

# Ocean-Cloud-Atmosphere-Land Interactions in the Southeastern Pacific: The VOCALS Program

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## **Abstract**

The present paper describes the VAMOS Ocean-Cloud-Atmosphere-Land Study (VOCALS), an international research program focused upon improved understanding and modeling of the southeastern Pacific (SEP) climate system on diurnal to interannual timescales. In the framework of the SEP climate, VOCALS has been addressing two fundamental objectives: 1) improved simulations with coupled atmosphere-ocean general circulation models (CGCMs) with an emphasis on reducing systematic errors in the region, and 2) improved estimates of the indirect effects of aerosols on low clouds and climate, with an emphasis on a more precise quantification of those effects. VOCALS major scientific activities are outlined, and selected achievements are highlighted. Activities described include monitoring, a large international field campaign (the VOCALS Regional Experiment), and two model assessments. The program has produced significant advances in the understanding of major issues in the SEP: the coastal circulation and the diurnal cycle, the ocean heat budget, factors controlling precipitation and formation and formation of pockets of open cells in the stratocumulus decks, aerosol impacts on clouds, and estimation of the first aerosol indirect effect. The paper concludes with a brief presentation on VOCALS contribution to capacity building before a summary of current activities, science findings and remaining questions.

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65 Capsule: New focused measurements, analyses, and modeling of the Southeast Pacific climate  
66 system are helping to improve our understanding of the atmospheric and oceanic processes and  
67 their interactions in the eastern tropical ocean regions.

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## 70 **1. Introduction**

71 The VAMOS<sup>1</sup> Ocean-Cloud-Atmosphere-Land Study (VOCALS) is an international  
72 research program focused upon improved understanding and modeling of the southeastern  
73 Pacific (SEP) climate system on diurnal to interannual timescales. The SEP is very important in  
74 many ways: It produces nearly a fifth of the global fish catch (UNEP 2005) and variations in its  
75 climate can have global reach through teleconnections and aerosol indirect effects.

76 The SEP is characterized by strong coastal ocean upwelling, the coldest sea surface  
77 temperatures (SSTs) at comparable latitudes, the planet's most extensive subtropical  
78 stratocumulus deck, and a high and steep cordillera to the east (Fig. 1). The regional climate is  
79 defined by strong interactions between the ocean, atmosphere, land, clouds, and aerosol particles,  
80 providing extraordinary challenges to numerical simulations and model-based predictions of  
81 climate variability and change. Anthropogenic emissions of pollutants along the Chilean and  
82 Peruvian coasts enter otherwise extremely pristine air masses over the Pacific Ocean, providing  
83 extreme spatial contrasts in aerosol and cloud microphysical properties. A deeper and broader  
84 understanding of the physical-chemical processes that shape such a complex climate system is  
85 invaluable and will provide guidance on how these processes may be better represented in  
86 numerical models. In the framework of the SEP climate, VOCALS has been addressing two  
87 fundamental objectives: 1) improved simulations with coupled atmosphere-ocean general  
88 circulation models (CGCMs) with an emphasis on reducing systematic errors in the region  
89 (Mechozo et al. 1995; Davey et al. 2001; de Szoeko et al. 2008), and 2) improved estimates of

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<sup>1</sup> VAMOS stands for Variability of the American Monsoon Systems, a panel of the World Climate Research Programme (WCRP)/Climate Variability Programme (CLIVAR). VOCALS researchers acknowledge the community that originated and nurtured the program.

90 the indirect effects of aerosols on low clouds and climate, with an emphasis on a more precise  
91 quantification of those effects (Lohmann and Feichter 2005; Quaas et al. 2009).

92         The VOCALS program builds on a solid bedrock of knowledge about the SEP climate,  
93 its variability, and the global impacts of such variability (Mechoso and Wood 2010). The  
94 program followed the Eastern Pacific Investigation of Climate (EPIC), which investigated the  
95 Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ)/cold-tongue complex and marine boundary layer (MBL)  
96 clouds over the SEP (Bretherton et al. 2004). An instrumented mooring installed during EPIC in  
97 October 2000 at 20°S, 85°W by the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution (hereafter the WHOI  
98 buoy; Colbo and Weller 2007; 2009) has monitored for over a decade the diurnal to interannual  
99 variability of regional meteorology, clouds, and upper ocean structure. A second mooring  
100 maintained by the Chilean Navy Hydrographic and Oceanographic Service close to (20°S,  
101 75°W) (hereafter the SHOA buoy) collected data for two years with additional instrumentation  
102 added by WHOI. Annual buoy-tending cruises drove opportunities for shipborne atmospheric  
103 and ocean sampling (e.g., Tomlinson et al. 2007; Serpetzoglou et al. 2008; Zuidema et al. 2009;  
104 de Szoeki et al. 2010; and references therein). Other cruises and field campaigns organized in  
105 the region with invaluable participation from scientists from Chile and Peru had provided unique  
106 context on the coastal atmospheric and ocean circulations (e.g., the CIMAR-5 cruise, Garreaud et  
107 al. 2001; Painemal et al. 2010). VOCALS also builds on an important body of modeling work on  
108 the SEP climate. It is widely recognized that clouds in the subsiding regions of the eastern  
109 tropical oceans drive uncertainty in climate sensitivity simulated by numerical models (Bony and  
110 Dufresne 2005). In the specific context of the eastern Pacific climate, it is known that  
111 stratocumulus cloud decks are essential for key features such as the asymmetry about the equator  
112 and annual cycle dominated by the semi-annual component (Philander et al. 1996; Ma et al.

