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Large-scale and synoptic meteorology in the South-East Pacific during the observations campaign VOCALS-REx in Spring 2008

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We present a descriptive overview of the meteorology in the south eastern Subtropical Pacific during the VOCALS-REx intensive observations campaign, which took place in October and November 2008. We provide a summary of the day-to-day meteorological and cloud conditions. Our main aim is to provide some broader spatial and temporal meteorological context for the measurements made during VOCALS-REx, attempting to link the large-scale conditions of the atmospheric circulation with the locally observed conditions, also with a view of estimating the representativity of the specific season that was sampled by VOCALS-REx.

Introduction

The marine stratocumulus (Sc) systems of the subtropical anticyclones cause a large negative radiative forcing for the global climate system. They are also associated with oceanic upwelling systems of enormous biological productivity. Such association make them into fundamentally important building blocks of the present-day climate system.

Unfortunately, they are also some of the areas less well-understood or well-modelled in climate science. Uncertainties in top-of-the-atmosphere short-wave forcing from the tropical Sc decks seriously affect the projected climate sensitivity under greenhousegas forcing (Bony and Dufresne, 2005). Moreover, climate simulations of present-day (and, by implication, historical) conditions consistently show both large errors in the climatology of these regions (de Szoeke and Xie, 2008), and a very high sensitivity to it, affecting the global tropical circulation via a series of coupled ocean-atmosphere feedbacks (Ma et al., 1996), which affect both the mean climate and its modes of variability (Toniazzo, 2009). The modelled Sc in turn are sensitive to feedbacks between radiation and turbulence in the maritime boundary-layer (MBL) that tend to exacerbate errors (Konor et al., 2009).

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In part to address some of these issues, a concentrated observational and modelling study has been underway that focusses on the South-Eastern Pacific (SEP) off the western coast of South America, where the most persistent tropical Sc decks are found (Klein and Hartmann, 1993). The international research project, called VO-CALS (VAMOS ocean-cloud-atmosphere-land study), included an intensive observations campaign in the SEP (VOCALS-REx), between 1 October and 2 December 2008. An introduction to VOCALS, and a detailed overview of VOCALS-REx operations and observations, is provided in Wood et al. (2010).

Our primary goal in this contribution, is to provide a meteorological context for VOCALS-REx observations. In doing so, we aim to highlight the role of synoptic and large-scale atmospheric forcing in controlling changes to the Sc deck. This addresses one of the core science questions of VOCALS, namely to what extent cloud microphysical processes, including aerosol interaction, affect the cloud cover in tropical Sc areas. Several inroads have been made already. Garreaud et al. (2002) have shown that sub-synoptic systems that arise from the interaction between synoptic forcing and the Andean orography significantly affect Sc cover over time-scales of a few days. From their analysis of satellite and sea-level pressure data, George and Wood (2010) have argued that, more generally, sub-seasonal variability in cloud properties is to a significant extent controlled by meteorological conditions. In the context of VOCALS-REx, Rahn and Garreaud (2010b) have shown that the observed variability in MBL depth, and in part of the associated cloud cover, was largely dependent on synoptic forcing in the SEP area. Additional evidence of meteorological controls is given in Zuidema et al. (2009) and Painemal et al. (2010).

With the help of data from the UK Met Office operational forecasts of the relevant period (Abel et al., 2010), here we attempt to synthesise and complement this information and provide a tentative interpretation for the link between Sc cloud cover and the circulation in the SEP.

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We base most of the following discussion on data from the analysis fields and 21-h forecasts (at 3-hourly intervals) of the UK Met Office global operational forecast model. Abel et al. (2010) provide a validation for the limited-area version of this model in the 5 SEP for the period of interest. They show that, in general, the model fields are consistent with in-situ observations when maritime areas well away from the coast are considered. In such areas, the differences between the limited-area model and the lower-resolution global operational forecast model (40 km compared to 15 km) are very small in all quantities that are discussed in this paper. Accordingly, we mostly focus our analysis on the maritime areas of the SEP. The advantage of the global forecast model is both its spatial coverage and its longer temporal coverage of the VOCALS-REx period. Here we consider data for the whole of October and November 2008. The longer-term climatological context and back-trajectories are obtained from the ECMWF operational analyses and from the ERA-Interim reanalysis (Simmons et al., 2006). We also refer to datasets obtained from the observational activities of the VOCALS-REx campaign. These include ship-based radiosonde profiles, and measurements of SSTs, surface air temperatures and winds (see Wood et al., 2010; cf. also Zuidema et al., 2009; Bretherton et al., 2010). In addition, we use visible and infra-red imagery from the NOAA geostationary meteorological satellite GOES-10, the satellite-derived SST products OSTIA (Stark et al. 2007), and the Optimal Interpolation dataset from NOAA (Reynolds et al., 2002).

The average atmospheric circulation in the SEP

From a large-scale perspective, the SEP is part of the source region of the surface trade-winds of the Southern Tropical Pacific (e.g., Hastenrath 1991), under the descending, radiatively cooling branch of the Walker-Hadley circulation in the Pacific. The large-scale subsidence over the SEP is connected with the semi-permanent areas **ACPD**

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of cumulus convection and large-scale ascent over the West Pacific and the Maritime Continent (the archipelago comprising Java, Sumatra, Borneo and New Guinea). Seasonally, it is also dynamically linked with the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) north of the Equator, associated with the western warm pool extending from the Atlantic Caribbean to the Gulf of Panama, with the South-American Monsoon over the Amazon and the Eastern Andean slopes, and with the South-Pacific Convergence Zone (SPCZ) in the Southern West Pacific.

Near the surface, the SEP is located at the eastern end of the South-Pacific subtropical anticyclone, characterised by steady, divergent winds, which intensify near land into a low-level jet parallel to the coast. A permanent inversion with extensive strato-cumulus cloud (Sc) separates the cool, moist marine boundary layer (MBL) from the warm and dry free troposphere (FT, Fig. 1). The cool MBL temperatures in the SEP result from a combination of atmospheric and oceanic processes. While orographic blocking increases the static stability and contributes in maintaining the strong inversion capping the MBL (Richter and Mechoso, 2006; Wyant et al., 2010), cool MBL temperatures are consistent with the low moist static energy of the very dry freetropospheric air above (Takahashi and Battisti, 2007). Within the MBL, the flow of cool, dry air over the sea-water generates evaporation, and the Sc cover, stabilised by the inversion, limits the short-wave (SW) radiation absorbed by the ocean by an amount of the order of one hundred W/m² (e.g., Colbo and Weller, 2007). The positive residual net heat flux into the ocean (Colbo and Weller, 2007; de Szoeke et al., 2010) is offset by cold oceanic advection, aided by the wind-forced coastal upwelling. The relative role of each of these processes to maintain the observed thermal and dynamical state of the MBL in the SEP has long been the subject of active investigation (e.g., Ma et al., 1996; Zheng et al., 2010).

The surface flow is dynamically coupled at upper levels in the troposphere with the subtropical jet stream. Conditions in the SEP are influenced by the transport of momentum and tracers in and across the jet stream, and, recurrently, directly affected by baroclinic activity in the southern mid-latitudes. Particularly noticeable is the occur-

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rence of coastally-intensified cyclones, or coastal lows, which initially develop upstream of the SEP and are affected by the Andean orography. In particular, trailing cold fronts are observed as far north as 20° S between autumn and spring (Seleuchi et al., 2006; Barret et al., 2009; Rahn and Garreaud, 2010; a further example, for 23-24 October, 5 can be seen in Fig. 9).

The level of the MBL-top inversion represents the scale-height of the cold surface anticyclone, which disappears above 700 hPa (Fig. 1). East of the surface anticyclone, the mean wind veers dramatically, with a mean westerly flow aloft replacing the southerly flow in the MBL. At the northern edge of the anticyclone, near 20°S where VOCALS-REx took place, the mean MBL winds also have a significant easterly component, while above the inversion in the FT there is a weak mean northerly component. Directional variability is extremely small in the MBL, but it is generally much more pronounced on synoptic time-scales in the FT.

The relationship between the mean atmospheric flow and the thickness of the cool MBL is illustrated in Fig. 1, which shows isobars and isoentropes at various heights, together with the line where the inversion crosses the relevant altitude (thick, pink contour-line in the sections at 1620 m and 2420 m). Here and throughout this paper, we diagnose the height of the inversion as the location of maximum vertical gradient in potential temperature. For the model fields, this is estimated by first differences, and the inversion height at any given point in time and space corresponds to one of the model helf-levels. To first order, the thermal wind in the lower troposphere reflects thickness variations of the cool MBL, rather than horizontal gradients in the MBL temperature itself.

Above the inversion in the free troposphere (Fig. 2), prominent regional features are associated with the heat sources over the elevated topography of the Andes, especially the Peruvian Andes and the Bolivian altiplano, and over areas of moist convection in the Atlantic Warm Pool and the Amazon basin. A Gill-type (Gill, 1980) double anticyclonic pattern is visible in Fig. 2b. Its southern branch appears reinforced by the shallower heating over the Andes (Fig. 2a) and results in an anticyclonic turning of

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the upper-tropospheric winds above the SEP near the continent. As the spring season progresses, insolation and convective activity gradually increase and move southwards, resulting in a strengthening and a southward extension of the pattern shown in Fig. 2b. As well as on the mean circulation, in Sect. 8 we argue that this also affects 5 the character of the diurnal cycle over the SEP.

The thermally direct, mean cell associated with the Andes is most evident in the meridional transects shown in Fig. 3, especially near the coast. Further offshore, the structure of the circulation partly results from the average of a diurnal gravity wave (Garreaud and Munoz, 2004; Wood et al., 2009; see also Sect. 8 below), characterised by an outward-propagating (in the SSW direction) line of positive vertical velocity in the lower troposphere. Over the lower terrain to the North of the orography, inside the Amazon basin, there is the mean ascent with a deeper structure than that directly above the orography, consistently with moist convection. Mean southward advection, and subsequent descent, of the air-masses lofted in this convective activity can carry them into the VOCALS-REx area around 20°S (see later discussion in Sect. 4.2).

In the upper troposphere, the zonal flow (colour-coded in Fig. 3) is dominated by the subtropical jet-stream, which is associated with sloping isoentropes (shown as white lines), and extends as far North as 20° S. The flow in the meridional plane is generally indicative of radiative cooling, compensated by subsidence. Further south there is ascent associated with mid-latitude baroclinic activity. In the MBL, an easterly thermal jet is located near the Peruvian coast. Moving west, the easterly acceleration of the flow is associated with a line of meridional convergence above inversion at 22° S. This is diurnally modulated in a transient flow resembling that of an internal gravity wave (Sect. 8).

