

1           **CHOCO-JEX: A Research Experiment Focused on the**  
2           **CHOCO Low-level Jet over the Far Eastern Pacific and**  
3           **Western Colombia**

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17                           Capsule:

18           Scientists and students from Colombia and the United States, in cooperation with the Air  
19           Force and the General Maritime Directorate of Colombia, participated in CHOCO-JEX,  
20           the first field campaign to provide upper-air observations over the far eastern Pacific and  
21           western Colombia, a region that has one of the rainiest spots on Earth.

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## 24 **Abstract**

25  
26 CHOCO-JEX experiment is an inter-institutional research program developed by the Universidad  
27 Nacional de Colombia, the General Maritime Directorate of the Ministry of National Defense of  
28 Colombia, the Colombian Air Force, and the Desert Research Institute at Reno, Nevada, US. The  
29 main goal of CHOCO-JEX is to characterize the vertical structure of the low-level Choco jet  
30 (ChocoJet) through observations and modeling. Thus, four 7-day Intensive Observation Periods  
31 (IOP) took place in different seasons in 2016, two over land and two over the far eastern Pacific  
32 off the coast of Colombia, including the deployment of upper-air soundings 4 times per day to  
33 monitor the predominant diurnal cycle and the synoptic and seasonal variability. Preliminary  
34 results show deeper westerly moisture flow and strong diurnal cycle over land than over ocean.  
35 IOP4 provides the first observational evidence of the southwesterly ChocoJet with mean winds of  
36 5 m/s. Diurnal cycles of zonal wind are coherent with mountain-valley and sea-land breezes at low-  
37 levels and the easterly flow is predominant at mid-levels. Potential temperature anomalies appear  
38 to be related to gravity waves that modulate the diurnal cycle of precipitation in the region.

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## 40 **1 Introduction**

41  
42 The Chocó Low-Level Jet (ChocoJet) is a westerly low-level jet, an extension of the  
43 southwesterly cross-equatorial flow that converges over the far eastern Pacific and western  
44 Colombia, which exerts a strong modulation over the region's hydroclimate (Poveda and Mesa,  
45 1997; 1999; 2000; Mapes *et al.*, 2003a; 2003b; Vernenkar *et al.*, 2003; Martínez *et al.*, 2003;  
46 Martínez *et al.*, 2006; Poveda *et al.*, 2006; Pahnke *et al.*, 2007; Bookhagen and Strecker, 2008;

47 Prange *et al.*, 2010; Mollier-Vogel *et al.*, 2013; Gimeno *et al.*, 2016; Grados *et al.*, 2018; Zhao and  
48 Keigwin, 2018; 2018; Gallego *et al.*, 2018). The orographic interaction of ChocoJet with the  
49 downstream Andes has been linked to the existence of arguably the rainiest place on Earth,  
50 experiencing mean annual rainfall rates on the order of 13,000 mm, as documented by numerous  
51 studies (Murphy, 1939; Schmidt, 1952; Trojer, 1958; Arnett and Steadman, 1970; Snow, 1976, p.  
52 371; Meisner and Arkin, 1987; Eslava, 1993, 1994; Janowiak *et al.*, 1994; Poveda and Mesa, 2000;  
53 Mapes *et al.*, 2003a, 2003b, Warner *et al.*, 2003; Zuluaga and Poveda, 2004; González *et al.*, 2006;  
54 Pahnke *et al.*, 2007; Sakamoto *et al.*, 2011; Álvarez-Villa *et al.*, 2011; Durán-Quesada *et al.*, 2012;  
55 Sierra *et al.*, 2015; Jaramillo *et al.*, 2017; King *et al.*, 2017). ChocoJet feeds the highly biodiverse  
56 tropical rainforest that spreads over the Chocó-Darién region along the Colombian Pacific.  
57 Consistently, the region is home to communities exposed to extreme precipitation and recurrent  
58 flood events (Velasquez and Poveda, 2018; Jaramillo *et al.*, 2017) and is one of the most critical  
59 hotspots around the world in terms of biodiversity loss (Myers *et al.*, 2000). Scientific  
60 understanding of the role of ChocoJet in the region's hydroclimate and ecosystems has relied on  
61 remote sensing and reanalysis tools. Therefore, in situ observations to characterize the atmospheric  
62 circulation over these regions and help constrain reanalysis and operational models are of critical  
63 importance to accurately improve such understanding.

64 Sidebar 1 here.

65 During the boreal autumn, ChocoJet is related to the wet season over the western and central  
66 regions of Colombia (Poveda and Mesa, 2000; Rueda and Poveda, 2006). During this period,  
67 reanalysis shows a 4–6 m/s jet with its core at 925 hPa level. ChocoJet's diurnal, synoptic, and  
68 seasonal variability is influenced by regional circulation features, including the Caribbean Low-  
69 Level Jet (CLLJ; Poveda and Mesa, 1999; Amador, 2008; Poveda *et al.* 2014; Arias *et al.*, 2015),

70 the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) (Schneider *et al.*, 2014) and the predominant easterly  
71 flow over the Andes (López and Howell, 1967; Poveda *et al.*, 2014). The ChocoJet has been linked  
72 to frequent formation of nighttime and early morning Mesoscale Convective Systems (MCSs;  
73 Mejía and Poveda, 2005; Zuluaga and Houze, 2015; Jaramillo *et al.*, 2017) over western Colombia  
74 and the Panama Bight, contributing approximately 57% of total rainfall in the region (Jaramillo *et*  
75 *al.*, 2017). At seasonal scales, the CLLJ interacts with ChocoJet and modulates the meridional  
76 location of the ITCZ (Arias *et al.*, 2015). At interannual scales, El Niño years tend to be associated  
77 with weaker ChocoJet, thus contributing to the explanation of prolonged drier periods over the  
78 Colombian Andes, with the reverse occurring during La Niña (Poveda and Mesa, 1997; 1999; 2000;  
79 Poveda *et al.*, 2001; Poveda *et al.*, 2006), a finding that appears to be linked to a wetter precipitation  
80 pattern observed during El Niño over northern Peru and Ecuador (Douglas *et al.*, 2009). The  
81 interannual variability of CLLJ is seasonally modulated. During boreal winter, the jet weakens  
82 during El Niño and strengthens during La Niña. During boreal summer, the opposite relationships  
83 have been found (Amador, 2006; Wang, 2007).

84 Despite the intricate atmospheric circulation patterns over the eastern equatorial Pacific and the  
85 seemingly significant influence on the meteorology, hydrology, and ecosystems of northwestern  
86 South America, no permanent or even experimental in situ upper-air measurements are available  
87 to characterize the atmospheric profile and the ChocoJet flow vertical structure and variability. Fig.  
88 1 shows the location of regional upper-air sounding systems, also indicating how spatially sparse  
89 and infrequent operational real-time observations were during the last five years. Despite the  
90 existence of Panamá and Guayaquil observations on the Pacific basin, different aspects (e.g.,  
91 budget constraints, land mass distribution, logistical difficulties) have prevented the development  
92 of a potentially better and denser upper-air soundings network. Thus, the ChocoJet Experiment

93 (CHOCO-JEX) was designed to start addressing the gap in observations through a set of field  
94 campaigns focused on upper-air soundings launched offshore from a research vessel and inland  
95 from the Universidad Tecnológica del Chocó at Quibdó (Fig. 1). Quibdó is the capital city of the  
96 Chocó province in Colombia and is located between the coastline and the westernmost Andes.  
97 CHOCO-JEX observations are crucial for a suite of diverse purposes including characterizing the  
98 atmospheric profile, evaluating reanalysis products, and assessing numerical simulation of the  
99 ChocoJet structure. Also, these observations will contribute to elucidating the role of gravity waves  
100 (Mapes *et al.*, 2003b) in the diurnal cycle of precipitation over the region. Overall, CHOCO-JEX  
101 observations will contribute to improving the region's hydroclimate predictive capabilities.

102 CHOCO-JEX, mainly funded by COLCIENCIAS (Colombia Administrative Department of  
103 Science, Technology and Innovation), was made possible through a collaborative effort between  
104 Universidad Nacional de Colombia at Medellín, the General Maritime Directorate (DIMAR) of the  
105 Ministry of National Defense of Colombia, the Colombian Air Force (FAC), and the Desert  
106 Research Institute (DRI; Nevada, USA). Here we present a synthesis of the field campaigns  
107 conducted in 2016 and highlight the potential scientific understanding and the hypotheses driving  
108 the overall research project. Additionally, we identify some of the practical limitations and leverage  
109 opportunities related to the field campaigns. We present some preliminary results, discuss the  
110 capacity for future atmospheric field campaigns, and describe some of the education and outreach  
111 opportunities enabled through this project.

112

## 113 **From socio-political conflicts to scientific wondering**

114

115 For 52 years, Colombia endured an internal armed conflict between the national

116 government and leftist guerrillas, with added involvement of extreme right-wing paramilitary  
117 groups. This conflict left eight million victims, including 6.7 million displaced persons, more than  
118 220,000 casualties, 74,000 victims of direct attacks on urban and rural populations, 11,000 victims  
119 of anti-personal mines, 45,000 forced disappearances, 10,000 torture victims, 30,000 kidnappings,  
120 and more than 2,000 massacres. Between 2012 and 2016 the Colombian government led by  
121 President Juan Manuel Santos and FARC (the largest and oldest armed rebel group) held talks in  
122 Havana, Cuba, and despite many difficulties, a peace agreement supporting a Definitive and  
123 Bilateral Cease of Fire and Hostilities was signed on November 24, 2016. The cost of the protracted  
124 warfare was enormous for Colombia, in the toll of victims and human suffering as well as in the  
125 diversion and depletion of national economic resources. Besides the internal conflict, inadequate  
126 funding for scientific research in Colombia has been caused by the historical disregard of  
127 governments about the importance of science, technology, innovation, and the humanities to  
128 improve the socio-economical conditions and enhance the cultural life of the country (Poveda,  
129 2001), but also by ignoring the scientific community in the design of relevant scientific agendas  
130 (Poveda, 2004). In contrast, CHOCO-JEX brings together several educational, research, and  
131 public/defense institutions around relevant scientific challenges with huge potential benefits for all  
132 the institutions involved and the country in general. This collaborative effort constitutes an example  
133 of the benefits of cooperative research between the largest public university of Colombia and the  
134 military (Colombian Air Force and DIMAR) for the post-agreement peace era. See Sidebar 2.