113 1996; Yu and Mechoso 1999a,b; Zhang et al. 2005). Satellite data and the first cloud-focused  
114 research cruise over the SEP also indicated that the clouds are typified by extremely strong  
115 gradients in the concentration of cloud droplets (Bretherton et al. 2004; Bennartz 2007) and that  
116 these gradients could drive major impacts on the radiative budget of the region. VOCALS is  
117 also informed from the knowledge that the SEP stratocumulus deck is frequently punctuated by  
118 regions of open cellular convection that had been termed Pockets of Open Cells (POCs, Stevens  
119 et al. 2005). The transition from closed to open cells driving POC formation appeared to be  
120 driven by processes internal to the MBL (Wood and Hartmann 2006). It was also recognized that  
121 stratocumulus cloud albedo is sensitive to both natural and anthropogenic atmospheric aerosols  
122 (Twomey et al. 1974, 1977), both of which are produced in the SEP by desert dust, copper  
123 smelters (Huneeus et al. 2006) and urban areas.

124         Despite such an impressive background, major gaps in the knowledge of the SEP climate  
125 remained, which motivated the VOCALS program. Sea surface temperatures (SSTs) simulated  
126 by CGCMs were too warm by ~2-4 K and cloudiness was too low by ~50% (e.g., Ma et al. 1996).  
127 Reducing those errors required additional data for model validation and development. The  
128 WHOI buoy had started to produce clues that required further exploration. The buoy data  
129 showed that the mean surface fluxes of heat and freshwater in the SEP act to make the surface  
130 waters warmer and saltier, but the mean ocean circulation, including geostrophic and Ekman  
131 transport and upwelling, appeared insufficient to balance those fluxes (Colbo and Weller 2007).  
132 Furthermore, research on marine low clouds was (still is) desperately needed to overcome the  
133 CGCMs difficulties with their simulation and improve quantification of the Earth's climate  
134 sensitivity. Most climate models represent these indirect effects of aerosols (AIEs) on climate,  
135 but their magnitude differs widely across models (Lohmann and Feichter 2005; Quaas et al.

136 2009). Key issues hampering better quantification of AIEs center upon the impacts of aerosols  
137 on precipitation and cloud mesoscale organization, the transport of continental aerosols to the  
138 remote ocean, and the processing of aerosols by clouds. The few in-situ measurements of POCs  
139 prior to VOCALS had shown the association of POCs with strong drizzle (Van Zanten and  
140 Stevens 2005; Sharon et al. 2006; Comstock et al. 2005, 2007) and very low aerosol  
141 concentrations (Petters et al. 2006, Sharon et al. 2006, Wood et al. 2008), consistent with strong  
142 precipitation scavenging. Large eddy simulation (LES) studies had suggested that low aerosol  
143 concentrations could promote open cell formation (Savic-Jovcic and Stevens 2008).

144 The present paper describes VOCALS, outlines key scientific activities within the  
145 program, and highlights selected achievements. We start in section 2 by describing the major  
146 research activities in the program. Section 3 details the importance of coastal circulations.  
147 Section 4 highlights issues associated with the ocean heat budget in the SEP. Section 5 describes  
148 new research on aerosol-cloud-precipitation interactions. Section 6 discusses how regional and  
149 large scale modeling is helping to address VOCALS science questions. Section 7 briefly presents  
150 capacity building, before a summary of current activities, science findings and remaining  
151 questions.

## 152 **2. Research Activities**

153 VOCALS research has been organized around two broad sets of hypotheses on coupled  
154 ocean-atmosphere-land interactions and aerosol-cloud-precipitation (Wood et al. 2011a). Starting  
155 from the hypotheses, a verification strategy was designed to provide the strongest possible  
156 synergy between long-term observations and monitoring, intensive field measurements, and  
157 modeling. The following subsections highlight activities in these three categories.

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159 *a Monitoring: Surface fluxes and drivers over the SEP*

160 Data collected by the WHOI buoy has allowed for the compilation of a surface  
161 climatology and air-sea fluxes during the period 2001-2010. At the mooring location and in the  
162 annual mean, a remarkably consistent southeasterly wind of  $\sim 6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  drives latent heat fluxes  
163 exceeding  $100 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . Surface precipitation is negligible. The net annual mean surface heat flux  
164 is approximately  $35 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (positive values indicate ocean warming), with values ranging from  
165  $21 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (in 2009) to  $60 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (in 2001). Wind speed, air and sea surface temperature and  
166 shortwave radiation have marked annual cycles. The annual cycle of net surface heat flux is  
167 driven primarily by that in net shortwave radiation because evaporation is approximately  
168 constant throughout the year. The upper ocean responds to the surface forcing, with the warmest  
169 temperatures and shallowest surface mixed layers occurring in austral fall and the coolest  
170 temperatures and deepest mixed layer seen in early spring (Fig. 2). Salinity in the upper ocean  
171 also has a seasonal cycle with the shallow summer mixed layer becoming saltier in response to  
172 the evaporation. A layer of fresher water (the Eastern South Pacific Intermediate Water;  
173 Schneider et al. 2003) lies at a depth of 150 to 250 m below the surface layer.

