremes in the IPCC ensemble of global coupled model
927	simulations. J. Climate, 20, 1419–1444.
928	King, M. J., M.C. Wheeler, and T. P. Lane (2017), Mechanisms linking global 5-day
929	waves to tropical convection. J. Atmos. Sci., 74, 3679-3702,
930	https://doi.org/10.1175/JAS-D-17-0101.1
931	Lejeune, Q., Davin, E.L., Guillod, B.P., and Seneviratne, S.I. (2015), Influence of
932	Amazonian deforestation on the future evolution of regional surface fluxes,
933	circulation, surface temperature and precipitation, Clim Dyn, 44, 2769–2786,
934	doi:10.1007/s00382-014-2203-8.
935	Liu, N., C. Liu, B. Chen, and E. Zipser (2020), What Are the Favorable Large-Scale
936	Environments for the Highest-Flash-Rate Thunderstorms on Earth?. J. Atmos.
937	Sci., 77, 1583–1612, https://doi.org/10.1175/JAS-D-19-0235.1
938	Liu, W., Cook, K. H., & Vizy, E. K. (2019), The role of mesoscale convective systems in
939	the diurnal cycle of rainfall and its seasonality over sub-Saharan Northern Africa.
940	<i>Clim Dyn</i> , <i>52</i> (1-2), 729-745.
941	Loaiza Cerón, W., Andreoli, R.V., Kayano, M.T., Ferreira de Souza, R.A., Jones, C.,
942	Carvalho, L.M.V. (2020), The Influence of the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation
943	on the Choco Low-Level Jet and Precipitation in Colombia. Atmosphere, 11, 174.
944	Ma, J., Chadwick, R., Seo, K. H., Dong, C., Huang, G., Foltz, G. R., & Jiang, J. H.
945	(2018), Responses of the tropical atmospheric circulation to climate change and
946	connection to the hydrological cycle. Annual Review of Earth and Planetary
947	Sciences, 46, 549-580.

948	Mapes, B. E., T. T. Warner, and M. Xu (2003) Diurnal patterns of rainfall in
949	northwestern South America. Part III: Diurnal gravity waves and nocturnal
950	convection offshore. Mon. Wea. Rev., 131(5), 830-844.
951	Markowski, P., and Richardson, Y. (2006), On the classification of vertical wind shear as
952	directional shear versus speed shear. Weather and forecasting, 21(2), 242-247.
953	Martinez, C., Goddard, L., Kushnir, Y. et al. (2019), Seasonal climatology and dynamical
954	mechanisms of rainfall in the Caribbean, <i>Clim Dyn.</i> 53, 825–846 (2019).
955	https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-019-04616-4
956	Meiía, F., Mesa, O., Poveda, G., Vélez, J., Hovos, C., Mantilla, R., and Cuartas, A.
957	(1999). Distribucion Espacial y Ciclos Anual y Semianual de la Precipitacion en
958	Colombia. Dvna. 127. 7.
959	Meiía, J. and Poveda, G. (2020). Upper-air Measurements at Nuquí, Colombia, Version
960	1.0 LICAR/NCAR - Farth Observing Laboratory, https://doi.org/10.26023/M951-
961	SXZK-NF0N Accessed 31 March 2020
962	Meiía, J. F. and G. Poveda (2005) Ambientes Atmosféricos de Sistemas Convectivos de
963	Mesoescala sobre Colombia durante 1998 según la misión TRMM y el re-análisis
964	NCEP/NCAR. Rev. Acad. Colomb. Cienc. 29 (113): 495-514, 2005. ISSN 0370-
965	3908.
966	Mejía, J.F., Douglas, M.W. and Lamb, P.J. (2016), Observational investigation of
967	relationships between moisture surges and mesoscale- to large-scale convection
968	during the North American monsoon. Int. J. Climatol., 36: 2555-2569.
969	doi:10.1002/joc.4512
970	Molinari, J. and D. Vollaro (2000), Planetary- and Synoptic-Scale Influences on Eastern
971	Pacific Tropical Cyclogenesis. Mon. Wea. Rev., 128, 3296–3307,
972	https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493(2000)128<3296:PASSIO>2.0.CO;2
973	Murakami, H., Wang, B., Li, T. et al. (2013), Projected increase in tropical cyclones near
974	Hawaii. Nature Clim Change 3, 749–754. https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1890
975	Na, Y., Fu, Q., and Kodama, C. (2020), Precipitation probability and its future changes
976	from a global cloud-resolving model and CMIP6 simulations. J. Geophys. Res.
977	Atmos., 125, e2019JD031926. https://doi.org/10.1029/2019JD031926
978	Panwar, A., Renner, M., and Kleidon, A. (2020). Imprints of evaporation and vegetation
979	type in diurnal temperature variations, Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. Discuss.,
980	https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-2020-95, in review.
981	Poveda G, Espinoza JC, Zuluaga MD, Solman SA, Garreaud R and van Oevelen PJ
982	(2020), High Impact Weather Events in the Andes. Front. Earth Sci. 8:162. doi:
983	10.3389/feart.2020.00162
984	Poveda, G. (2004), La hidroclimatología de Colombia: una síntesis desde la escala inter-
985	decadal hasta la escala diurna. Rev. Acad. Colomb. Cienc, 28, 201–222.
986	Poveda, G., and O. J. Mesa (1999), La corriente de chorro superficial del oeste (del
987	Chocó) y otras dos corrientes de chorro en Colombia: Climatología y variabilidad
988	durante las fases del ENSO. Rev. Acad. Colomb. Cienc, 89, 517-528.
989	Poveda, G., and O. J. Mesa (2000), On the existence of Lloró (the rainiest locality on
990	Earth): Enhanced ocean-land-atmosphere interaction by a low-level jet. Geophys.
991	Res. Lett., 27, 1675–1678, https://doi.org/10.1029/1999GL006091.
992	http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/1999GL006091.
993	Poveda, G., L. Jaramillo, and L. F. Vallejo (2014), Seasonal precipitation patterns along