Figure 4 shows zonal transects of the mean circulation in the VOCALS-REx area. Considering first the section along 29°S, the flow is characterised by mean westerlies aloft and easterlies in the MBL. The mean vertical wind is downward everywhere except in the lower free troposphere near the orography, where a distinct barrier flow is noticeable, with poleward wind allowing for vortex stretching. Consistently with the

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high stability in the free troposphere, the flow across the Andes is subcritical in terms of its Froude number. It Rossby number, however, is, on average, close to one, with a characteristic pressure maximum above and upstream of the crest, balanced by the southerly wind component which extends the barrier flow along the western flanks aloft and eastwards. The increases pressure upstream of the orography associated with the zonal flow affects the pressure distribution at the surface (Richter and Mechoso, 2006) and contributes to the surface divergence in the VOCALS-REx area.

Associated with the south-American land-mass, there is a mean temperature front across the mountain chain, with a positive zonal temperature gradient giving an additional northerly thermal wind component. In the lower reaches of both eastern and western flanks of the orographic ridge, mean updraught occurs, most likely of diabatic origin. However, the updraught is stronger and extends higher on the eastern flank of the Andes, where is associated with a low-level southerly flow. On the western slopes, consistently with the prevailing dry conditions, the warmer air temperatures in proximity of the terrain are associated with adiabatic descent along the flank of the orography. The downslope flow is suggested in Fig. 4, but as it is intrinsically associated with the diurnal circulation of a land-sea and mountain breeze system, it is not accurately represented in the mean winds shown, which suggest warm vertical advection.

In the MBL the most prominent feature of the circulation is the southerly coastal jet (Munoz and Garreaud, 2005). The southerly flow in the MBL is consistent with Sverdrup balance below the level of maximum subsidence (around 500 hPa), associated with radiative cooling, and is maintained by the positive zonal temperature gradient associated with the coastal land-mass.

Along 20° S, where most VOCALS-REx observations where taken, the mean flow is similar, but with a few differences, and complications. Located at the northern edge of the anticyclone and of the subtropical jet, the zonal flow is stronger and more divergent in the MBL, and weaker aloft. The meridional component of the flow is less pronounced, with the maximum wind well away from the coast and no persistent coastal

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jet. The flow across the orography has smaller Rossby numbers (partly also due to the wider orographic ridge), and is associated with a weak mean southerly component, suggesting planetary-vorticity balance. Below the level of the ridge, however, the flow appears blocked, and west of the coast there still is a northerly barrier flow. Close to land the mean flow appears to turn southerly, in association with a strong mean upslope wind, suggesting a mean, buoyant surface density current, which converges over the high plateau of the Bolivian Altiplano. Over the upslope surface current, however, there is strong mean descent, possibly maintaining mass continuity with the zonal flow deceleration aloft. The diabatic forcing associated with the diurnal cycle is likely to be important for the observed mean thermal structure and mean flow. In addition, variability on synoptic time-scales is associated not only with variations in the zonal wind speed, but also with changes, sometimes even in sign, of the meridional and ver-

Aloft, the isoentropes have a nearly constant slope and the winds turn northerly everywhere. With a warmer free troposphere and similar MBL temperatures, the inversion is much stronger at 20°S than at 30°S, and the cloud cover more persistent. Additional features of the flow near 20°S arise due to the proximity of the Peruvian orography, which is oriented at an angle along the WNW-ESE direction and intercepts the mean southerly flow in the MBL and the lower FT. As mentioned earlier, the circulation near this ridge has a vigorous diurnal cycle, with larger diurnal variations than those associated with the N-S Andean crest.

tical wind components, as the dynamical character of the flow across the orography

changes. In general, strengthened zonal flow is associated with enhanced orographic

drag and increasing upward and poleward motion over the coastal ocean.

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The VOCALS-REx campaign, which took place in the period between 1 October and 2 December, sampled the eastern flank of the Southeastern Pacific subtropical high pressure system.

At the deepest point of the wide bay formed by the southern Peruvian and northern Chilean coast-lines, the town of Arica (18° S, 70° W) served as the main operational base of VOCALS-REx. Observations gathering concentrated in the vicinity of 20° S, between 72° W, near the Chilean coast, and a western-most point at 85° W where a WHOI data buoy is located. Along, and within a range of 200–300 km of the coast, ground-, aircraft- and ship-based activities sampled atmospheric data between 30° S and 13° S. Wood et al. (2010) goiva a comprehensive description of VOCALS-REx operations.

As is typical for austral spring, sea surface temperatures (SSTs) along the coast were cold offshore of the strongest upwelling zones, located both to the south and to the north of the Arica bight, where SSTs had a local maximum (Fig. 5b). Away from the coast, the SST gradient is to the west and northwest.

Within the VOCALS region, surface winds were typically south-southeasterly, from 177° at 20° S, 71° W to 125° at 20° S, 85° W. (Fig. 5a). West of 75° W, directionality was very steady, with a standard deviation of less than 10°; this figure raises to about 30° close to the coast.

The general alignment of the surface winds with the SST gradient implies cold advection in the MBL. This is capped by a strong inversion located at a pressure ranging from 900 hPa near the coast, to about 800 hPa on the open sea in the time average. Away from the coast, significant temporal variations of the inversion height occur, mainly on synoptic time-scales, with heights ranging between 900 hPa and 700 hPa at 90° W, and between 930 hPa and 850 hPa at 75° W. The temperature jump across this inversion is typically about 15°C, RH is dramatically reduced from saturation or near-saturation to less than 10%. A thermal wind is associated with the mean gradient in inversion

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height. Near 20°S, the latter is largely aligned with the wind itself, resulting in little directional change (a slight backing), and the wind remains eastward near the coast and north-eastward offshore. An additional thermal wind component above this level is associated with the predominantly meridional mean temperature gradient in the free troposphere. The mean direction changes to between westerly and southerly at 700 hPa, with a strong reduction in mean wind-speed. However, wind directional variability also becomes markedly larger (45°-60° in standard deviation), increasingly so away from the coast.

The cool, moist, inversion-capped MBL provides the conditions for the maintenance of the extensive stratocumulus cloud. The mean cloud cover from water clouds is shown in Fig. 5c, as obtained from MODIS Terra satellite at 10:30 LT. It reaches its maximum within a belt at a distance of 500 km from, and roughly parallel to, the Peruvian coast, with mean values exceeding 90. This region is situated a few hundred km downwind of the maximum in Lower Tropospheric Stability (LTS, Fig. 5d), which is defined the difference between the potential temperature at 700 hPa and the surface. Over most of the region sampled in VOCALS-REx the mean warm-cloud cover exceeded 70 where coastal irregularities and the advection of drier air masses are conducive to local clearings.

Figures 5e, f also shows the mean liquid water path (LWP), as determined for cloudy pixels using the visible/near-IR retrievals from MODIS (panel e) and from the passive microwave Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer (AMSR; panel f). The two estimates agree very well within about 500 km of the coast, where the potential contamination of the AMSR estimate by drizzle is limited (as evidenced from VOCALS-REx aircraft observations, Bretherton et al., 2010). Within this region, typical cloud LWP values were 70 g m⁻² or less.

Liquid water paths increase westwards, in agreement with in-situ observations (Bretherton et al., 2010). Still further west, the microwave-derived LWP estimates from AMSR increasingly exceed those from MODIS, which is indicative of increasing amounts of drizzle (see e.g., Shao and Liu, 2004) formed in the thicker clouds of the

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deeper maritime MBL (Wyant et al., 2010; Zuidema et al., 2009).

While the mean flow illustrated in the previous section is somewhat representative of the observed day-to-day conditions in the MBL, in the FT variability on synoptic time-scales was very substantial.

The cloud-cover was observed to respond to the synoptic-scale variability of the circulation above the inversion to a degree such that the 48-h operational forecasts of synoptic conditions could be usefully employed to estimate the expected changes in observable field conditions during the VOCALS-REx campaign. The model-generated cloud fields themselves provide a good guidance, in spite of the poor representation in the operation models of cloud microphysical processes or of aerosols.

In general, the main source of synoptic variability in the VOCALS-REx region was baroclinic activity in the jet-stream system, causing ridging and troughing in the FT which tended to be amplified by orographic effects near the Andes. This was associated with anomalous advection of air-masses from different latitudes or altitudes, following the ridging of the isoentropes.

When the disturbance was sufficiently strong, it developed into a coastally-intensified cyclone (Garreaud et al., 2001; Garreaud and Rutllant, 2003), most clearly seen in the lower FT at about 700 hPa. In a few instances (e.g. 19–20 November), such coastal lows locally reversed the zonal component of the flow across the Andes to easterly, causing the advection of land air-masses into the maritime SEP area.

While anomalous cold or warm advection in the FT associated with these systems was common, occasionally regions at the low-latitudes of the VOCALS-REx area were directly interested by trailing cold fronts, with an ensuing sharp drop in FT temperatures. Such events appear to be more frequent on the eastern slopes in the lee of the Andes, but on 23–24 October such a cold front extended throughout the troposphere just above the MBL along 20° S.

In addition, changes in the extent of the mid-tropospheric high, associated with changes in heating either from the elevated terrain of the Bolivian altiplano or from deep convection on the Western and Southern Amazon basin, caused modulations of ACPD

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I.2 Day-to-day variability in October and November 2008

ated with the formation of low-latitude cyclone waves.

The general meteorological conditions for the period of interest are shown in Fig. 6. For each day, we show the cloud field using the difference ΔT between the SST (as given by the daily-mean OSTIA product; Stark et al. (2007) and the GOES Channel 5 (12 µm) brightness temperature. Since few low cloud tops occur below 600 m in the region (e.g., Zuidema et al., 2009), all values of $\Delta T < 6$ K are left in black to indicate virtually cloud-free regions, while all values above 35 K are considered to originate from high clouds and are marked in white. The lower threshold is still somewhat problematic because differences less than 8 K can still indicate either low, continuous cloud cover. or fields of broken cumulus with relatively high cloud tops. Comparison with GOES-10 day-time images in the visual band generally supports the choice made, and broken cumulus fields tend to be infrequent in the VOCALS-REx study area. We show this temperature difference field twice-daily: (a) during early morning before sunrise (where available, 10:28 UTC, i.e. 05:08 LT at 80° W), when the cloud cover is most extensive, and (b) in the afternoon (19:45 UTC, or 14:25 LT at 80° W) when the clouds are near their thinnest (Wood et al., 2002), and on many days the stratocumulus deck partially breaks up (Rozendaal et al., 1995; Bretherton et al., 2004; Abel et al., 2010).

the sub-tropical jet-stream on its equatorward flank which sometimes appear associ-

Superimposed on the night time ΔT fields in Fig. 6 are sea-level pressure contours for the previous 00:00 UTC, and on the day time field contours of the zonally asymmetric part of the 500 hPa geopotential height field are drawn. The final two panels in Fig. 6 show the average night-time and day-time cloud-top temperatures at each location whenever low cloud is diagnosed (i.e. whenever ΔT is within the stated thresholds of 6 and 35 K), with contours for mean pressure and 500 hPa height overlaid as before.