174 *b The field campaign: VOCALS-REx*

175 VOCALS-REx took place during October and November 2008, when some 150 scientists  
176 from 40 institutions in 8 nations gathered in the coast of northern Chile to conduct the field study  
177 (Wood et al. 2011a; see Fig. 3). Operations took place in the domain  $12\text{-}31^\circ\text{S}$ ,  $69\text{-}86^\circ\text{W}$ . In this  
178 region, conditions in the atmosphere and upper ocean were near-average with El Niño/Southern  
179 Oscillation (ENSO) in its neutral phase. The synoptic forcing was significant during the first half  
180 of VOCALS-REx and weak with uninterrupted subsidence during the second half (Rahn and  
181 Garreaud 2010b). Sampling concentrated along  $20^\circ\text{S}$  from the Chilean coast ( $70^\circ\text{W}$ ) to the

182 WHOI buoy (85°W). This latitude line was chosen because it transects the heart of the SEP  
183 stratocumulus sheet (Klein and Hartmann 1993; George and Wood 2010), exhibits strong  
184 longitudinal microphysical contrasts (Bennartz 2007; Wood et al. 2008; George and Wood 2010;  
185 Painemal and Zuidema 2010; Bretherton et al. 2010a), crosses a region of frequent open cell  
186 formation (Wood et al. 2008), shows evidence of mesoscale ocean eddy activity (e.g. Colbo and  
187 Weller 2007; Toniazzo et al. 2009; Colas et al. 2012a,b), and had already been sampled on six  
188 previous buoy-tending cruises (e.g., Zuidema et al. 2009; de Szoeki et al., 2010; and references  
189 therein). A total of five aircraft (the NSF/NCAR C-130, the DoE G-1, the CIRPAS Twin Otter,  
190 and the British FAAM BAe-146 and NERC Dornier 220) from locations on the Chilean coast  
191 sampled clouds, aerosols, precipitation, and lower tropospheric structure. The long range of the  
192 C-130 and BAe-146 allowed them to operate over the remote ocean over 1000 km offshore. The  
193 other aircraft operated primarily in the region to the east of 80°W. A number of different flight  
194 patterns were flown (Wood et al. 2011a). Several aircraft flew missions along lines of constant  
195 latitude (primarily 20°S) from the coast westward. The Twin Otter flew all its missions in the  
196 near coastal region from Iquique to Point Alpha (20°S 72°W, Zheng et al. 2011). Two research  
197 vessels (the NOAA Ship Ronald H Brown (RHB) and the Peruvian IMARPE R/V José Olaya)  
198 participated in Rex from ports in Chile and Perú. The RHB carried an extensive suite of aerosol  
199 instruments, cloud/precipitation remote sensing, rawinsondes, and oceanographic instruments to  
200 map the structure of the upper ocean, and in particular locate and investigate mesoscale ocean  
201 features (Whelan et al. 2009). The R/V Olaya (Grados et al. 2010; Wood et al. 2011) obtained  
202 many profiles and radiosonde launches off the Pisco-San Juan area in southern Perú (13-15°S)  
203 and gathered biochemical data and hydroacoustic estimates of fish abundance. In addition, an  
204 autonomous underwater vehicle (glider) completed 9 transects perpendicular to the continental

205 slope obtaining very high resolution information of the ocean currents and other physical  
206 properties. A coastal supersite situated in Paposo in northern Chile (25.0°S, 70.3°W) provided a  
207 suite of meteorological (surface and upper air; Ruttant et al. 2012) and air chemistry and aerosol  
208 measurements (Grados et al. 2010; Chand et al. 2010). Radiosonde launches were also performed  
209 at Iquique (20.3°S, 70.1°W) and complemented at Antofagasta (23.5°S) where the Chilean  
210 Weather Service maintains a regular station.

### 211 *c. Model assessment*

212 In preparation for VOCALS, a Preliminary Model Assessment (PreVOCA) of the  
213 simulated SEP climate was conducted with an emphasis on the clouds and the MBL. Results  
214 from operational forecast, regional, and global climate models were contrasted for the month of  
215 October 2006 (Wyant et al. 2010). In general, the models agreed on large-scale dynamics, but  
216 performed poorly on cloud properties. The models had great difficulties with the geographic  
217 distribution of low cloud cover, with only a few models agreeing well with satellite observations.  
218 Most models underestimated MBL depth near the coast at 20°S, and the liquid water path and its  
219 diurnal cycle at the WHOI buoy and to the east of it. The near-coastal inversion base height  
220 simulated by regional numerical models is about half of the observed values. This problem is  
221 common to several models [MM5 (Garreaud and Muñoz 2006), WRF (Rahn and Garreaud  
222 2010a,b), COAMPS (Wang et al. 2011), and MetUM (Abel et al. 2010)] and does not disappear  
223 with increasing resolution or by changing turbulence schemes. In contrast, the analysis of a high-  
224 resolution WRF simulation concluded that the bias in simulated inversion height may be at least  
225 partly caused by increased subsidence aloft due to excessive onshore flow that in reality is  
226 strongly blocked by the coastal range (Rahn and Garreaud 2010a,b; Wang et al. 2012). The  
227 shallow MBL in the models is usually accompanied by lack of clouds in the near coastal region;

228 but the near-shore surface wind field parallel to the coast is well reproduced in general.