135 Sidebar 2 here

## 136 **2 CHOCO-JEX**

137  
138 CHOCO-JEX is a multi-institutional collaborative effort, aimed at observing key aspects of the

139 low- to upper-level flow, thermodynamic structure, and temporal variability over the far eastern  
140 Pacific region, including the ChocoJet and inland over northwest Colombia. The experiment was  
141 conducted in 2016 and consisted of four intensive observational periods (IOPs), each lasting a  
142 week, two over the Pacific Ocean and two inland. Because of our interest in understanding diurnal  
143 and day-to-day variability, each IOP consisted of six hourly upper-air rawinsondes –measuring  
144 temperature, horizontal wind components, pressure, and relative humidity– distributed as shown  
145 in Table 1 (see Fig. 1). A website at <https://sites.google.com/unal.edu.co/chocojex/home>, currently  
146 under construction, will provide diverse data products and resources derived from CHOCO-JEX.

## 147 **2.1 Experimental design: From the ideal to the real**

148  
149 CHOCO-JEX was designed to take advantage of the regular oceanographic survey carried  
150 out as part of the *Estudio Regional del Fenómeno El Niño* project (ERFEN), a regional coordinated  
151 effort between Chile, Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia aimed at monitoring physical and biological  
152 upper-ocean variables near the continental shelf (CPPS, 2017). The Colombian ERFEN component  
153 is coordinated and implemented by DIMAR. Typically, each country commits research vessels  
154 with at least one campaign during September–October. Seasonally, the ChocoJet is most intense  
155 during September–November (Poveda and Mesa, 1999; Poveda *et al.*, 2014). Hence, our original  
156 plan was to carry out simultaneous maritime and land observations that coincided with the 2015  
157 and 2016 ERFEN campaigns. Our interest to conduct simultaneous measurements during the 2015  
158 Colombian ERFEN campaign, however, had to be adjusted because of unscheduled research vessel  
159 maintenance, shifting departure from early October 2015 to mid-January 2016.

160 Another striking challenge in this experiment was the unpredictable exchange rates, as the funding  
161 was provided in Colombian Pesos (COP) and the rawinsondes, receiver systems, and balloons were

162 quoted and purchased in U.S. dollars. There was an unexpected devaluation of the COP (nearly  
163 40% from the time the proposal was submitted in 2014 to purchasing and acquisition in 2015)  
164 relative to the U.S. dollar, forcing to scale down the original field campaigns. Hence, from the  
165 original 168 rawinsondes and balloons (10-day per IOP), only 120 were purchased (7-day per IOP).  
166 Despite the outlined difficulties, 4 IOP's were developed successfully. Fig. 2 shows some activities  
167 carried out during CHOCO-JEX.

## 168 **2.2 Instrumentation**

169  
170 The instrumentation acquired for the field campaigns comprised: MW41 Vaisala DigiCORA  
171 Sounding System, Ground Check Device RI41, Vaisala Radiosondes RS41-SG and Meteorological  
172 Balloons TA200. The sounding system allowed us to measure vertical profiles of atmospheric  
173 pressure, temperature, relative humidity, magnitude and wind direction.

174 The ARC Gorgona vessel from DIMAR was the launching platform during the oceanic campaigns.  
175 For more than 50 years, the ARC Gorgona has accomplished different operational and research  
176 tasks regarding hydrography, maritime signposting and support to the Colombian National Navy.  
177 During the ERFEN campaigns, ARC Gorgona aims to measure diverse vertical and horizontal  
178 column water characteristics.

## 179 **3 Field Campaign Achievements and Preliminary Results**

180  
181 The original CHOCO-JEX plan was to gather observations during the enhanced ChocoJet  
182 season (September-November) to increase the chance of observing environmental conditions that  
183 resembled enhanced low-level southwesterly flow. All IOPs were deployed throughout rapidly



184 changing ENSO conditions, as classified by the Oceanic Niño Index (ONI; CPC/NOAA).  
185 However, each of the four campaigns was heavily constrained by diverse unscheduled logistical  
186 hurdles (some of which are highlighted above). The synoptic intraseasonal, seasonal, and  
187 interannual identifiable environmental conditions during each campaign included the following:

188 1. IOP1 (January 15-22, 2016): This IOP was carried out during one of the strongest El Niño  
189 events ever recorded (L'Heureux *et al.*, 2017). According to the Institute of Hydrology,  
190 Meteorology and Environmental Studies of Colombia (IDEAM, January 2016), January,  
191 2016, was characterized by anomalously dry conditions over most of Colombia.  
192 Climatologic studies have shown that during El Niño conditions, most of Colombia is  
193 typically associated with relatively dry conditions (Poveda *et al.*, 2001; 2011; Bedoya-Soto  
194 *et al.*, 2018), while the coasts of northern Peru and southwest Ecuador experience wetter  
195 conditions (Sulca *et al.*, 2017). Fig. 3a shows wind anomalies during January, 2016,  
196 highlighting several regional patterns, including: stronger than normal Panama Jet (Xie *et*  
197 *al.*, 2005), the *Corriente de los Andes Orientales* (CAO or Eastern Andes Jet, also known  
198 as *Llanos Jet*; Montoya, 2001; Torrealba and Amador, 2010), which constitutes the  
199 northernmost leg of the South American Low Level Jet (SALLJ) (Vera *et al.*, 2006); and  
200 weaker than normal CLLJ (Amador, 2006; Wang, 2007), Papagayo and Tehuantepec Jet  
201 (Xie *et al.*, 2005). These anomalous flow conditions over the eastern Pacific resembled  
202 those of the 1997/98 El Niño event (Douglas *et al.*, 2009). In particular, IOP1 showed a  
203 relatively weak ChocoJet and dominated by a stronger Panama Jet.

204 2. IOP2 (June 25 – July 1, 2016): IDEAM reported that precipitation over Colombia was  
205 below normal for this time of the year, with near neutral ENSO conditions over the Tropical  
206 Pacific (IDEAM, June 2016). Additionally, IDEAM indicated that the ITCZ was displaced

207 to the north over the Central America and northern Colombian Pacific coast enabling low-  
208 level southwesterlies to reach the far eastern Pacific region (Poveda and Mesa, 1999).  
209 During this IOP, the CLLJ was anomalously strong.

210 3. IOP3 (October 15-21, 2016): A weak La Niña conditions were predominant during  
211 October, 2016. IDEAM reported normal precipitation over western Colombia, the ITCZ  
212 trough axis was located over the EPAC (6°N–15°N), scattered precipitation events over the  
213 northern and central Colombian Pacific coast (IDEAM, October, 2016). At a regional scale,  
214 not tropical storm activity occurred near or during this IOP.

215 4. IOP4 (November 21-28, 2016): IDEAM reported that the Pacific Colombian coast showed  
216 near-normal precipitation conditions, likely influenced by the La Niña phase over the  
217 Tropical Pacific (IDEAM, November, 2016). Regional circulation features during this  
218 month (Figure 3b) resembled those shown by Arias *et al.* (2015) for the 2010–2012 La Niña  
219 event dominated by a relatively stronger than normal ChocoJet and weaker than normal  
220 CLLJ. Preliminary analysis suggests that both of these regional features were also observed  
221 during IOP4 (Fig. 3). Tropical Storm Otto was located over western Caribbean Sea and  
222 transition into a hurricane system before moving away over Central America and the Pacific  
223 basin (November 20–26). Thus, we hypothesized that the first half of IOP4 was influenced  
224 by Otto’s circulation.

225  
226 Figs. 4 and 5 (panels a and c) show the zonal moisture flux during the four IOPs. A shallow westerly  
227 component around 50 g/kg\*m/s at low levels was observed during IOP1, showing a diurnal signal  
228 on January 18–19 associated with the proximity to land (see Fig. 1). An easterly component (50  
229 g/kg\*m/s) was prevalent at mid-levels and in some cases at low-levels. At sub-daily timescales,  
230 IOP2 and IOP3 showed relatively large diurnal variability, likely related to land-sea and valley-

231 mountain breezes – with a stronger afternoon westerly component around 50–100 g/kg\*m/s and a  
232 weaker early morning easterly component around 20 g/kg\*m/s. This diurnal cycle was stronger  
233 during IOP3 than during IOP2. At mid-levels, the observed easterly moisture flux was up to 100  
234 g/kg\*m/s during IOP2, whereas IOP3 showed values around 20 g/kg\*m/s. In contrast, westerly  
235 moisture flux (50 g/kg\*m/s) at low levels and easterly moisture flux (15 g/kg\*m/s) at mid-levels  
236 prevailed along with high variability in wind profile during IOP4.

237 Since the IOP4 shows a strong ChocoJet (Figs 4 and 5) we examined composites of circulation  
238 along with Vertical Integrated Water Vapor from MERRA reanalysis at 850 hPa and IR satellite  
239 images (Fig. 6). This IOP shows two different pronounced synoptic conditions: (i) predominant  
240 meridional and drier flow likely influenced by Otto’s depression between November 21 and 24;  
241 and (ii) westerly and wetter flow during November 25 to 28. A particular feature during the IOP4  
242 is that convection activity and precipitation over western Colombia was suppressed until November  
243 24<sup>th</sup>. Later during (ii), a wet spell of scattered convection and sustained MCSs developed on  
244 November 25 and 27 over northern Colombian Pacific. Overall, MERRA shows a deeper low-  
245 level southwesterly flow than seen in observations during (i). At any rate, both datasets coincide  
246 with strong southwesterlies during (ii).