994	pathways of South American low-level jets and aerial rivers, Water Resour. Res.,
995	50, 98–118, doi:10.1002/2013WR014087
996	Poveda, G., O.J. Mesa, P.A. Arias, L.F. Salazar, H. Moreno, S.C. Vieira, P.A. Agudelo,
997	V.G. Toro, and J.F. Álvarez (2005), Diurnal cycle of precipitation in the tropical
998	Andes of Colombia. Mon. Wea. Rev., 133, No.1, pp. 228-240.
999	Poveda, G., P. R. Waylen, and R. Pulwarty (2006), Modern climate variability in
1000	northern South America and southern Mesoamerica. Palaeogeogr.
1001	Palaeoclimatol. Palaeoecol., 234, 3–27,
1002	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2005.10.031.
1003	Raymond, D. J., Esbensen, S. K., Paulson, C., Gregg, M., Bretherton, C. S., Petersen, W.
1004	A., et al. (2004), EPIC2001 and the coupled ocean-atmosphere system of the
1005	tropical East Pacifc. Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc., 85, 1341-1354.
1006	Riipinen, I., et al. (2011), Organic condensation: A vital link connecting aerosol
1007	formation to cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) concentrations, Atmos. Chem.
1008	<i>Phys.</i> , 11(8), 3865–3878, doi:10.5194/acp-11-3865-2011.
1009	Roca, R., J. Aublanc, P. Chambon, T. Fiolleau, and N. Viltard (2014), Robust
1010	Observational Quantification of the Contribution of Mesoscale Convective
1011	Systems to Rainfall in the Tropics. J. Climate, 27, 4952–4958,
1012	https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-13-00628.1
1013	Rodríguez-Rubio, E., Schneider, W., and Abarca del Río, R. (2003), On the seasonal
1014	circulation within the Panama Bight derived from satellite observations of wind,
1015	altimetry and sea surface temperature, Geophys. Res. Lett., 30, 1410,
1016	doi:10.1029/2002GL016794, 7.
1017	Rotunno, R., J. B. Klemp, and M. L. Weisman (1988), A Theory for Strong, Long-Lived
1018	Squall Lines. J. Atmos. Sci., 45, 463–485, <u>https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-</u>
1019	<u>0469(1988)045<0463:ATFSLL>2.0.CO;2</u> .
1020	Rueda, O. A. and G. Poveda (2006), Spatial and temporal variability of the Choco Low
1021	Level Jet and its effect on the hydroclimatology of the Colombian Pacific region.
1022	Colombian Meteorology, 10, 132–145. (Available in Spanish).
1023	Ruppert Jr, J. H., & Zhang, F. (2019), Diurnal Forcing and Phase Locking of Gravity
1024	Waves in the Maritime Continent. J. Atmos. Sci., $70(9)$, 2815-2835.
1025	Rydbeck, A. V., Maloney, E. D., & Alaka Jr, G. J. (2017), In situ initiation of east Pacific
1026	easterly waves in a regional model. J. Atmos. Sci., $/4$ (2), 333-351.
1027	Sakamoto, M. S., I. Ambrizzi, and G. Poveda (2011), Moisture sources and life cycle of
1028	convective systems over western Colombia. Advances in Meteorology, 2011, 1–
1029	11. $\operatorname{nup}://\operatorname{dol.org}/10.1155/2011/890/59$
1030	schneider, E. K., Lindzen, R. S. & Kirtman, B. P. (1997), A tropical influence on global
1022	Cilliade. J. Almos. Sci. 34, 1349–1538.
1032	Serra, Y., G. Kiladis, and K. Hodges (2010), Tracking and mean structure of easterly
1033	waves over the initia-Americas Sea. J. Cumule, 25, 4625–4640.
1034	South America, W. Schwerdtfag, Elsovier, 205, 402
1035	Tan I Huffman G I Bolvin D T & Nellin E I (2010) Diversal evale of MEDG
1030	V06 precipitation Geophys Res Lett 46 12584 12502
1037	https://doi.org/10.1020/2019GI 085205
1038	https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL063595