229 A follow-on VOCALS assessment, VOCA, has been completed ([see](http://www.atmos.washington.edu/~mwyant/vocals/model/VOCA_Model_Spec.htm)  
230 [www.atmos.washington.edu/~mwyant/vocals/model/VOCA\\_Model\\_Spec.htm](http://www.atmos.washington.edu/~mwyant/vocals/model/VOCA_Model_Spec.htm)). This assessment  
231 focuses on four global models including aerosol-cloud processes, and four regional chemical  
232 transport models (three of which are versions of WRF-Chem). The period selected is 15 October  
233 - 15 November 2008 to use the extensive in-situ observations from VOCALS-REx. Figure 4  
234 compares the model simulations with aircraft observations of mean cloud droplet number and  
235 MBL boundary-layer sulfate aerosol mass concentrations along 20°S averaged over the selected  
236 period. All models show increasing of sulfate near the Chilean coast due to upwind  
237 anthropogenic sources, but its magnitude and effect on the cloud droplet number vary widely  
238 between models. The models also showed consistent underestimation of free-tropospheric cloud  
239 condensation nucleus concentration over the remote SEP.

240 Another model assessment addressed the simulations of the SEP surface heat budget by  
241 CGCMs from the Third Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP3; de Szoeke et al. 2010).  
242 The study concentrated on mean October values along the 20°S line from 75-85°W (between the  
243 WHOI and the SHOA buoys). Annual cruises servicing those moorings (section 2a) allowed for  
244 reliable estimates of the climatological mean surface heat and radiative fluxes to be calculated,  
245 which proved to be in good agreement with three satellite and reanalysis-based surface flux data  
246 sets. In October, the mean net solar heating warms the ocean by  $\sim 200 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ , while longwave  
247 radiation and evaporation cool by  $25 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  and  $90 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  respectively, and sensible heat flux  
248 cools by only  $5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (Fig. 5a). A residual cooling of some  $30 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  must be provided to a  
249  $\sim 50 \text{ m}$  thick ocean mixed layer to limit the seasonal SST warming to the observed value of  $\sim 0.7^\circ$   
250  $\text{K month}^{-1}$ . Some  $10 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  of solar radiation is estimated to penetrate the 50 m mixed layer

251 (Zhang et al. 2011). The ocean must provide  $20 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  cooling, therefore, to balance its heat  
252 budget. Observations and models were ranked by their net solar radiation (Fig. 5b). All CGCMs  
253 analyzed have at least  $30 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  too much solar warming. Half of the solar radiation bias is  
254 compensated by an increase in longwave cooling (Fig. 5c). These errors are largely explained by  
255 weak cloud radiative forcing due to insufficient cloud fraction (Fig. 5d). The lateral ocean  
256 cooling, found as a residual, varies among models, but is usually underestimated and can even  
257 have the wrong sign.

### 258 **3. The coastal circulation**

#### 259 *a. Wind and MBL structure*

260 The data collected by the R/V Olaya reveal a great deal of alongshore variability of the  
261 near surface wind field with local maxima just to the north of major headlands and minima farther  
262 downstream (e.g., Rahn et al. 2011), imprinting the upper ocean of these regions. The seasonal  
263 mean height of the MBL inversion, on the other hand, is remarkably uniform at about 1000 m  
264 above sea level along the coast for more than 700 km between Arica ( $18^\circ\text{S}$ ) and Papeo ( $25^\circ\text{S}$ )  
265 although SST cools gradually from north to south (Rahn and Garreaud 2010a). This height of the  
266 MBL inversion coincides with the coastal range elevation, which is quite uniform over this range  
267 of latitudes. The inversion height remains about constant at least up to 200 km offshore. In the  
268 near coastal zone the MBL tends to be cloud capped and well mixed, with the maximum  
269 inversion strength at 100-200 km off the coast.

270 Synoptic-scale disturbances (upper-level troughs and cutoff lows) propagating from  
271 midlatitudes into the subtropics can intermittently strengthen subsidence and deepening of the  
272 coastal MBL up to 1500 m (Rutllant et al. 2012) in northern Chile and also offshore (Rahn and  
273 Garreaud 2010b; Toniazzo et al. 2011). These synoptic conditions are associated with more

274 polluted but also thinner coastal clouds, with the thin clouds limiting the overall radiative impact  
275 of the aerosols trapped in the marine boundary layer (Painemal and Zuidema, 2010; George and  
276 Wood, 2010; Twohy et al. 2012). Offshore, the southerly winds above the marine boundary  
277 layers are weakened, increasing the offshore lower tropospheric stability and offshore cloud  
278 cover (Painemal and Zuidema, 2010; Wyant et al., 2010).

279 *b. Diurnal cycle of cloud and precipitation over the SEP*

280 Ship observations capture diurnal cycles of cloud fraction, liquid water path,  
281 thermodynamic decoupling between the surface and cloud, and precipitation (de Szoeki et al.  
282 2012; Burleyson et al. 2013). The strongest diurnal cycles are related to the diurnal cycle of  
283 MBL depth. Cloud fraction, cloud thickness, liquid water path, and precipitation increase at night  
284 when solar warming of the cloud top ceases, but longwave cooling continues. The displacement  
285 between cloud base and the lifting condensation level (LCL) of air at the surface is a  
286 thermodynamic proxy for turbulent decoupling and suppressed mixing between the surface layer  
287 and the cloud. Cloud base-LCL displacement grows during the day, but the cloud rapidly  
288 recouples to the surface layer at night. Cloud fraction is reduced during the day as the cloud rises  
289 and entrains dry air, while moisture flux from the surface layer to the cloud is suppressed  
290 through the stable subcloud boundary layer. Precipitation has a diurnal maximum in the early  
291 morning. West of 80°W, the precipitation begins to decrease before the sun rises, raising the  
292 possibility that the precipitation limits itself. Perhaps sub-cloud evaporative cooling of rain  
293 establishes a local stable layer sufficient to reduce the precipitation. Decoupling and precipitation  
294 are stronger in the mean west of 80°W, and have stronger diurnal cycles west of 80°W than east  
295 of 80°W.