247 Observations show during (i) a relatively weaker westerly (no significant differences in meridional  
248 flow were observed) and low-level moisture flux of 50 g/kg\*m/s, in combination with an easterly  
249 moisture flow at mid-levels; and (ii) a deeper and more intense westerly moisture flux of 80 to 100  
250 g/kg\*m/s. We hypothesize that after Otto moved away from the region, a more zonal low-level  
251 flow was established, with enhanced southwesterly moisture flow favoring moisture flux  
252 convergence and orographic forcing. Coinciding with this period of enhanced precipitation,  
253 however, were observed larger convection indices – such as Convective Available Potential Energy

254 (CAPE) and helicity (not shown).

255 Figs. 4 and 5 (panels b and d) also show the vertical distribution of the zonal wind component and  
256 specific humidity averaged during each IOP, along with the same vertical profiles using ERA-I and  
257 MERRA products. IOP1 and IOP2 showed weak westerly flow at low levels (<2 m/s) which was  
258 deeper (up to 900 hPa) during IOP2. At mid-levels, easterlies were predominant between 800 hPa  
259 and 300 hPa with maximum values around 10 m/s at 500 hPa. In general, IOP3 and IOP4 showed  
260 low-level southwesterlies that resembled ChocoJet conditions (Poveda and Mesa 1999). Both IOP3  
261 and IOP4 showed a weak, low-level, zonal wind (2–4 m/s) extending from the surface up to 850  
262 hPa with maximum around 925–950 hPa. Mid-level easterly flow was observed above 850 hPa  
263 during both campaigns, with values below 5 m/s. Specific humidity profiles were similar during  
264 all IOP's with exception of IOP4, which showed a drier profile from low-to-mid levels and values  
265 below 10 g/kg at low-levels in connection to Otto (Fig. 6). Observations showed high day-to-day  
266 variability with stronger westerlies at low-levels during October 17–18th and November 26–27  
267 reaching values of 6–7 m/s (not shown). During IOP4, low-level westerlies and specific humidity  
268 increased after Otto moved away from the region on November 26th.

269 Overall, ERA-Interim and MERRA show the vertical variability of the zonal wind and specific  
270 humidity during each IOP, however, some bias can be distinguished such as the more pronounced  
271 and deeper ChocoJet as represented by MERRA during inland campaigns. Oceanic campaigns  
272 exhibited better agreement than those over land, likely associated with misrepresentation of  
273 dynamic and thermodynamic processes over complex terrain. However, during IOP4, both  
274 reanalyses exhibit a ChocoJet-like feature, with peak zonal wind between 4-5 m/s at 950-975 hPa;  
275 MERRA resolves a deeper and about 2 m/s stronger Jet (Fig. 5).

276 A striking feature help distinguish the maritime from inland atmospheric environments. Over the

277 ocean, IOP1 and IOP4 showed a shallow westerly wind component, except for the relatively active  
278 ChocoJet period in IOP4 during November 25-28 (Fig. 5). In contrast, IOP2 and IOP3 showed  
279 deeper westerly flow, reaching up to 800 hPa, somehow affected by the orographic barrier located to the  
280 east that prevents easterlies at low levels.

### 281 **3.1. Observed Diurnal Variability**

282  
283 At diurnal scales, moister and cooler westerlies at low-levels (from ChocoJet) prevail during  
284 afternoon hours, in combination with warmer and drier easterlies at mid-levels that cause highly  
285 unstable conditions inducing convection inland (Fig. 7). In general, this afternoon circulation is  
286 consistent with the diurnal cycle near the coast shown by inland observations (Fig. 8). At low-  
287 levels, variability of the winds was consistent with valley-mountain and land-sea contrasts. During  
288 IOP2, a shallow westerly late afternoon flow of 2-3 m/s contrasts the 1 m/s easterly nighttime flow,  
289 likely related to the drainage current from the sierra to the east. Similar diurnal pattern is observed  
290 during IOP3 but a more accentuated and deeper late afternoon westerly flow. At mid-levels, with  
291 a noticeable easterly flow dominated all IOPs with more intense flow during IOP1 and IOP2 than  
292 during IOP3 and IOP4. IOP1 showed a weak low-level westerly component in the afternoon (19:00  
293 LST, 00:00 UTC) and low-level easterly flow during morning hours. IOP2 and IOP3 showed a  
294 weak low-level westerly wind component, that was enhanced during the afternoon (19:00 LST;  
295 especially during IOP3) apparently because of sea breeze in combination with valley-mountain  
296 local circulation. It is interesting that low-level afternoon flow was larger during IOP3 (wet season)  
297 than IOP2 (dry season), recalling that both inland campaigns were carried out at the western flank  
298 of Western range of the Andes. In contrast, Lopez and Howell (1967) argued katabatic winds are  
299 greater during the dry season over the eastern flank of the Western range (southern location of the

300 inland field campaigns). During IOP4, the westerly wind component was predominant throughout  
301 the day. Westerlies were stronger during the afternoon (19:00 LST), however, and weaker during  
302 morning hours (7:00 LST, 12:00 UTC). Mid-level winds in IOP3 showed relatively large diurnal  
303 variability with weak westerlies at midnight (01:00 LST, 6:00 UTC) and easterlies at early  
304 afternoon (13:00 LST, 18:00 UTC). Reanalysis products show easterlies all day long (not shown).

### 305 **3.2. Observational Clues of the Gravity Waves**

306  
307 The diurnal variations of zonal wind shown in Fig. 8 has been related to a mechanism that appears  
308 to be linked to the diurnal cycle of precipitation in the region (Mapes et al. 2003b). Over the  
309 Colombian Western range of the Andes, late-afternoon showers developed, likely driven by sea-  
310 valley breeze (Jaramillo *et al.*, 2017) combined with the rather weak but steadier ChocoJet. In  
311 contrast, late night and morning convection over coastal waters has been related to mid-level  
312 gravity waves developed by the daytime mixed layer over the western Andes mountain range (Yang  
313 and Slingo, 2001; Mapes *et al.*, 2003b). The role of gravity waves triggering offshore convection  
314 has been studied in other regions with similar characteristics as western Colombia (Love *et al.*,  
315 2011; Li and Carbone, 2015; Zhou and Wang, 2006; Yokoi *et al.*, 2017). For instance, Yokoi *et al.*  
316 (2017) used soundings to show that the lower troposphere offshore Sumatra Island tends to cool  
317 down during late afternoon before the onset of precipitation.

318 Fig. 9 shows the observed potential temperature profile after removing the mean diurnal cycle  
319 averaged during each IOP. Not surprisingly, inland campaigns (IOP2 and IOP3) showed relatively  
320 stronger warm daytime theta anomalies extending from the surface to 850 hPa. Absolute surface  
321 maxima developed at 19:00 LST for IOP2 and 13:00 LST for IOP3 as determined by 6-hourly  
322 observations. We hypothesize that this surface asymmetry was likely due to differences in

323 cloudiness and convection activity during the campaigns. Despite being developed over the ocean,  
324 the maritime campaigns showed a diurnal but weaker thermal disturbance, even at high levels, with  
325 IOP4 showing a weaker thermal disturbance than IOP1. Theta disturbances for IOP4 were  
326 composited using soundings located farther offshore than IOP1. Of note in Fig. 9 is the inland mid-  
327 level layer (850–750 hPa) discontinuity in daytime heating, related to flow direction change with  
328 height, suggesting the presence of two different air masses with a westerly (Fig. 8), wetter, and  
329 slower heating response bottom layer, contrasting an easterly, drier and warmer theta mid-level  
330 layer right above. A striking feature in Fig. 9 is the lagged heating differences between land and  
331 maritime soundings, suggesting the existence of a mid-level westward thermal propagation,  
332 arguably because of the postulated gravity waves.

333 Potential temperature anomalies between 850 and 900 hPa in IOP4 revealed cooling at early  
334 morning likely related to the initiation of convective activity offshore (IR images show cloud  
335 occurrence at 7:00 LST), as proposed by Mapes *et al.* (2003b). We hypothesize that the anomalous  
336 cooling is likely caused by vertical advection in the atmosphere favoring convection conditions, as  
337 is the case in Sumatra (Yokoi *et al.*, 2017). They argue that both cooling and vertical ascent are  
338 caused by shallow gravity waves with a horizontal phase speed of 8–10 m/s, such hypothetical  
339 gravity waves are consistent with the timing of the late-afternoon cooling observed over ocean.  
340 The processes are triggered by evaporative cooling from inland convective systems that generate  
341 gravity waves with ascending wave fronts in the lower troposphere and that propagate offshore  
342 horizontally (Hassim *et al.*, 2016). Note that for Colombia's case, the cooling is lagged with respect  
343 to Sumatra – showing the cooling at early morning hours (Fig. 9). Also, larger convective instability  
344 indices (CAPE, surface-6 km vertical shear and helicity) were observed during late afternoon (19:00  
345 LST) in IOP1, IOP2, and IOP3 and early morning (7:00 LST) in IOP4, when convection started on

346 coastal waters and land, respectively (not shown). Unfortunately, our observations were not  
347 simultaneous and to investigate the role of the cooling at low levels in the formation of convection,  
348 model simulations are required. Future work will include the analysis of hourly simulations at  
349 different spatial scales during the IOPs that allow comparing simultaneous atmospheric profiles on  
350 ocean and land. Temperature, humidity, wind anomalies will help us to investigate the association  
351 of the gravity waves with the convection generation. Likewise, observations provided from  
352 CHOCO-JEX will evaluate the model performance.