We discuss here two important aspects of the variations in the cloud field in the VOCALS-REx region. Day-to-day variations in the cloud fields are comparable to diurnal variations, and in some cases dominate. These synoptic changes occur in co-

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incidence with changes in sea-level pressure and the passage of mid-tropospheric synoptic-scale disturbances. In particular, there is a strong association between low 500 hPa heights and cyclonic flow at 500 hPa, and large-scale clearing and breaks in the cloud cover, particular towards the south of the VOCALS-REx study region. This is particularly evident when synoptic systems approach the South American coast (e.g., 1-3 October, 10-13 October, 20-25 October, 12-15 November, and after 24 November). Equally remarkable are the intervening episodes of synoptic ridging, particularly

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Superimposed on this distinctly synoptic variability, circulation-related anomalies can be observed at both smaller and larger spatial and temporal scales. Near land, enhanced orographic subsidence associated with synoptic-scale ridging is responsible for sudden, strong coastal clearings.

during October, which coincide with increased Sc cloud-cover.

This is accompanied by a localised reduction in sea-level pressure and formation of a coastal low (CL), as discussed in Garreaud et al. (2002). The coastal clearings typically persist for up to 3 days after the initial mid-tropospheric ridging, and they tend to be located in the southern part of the domain of interest here, where the coastal jet is strongest, consistent with the dynamics discussed by Munoz and Garreaud (2005). Such "canonical" CLs are seen to occur during 4-5 October, 17-18 October, and 10-11 November.

The association between mid-tropospheric ridging and sea-level troughing along the coast distinguishes CLs from mid-latitude synoptic disturbances (Garreaud et al., 2002). Nevertheless, their character is thought to depend principally on the interaction of synoptic-scale disturbances with the mountain topography, whereby changing upand down-slope flows affect the temperature and moisture stratification of the lower atmosphere near the coast, thereby affecting the pressure field. These changes also affect the cloud-cover. Thus, on the one hand, CLs depend on the presence of largescale ridging and troughing. On the other hand, height anomalies associated with synoptic disturbances generally tend to assume a baroclinic character as they interact with the orography, and to disturb the coastal cloud field in a way consistent with the

associated mountain winds.

Thus, there are instances – such as 1–2 November – of weak coastal troughing and of ridging at 500 hPa height, which area hardly accompanied by sea-level changes, but nonetheless affect the cloud field, sometimes quite significantly (e.g., 7-9 November). This particular extensive cloud-clearing event is still associated with mid-latitude troughing further south (at the southern edge of the VOCALS-REx study region), but also with strong warming of the mid-troposphere overlying the coastal ocean north of about 25°S, that appears to emanate from the continent to the east. This results in an enhanced mid-tropospheric meridional temperature gradient, and strong cold advection over the southern half of the domain (see Fig. 8).

The importance on the regional scale of synoptic ridging and troughing near the coast also concerns the origin of the air-masses, and their accompanying aerosol or pollutant load, that were sampled in the SEP area during the VOCALS-REx campaign. The back-trajectories arriving near the inversion along 20°S during VOCALS-REx, shown in Fig. 7, highlight two particular episodes during which air-masses were advected towards the Sc closer to the coast (typically, within 5 degree in longitude) from potentially polluted land areas. The first such episode occurs in 17-21 October, following an intense synoptic troughing and subsequent ridging along a NW-SE axis to the south of the VOCALS-REx area. The corresponding turning of the geopotential height countours implies advection from the central and southern portion of the Chilean landmass. Over 20°S, the riding peaks on 17 October and coincides with a shallow MBL and persistent, continuous cloud cover. A weaker, but similar occurrences is seen on 16 November, also corresponding with a depressed MBL and increased cloud-cover along 20° S. Such episodes roughly represent an intensification of the anticyclonic circulation south of the VOCALS-REx area which may be brought about by synoptic ridging.

A distinct dynamics appears to be associated with the second period when airmasses are potentially influenced by land areas, spanning roughly two weeks between the late part of October and the early part of November, but with increased relevance between 3 and 8 November. In this period, air-masses near the coast originate from

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the North, and appear to come in contact with Peruvian and Ecuadorean coastal land areas. From 23 October onwards increased occurrence of cirrus is observed north of 20 S, becoming particularly marked during 3–6 November. Likewise, mid-tropospheric relative humidity is markedly higher than during the rest of the season. During this time, the Bolivian mid-tropospheric anticyclone appears to intensify and extend westwards over the maritime area around 15° S. After 10 November, it becomes detached from the continent and appears to move westwards, possibly as a free planetary wave, until it is dissipated around 14 November. This evolution is accompanied by a significant warming of the free-troposphere over 20° S.

To some extent, the back-trajectories of air reaching 20° S between 5 and 7 November highlight the circulation in this mid-tropospheric anticyclone. It is interesting to speculate on the possible role of convection over the Amazon and adjacient land. Increased moist convection there and over the Mato Grosso is suggested from satellite OLR maps in the period 18–20 October, and again later between 30 October and 3 November. Such episodic thermal forcing of the mid-troposphere may well excite travelling Rossby waves as suggested above. The anomalous upper-level circulation brings tropical, continental air in the vicinity of the MBL in the SEP, in sharp contrast with the usual remote oceanic and subtropical air-mass origin there (Grant et al., 2010). Given the persistent, strong easterly outflow over the low-lying coastal areas of Ecuador, one cannot exclude, in principle, a remote origin from the Amazon basin for some of the air. Whether continental pollution of SEP air-masses induced by events like these may have been relatively under-represented during the VOCALS-REx campaign, as South America was anomalously dry compared with climatology (see Fig. 19), is an open question.

Dynamical processes at sub-synoptic scales, as discussed e.g. by Munoz and Garreaud (2005), are locally always important near the coast, for example where an approaching mid-latitude disturbance appears to be associated with the development of a distinct coastal anomaly ahead of it (e.g., 22–23 October). Similarly, during 15–16 November, following the passage of a mid-tropospheric cyclone across the Andes,

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a rapid drop in pressure along the coast coincides with extensive coastal clearing. For reasons both of resolution and imperfect representation of the terrain, this dynamics is not captured by either global or regional forecast models (Wyant et al., 2010; Abel et al., 2010), which all appear to miss the coastal cloud anomalies (along with much of the diurnal cycle there). However there is a clear indication from trajectories that become "entangled" with such events that they may considerably prolong the residence time of air-masses above the MBL along 20° S.

Variability that appears associated with a longer temporal scale is most apparent in the second half of November.

From 19 November onwards, a persistent north-westerly anomaly is seen at 500 mb (Fig. 6). This feature corresponds to west-north-westerly total mid-tropospheric flow throughout this period, corresponding to a large-scale cyclonic anomaly over the ocean to the west of South America. In spatial coincidence with the strongest poleward flow, reduced large-scale subsidence is diagnosed from the forecast model, consistently with vortex stretching. In the same areas, the day-time cloud images show a band of clearing. The low-pressure centre to the west is part of a slowly evolving wave-train that spans the south-Pacific basin, and appears to emanate from the Maritime Continent, in association with a positive phase of the Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO), as shown in Sect. 7.

During much of the month of October 2008, changes in cloud cover generally follow a succession of synoptic disturbances travelling through the region, with similar effects during the day and during the night. Cloud cover is generally high, with relatively small differences between night and day (in a few instances even negative over the oceanic area west of 82° W), but is characterised by rapid, near-complete clearing in large, dynamically well-defined areas, dominated by cyclonically turning mid-tropospheric flow, where a combination of cold advection and negative-vorticity advection occur.

Later in the spring season, from the end of October to the middle of November, diurnal variations in cloud cover are larger, and on sub-synoptic time-scales coastal and other smaller-scale clearing events (such as those associated with pockets of open

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cells) become more important. During this period, there is little synoptic activity from mid-latitude depressions, the cloud cover is nearly complete during night-time, while the day-time break-up, while variable, is never very large, except on 8 November (as discussed above).

As a rough conceptual schematics, one might summarise the previous discussion by dividing the whole of October-November 2008 into three distinct periods. The first period, until the end of October, has robust synoptic activity from mid-latitude depressions which largely control the cloud conditions. The second period, in the first half of November, shows reduced baroclinic activity, with high values of sea-level pressure, and sub-synoptic scale activity, including influences from continental convection, on time-scales of 2–3 days. The third and final period has moderate synoptic variability, and is dominated by a large-scale circulation anomaly which reduced mid-tropospheric subsidence and allowed for an extensive day-time break-up of the stratocumulus.

Away from the relatively narrow coastal strip, cloud-free areas tend to be zonally aligned and to propagate northwards with the boundary-layer flow. This may be partly due to a memory of the air mass, which being depleted of CCN once a closed to open cell transition involving precipitation occurs (see e.g., 27/28 October case study of Wood et al., 2010, and associated modelling work by Wang et al., 2010; Berner et al., 2010), remains so for a length of time. However, at the latitudes most relevant for VOCALS-REx, synoptic disturbances themselves also tend to travel equatorwards as they approach the barrier of the Andes (see Fig. 8).

5 Depth of the MBL and variability in oceanic cloud cover on synoptic time-scales

The operational forecast model of the UK Met Office produces cloud fields which compare well with satellite-derived products in open-ocean areas (Abel et al., 2010, see their Fig. 5). Averaged over the area between 90° W–80° W and 15° S–25° S, the model-derived daily-average low-cloud cover has a correlation of 0.78 (60 points) with that

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derived from GOES-10. (An identical correlation is found for averages restricted to the zonal strip 90° W-75° W, 19.5° S-20.5° S). We also diagnose an MBL-depth from the model fields, by the level of the MBL-capping inversion (the inversion height, h_{inv}). This quantity has a weaker correlation of -0.60 with GOES-10 cloud-top brightness temperatures. The biggest discrepancies occur in late October and early November, when contamination from cirrus cloud (see Fig. 6) imply that GOES-10 broad-band IR radiances images do not always reliably represent the Sc top. A good agreement is found between the model-derived h_{inv} and a similarly defined quantity from the profiles returned by ship-based radiosonde ascents (Fig. 9).