296 The diurnal cycle of cloud properties over the SEP shows significant semidiurnal  
297 contribution with especially strong amplitude close to the Peruvian and Chilean coastline in  
298 October but also reaching locations over 1500 km offshore (Garreaud and Muñoz 2004; O'Dell  
299 et al. 2008; Wood et al. 2009; Zuidema et al. 2009; Rahn and Garreaud, 2010a, de Szoeker et al.  
300 2012). These behavior highlights that factors other than solar radiation are important for the  
301 diurnal cycle of clouds and precipitation over the SEP. Toniazzo et al. (2011) on the basis of  
302 simulations with the Weather and Research Forecast (WRF) regional model, showed that the  
303 diurnal variability over the SEP is the result of superposition of a locally solar-induced diurnal  
304 cycle and remotely forced, propagating signals forced by the thermally direct circulations over  
305 the west- and south-west facing slopes of the Andes. A deep wave with a 24-hour period is  
306 generated over the Peruvian orography, and moves southwestward, and a weaker, shallower  
307 wave with a significant semi-diurnal component propagates westward from the Chilean  
308 orography. These waves are primarily confined to the lower troposphere, and their impact on the  
309 inversion at the top of the MBL is substantial within ~5 degrees from the coast. As they move  
310 towards the open ocean, the remotely generate down and upwelling waves can be either in phase,  
311 out of phase or phase lagged with respect to variation locally forced by solar radiation. Since the  
312 waves gradually disperse or dissipate while propagating, a clear semidiurnal signal appears only  
313 near coastal regions.

#### 314 *c. Ocean upwelling and mesoscale eddies*

315 The coastal ocean along the Chilean and Peruvian coasts is characterized by upwelling  
316 that drives ocean biological productivity and is a key source region for mesoscale ocean eddies  
317 (Grados et al. 2010; Garreaud et al. 2011). The surface alongshore ocean circulation in the  
318 northern boundary of the most intense upwelling cell of Peru - the Pisco-San Juan upwelling -

319 was studied at a weekly frequency during VOCALS-REx with a Slocum glider. The glider  
320 measured temperature, salinity, fluorescence and oxygen at a high spatial resolution ( $\sim 2$  km)  
321 along a  $\sim 100$  km cross-shore section near  $14^{\circ}\text{S}$ . Using the drift of the glider between two dives  
322 and T-S profiles for thermal wind allowed to compute the absolute geostrophic current over the  
323 200-m deep surface layer. The offshore surface equatorward jet and nearshore subsurface  
324 poleward undercurrent display a high variability at weekly time scales (Fig. 6), generating  
325 variable horizontal and vertical shear for instabilities. These measurements also provided  
326 invaluable insights on the submesoscale upwelling dynamics responsible for the subsurface  
327 cross-isopycnal salinity intrusions (Pietri et al. 2012).

328 Chaigneau et al. (2011) used Argo float profiles and satellite altimetry data to estimate  
329 the mean vertical structure of mesoscale eddies in the Peru-Chile Current System. Their  
330 estimates are consistent with the core of cyclonic eddies being centered at  $\sim 150$  m depth, and  
331 that of the anticyclonic eddies below the thermocline at  $\sim 400$  m depth. They also argue that each  
332 cyclonic and anticyclonic eddy yields to a heat and salt transport anomaly of  $\pm 1-3 \times 10^{11}$  W and  
333  $\pm 3-8 \times 10^3$  kg  $\text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively. These eddies propagate westward across the area of VOCALS  
334 region, contribute the dominant signal in oceanic velocities at the WHOI buoy, and influence  
335 biology (Chelton et al. 2011).

#### 336 **4. The ocean heat budget**

337 Unveiling the mechanisms for cooling of the ocean column under the stratocumulus has  
338 been one of VOCALS main concerns. As indicated in the Introduction, Colbo and Weller (2007)  
339 suggested that the mean ocean circulation, including geostrophic and Ekman transport, may be  
340 insufficient to balance the warming of the ocean column by surface heat fluxes. In a first attempt  
341 to shed light on this issue, Toniazzo et al (2009) examined heat transport by ocean eddies away

342 from the coast by using HiGEM, a CGCM with relatively high resolution in the global ocean  
343 ( $1/3^\circ \times 1/3^\circ$ ). In the SEP, HiGEM simulates significant contributions to the long-term mean heat  
344 budget of the water column from heat advection by ocean transients with length scales of 200-  
345 450 km, and time scales between 4 month and one year. At least part of the heat advection is due  
346 to transients associated with an intrusion of fresh water from higher latitudes along the east-  
347 Pacific coast. This contribution is highly variable both in space and time, and its magnitude at the  
348 location of the WHOI buoy is consistent with the estimate by Colbo and Weller (2007). The  
349 contribution of eddies further out at  $85^\circ\text{W}$  is unclear and can be of either sign in the ocean  
350 interior (see also Zheng et al. 2010). Holte et al (2012), based on the analysis of observational  
351 data from the region found that the contribution of the eddy heat flux to the surface layer is, on  
352 average, small over the SEP.