## 353 **4 Final Remarks and Summary**

354  
355 CHOCO-JEX provided upper-air observations over the far eastern tropical Pacific from four  
356 intensive observational periods, two carried out over a research vessel following operational  
357 reconnaissance maritime transects and two inland (Quibdó, Colombia). Upper-air soundings were  
358 performed four times per day with an average of seven days per IOP. Data analysis and assimilation  
359 including these observations, in combination with simulation experiments, are currently in progress  
360 and are intended to improve our understanding of the mechanisms responsible for the genesis and  
361 diurnal timing of the convection organization in one of the rainiest regions on Earth. Preliminary  
362 results and remarks are as follows:

- 363 1) CHOCO-JEX provided atmospheric soundings during different seasonal and synoptic  
364 conditions. IOP1 was performed during a particularly strong El Niño event (2015–2016).
- 365 2) Maritime observations during IOP4 provided the first observational evidence of the  
366 southwesterly low-level ChocoJet. The persistence and intensity of ChocoJet was  
367 modulated by hurricane Otto that developed over the western Caribbean.
- 368 3) Land-atmosphere interactions (IOP2 and IOP3) revealed a deeper westerly flow and



369 stronger diurnal cycle than observed over the ocean (IOP1 and IOP4).

370 4) Noticeable sea-land and valley-mountain local circulation was observed as a response to  
371 the surface thermal contrast during IOP1 and IOP3.

372 5) Flow and thermal diurnal variations at 850 hPa were observed with an intriguing delay  
373 (cooling at early morning hours) of maritime responses relative to inland mean diurnal  
374 anomalies, possibly supporting the role of the Andes convective and boundary layer  
375 processes in the far east Pacific convective environment. A question remains as to whether  
376 the observed cooling either occurs by advection, propagation of a gravity wave disturbance  
377 (Mapes *et al.*, 2003b), or a combination of both processes. Further analysis may provide an  
378 answer to this question.

379

380 Further examination of these CHOCO-JEX observations, including the comparison against  
381 reanalysis, is necessary. Recall that IOPs were deployed during different seasons and that maritime  
382 soundings were averaged despite the constantly changing sounding location. Another research  
383 paper using data assimilation procedures and Lagrangian trajectories is being prepared to further  
384 explore the significance of the outlined features, since they may help elucidate the gravity wave  
385 genesis hypothesis (Mapes *et al.*, 2003b) and its role on convective organization postulated by  
386 simulation studies in the region. CHOCO-JEX will help evaluate and constrain mesoscale and high-  
387 resolution simulations to improve understanding of the role of boundary layer and convective  
388 processes over the Andes, including the effect of latent heat released during organized convection  
389 systems in triggering westward-moving, mid-level thermal disturbances propagating from land to  
390 the ocean, as proposed by Mapes *et al.* (2003b). Other questions of interest include: What is the  
391 influence of heat fluxes and PBL on the observed rain patterns along the Colombian Pacific coast?

392 What are the role of the Choco-Darien rainforests in terms of water and energy budgets over the  
393 Colombian Pacific? What is the relation of moisture flow to generation of MCSs and orographic  
394 rainfall in the Colombian Pacific region? How important is the ChocoJet to explain rainfall patterns  
395 in Colombia?

396 While improving our knowledge of the relevant circulation features in the region, CHOCO-JEX  
397 also addresses the communication and interaction gap between local academia/researchers and end-  
398 user institutions. The tools and equipment acquired by CHOCO-JEX, the established local and  
399 international collaborations, and the resulting data sets are building research capacity and  
400 potentially can further support understanding of the region's hydrometeorology. Observations  
401 generated by these campaigns have been distributed to key operational and research centers in the  
402 region and will be distributed to any interested researchers and institutes.

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416

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617

## 618 Sidebar 1: Choco and Caribbean Low-Level Jets Climatology

619  
620 The existence of the Choco Low-Level Jet is related to the southwesterly branch of the southerly  
621 cross equatorial flow over the far Eastern Pacific (ChocoJet; Poveda and Mesa, 1999, 2000). It is  
622 driven by the seasonal variability in the gradient of Sea Surface Temperatures (SST) between the  
623 Niño 1+2 region and the Colombian Pacific, which is stronger during September-November and  
624 weaker during February-March (Poveda and Mesa, 1999). Reanalysis data at 925 hPa shows weak  
625 southwesterlies (2-3 m/s) during March-April and a stronger and deeper trans-equatorial  
626 southwesterly flow (6-8 m/s) during September-November (Fig. 1, side bar 1). Fig. 2 (sidebar 1)  
627 shows the vertical distribution of the zonal wind at 80°W, with data from the ERA-I Renalaysis. It  
628 exhibits a shallow jet during September-November and a more intense and deeper jet in September-  
629 November around 5°N (Fig. 2, sidebar 1). The annual cycle of precipitation over western and  
630 Andean region of Colombia is modulated by the migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone  
631 (ITCZ). The location of the ITCZ causes two wet seasons (April-May, and September-November)  
632 and two dry seasons (December-February, and June-August) over central and western Colombia

633 (Fig. 1, sidebar 1). The second wet season (September-November) has been linked to the significant  
634 moisture transport from the Pacific Ocean through an enhanced ChocoJet (Poveda, 2004).

635  
636 The Caribbean Low Level Jet (CLLJ) exhibits a pronounced annual cycle with peak winds at 925  
637 hPa in July (14 m/s) and in January-February (10 m/s) (Amador, 2008). The enhanced jet in July  
638 has been related to seasonal variability of the North Atlantic subtropical high (Romero-Centeno et  
639 al., 2007). The jet weakens from September to November associated with relatively weak trade  
640 winds, reduced vertical wind shear, increased hurricane activity and peak precipitation over Central  
641 America (Amador, 2008). In late November when trade winds increase again, CLLJ strengthens  
642 and it reaches a maxima in February linked to increased heating over northern South America (Vizy  
643 and Cook, 2010). The vertical distribution of CLLJ shows an extension of the jet upward to 700  
644 hPa in boreal summer, while the jet reaches up to 850 during boreal winter. The displacement of  
645 the CLLJ in the east Pacific by the ChocoJet in the boreal autumn is associated with strong  
646 precipitation over the study region (Poveda and Mesa, 2000). This displacement is modulated by  
647 El Niño/La Niña, with the latter resulting in an enhanced ChocoJet and even stronger rainfall, as,  
648 for example, in the La Niña of 2010-2011 (Arias et al., 2015).

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## 656 Sidebar 2: Capacity Building

657  
658 Historically, the far eastern Pacific have lacked upper-air observations. Previous attempts to  
659 perform upper-air soundings in the region failed because of difficult access to the area as a result  
660 of complex terrain and weather, safety and security issues, and lack of inter-institutional  
661 cooperation to overcome these challenges. The collaborative CHOCO-JEX program was made  
662 possible by funding of COLCIENCIAS and in-kind support of the participating institutions during  
663 the field campaigns over maritime as well as remote and difficult-to-access lands. The Universidad  
664 Nacional de Colombia at Medellín, which makes part of the largest public university in Colombia,  
665 was the leading institution in charge of the project's scientific, financial, and logistic components.  
666 During the field campaigns, FAC's in-kind support consisted of flying personnel and equipment  
667 between from Medellín to the facilities of the Center of Oceanographic and Hydrographic Research  
668 of the Pacific (DIMAR's Pacific research branch), and between Medellín and Quibdó. DIMAR  
669 facilitated the coordination and provided resources for one of the graduate students to be part of  
670 the ERFEN (Regional Study of the El Niño Southern Oscillation, in Spanish) campaigns. DRI  
671 collaborated in all stages of the project development and execution, provided expertise in  
672 atmospheric sciences and field campaigns, and contributed with in-kind support consisting in high-  
673 performance computing and analytical resources to complete the modeling component of this  
674 project (not described here). This networking among Colombian public institutions and an  
675 international research institute was one of CHOCO-JEX biggest goals and achievements.

676 Furthermore, the inter-institutional network created by CHOCO-JEX extended to additional  
677 activities such as the exchange of knowledge with other research groups and additional field  
678 campaigns. For example, the infrastructure and connection acquired during CHOCO-JEX enable  
679 us to participate in SeaFlower-2016, a Colombian scientific expedition in Cayo Serrana, a remote

680 Caribbean islet that makes part of the Colombian archipelago of San Andrés and Providencia  
681 (SeaFlower Biosphere Reserve declared by UNESCO in 2000). SeaFlower-2016 was a trans-  
682 disciplinary field campaign to study this remote region, which is affected by CLLJ. We collected  
683 atmospheric profiles during this field campaign to study the airflow-sea interaction in the region  
684 and to help understand the synoptic conditions during the observation period.

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**Table 1. Description of the four IOPs during 2016 (see Fig. 1).**

<b>IOP</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>Region</b>	<b>Number of 6-hourly radiosondes launched</b>
1	January 15-22	Oceanic	23
2	June 25 - July 1	Inland - Quibdó	25
3	October 15-21	Inland - Quibdó	28
4	November 21-28	Oceanic	30

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692 **FIGURE CAPTION LIST**  
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694 **Fig. 1.** CHOCO-JEX region of interest and IOP locations. Black lines show ARC Gorgona vessel track  
695 during IOP1 (red dots) and IOP4 (brown) with each dot indicating individual sounding launch position.  
696 Inland soundings (IOPs 2 and 3, see text for description) were launched from Quibdó (43 m ASL) (blue  
697 point). Location and name of the regional operational soundings (in purple) are also shown, including the  
698 average number of soundings per year released during the period 2012–2016. Malpelo island ( $4.0061^{\circ}$  N,  
699  $81.5936^{\circ}$  W) is indicated as a strategic location for future oceanic campaigns.

700 **Fig. 2.** Selected pictures of CHOCO-JEX activities: (a) launching of a radiosonde from ARC Gorgona in  
701 January, (b) shipping of personnel and Helium gas cylinders by Colombian Air Force in October, (c)  
702 inflation of a balloon inland in Quibdó at Universidad Tecnológica del Chocó in June, and (d) sounding  
703 setup on board the ARC Gorgona in November.