The model-diagnosed total low-cloud cover and the inversion height are strongly and negatively correlated (Fig. 10). In general, reduce cloud-cover tends to be associated with elevated cloud-tops, i.e. deep MBLs. As indicated from Fig. 10, direct measurements show a similar correlation. It should be noted that day-to-day variations in cloud cover are most pronounced during daytime, in such a way that the diurnal average cloud cover and its diurnal range are strongly anticorrelated (c.c. around -0.9 on both model-derived and satellite-derived estimates). In general, areas of clouds with shallow MBLs (low ΔT) during night-time tend to undergo less day-time break-up. A similar relationship is found with surface solar irradiation.

Figure 10 also highlights the different character of the three periods identified in the previous section. Until the end of October, cloud-top heights are very variable, with characteristic synoptic temporal and spatial scales. The early part of November, up to the 15 November, is generally characterised by low cloud-top heights, especially towards the end; while the second half of November sees higher cloud-tops, prone to day-time break-up. The averages in the area 90° W-75° W, 19° S-21° S are 1569 m, 1461 m, and 1587 m for $h_{\rm inv}$ for the periods 1–31 October, 1–15 November and 16– 30 November, respectively. Correspondingly, the model-derived fractional cloud cover is 0.72, 0.80 and 0.60, respectively; the satellite-derived values are 0.75, 0.78 and 0.56, respectively. It thus appears that, over maritime areas, lower inversion heights do generally correspond with increased cloud-cover. A similar statistical correlation was

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found in MODIS-derived data by Wood and Hartmann (2006; see also George and Wood, 2010). In coastal areas, observed variations in cloud-top height are smaller and less well correlated with cloud cover. The effects of a strong mean diurnal cycle are also more significant in that region (see Sect. 8). Since the model performance is much weaker on and near land (Abel et al., 2010), we limit our considerations in this section to maritime areas well offshore (more than 300 km from the coast).

The UKMO operational model has no representation of cloud-aerosol interaction, and a very rudimentary parametrisation of cloud-microphysical effects. Moreover, its horizontal resolution cannot capture the effect of precipitation on mesoscale dynamics in the MBL. The model does not have any representation of mesoscale or smaller features, including for example the development of pockets of open cells. Thus, its qualitative consistency with observations in both MBL-depth and cloud-cover is nontrivial. Although the model tends to dissipate some cloud with increasing forecast lead time, the simulated day-to-day variability is not solely or primarily due to assimilation increments. Initialised free-running simulations of the model in one of its climate configurations, HiGAM (Shaffrey et al., 2009), show an evolution of the cloud field in the SEP that remains very close to the operational analyses for up to 10 days. Therefore, the UKMO operational forecasts represent a valuable opportunity to isolate the effects of dynamical forcing on the Sc field in the VOCALS-REx region.

In this model, an elevated inversion consistently corresponds with increased areal cloud fraction if averages over a sufficiently large area and away from land are considered. Figure 10 highlights variability with a typical synoptic time-scale of about a week or less. However, over the observations period there is no clear indication that this correlation breaks down on longer time-scales. Smoothing the two time-series in Fig. 10 still results in formally significant correlations. Nevertheless, it appears that large-scale circulation anomalies not associated with synoptic-scale systems, which affected VOCALS-REx in the second half of November, when cloud cover was considerably reduced, do play a role. It is apparent, also, that especially intense synoptic events, such as that occurring in 22–24 October, are more than proportionally effective in reducing

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cloud cover, leaving a signature on longer time-averages. This acquires particular significance when considering the similarly skewed relationship between cloud cover and surface insolation.

Figure 11 shows the mid-tropospheric circulation anomalies associated with changes in the inversion height in the area 90° W–75° W, 19.5° S–21.5° S (indicated by the black rectangle). The composites based on the inversion height, *h*_{inv}, extrema shown in Fig. 10 indicate that negative (positive) inversion-height anomalies (with positive/negative cloud-cover anomalies) coincide with anomalous warm (cold) advection in the lower FT within anticyclonic (cyclonic) synoptic disturbances when they approach the area of interest. Vertical sections in the meridional plane of these events (not shown) confirm a baroclinic structure, with descent (ascent) associated with a tilted warm (cold) front. Linear correlations with *h*_{inv} (not shown) show a very similar, formally significant structure. As may be expected, the associated temperature advection is most intense in the lower free-troposphere just above the MBL.

It appears from Fig. 11 that the cold frontal systems tend to coincide with cyclones at low latitudes, around 30° S, as they approach the Andean barrier, while the warm fronts tend to occur in association with extratropical storms south of 40° S. Composites based on the storms themselves (not shown) as they occurred during the period of interest confirm this impression. The leading term in the heat advection anomalies is associated with anomalous vertical motion. Figure 11 suggest anomalous ascent near the Andean topography associated with synoptic troughing, and anomalous descent associated with synoptic ridging. Note also the association of the latter with advection towards 20° S from land areas to the South (cf. discussion on Fig. 7 in the previous section). These results are consistent with the analysis of Xu et al. (2005) who find that anticyclonic circulation anomalies which tend to reinforce the climatological zonal pressure gradient and generate offshore flow in the lower troposphere off the Chilean coast tend to increase cloud-cover while depressing the inversion and represent an important mechanism in the generation of subseasonal variability in the Sc deck. Painemal and Zuidema (2010) find a similar circulation signature from the cloud droplet-number con-

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centrations with anomalous easterly, offshore flow. In our composites the anticyclonic anomalies also appear to have a more stationary character than the rapidly evolving cyclones, while the latter are associated with the largest vertical wind anomalies.

In general, the height tendencies may be decomposed into a part due to vertical 5 advection, a part due to horizontal advection, and a part due to entrainment, the latter being diagnosed as a residual according to

$$\dot{m}_{e}/\rho = \partial_{t} h_{\text{inv}} + u \cdot \nabla_{2} h_{\text{inv}} - w \,, \tag{1}$$

where all quantities are calculated for $z=h_{inv}$. Here, \dot{m}_{ε} represent the entrainment flux, u the horizontal wind, and w the vertical wind. This decomposition, shown in the thin lines in Fig. 12, shows a dominant contribution for the inversion height tendencies the area 19.5° S-20.5° S, 90° W-80° W by the horizontal advection of height anomalies in the first period of the campaign (1 October to 27 October), to be later partly replaced by a contribution from vertical velocity anomalies. These results are consistent with those of Rahn and Garreaud (2010b), who perform a similar analysis, and demonstrate that horizontal advection gives the leading-order contribution to changes of the MBL depth over synoptic time-scales. As a comparison with Fig. 11 suggests, we find that vertical advection anomalies become markedly more important near the coast, especially to the South, i.e. upstream, of 20°S. Thus, temperature anomalies in the lower freetroposphere that are generated by the interaction of synoptic system with the orography are communicated downstream via horizontal advection.

In general, atmospheric heat advection is dominated by the vertical and meridional components, which partially counteract each other. Panel (b) in Fig. 12 highlights the dynamical relationship between vertical velocity anomalies and anomalies of the meridional flow. Initially, a sequence of upper-level wave cyclones invest the area, with mid-tropospheric ascent and descent associated with poleward and equatorward flow, respectively. On 22 October, a mature baroclinic system marks the transition to a period with reduced synoptic variability but marked activity by baroclinic planetary waves, in which vertical motion is more strongly associated with the conservation of planetary vorticity. At the level of the inversion, the different character of the evolution between the three periods is seen clearly in panel (b) of the figure. In early November, the induced motion is downward, to switch to anomalous ascent later.

The term in the vertical velocity in Eq. (1) suggests the vertical displacement of a ma-5 terial surface, and horizontal advection near the inversion appears as the advection of MBL-depth (inversion-height) anomalies. Such a picture, however, is misleading. Due to the occurrence of cloud-top entrainment necessary to maintain mass continuity between the large-scale subsidence in the free troposphere and the divergent anticyclonic flow in the MBL, the inversion does not behave like a material surface, or as an isoentropic surface. On synoptic time-scales and shorter, adiabatic processes, i.e. advection, dominate the tendencies in potential temperature in the lower FT. MBL temperatures, on the other hand, are closely tied to the more persistent SSTs. The fastest process at hand is represented by diabatic turbulent entrainment across the inversion that controls the location and the structure of the cloud layer. We therefore hypothesise that the mechanism responsible for reduction (increase) in cloud cover with increased (reduced) MBL-depth is increased (reduced) entrainment across the inversion that occurs with in response to a cooler (warmer) lower free-troposphere. Entrainment, as diagnosed from the residual of Eq. (1), indeed generally counteracts the tendencies associated with advection. On short time-scales entrainment also correlates with the amplitude of the diurnal cycle in cloud cover, as the main mechanism for cloud destruction. High-pass filtering the time-series of daily values with a 4-day cut-off gives a weak but still significant correlation of 0.3 with the difference between daily maximum and daily minimum cloud cover. On longer time-scales, periods with increased cloud cover also tend to have higher entrainment.

The homogenisation in wet-bulb potential temperature that is seen across the inversion layer in both the model vertical profiles and in radiosonde ascents (not shown) supports the view that the occurrence of buoyancy reversal (e.g., Deardorff, 1980) is instrumental in determining subseasonal variations in cloud-top height in the presence of strong free-tropospheric subsidence.

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We elaborate on this further. The thermodynamic profiles of the lower atmosphere appear to control the level of the inversion, as it is usually observed to occur at or immediately below the level where the wet-bulb potential temperature reaches a minimum. This result appears confirmed by radiosonde measurements taken from the R. H. Brown research vessel during VOCALS-REx. A natural interpretation for such behaviour is for the inversion to be located where conditions are favourable to cloudtop entrainment mixing, and the concurrent thickening of the MBL can act to balance the divergent surface circulation in the anticyclone.

The location of the minimum in the vertical profile of θ_w may be approximately reconstructed from the profiles of θ that are characteristic for the mean FT and the mean MBL. In the FT, θ increases with height, as it does in areas of tropical deep convection with which the subtropical anticyclone is dynamically and advectively connected. Radiative cooling ensures that in the upper FT the temperature profile is slightly steeper than in the deep-convecting tropics; but lower in the FT (below 5000 m), the lapse rate deviates very little the from tropics-wide average. In the MBL, θ is constant up to the cloud base, while in the cloud layer θ_w is approximately constant. The point of intersection between the two resulting profiles of $\theta_w(z)$, decreasing in the MBL, and increasing in the FT, may be thought as marking the location of the MBL-top inversion. From these premises one may thus expect that a warming of the MBL, or a cooling of the lower free troposphere, will cause the MBL depth to increase; and conversely.