353         The heat budget problem was addressed by Colas et al. (2012a,b) using a regional, eddy-  
354 resolving ocean model ( $7.5\text{km} \times 7.5\text{km}$ ). According to the results, an important component of the  
355 lateral heat flux is by mesoscale eddies in the pycnocline, associated with an adiabatic down-  
356 gradient release of available potential energy and an eddy-induced Lagrangian overturning  
357 circulation largely in the opposite sense to the Eulerian mean upwelling circulation. The  
358 offshore vertical heat balance is then completed by a shallow submesoscale restratification  
359 buoyancy and heat flux in a second cell of eddy-induced circulation within the surface boundary  
360 layer and upper pycnocline, where it is significantly diabatic (cross-isentrope) in combination  
361 with (and opposition to) diabatic downward heat flux from the boundary layer turbulent mixing.  
362 In both these circulations the eddy heat flux is primarily shoreward and upward. Colas et al  
363 (2012a) also found that cyclonic vortices tend to dominate the surface field, whereas anticyclonic  
364 vortices dominate the subsurface. The Undercurrent sheds coherent subsurface anticyclones with

365 warm and salty cores, in agreement with the observational results of Chaigneau et al. (2011; see  
366 subsection 3c).

367         Some controversy remains in the understanding about the vertical heat fluxes in the upper  
368 ocean and their role on the SST.. In the results of Colas et al. (2009), in the surface layer the  
369 divergence of the heat flux by eddies corresponds to heating and that by the mean flow  
370 corresponds to cooling. The integrated heat flux divergence in parts of the ocean column must  
371 be balanced through vertical heat transports by turbulence, sub-mesoscale eddy, and possibly  
372 other effects yet to be determined. A better understanding of these effects may require long time  
373 series of upper ocean measurements.

## 374 **5. Aerosol-cloud-precipitation interactions**

375         One of VOCALS central goals is the better understanding of interactions between clouds,  
376 aerosols and precipitation. VOCALS-REx observations were collected to address factors  
377 controlling precipitation and POC formation, how anthropogenic pollution is transported to the  
378 MBL and affects cloud microphysics, and the role played by precipitation in removing aerosol  
379 particles from the atmosphere. This section highlights a few of the new findings.

380 *a. Structure of a stratocumulus region: clouds, MBL structure and aerosols along 20°S.*

381         The 20°S synthesis constructed using data from the five aircraft and the RHB  
382 participating in VOCALS-REx (see Fig. 7) provides insight into the processes controlling  
383 stratocumulus variability on the regional and synoptic scales (Bretherton et al. 2010a; Allen et al.  
384 2011), and is being used to test climate models (section 6c). Cloud top, situated immediately  
385 beneath a strong inversion, rises sharply from the coast offshore (Fig 7a). (Here data from the  
386 seven research cruises in the VOCALS region were used to build a climatology). A concomitant  
387 rise in cloud base means that ~50% of the clouds sampled were considered decoupled from the

388 surface (Jones et al. 2011). Low cloud cover remains above 80% over the entire transect, but the  
389 amount of condensate almost doubles offshore (Fig 7b) because cloud thickness increases. This  
390 helps to drive stronger precipitation offshore (Fig 7c). Reduced cloud droplet concentrations due  
391 to lower aerosol concentrations offshore (Fig 7d) also likely increase the offshore precipitation  
392 gradient (Terai et al. 2012), but cloud resolving modeling suggests that cloud top height may  
393 have a stronger control on precipitation than aerosols (Mechem et al. 2012). Along 20°S the  
394 submicron aerosol is dominated by sulfates (Fig. 7e), with organic species accounting for less  
395 than 30% of the aerosol mass (Hawkins et al. 2010; Allen et al. 2011) and less than this in the  
396 more unpolluted airmasses over the remote ocean (Shank et al. 2012). The increased sulfate  
397 loading near the coast is driven primarily by anthropogenic pollutants from smelters and the  
398 Santiago megacity (Yang et al. 2011, Saide et al. 2012a) rather than by enhanced DMS near the  
399 coast. On the other hand, DMS is the primary source in the sulfate mass budget over the remote  
400 ocean west of 80°W where VOCALS observations showed that DMS sea-air fluxes and  
401 atmospheric concentrations are greater than those near the coast (Yang et al. 2009).

402 *b. Pockets of open cells: extreme coupling between clouds, aerosols and precipitation*

403 Flights were dedicated during VOCAL-REx to study the spatial transition between POCs  
404 and overcast stratocumulus, and the relative influence of aerosols and meteorology on POC  
405 formation. The RHB also sampled POCs (Waliser et al. 2012) during REx. All of the POCs  
406 sampled during VOCALS showed strong microphysical gradients across the boundaries (Painter  
407 et al. 2012) and ultraclean layers (Wood et al. 2011b) near the MBL top. It appears, therefore,  
408 that the microphysical contrasts between POCs and the surrounding cloud is a robust feature. At  
409 the very low droplet concentrations that typify POCs, model studies show a strong sensitivity of  
410 cloud cover to cloud droplet concentration (Ackerman et al. 2003; Wang and Feingold 2009a,b;

411 Wang et al. 2010; Berner et al. 2011). Thus it seems reasonable to posit that strong depletion of  
412 aerosols is a fundamental component of a POC. That said, studies also suggest that relatively  
413 small meteorological differences (Wang et al. 2010) and gravity waves (Allen et al. 2012) can  
414 also drive POC formation. Precipitation in POCs is locally heavier but less frequent than that in  
415 the surrounding cloud (Comstock et al. 2005; Wood et al 2011a; Painter et al. 2012), is central  
416 for maintaining the cold pools that drive the open cell dynamics (Feingold et al. 2010) and is the  
417 main cause of aerosol depletion in the POC.