704 **Fig. 3.** 925 hPa average winds (vectors) and wind speed anomalies (filled contours; relative to 1980-2016)  
705 during (a) January, 2016 and (b) November, 2016. Circles represent the regional low-level jets identified  
706 during IOP1 and IOP4: Caribbean Low Level Jet (CLLJ), Papagayo Jet, Tehuantepec Jet, Panama Jet,  
707 Llanos Jet and South American Low Level Jet (SALLJ) and Choco Low Level Jet (ChocoJet)

708 **Fig. 4.** (a) Time-longitude diagram of zonal moisture flux ( $\text{g/kg}\cdot\text{m/s}$ ) from observations and (b) averaged  
709 zonal wind profiles ( $\text{m/s}$ ) and specific humidity profiles from observations (black line), Era-I (red line) and  
710 MERRA (blue line) during IOP1. (d) and (c) show the same as (a) and (b), respectively, but during IOP2.  
711 Date thick marks indicate 00:00 UTC (19:00LST). The top x-axis during the oceanic campaign indicate the  
712 distance (m) of the particular sounding relative to the coast.

713 **Fig. 5.** Same as Fig. 5 but for IOPs 3 and 4.

714 **Fig. 6.** Vertically integrated water vapor (mm; filled contours), streamlines at 850 hPa, and infrared images  
715 from GridSat-GOES (light green shades are indicative of rainfall from TRMM3B42) during IOP4.  
716 Hurricane Otto is observed in November 21 and 23 over 81°W and 10°N. Long-lasting MCSs developed  
717 around 78°W, 7°N on November 25 and 27. ARC Gorgona position over the EPAC is indicated by the  
718 white dots.

719 **Fig. 7.** Schematics of the late afternoon flow (Taken from Lopez and Howell, 1967)

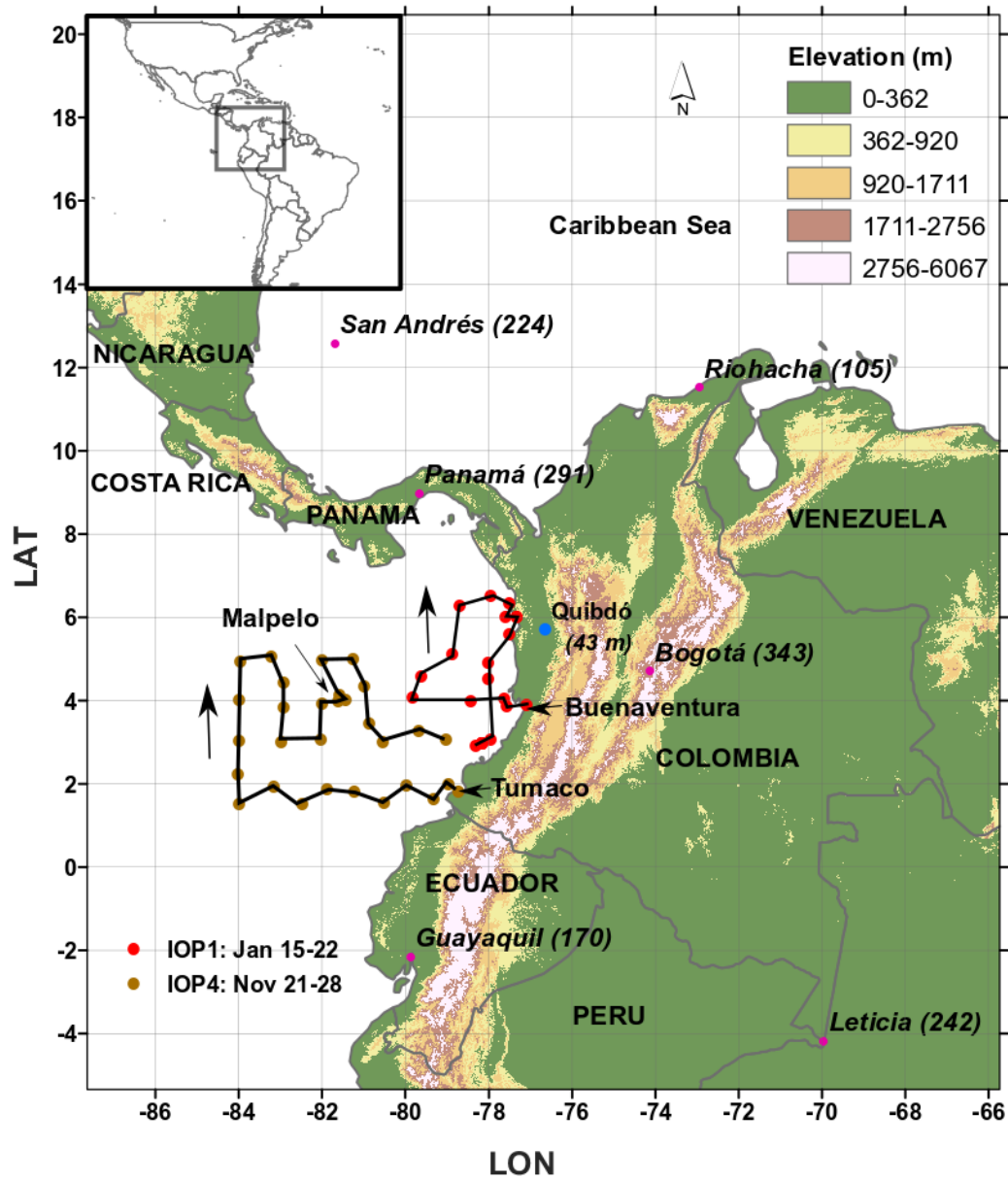
720 **Fig. 8.** Diurnal cycle of observed zonal wind averages (m/s) during (a) IOP1 (January 2016; on ocean), (b)  
721 IOP2 (June, 2016; inland), (c) IOP3 (October, 2016; inland) and (d) IOP4 (November, 2016; right bottom  
722 panel). Local times relative to Colombia UTC-5.

723 **Fig. 9.** Diurnal cycle of potential temperature ( $\Theta$ ) anomalies (K) during IOP1 (January, 2016 on ocean),  
724 IOP2 (June, 2016 inland), IOP3 (October, 2016 inland) and IOP4 (November, 2016 on ocean).

725 **Fig. 1 (Side bar 1).** 925 hPa long-term mean (1980-2016) wind vectors and precipitation (shaded contours;  
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727 June-August and (d) September-November.

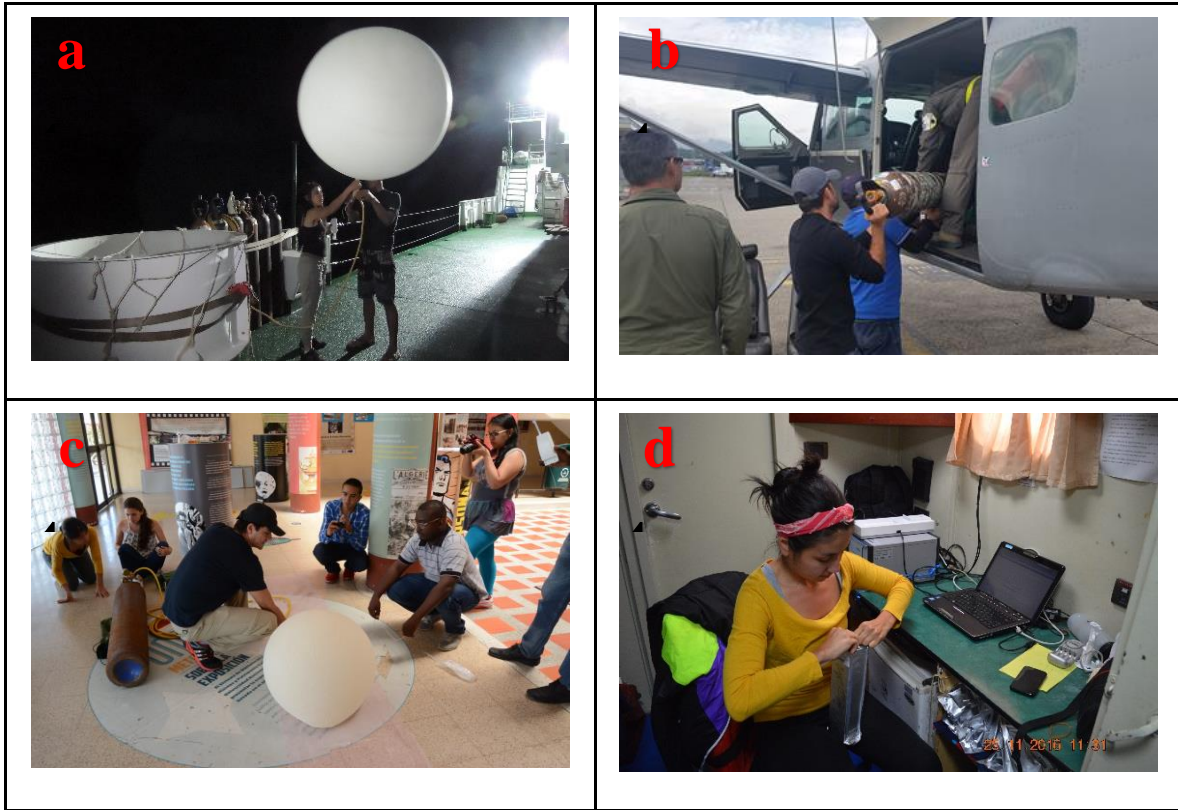
728 **Fig. 2 (Side bar 1).** Vertical distribution of mean (1980-2016) zonal winds (m/s) based on ERA-Interim  
729 reanalysis at 80°W during (a) December-February, (b) March-May, (c) June-August and (d) September-  
730 November.