We thus suggest a general argument for the maintenance of a nearly vanishing jump in $\theta_w(z)$ at the inversion, and thus on its location and the variability thereof. Its implication may be formulated in terms of the LTS diagnostics (Fig. 8), consistently with the known correlation between reduced cloud cover and a lower LTS (George and Wood, 2010). To some extent, higher LTS can simply reflect the deeper MBL occurring with a cooler lower FT. However, the same jump in RH at constant θ_w does correspond to a smaller jump in dry stability when the temperature is lower, so that higher MBL tops correspond to less stable inversions. This correlation is robustly represented in the operational analysis data.

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The assumption under which this argument may hold is that the spatial and temporal scales considered are large enough for an approximate equilibrium, but also small enough that the large-scale constraints on mass and energy conservation remain unchanged. Note that one can't, on the basis of such assumptions, argue about the specific sensitivity of Sc systems to cloud-top entrainment instability compared e.g. with radiative and surface-flux forcing, which is still poorly known but is, in model simulations, highly dependent on the specific formulation of the PBL (Stevens, 2002).

Nevertheless, some support for our speculation on the prevalence of buoyancy reversal at the inversion in the SEP is given in Fig. 13. Panel (a) highlights the tendency for the vertical gradient of θ_w across the inversion to be negative in periods preceding an increase in h_{inv} , especially in October. These anomalies are then advected northwards. The correlation between the entrainment mass flux Eq. (1) and the gradient in θ_w for the area upstream of VOCALS-REx have weak, but marginally significant values for positive lags.

Furthermore, the decomposition used in Fig. 12, diagnosed upstream of the VO-CALS area between 27°S and 30°S, indicates much larger and sometimes dominant contributions from entrainment, generally opposing vertical motion but sometimes reinforcing them. In general, the tendencies due to horizontal advection are smaller than at 20°S.

To summarise, the evolution of the inversion height may be explained as a combination of fast adjustments on synoptic time-scales, which are partly diabatic and involve a homogenisation of wet-bulb potential temperature across the inversion, and a slower evolution driven by changes in the mean subsidence. The latter is mostly driven by the upper-level circulation, with a strong correspondence between poleward flow and anomalous ascent, as required from potential vorticity conservation.

In addition, in the second half of November the MBL was also affected by a comparatively slow but significant warming of the SSTs. The evolution of meteorological parameters at the surface, within the region 90° W–80° W, 25° S–15° S, is shown in Fig. 14. The air surface temperature undergoes large oscillations in October, becomes

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fairly stationary between the end of October and the beginning of November, and rises markedly in the second half of November (panel a). The slow evolution largely tracks the SSTs, while the faster oscillations track the changes in atmospheric temperature advection (panel c). In the last period, cold advection is reduced, along with a reduction in the meridional wind (panel b) and the meridional SST gradient south of 25° S (not shown). The temperature of the air raises to approach that of the underlying ocean, leading to a suppresion in latent heat cooling (panel d), which together with the increase in solar irradiation likely contributed to the raise in local SSTs. Thus, in late November 2008, the large-scale forcing, with weaker surface wind and large-scale subsidence, combined with the response of regional surface meteorology, to lead a reduction of the stability of the MBL and favour conditions for day-time cloud break-up.

6 Temporal evolution of the large-scale circulation

The change in character of the flow and its variability from the end of October onwards, and the evidence from the composites of Fig. 11, suggest a possible link between tropical MBL variability and the location and activity of the mid-latitude storm track.

The storm-track is markedly different between the three distinct periods (discussed in Sect. 4.2) of VOCALS-REx (Fig. 15). In October, upstream of the South-American coast the storm track has a broader meridional spread, with activity at sub-tropical latitudes north of 30°. A strong interaction with the continental topography is suggested by the maxima on the two sides of it. In early November, by contrast, storms develop in a narrow, sub-polar zonal band, with little evidence of affecting the tropical inversion in the way indicated in Fig. 11. Later still, while baroclinic activity returns north, it appears weak near the South-American coast. This period in the second half of November is also characterised by steady north-westerly mid-tropospheric flow, accompanied by reduced subsidence (Fig. 12c).

Although the statistics of the two months under examination is not sufficient to draw firm conclusions, it is interesting to note that the periods with reduced synoptic-scale

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variability in the first part of November also tends to show lower inversion heights and increased cloud cover. Based on point observations over F. Felix island (80° W, 265° S), Painemal et al. (2010) also observe a higher incidence of a deep MBL, along with its greater variability, in the presence of midlatitude synoptic forcing, consistently with Fig. 10. This may be interpreted in terms of the effect that the secondary, ascending circulation associated with the equatorward flank of a storm track can have on the Sc inversion.

The changes in the storm track during the two months of the campaign within the SEP sector reflect, at least in part, the normal seasonal evolution of the large-scale circulation. In general, the spring season is characterised by a large shift in the midlatitude jet. In the South Pacific, the sub-tropical branch weakens considerably, and a characteristic split-jet structure emerges.

This evolution is represented in Fig. 16 for October-November 2008. The subtropical jet, which was prominent during the first half of October, started splitting in favour of a sub-polar component in the second half of the month, and was largely reduced to the Indo-Australian sector in November. Such evolution may explain some of the changes observed in baroclinic activity investing the VOCALS-REx region. Additionally, the subtropical jet initially acts as a wave-guide for any disturbances generated upstream, resulting in very weak persistent wave-like anomaly patterns, hardly escaping tropical latitudes. Starting from the beginning of November, with the break-down of the subtropical jet, and the increased prevalence of (weak) westerlies near the tropical areas of deep convection, a slowly evolving Rossby wave pattern begins to appear, which is well established in the last period of the campaign, with increased cyclonic circulation over the SEP, coincident with northerly flow, dynamically induced lofting, and day-time cloud break-up which characterises the latter part of the campaign.

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For the duration of the campaign, large-scale SSTs anomalies in the sub-equatorial Pacific indicate a prevalence of weak La-Niña like conditions (Fig. 17). In the Eastern Pacific, however, SSTs were close to their climatological values. Anomalies in the SEP, as estimated from in-situ and satellite SST products, were less than $0.5\,^{\circ}$ C in magnitude, comparable to the discrepancies among such products, and therefore not significant. Among the data-sets used in Fig. 17, the NOAA OI most closely matches the in-situ data collected by the R. H. Brown near $20\,^{\circ}$ S in November. The UKMO OS-TIA product compares even better, but it covers an insufficient temporal span for an estimate of the interannual anomaly. Averages for the single months of October and November do not show additional significant features, although the weak warm anomalies in the Atlantic might have reinforced the relatively subdued convective activity over the Amazon basin.

Consistently with cool Central-Pacific conditions, and the corresponding expansion of the Hadley cell, the angular momentum of the atmosphere was reduced compared to its climatological values (not shown). This was accompanied by an increased atmospheric sub-polar meridional temperature gradient, reinforcing the sub-polar jets, especially in October (Fig. 18). The large-scale evolution described in the previous section might therefore not be untypical for this season in the Southern Hemisphere. However, due to these sea-level pressure anomalies, the weakening of the subtropical surface high in the SEP was stronger than usual. Conversely, at the sub-tropical latitudes of VOCALS-REx (north of 45° S), synoptic variability, as estimated from the 7-day high-pass filtered variance of the 500 hPa streamfunction in the ERA-Interim reanalysis, was below the climatological average for the period 1989–2008, especially in October (not shown). The anomaly resembles that of early November compared to October 2008 (Fig. 15, panels (b) and (a), respectively). The implication is that the strong baroclinic activity observed in October to invest the VOCALS-REx area was not by any means exceptional, and the transition to reduced mid-tropospheric synoptic variability

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probably less marked than normal.

At the end of the previous section we noted that the upper-level circulation in this period appears to have been forced remotely. Consideration of the interannual anomalies confirms and refines these suggestions. Figure 19 shows the interannual anomalies, for the same four periods of Fig. 16, of TOA OLR (green contour lines), velocity potential (colour coding), and eddy streamfunction (white contour lines). The figure highlights the evolution of a positive phase in the MJO, moving from the eastern Indian ocean to the West Pacific between late October and early November. The concomitant velocitypotential and streamfunction anomalies are consistent with a quasi-stationary Rossby wave-train emanating from the region of enhanced convection west of the date-line, which generate a Pacific-South-American (PSA) pattern, with a cyclonic centre in the SEP, in late November. A connection of this type between convective activity in the West Pacific and the occurrence of a PSA pattern of the sign given in Fig. 19 has been shown in the climatological context by Mo and Higgins (1998).

Diurnal variability

Diurnal variations are an important aspect of the meteorology of the tropical South-East Pacific and the Sc deck. In general, changes in thermal stratification are more significant than the slight variations of the circulation over the MBL, owing to the absence of local moist convection. With increased day-time insolation, the cloud-top warm and the inversion sinks, with concomitant reduction in LWP and reduced cloud cover. This process is extremely important in terms of insolation at the sea surface, as the diurnal cloud-cover minimum occurs a few hours after the maximum in solar irradiation, so that accurate representation of the diurnal cloud evolution appears crucial.

The UKMO forecast model relies on MBL turbulence parametrisations to represent the processes that drive the diurnal cycle in the MBL. The simulated a diurnal cycle in fractional cloud-cover and PBL depth is in good qualitative agreement with observations, as long as only maritime areas well away from the coast are considered (Abel et

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al., 2010). The simulated mean diurnal variations have the same qualitative character as an adiabatic night-time lifting and day-time sinking of the cloud top, concomitant with a reduction or increase, respectively, of the lower-tropospheric temperature, and an increase and reduction, respectively, of the cloud liquid water concentration (Fig. 20). This may be contrasted with the variability on synoptic time-scales, which we have seen to lead to a correlation between changes in cloud cover and in the inversion height of the opposite sign.

Superimposed on this locally, radiatively driven diurnal cycle, a number of authors (Garreaud and Munoz, 2004; Wood et al., 2009; Rahn and Garreaud, 2010a) have studied the diurnal modulation of the vertical wind in the SEP by regular gravity-wave pulses propagating offshore from the South-American coast. Such pulses affect the entire depth of the troposphere. They are associated with diurnal heating over the Andean mountain ranges, and they have a measurable effect on lower-tropospheric temperatures and the MBL-depth (Garreaud and Munoz, 2004), and on cloud liquid water (Wood et al., 2002). Figure 21 shows the associated, daily circulation anomalies for a transect along a great circle that intersects the Peruvian Andes. The mid-afternoon mountain breeze maximum (21z) excites a second-baroclinic-mode gravity-wave circulation (0z) that propagates offshore. In the lower troposphere, below the top of the mountain ridge (5 km), a positive vertical wind anomaly moves in the south-south-west direction with a speed of approximately 25 m/s (see upward arrows near 20° S at 0z, and near 26° S at 9z in the figure). Maps of vertical wind anomalies highlighting this ascending wave are shown in Garreaud and Munoz (2004) and Wood et al. (2009) using different data sources, model simulations and periods of time, demonstrating that its regular occurrence is robust and well-captured in model simulation, although there can be errors in the exact timing (Rahn and Garreaud, 2010a). Somewhat weaker gravity waves also emanate and propagate zonally from the meridionally oriented ridge of the Chilean Andes (Garreaud and Munoz, 2004).