418         Thus POCs constitute a remarkably extreme case of aerosol-cloud-precipitation coupling  
419 (see Fig. 8). POCs are also strongly coupled to the surrounding stratocumulus clouds through  
420 secondary circulations atop the MBL that are important for maintaining the height of the MBL  
421 despite reduced entrainment in the POC (Bretherton et al. 2010b; Berner et al. 2011). Since many  
422 stratocumulus clouds produce significant precipitation globally (Leon et al. 2009), it is  
423 reasonable to posit that this close aerosol-cloud-precipitation coupling seen in extreme form in  
424 POCs is also important for controlling marine cloud systems more generally (Wood et al. 2012).

425         VOCALS is also shedding light on how an aerosol population is maintained within POCs  
426 against losses to precipitation. Recent modeling work (Kazil et al. 2011) indicates that surface  
427 sea-salt, new particle formation from the oxidation of DMS, and entrainment of particles from  
428 the free troposphere may all contribute significantly to POC aerosol maintenance. Accumulation  
429 mode aerosol concentrations near the surface within POCs are remarkably similar from case to  
430 case (Painter et al. 2012) despite differences in the sources. This hints at possible self-regulating  
431 aerosol populations within POCs that are yet to be fully understood.

432 c. *Aerosol impacts on clouds: the importance of the free-troposphere*

433 It is becoming clear from measurements made during VOCALS-Rex, that because the  
434 region sampled is typified by large-scale subsidence, there is almost always a flux of free-  
435 troposphere (FT) aerosol into the MBL. For a nominal inversion at ~1 km altitude and mean  
436 cloud top entrainment rates of 0.3-0.6 cm s<sup>-1</sup> (Wood and Bretherton 2004; Caldwell et al. 2005),  
437 this implies an entrainment of about 250-500 m day<sup>-1</sup> of FT air, which would rapidly dilute MBL  
438 concentrations of cloud concentration nuclei (CCN) if the entrained air were particle-free.  
439 However, FT aerosol over the VOCALS region varies markedly in total aerosol number and in  
440 sizes effective as CCN in the MBL such that entrainment and mixing of FT air may act to raise  
441 or lower MBL concentrations. In addition to any aerosol flux, the entrainment of FT air can also  
442 modify MBL thermodynamic and moisture properties can impact MBL boundary layer clouds in  
443 complex ways (Ackerman et al. 2004, Wood, 2012).

444 Characteristic patchiness in carbon monoxide (CO, a gas phase combustion tracer) is  
445 shown in Fig. 9 over a distance of ~1000 km along 20°S for a C-130 aircraft flight RF3 on 21  
446 Oct 2008. CO is generally higher aloft and present in patches or “rivers” a few tens of meters to  
447 a few hundred meters thick and tens to hundreds of kilometers in extent. West of 78°W the FT  
448 winds above the inversion are predominantly southerly but are northerly to the east (Toniazzi et  
449 al., 2011). We focus here on the FT west of 78°W as more representative of the remote SEP.  
450 The underlying MBL air is typically advected from the pristine South Pacific and on this day a  
451 layer of enhanced CO and combustion aerosol from the western Pacific lies just above the  
452 inversion and MBL clouds. On other flights, similar layers of combustion outflow from South  
453 America to the SE were more common. The size distributions present in air enhanced in CO  
454 tend to have higher concentrations of aerosol present in sizes greater than 50nm (N<sub>gt50</sub>) than in

455 cleaner FT air (Fig. 9b). In the MBL, a minimum in the number size-distribution is centered  
456 close to 75 nm diameter (Tomlinson et al. 2007), but is broad enough to include sizes down to  
457 50nm, indicating most MBL aerosol larger than this acted as CCN in the MBL clouds (Hoppel  
458 et al., 1986). Therefore entrainment of air with high CO into the MBL introduces more  $N_{gt50}$   
459 (CCN) than does entrainment of the cleaner FT air more common south of the VOCALS region.  
460  $N_{gt50}$  for above-cloud legs west of 78°W (Fig. 9c) also increases with black carbon aerosol mass  
461 (a combustion aerosol tracer seen to track with CO) from values between about  $100 \pm 50 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  to  
462 double that number for elevated CO. Because scavenging of MBL aerosol by drizzle is a strong  
463 sink for MBL aerosol west of 78W (Wood et al. 2012), entrainment of FT particles with sizes  
464 larger than 50 nm can help buffer MBL CCN concentrations against depletion.

465 Clean MBL and FT air advected into the VOCALS region have the lowest concentrations  
466 of CO (<60 ppbv) along 20°S. Because the highest CO values found over the SEP occur in the  
467 FT, entrainment of this air into the MBL during boundary layer advection toward the 20°S  
468 latitude line can increase MBL CO concentrations to values exceeding those entering the SEP  
469 from the pristine southern Pacific. For example, entrainment at  $0.6 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  into a 1000m MBL  
470 over about 2 days would yield a 50:50 mix of clean MBL air (low CO at <60 ppbv) with FT air  
471 (most frequent CO about 70 ppbv west of 78W) and would raise MBL mixed values to about 64  
472 ppbv. Because 64 ppbv is the most frequent value in the MBL along 20S west of 78W, this  
473 suggests most of this air is influenced by entrainment of CO from the FT . Since POCs typically  
474 have CO <60 ppbv they appear to have formed only in MBL air least influenced by entrainment  
475 of combustion aerosol. Hence, improved understanding of the FT aerosol and factors that  
476 modulate its entrainment into the MBL will be essential to understanding the MBL CCN budget  
477 and associated cloud properties.