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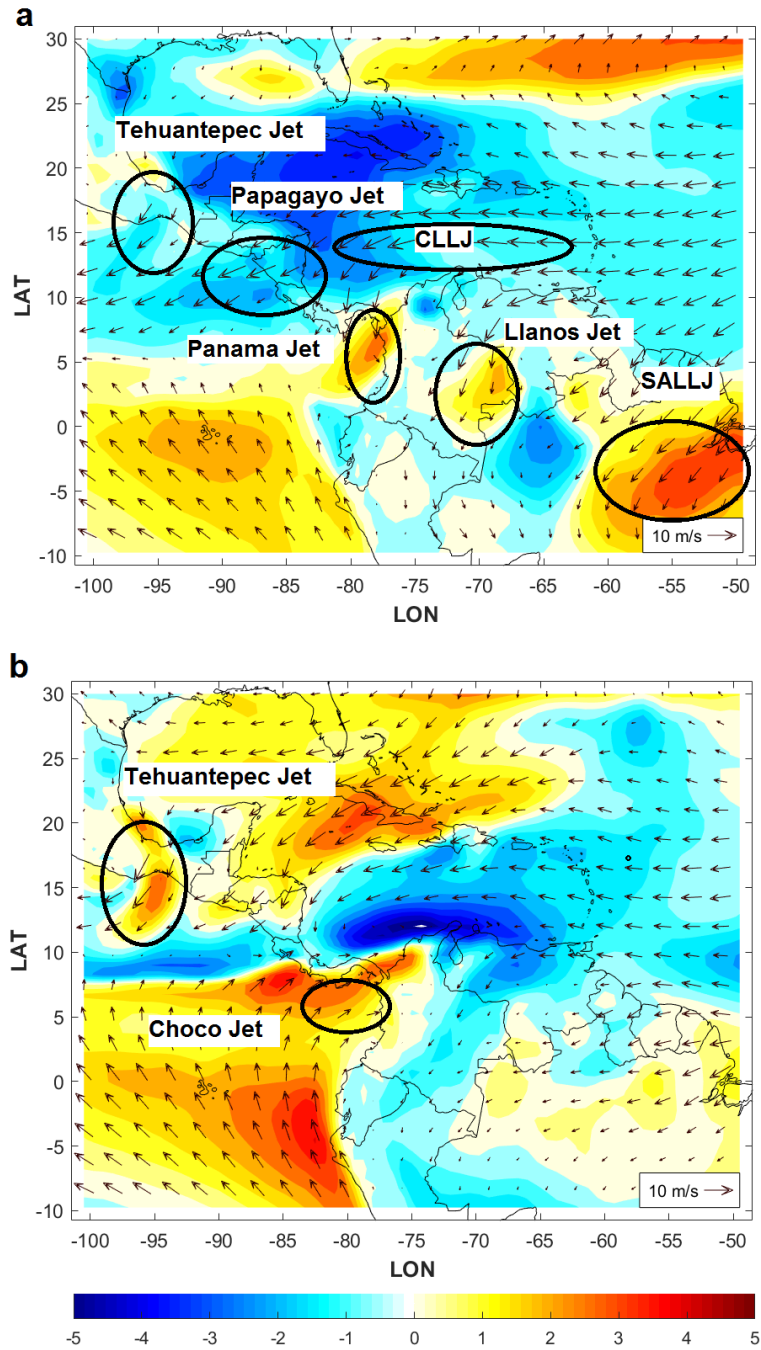
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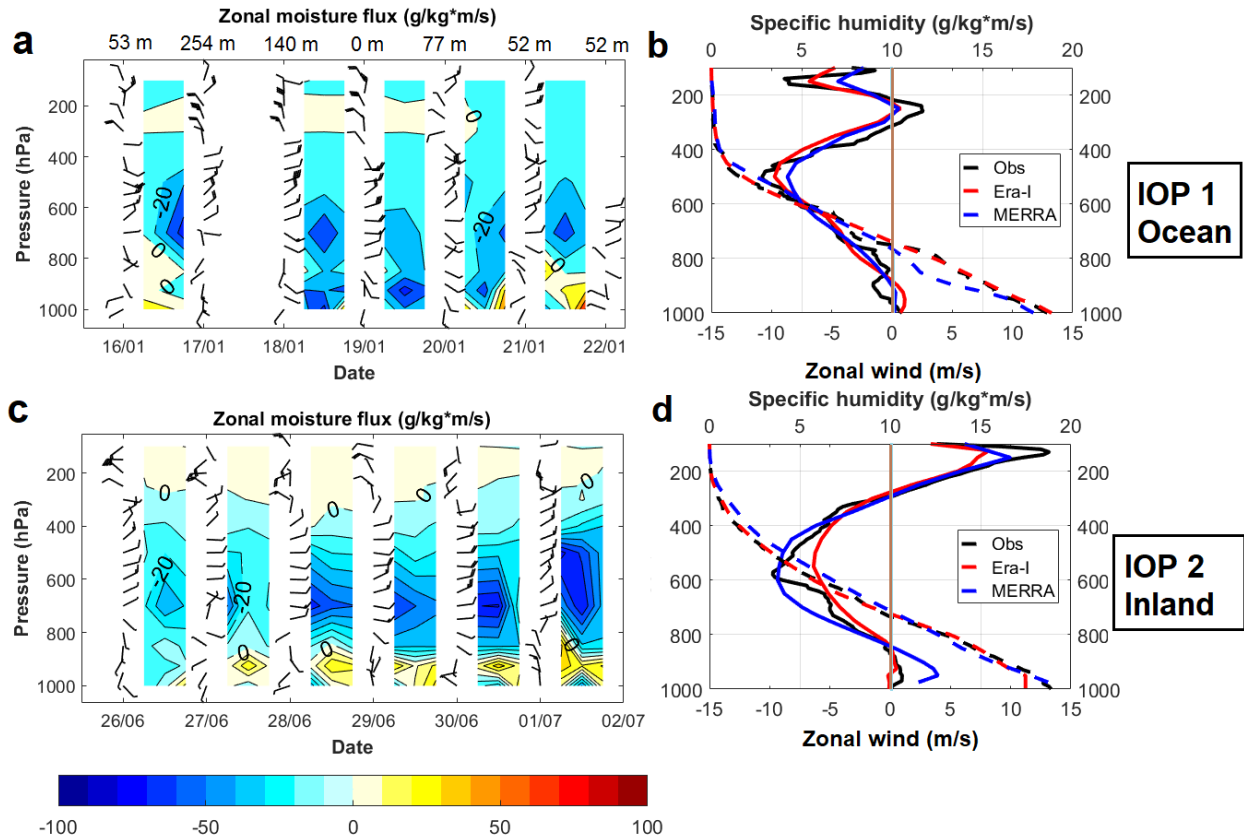
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742 Universidad Tecnológica del Chocó in June, and (d) sounding setup on board the ARC Gorgona in November.



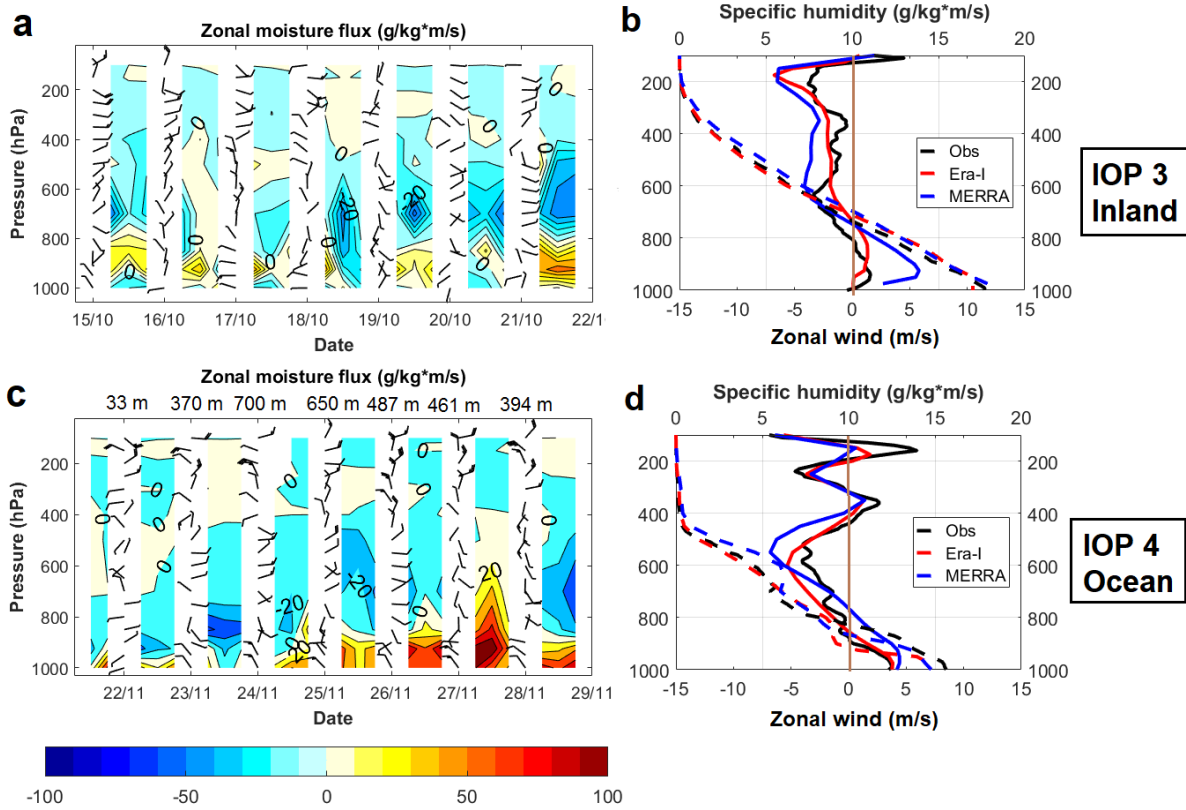
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 751 **Fig. 4** (a) Time-longitude diagram of zonal moisture flux from observations ( $\text{g/kg}\cdot\text{m/s}$ ) and (b) averaged zonal wind profiles  
 752 ( $\text{m/s}$ ) and specific humidity profiles from observations (black line), Era-I (red line) and MERRA (blue line) during IOP1. (d) and  
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 754 during the oceanic campaign indicate the distance (m) of the particular sounding relative to the coast.