That a combination of different waves with different origins, phases and time-scales is at play is suggested by the maps of Fig. 22, which shows the phases of the Fourier **ACPD**

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components of the vertical velocity at 5800 m with periods of 24 h and 12 h, as well as the times of maximum and minimum, for the mean diurnal cycle at each location. The phase lines of the 24-h component are broadly parallel to the Peruvian cordillera, suggesting propagation away from it. They indicate a horizontal scale of roughly 3000 km, 5 and tend to correspond to the time of maximum subsidence (+12 h). The 12-h component appears to involve smaller spatial scales and also smaller phase speeds. While its phase lines are also mainly aligned with the Peruvian coastline, a distinct, meridionally oriented area appears off the Chilean coast, indicating zonal offshore progression. Near the land-mass, its timing is close to the timing of the maximum vertical wind, i.e. anomalous ascending motion. This is consistent with the short duration of the ascending wave discussed by Garreaud and Munoz (2004) which appears to mainly depend on dry the mountain-breeze systems on the western and south-western sloped of the Andes. In addition, Munoz (2008) demonstrated that within about 10° W of the Chilean coast, differential subsidence associated with increased heating of the Andean slopes in the North has a leading-order effect on the diurnal variations of the MBL-depth and the surface pressure gradient, affecting the low-level jet and driving diurnal variations of the surface winds. These processes are likely to exert a significant control on the diurnal cycle in the area most intensively observed during VOCALS-REx (Zuidema et al., 2010). More generally, they indicate that the interplay between local, meso-scale, and large-scale processes can be very important.

The diurnal cycle over the SEP thus is forced by a combination of local irradiation, and gravity waves emanating from the predominantly dry regional mountain breeze systems. Differential heating of the slopes with different exposure to solar irradiation is undoubtedly a significant factor in determining the overall pattern and timing of the diurnal cycle in the SEP (Munoz, 2008). To what extent continental moist convective activity further afield on the eastern and northern side of the orography, and interactions with the vigorous time-mean zonal flow that crosses the orographic barrier, affect this pattern is still an open question. Isolating the sources of forcing of the diurnal cycle in the SEP, and disentangling their effect, is the objective of current investigation.

We have presented an overview of the meteorological conditions in the Sc-covered area of the subtropical anticyclone in the South-East Pacific during the period October-November 2008 when the VOCALS-REx intensive observations campaign took place. The region of interest spans an area around the 20°S parallel between the coast and 90°W. As VOCALS-REx was focussed on conditions in the maritime boundary layer (MBL), with its capping inversion and its extensive Sc cloud deck, we chiefly analyse conditions in the lower troposphere and how they varied in dependence of the circulation.

We have shown a link between the amount of low cloud present and the depth of the MBL, diagnosed as the height where the capping inversion is located. The link is consistent with the known relation between low-cloud liquid water and the "lower-tropospheric stability" (LTS) diagnostics (Klein and Hartmann, 1993; George and Wood, 2010), as well as with the relationship between the circulation and anomalies in Sc cover over subseasonal time-scales (Xu et al., 2005). Consistently with these studies, which indicate a prevalent atmospheric control on the subseasonal variability of the Sc desk, we suggest that the emergence of this link depends on the stability of the stratification across the inversion and corresponds to the maintenance of a near-vanishing jump in wet-bulb potential temperature, facilitating cloud-top entrainment.

During the period of the study, changes in the inversion height, and the associated cloud cover, occurred over several time-scales. In the area of interest, they were initially (until late October) predominantly associated with the horizontal advection of inversion-height anomalies generated upstream until late October.

Later, changes in the vertical velocity were most important. We confirm the results of Rahn and Garreaud (2010b). Diabatic effects however are not negligible, and they contribute especially with the changes in cloud cover on short time-scales, from one day to the next. This might be expected from the nature of the mean flow across the inversion, which requires entrainment in order to be maintained, and involves the

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horizontal as well as the vertical winds.

The most striking influence on the subtropical latitudes that were sampled comes from baroclinic systems originating in the southern-hemisphere storm track and located or moving north far enough to interact with the Andean orography. As the ridge is oriented in a north-south direction, and spans the depth of the lower half of the cyclones, storms are delayed in its vicinity, gradually weakening on the western side and re-forming on the eastern side of the mountain chain (Vera et al., 2002). During this time, significant temperature advection occurs in the mid-troposphere (mostly vertical and meridional), which is associated with large changes in the height of the inversion and strongly affects the cloud fields. Near the coast, along-slope flows associated with the pressure anomalies of the synoptic systems (Xu et al., 2005; Garreaud and Rutllant, 2003) contribute to alter the stratification in the lower troposphere and thus further affect the cloud. The interaction between sub-tropical cyclones and the Andean orography appears thus to play a significant role for the variability of the Sc deck, and, by implication, on the climate of the SEP.

Additionally, between the end of October and the first half of November a mid-tropospheric anticyclonic anomaly developed to the North of 20°S, following periods of intense precipitation over Northern South America. The anticyclone moved upstream (westwards), increasing the meridional temperature gradient until cyclone waves appeared at its southern flank, upstream of the VOCALS-REx area. More significantly, however, it caused the advection of air-masses lofted by convection over the continent into the middle and lower troposphere above the SEP, potentially giving a significant contribution to aerosol load there. Given that October and November 2008 overall saw reduced precipitation over South America compared with the climatology, it is possible that events like this are normally more common than was observed during the campaign. A similar effect on air-mass origin in the SEP resulted from an intense cyclone that occurred between 21–23 October, in association with the strong mid-tropospheric ridging (of smaller spatial scale and shorter duration than the November case) that preceded it.

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The slower evolution of the MBL inversion and its cloud depends on changes in the large-scale circulation, especially to the extent in which they affect tropospheric subsidence. A southward shift in the overall position of the storm track between late October and early November, which is part of the normal seasonal evolution, and, in late November, a quasi-stationary planetary wave patter, with a low centred over the SEP, and likely to have originated from convective activity anomalies in the west Pacific associated with the passage of an MJO event, are identified as factor affecting the VOCALS-REx campaign.

We also discussed the presence and possible significance of interannual anomalies during VOCALS-REx. Large-scale SSTs had a La-Nina-like anomaly pattern, and, consistently, the jet-streams were displaced further poleward than usual. At the same time, surface pressure was higher than usual in the sub-tropical anticyclone, to weaken to near-climatology later. Thus, the effect of mid-latitude storms on the SEP might have been weaker than usual during the VOCALS-REx period, while the slower seasonal changes were amplified. The concurrent anomalies in tropical precipitation (subdued over South America, and an active MJO phase occurred in the Indo-Pacific sector) and the circulation anomalies in the SEP reflected known patterns of subseasonal variability (Mo and Higgins, 1998; Robertson and Mechoso, 2000).

Finally, we give a brief overview of the mean diurnal cycle in MBL depth over the SEP (Rahn and Garreaud, 2010a and references therein), which results from a combination of local, radiatively driven changes in the MBL structure, and remotely forced vertical velocity anomalies that propagate into the SEP from the Peruvian and Chilean cordilleras as internal gravity waves.

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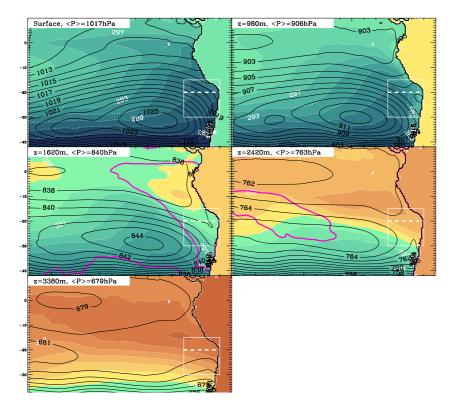


Fig. 1. Potential temperature (colour-coded, dotted contours, in K) and pressure (full black lines, in hPa) for the October–November 2008 mean in the south-east Pacific, at the surface and four different altitudes, as indicated. The pink contour lines in the third and fourth panels indicates where the diagnosed inversion intersects the horizontal section. The white box with the thick dashed line along 20S marks the area where VOCALS-REx operations took place. Data from the UKMO global operational analysis.

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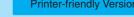
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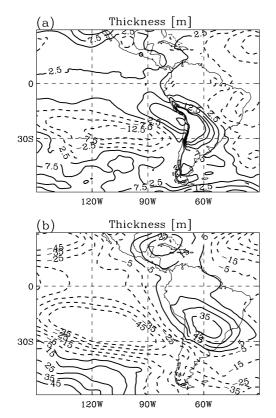


Fig. 2. Zonally asymmetric components of the 500 hPa-700 hPa and 200hPa-500hPa geopotential thickness fields (panels (a) and (b), respectively) in the eastern-Pacific/south-American sector. Shown are the time-means for the period between 1 October 2008 and 30 November 2008. Positive values are shown by the solid contours, negative values by broken contours. In panel (a), the contour interval is 5 m; in panel (b), it is 10 m. Data from UKMO operational analysis.

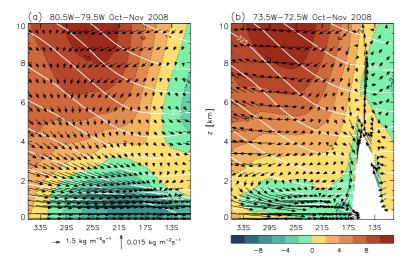


Fig. 3. Meridional transects of mean winds and isoentropes during October–November 2008. Winds are multiplied by density to give mass fluxes. Colour-coding shows zonal wind-speed, with contour interval of 2 kg m⁻² s⁻²; white lines are contours for the dry potential temperature, with a spacing of 5 K. Vector scales for the meridional and the vertical winds are given on the bottom-right. Left: section along 80 W. Right: section along 73 W. Means from 3-hourly UKMO operational analysis and 3 h–21 h forecasts are used.