1039	Tang, G., Clark, M. P., Papalexiou, S. M., Ma, Z., and Hong, Y. (2020), Have satellite
1040	precipitation products improved over last two decades? A comprehensive
1041	comparison of GPM IMERG with nine satellite and reanalysis datasets. <i>Remote</i>
1042	Sensing of Environment, 240, 111697.
1043	Vallejo-Bernal, S.M., Urrea, V., Bedoya-Soto, J.M., Posada, D., Olarte, A., Cárdenas-
1044	Posso, Y., Ruiz-Murcia, F., Martínez, M.T., Petersen, W.A., Huffman, G.J. and
1045	Poveda, G. (2020), Ground Validation of TRMM 3B43 V7 Precipitation
1046	Estimates over Colombia. Part I: Monthly and Seasonal Timescales. Int J
1047	<i>Climatol.</i> , doi:10.1002/joc.6640
1048	Velasco, I., and Fritsch, J. M. (1987) Mesoscale convective complexes in the Americas.
1049	J. Geophys. Res. Atmos., 92, 9591–9613. doi: 10.1029/JD092iD08p09591
1050	Voemel, H. (2019), NCAR/EOL AVAPS Dropsonde QC Data. Version 1.0.
1051	UCAR/NCAR - Earth Observing Laboratory. https://doi.org/10.26023/EHRT-
1052	TN96-9W04. Accessed 13 January 2020.
1053	Wang, S., and Sobel, A. H. (2017), Factors controlling rain on small tropical islands:
1054	Diurnal cycle, large-scale wind speed, and topography. J. Atmos. Sci., 74(11),
1055	3515-3532.
1056	Warner, T. T., B. E. Mapes, and M. Xu, 2003: Diurnal patterns of rainfall in northwestern
1057	South America. Part II: Model simulations. Mon. Wea. Rev., 131, 813-829.
1058	Weisman, M. L., and R. Rotunno (2004), A theory for strong long-lived squall lines"
1059	revisited. J. Atmos. Sci., 61, 361–382.
1060	Yang, G. and J. Slingo (2001) The Diurnal Cycle in the Tropics. Mon. Wea. Rev., 129,
1061	784–801, https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493(2001)129<0784:TDCITT>2.0.CO;2
1062	Yepes, J., G. Poveda, J. F. Mejía, C. Rueda and L. Moreno (2019) CHOCO-JEX: A
1063	Research Experiment Focused on the CHOCO Low-level Jet over the Far Eastern
1064	Pacific and Western Colombia. Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc., 100 (5), 779-796.
1065	Yepes, J., J. F. Mejía, G. Poveda and B. Mapes (2020) Gravity waves modulating the
1066	diurnal cycle of precipitation over one of the rainiest spots on Earth: Observations
1067	and Simulations in 2016. Mon. Wea. Rev. (Accepted).
1068	Yokoi, S., S. Mori, F. Syamsudin, U. Haryoko, and B. Geng (2019) Environmental
1069	Conditions for Nighttime Offshore Migration of Precipitation Area as Revealed
1070	by In Situ Observation off Sumatra Island. Mon. Wea. Rev., 147, 3391–3407,
1071	https://doi.org/10.1175/MWR-D-18-0412.1
1072	Yokoi, S., S. Mori, M. Katsumata, B. Geng, K. Yasunaga, F. Syamsudin, Nurhayati, and
1073	K. Yoneyama (2017), Diurnal Cycle of Precipitation Observed in the Western
1074	Coastal Area of Sumatra Island: Offshore Preconditioning by Gravity Waves.
1075	Mon. Wea. Rev., 145, 3745–3761, https://doi.org/10.1175/MWR-D-16-0468.1
1076	Yulihastin, E., Wahyu Hadi, T., Sari Ningsih, N., and Ridho Syahputra, M. (2020), Early
1077	morning peaks in the diurnal cycle of precipitation over the northern coast of
1078	West Java and possible influencing factors, Ann. Geophys., 38, 231–242,
1079	https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-38-231-2020.
1080	Zuluaga, M. D., and R. A. Houze (2015), Extreme convection of the near-equatorial
1081	Americas, Africa, and adjoining oceans as seen by TRMM. Mon. Wea. Rev.,
1082	143(1), 298–316. <u>http://doi.org/10.1175/MWR-D-14-00109.1</u>
1083	

1084 6 Appendix

1085



1087 Figure A-1 GPM-based MSC trajectories lasting longer than 6 hours during OTREC as characterized by

1088 their initial (blue dot) and final (red dot) centroid locations.

1089

1086



1090

Figure A-2 Dropsonde Skew-T/log P diagram and wind profile corresponding to OTREC Research Flight
02 (2019-08-11) at 14:16 UTC.



Figure A-3 Annual (top panel) and August-September climatology of 300 hPa Omega (Pa s⁻¹) based on the
 Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA2) reanalysis.