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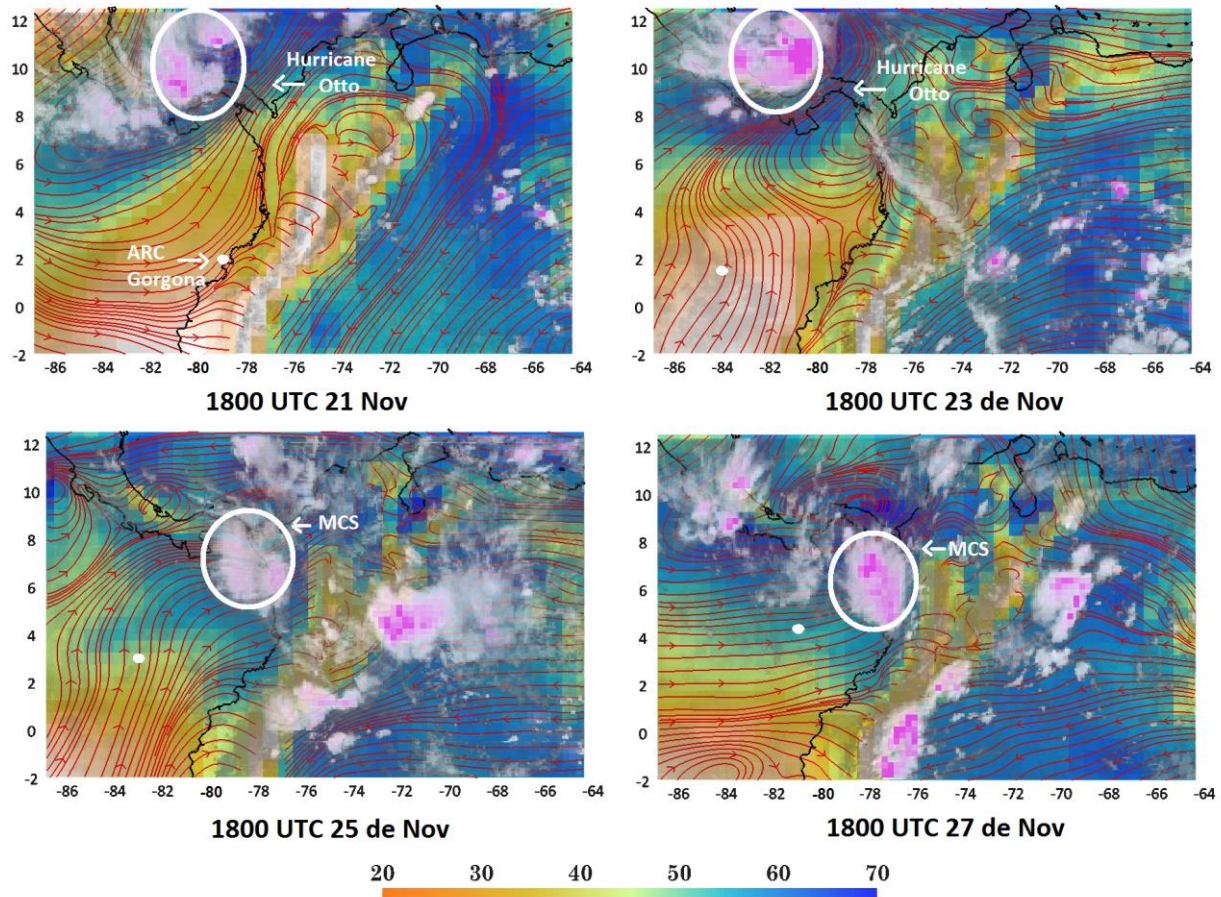
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757 **Fig. 5.** Same as Fig. 5 but for IOPs 3 and 4.

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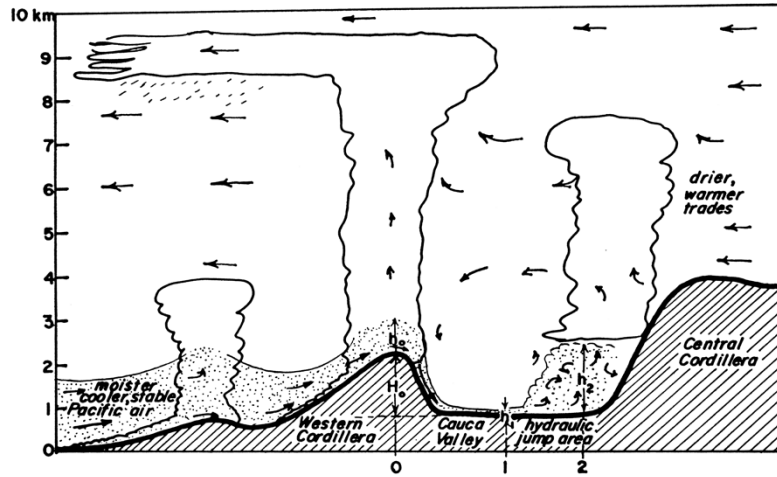


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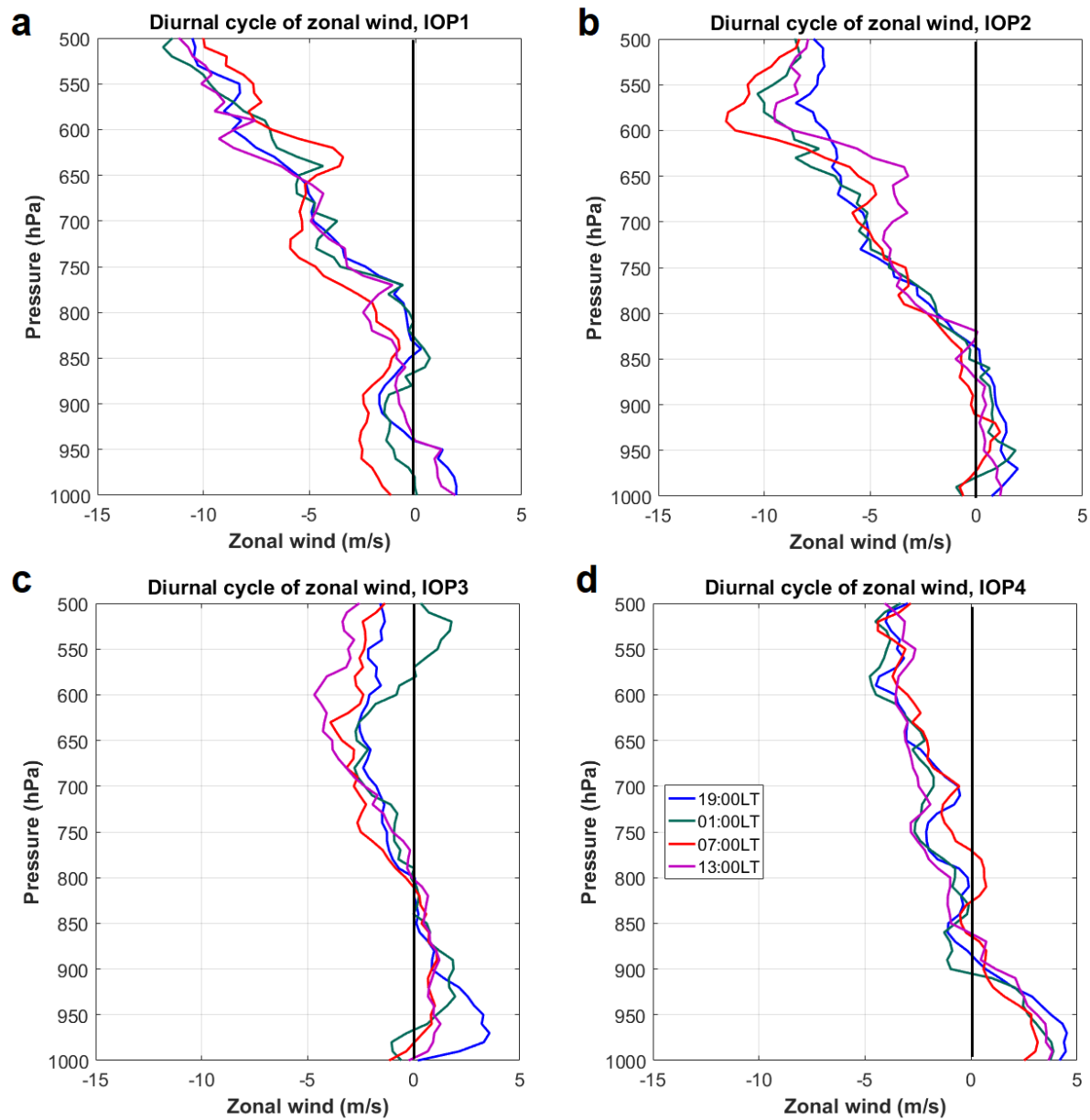
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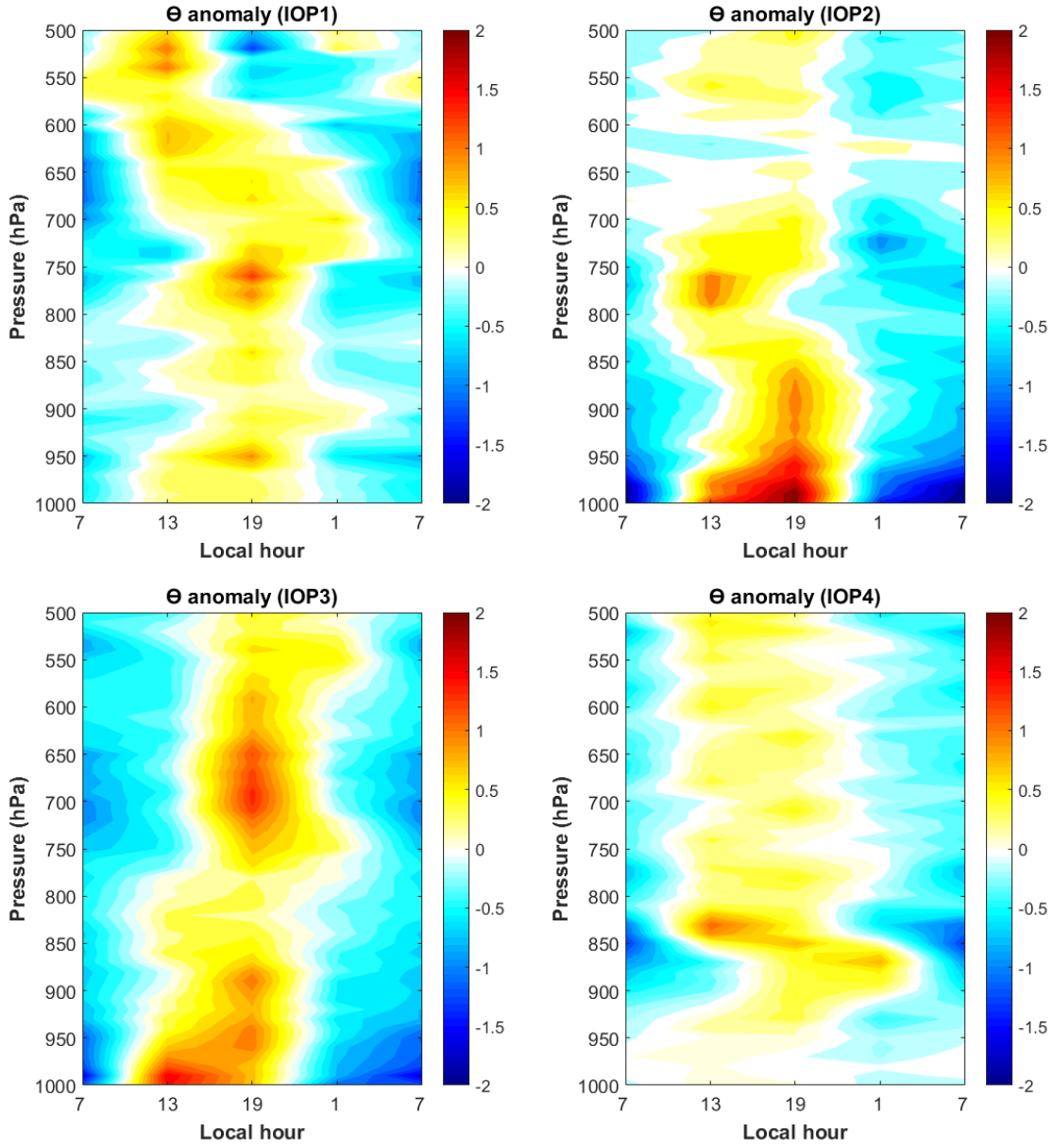