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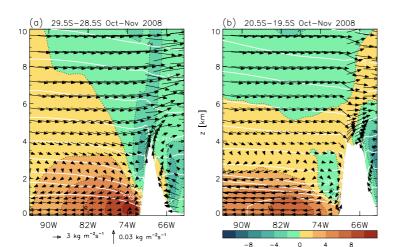


Fig. 4. As in Fig. 3, but for zonal transects along 29°S (left) and 20°S (right). Vectors for the vertical and zonal component (scales on the bottom-right), colour-coding for the meridional component. Contour intervals are the same as in Fig. 3.

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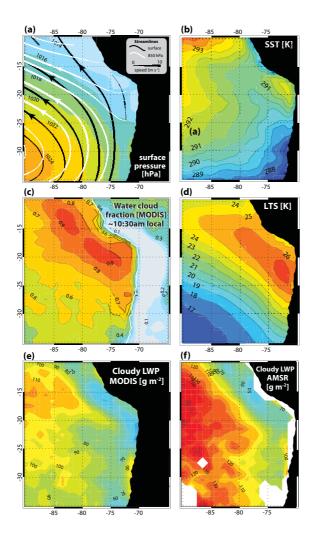


Fig. 5. See caption on next page.

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Fig. 5. October-November mean values of (a) sea level pressure (colour contours) and flow streamlines at the surface (black) and at 850 hPa (white); (b) sea-surface temperature from the NOAA Optimal Interpolation analysis; (c) fractional cover of water clouds for October-November 2008 at 10:30 a.m. local time as determined by MODIS; (d) lower tropospheric stability (LTS, difference between potential temperature at 700 hPa and surface) from the ECMWF operational analyses; (e) mean LWP for cloudy pixels from MODIS; (f) mean LWP for cloudy pixels from AMSR (AMSR LWP/MODIS warm cloud fraction). In (e) and (f), we use the area mean diurnal mean LWP from AMSR (mean of 01:30 and 13:30 LT) divided by the mean warm cloud cover from MODIS, to provide an estimate of the cloudy sky LWP.

Fig. 6. See caption on next page.

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Twice-daily snapshots (where available, 10:28 UTC, i.e. 05:08 LT at 80° W, and 19:45 UTC, or 14:25 LT) of the temperature difference ΔT between the SST (as given by the daily-mean OSTIA product; Stark et al. 2007) and the GOES Channel 5 (12 µm) brightness temperature. Values of $\Delta T < 6$ K are black and indicate virtually cloud-free regions. All values above 35 K are considered to originate from high clouds and are marked in white. Gray colours indicate low clouds, with lighter shades generally indicative of higher clouds in deeper boundary layers. The contour interval for the shading is 3 K. The GOES data have been interpolated onto the 0.05 degree-square OSTIA grid, conserving areal averages. Superimposed on ΔT imagery are meteorological data from the Met Office global operation analysis. Overlaid on the night-time fields are sea-level pressure contours from the operational analysis for the previous 00:00 UTC. The contour interval is 1.5 hPa; the 1020 hPa line is drawn in light orange colour, and the 1018.5 hPa line in light cyan. On the day-time panels, contours of the zonally asymmetric part of the 500 hPa geopotential height field are drawn, for 00:00 UTC following the image. A contour interval of 15 m is used, with positive values (at and above 5 m) in orange/red, and negative values (at and below -10 m) in cyan/blue.



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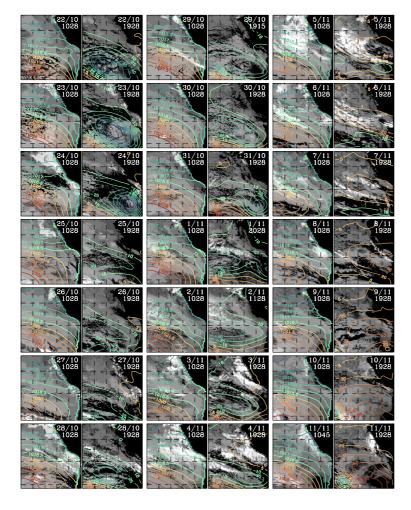


Fig. 6. Continued.

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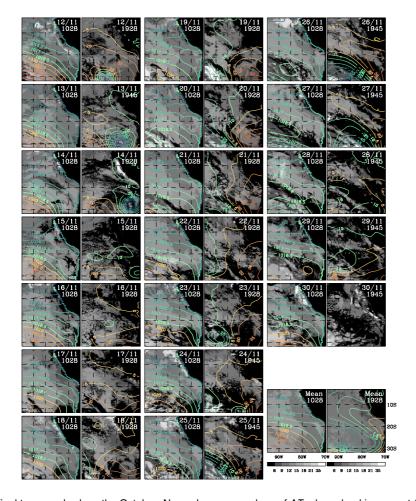


Fig. 6. The final two panels show the October–November mean values of ΔT when cloud is present (determined as being when $3 < \Delta T < 35$ K) for the morning and afternoon times, with contours of mean pressure (overlaid on morning) and 500 hPa geopotential height (afternoon).

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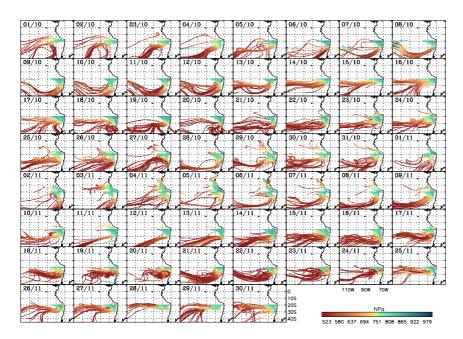


Fig. 7. Ten-day back-trajectories of air reaching 20° S between 72° W and 85° W at a lavel between 20 and 40 hPa above the inversion at 00:00 UTC for each day of October and November 2008 on 23 October 2008. Colour-coding shows the pressure at each point of each trajectory (scale at the bottom). Many trajectories extending zonally along the mid-latitude jet-streams are only visible in their initial portion. The back-trajectories are calculated from sampled ECMWF operational data, truncated at T159, using fourth-order numerical integration with a half-hour time-step, using the service made available by the British Atmospheric Data Centre, 2006–2010 (http://badc.nerc.ac.uk/data/ecmwf-trj/).

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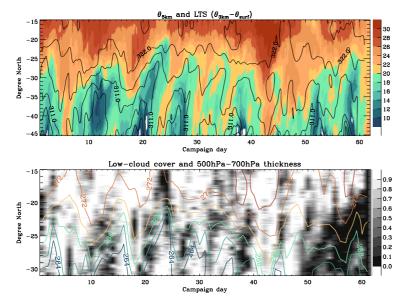


Fig. 8. (a) Lower tropospheric stability $(\theta_{700} - \theta_{surf})$ averaged over 80–85° W, as a function of time and latitude; (b) as (a) but for cloud fraction from GOES at 19:30 UTC (late afternoon), and 500–700 hPa thickness contours. Thickness and temperature data from UKMO global operational analysis and 3 h–21 h forecasts.

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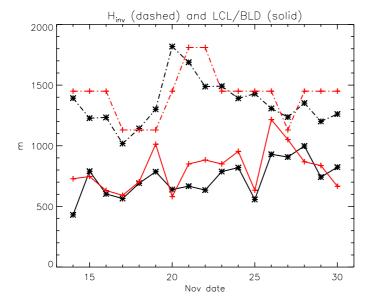


Fig. 9. Inversion height and LCL as estimated from data from R. H. Brown radiosonde launches (black lines), and diagnosed from the UKMO operational forecasts (red lines).

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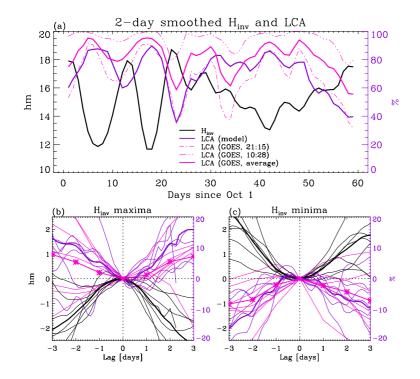


Fig. 10. (a): UKMO model-simulated inversion height (full black line) and low-cloud cover averaged over the region 90° W-80° W, 15° S-25° S. Both model-derived and satellite-derived (GOES-10) low-cloud cover are shown, in violet and magenta colours, respectively. The thin broken lines show the satellite-derived daily minima and maxima. (b) and (c): composites of inversion height and cloud cover in the region 90° W-80° W, 15° S-25° S based on the extrema of the daily-average MBL depth averaged over 90° W-80° W, 19.5° S-20.5° S.

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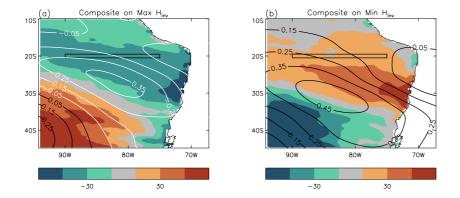


Fig. 11. Composite maps of 50 hm streamfunction anomalies and vertically integrated temperature advection in the FT above the MBL for the positive (panel a) and negative (panel b) extremes in inversion height, hinv, shown in Fig. 10. The maps show average anomalies over 48 h prior to the extrema in h_{inv} . Colour-coding refers to heat advection (units are J m⁻² s⁻¹; 100 J m⁻² s⁻¹ roughly correspond to 1 K/day mass-averaged anomalous temperature tendency in the FT). Coutour lines show the streamfunction anomalies, in units of Mm² day⁻¹. Positive values, marked by black contours, correspond to anticyclonic circulation (apparent in panel b), and negative values for cyclonic circulation. Data from operational analyses and 3 h-21 h forecasts are used.

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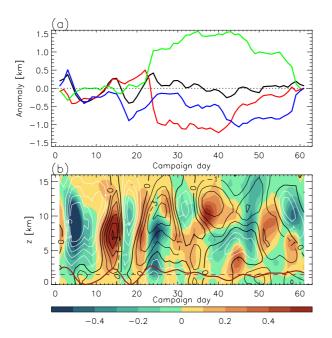


Fig. 12. (a) Time evolution of the 90° W– 80° W, 20.5° S– 19.5° S average inversion height (solid line), compared with the evolution implied by the partial tendencies associated with changes in the vertical velocity only (red line), in horizontal advection only (blue line), and in the residual, interpreted as entrainment (green line). The time-mean values of the partial tendencies were removed. **(b)** Height-time Hovmueller diagram for the 90° W– 80° W, 20.5° S– 19.5° S area average meridional (contour lines) and vertical (colour-coding) mass-flux for October–November 2008. Contour interval is $0.5 \, \text{kg/m}^2/\text{s}$ for the meridional component, and $0.5 \, \text{g/m}^2/\text{s}$ for the vertical component (the transition from cyan to yellow marks the zero line). The height of the inversion is indicated by the dark-red line, the excursions from the mean being exaggerated 3-fold for clarity. A 2-day smoothing is applied to all quantities. Data are from the operational analyses for the inversion height n panel **(a)**, and from both analyses and $3 \, \text{h}$ – $21 \, \text{h}$ forecasts for all other quantities.