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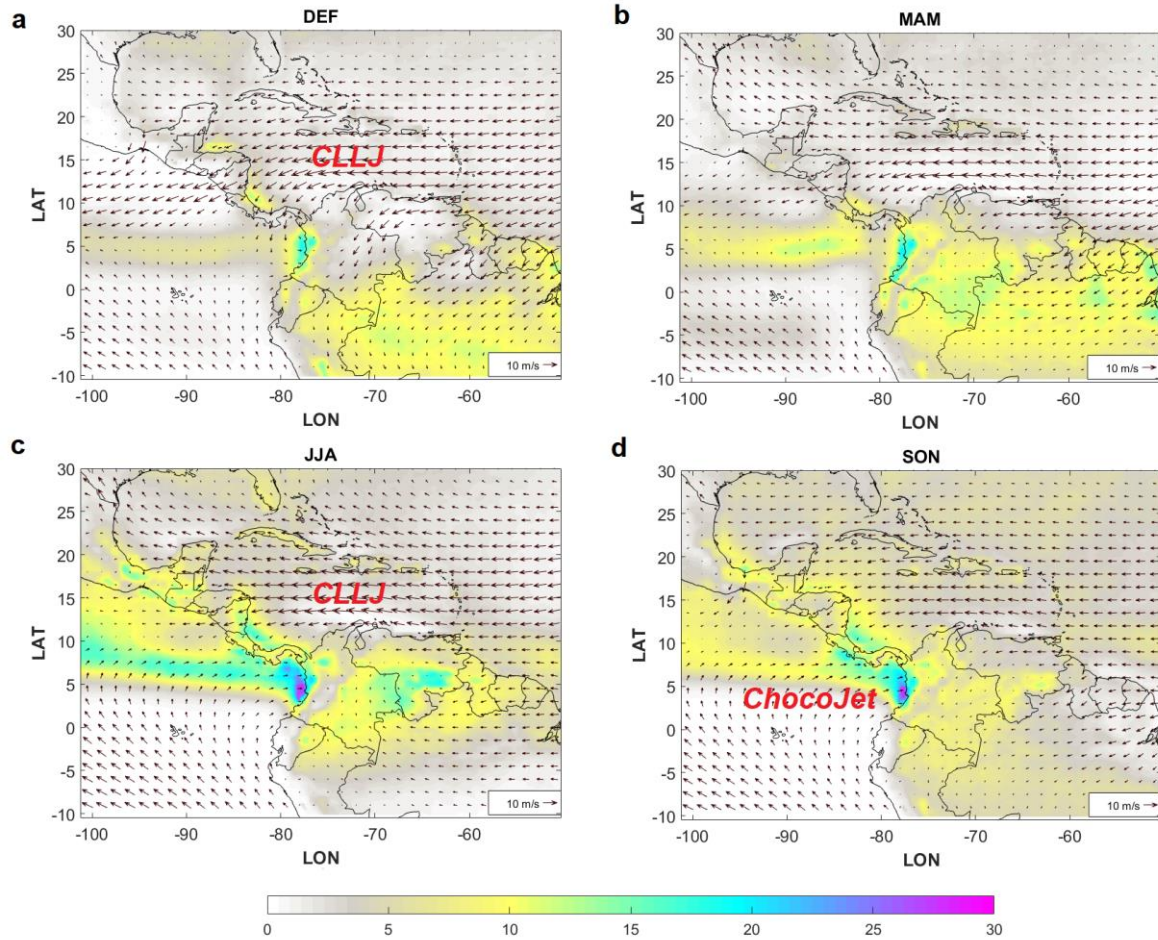
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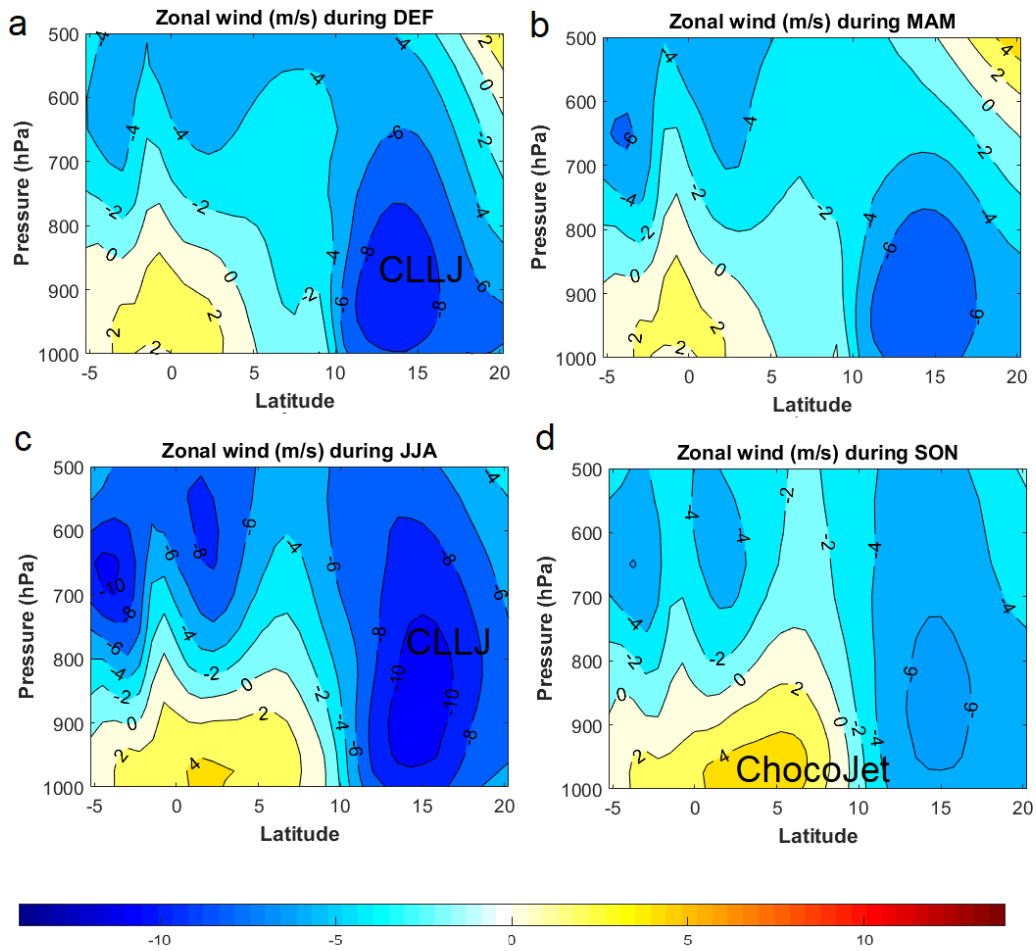
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**Fig. 1 (Side bar 1).** 925 hPa long-term mean (1980-2016) wind vectors and precipitation (shaded contours; mm/day) based on ERA-Interim reanalysis averaged during (a) December-February, (b) March-May, (c) June-August and (d) September-November.



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**Fig. 2 (Side bar 1).** Vertical distribution of mean (1980-2016) zonal winds (m/s) based on ERA-Interim reanalysis at 80°W during (a) December-February, (b) March-May, (c) June-August and (d) September-November.

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