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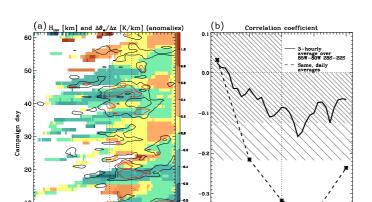


Fig. 13. (a) Hovmüller diagram (latitude along the abscissae, time along the ordinates) of inversion-height daily-mean anomalies (with respect to the mean over October–November 2008), in colours (scale to the right, in km). Areas where the an inversion (positive temperature gradient) is not diagnosed are left blank. The black contour lines comprise values below $-0.5\,\mathrm{K/km}$ for the vertical gradient of the wet-bulb potential temperature θ_w ; the red lines mark values of $-1.5\,\mathrm{K/km}$. All data are averaged between 85° W and 80° W. (b) Lag-correlations of the entrainment mass flux across the inversion and the vertical gradient in wet-bulb potential temperature θ_w . Values within the hatched areas are not formally significant (denser hatching applies to the solid line for 3-hourly data).

-10

Lag [days] of Mass Flux wrt $\Delta\theta_w/\Delta z$

-30

Latitude [degrees North]

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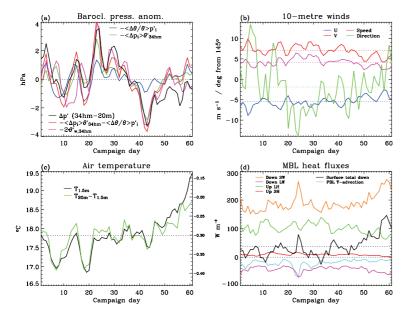


Fig. 14. Daily average surface air temperature (a), winds (b), surface air temperature depression and temperature advection (c), and latent and short-wave surface fluxes (d), diagnosed from the UKMO global operational model for the area 90° W-80° W, 25° S-15° S in October-November 2008.



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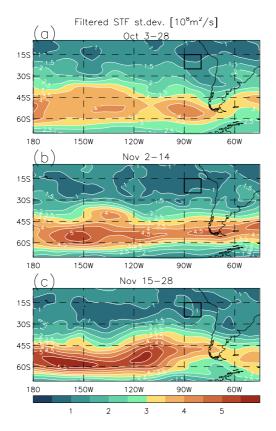


Fig. 15. (a), (b), and (c): 6-day running standard deviation of the 1-to-6-day high-pass filtered 50 hm streamfunction for three meteorologically distinct periods during the VOCALS-REx campaign. Data from the UKMO operational analyses.

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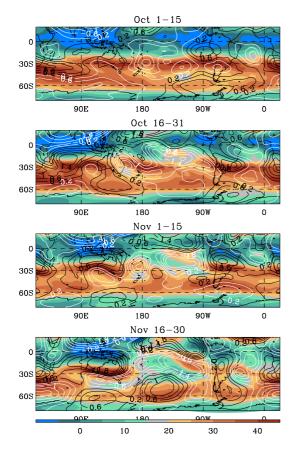


Fig. 16. Zonal wind at 200 hPa, in units of m/s, for four fortnight periods in October and November 2008 (colour coding, scale at the bottom). Contour lines show the zonally asymmetric component of the 200 hPa streamfunction. Contour interval is 4×10^6 m²/s; white contours indicate negative values (clockwise, or cyclonic, circulation in the Southern Hemisphere), and black positive values (anticlockwise, or anticyclonic, circulation). Data from UKMO operational analyses.

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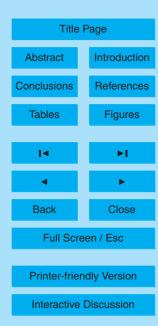


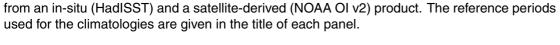
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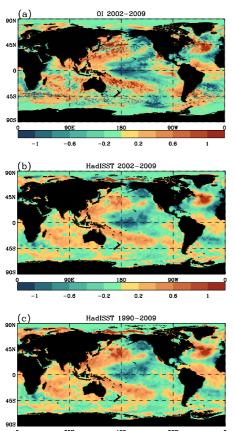
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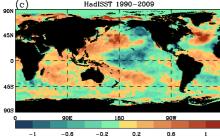
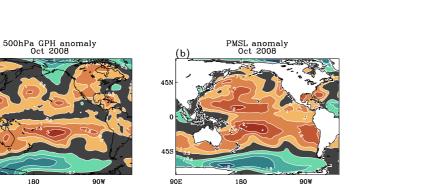
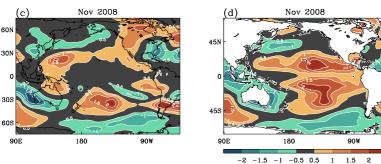


Fig. 17. SST anomalies as diagnosed for the period October-November 2008 as estimated





(a)

60N

30S

60S

90E

Fig. 18. Interannual anomalies for the months of October and November 2008. Panels (a) and (c) show the geopotential height at 500 hPa, panels (b) and (d) the anomalies in sealevel pressure. Reference climatology is for the period 1989–2008. Data from the ERA-Interim reanalysis (Simmons et al., 2006).

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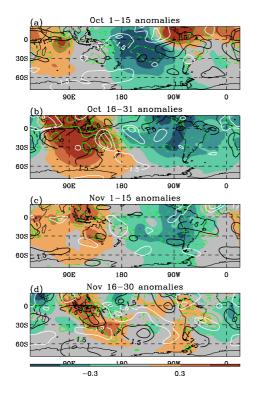


Fig. 19. Velocity potential and streamfunction anomalies at 200 hPa (colour-coding and black and white contours, respectively) from ERA-Interim, and OLR anomalies (green contours) from the NCEP CDC interpolated OLR data-set, for the four periods of Fig. 16. The units for the velocity potential are 10⁷ m²/s, and the contour interval is 2×10⁶ m²/s. The streamfunction anomalies are given in units of the local standard deviation from the 20-year monthly-mean climatology. The contour interval is 1.5, with the zero-line omitted, and contours are black for positive, and white for negative values. For OLR, the contour interval is 7 W/m², and contour lines are broken for positive values, and solid for negative values.

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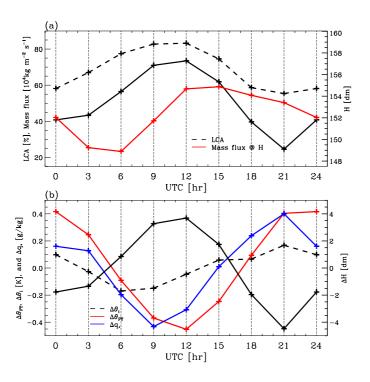


Fig. 20. Mean diurnal evolution of thermodynamic quantities near the inversion in the area 15° S– 25° S, 90° W– 80° W. **(a)** Inversion height (solid black line), cloud amount (broken line), and diagnosed mass entrainment across the inversion (red line) as a function of time of the day. **(b)** Inversion height anomalies (solid line) together with the lower-tropospheric ($z = 2200 \,\text{m}$) potential temperature (red line), the MBL-top potential temperature (broken line), and the MBL-top saturation mixing ratio (blue line) as a function of the time of the day. Data from the UKMO operational analyses and $3 \,\text{h}$ – $21 \,\text{h}$ forecasts.

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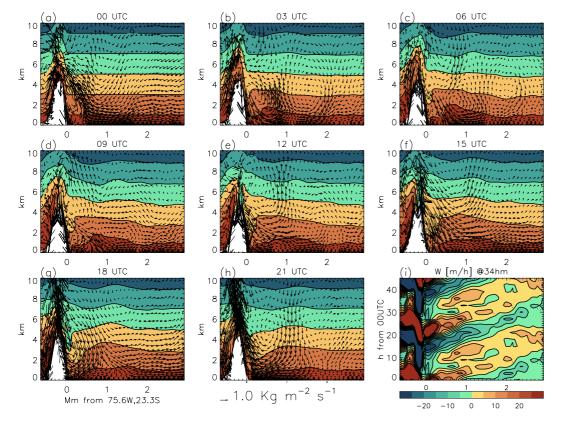


Fig. 21. (a)-(h): Snapshots of the mean circulation through a daily cycle along a great-circle at a right angle to the South-Peruvian organic slope and intersecting the coastline at 75.6° W. 23.3° S. The long-term mean circulation has been removed and average anomalies for the time of the day are shown as indicated at the top of each panel in hours UTC. The abscissae indicate offshore distances in Mm, and the ordinates vertical heights in km. The arrows represent two components of the flow, the offshore and the vertical mass fluxes (scale arrow at the bottom of panel (h)). The colour-filled contour lines depict the nominal displacement (exaggerated 10-fold) of constant-height surfaces at 00 z (panel (a), shown at intervals of 2 km starting from 1 km) as obtained from the time-integrated anomalies in the vertical velocity. (i): Hovmueller diagram for the vertical velocity anomalies, in metres per hour, as a function of time (increasing upwards) and offshore distance for a twice repeated daily cycle.

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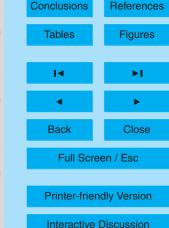
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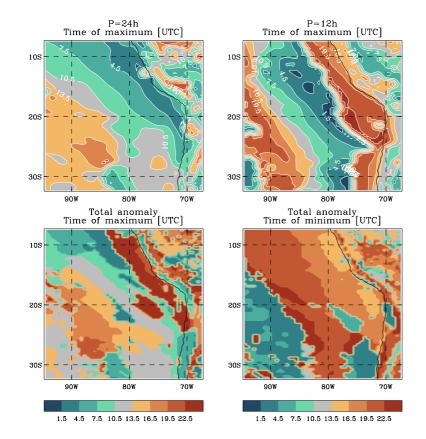


Fig. 22. Top: negative phase offset, in hours, of the cosine component of 24-h (left) and 12-h (right) period of the vertical velocity anomalies at 5800 m for the mean diurnal cycle in the SEP. Bottom: approximate time of maximum (positive, left) and time of minimum (negative, right) in the 5800 m vertical wind anomalies. The data frequency used, from the UKMO model, is three-hourly (operational analyses plus 3 h–21 h forecasts).