478 **6. Modeling**

479 *a. Regional and global dynamical models*

480 Several studies have used WRF in support of VOCALS, and the analysis of results has  
481 raised some questions on the model's representation of various physical processes. Andrejczuk et  
482 al. (2012), for example, reported that WRF captures the formation of mesoscale cloud-free  
483 regions that resemble POC. However, the mechanisms at work seem more dominated by  
484 dynamical processes associated with variations in subsidence, while those in LES models seem  
485 to be more dominated by physical processes associated with drizzle. Toniazzo et al. (2012)  
486 reported a clear sensitivity of their WRF simulations to the choice of vertical grid, limiting the  
487 possibility of solid quantitative statements on the amplitudes and phases of the diurnal and  
488 semidiurnal components across the domain.

489 The association based on an analysis of in-situ data has been widely used in diagnostic  
490 studies as well as in parameterizations. Sun et al. (2011) showed that the relationship between  
491 marine low cloud cover variability in the Southeast Pacific and lower-tropospheric stability  
492 (LTS) proposed by Klein and Hartmann (1993) is strongly modulated by the seasonal cycle and  
493 by ENSO. Sun et al. (2010) demonstrated that errors in stratocumulus cover over the SEP in the  
494 NCEP Global Forecast System (GFS) model can be alleviated by limiting the strength of shallow  
495 convective mixing across the inversion with algorithms based on the implementation of direct and  
496 physically-based improvements in the model parameterizations. Abel et al. (2010) showed that in  
497 the remote maritime region the Met Office forecast model provides a good representation of  
498 synoptically induced variability in both cloud cover and MBL depth. The simulation of the  
499 diurnal cycle phase is also successful, but the coastal clearing of cloud in certain days is missed.  
500 Drizzle is likely to be too strong, and POCS are not captured (section 4b).

501 *b) Regional modeling with integrated chemistry and aerosols*

502 The WRF-Chem model couples dynamical, chemical, aerosol, and cloud processes and  
503 can be run at the regional scale (Grell et al. 2005, Fast et al. 2006). Studies with high resolution  
504 WRF-Chem and other LES are demonstrating that coupled cloud-aerosol-radiation processes are  
505 important for the successful simulation of SEP stratocumulus (Wang et al. 2010; Kazil et al.  
506 2011). Yang et al. (2010) used WRF/Chem to show that inclusion of full aerosol-cloud couplings  
507 leads to significant improvements in many key features of the simulated stratocumulus clouds  
508 (e.g., cloud top effective radius, cloud water path, and cloud optical thickness. The model is able  
509 to capture daily/synoptic scale variations of aerosol and cloud properties. Saide et al. (2012a)  
510 argued that WRF-Chem simulates marine cloud-aerosol interactions at a level sufficient for  
511 applications in forecasting weather and air quality and studying aerosol climate forcing, and may  
512 do so with the reliability required for policy analysis. Both studies highlight the importance of  
513 reproducing gradients of aerosol and cloud droplet concentrations that typify the SEP region.  
514 Saide et al. (2012b), on the basis of the remarkably robust correspondence of satellite-derived  
515 cloud droplet concentrations to in-situ VOCALS data (Painemal and Zuidema 2011; King et al.  
516 2012; Min et al. 2012), are assimilating satellite-observed cloud droplet concentration into WRF-  
517 Chem to better constrain aerosol properties below the clouds. WRF-Chem has also been used to  
518 provide the first model based regional quantification over the SEP of the aerosol indirect effects  
519 on climate (Yang et al. 2012). WRF-Chem is also being used to describe a free-tropospheric  
520 transport pathway for aerosol transport to the remote SEP (George et al. 2013).

521 *c. Model development*

522 Process-level understanding developed from VOCALS observations and large eddy  
523 modeling is being used to improve physical parameterizations in global models. It can be said

524 that VOCALS has contributed to accelerate the improvement in the representation of MBL  
525 clouds in major modeling centers around the world. For example, in-situ cloud and drizzle  
526 observations from REx have been used to refine the microphysical parameterization in the Met  
527 Office Unified Model (Boutle and Abel 2012). One of the VOCALS case studies is being used in  
528 the WMO Cloud Modeling program (<http://slayoo.github.com/icmw2012-case1/>) to examine  
529 how different models represent the processing of aerosols by clouds.

530 Observations from REx are a central component of two NSF/NOAA sponsored Climate  
531 Process Teams (CPTs) that began in 2010. The CPTs bring together observational scientists,  
532 process modelers, and model developers in order to accelerate the rate at which field  
533 observational knowledge is translated into improved large-scale models. Both CPTs focus upon  
534 cloud processes. One CPT, led by Vincent Larson at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee,  
535 focuses upon improved representation of subgrid variability in the NCAR Community  
536 Atmospheric Model (CAM) and the GFDL Atmospheric Model based on the incorporation of a  
537 higher order closure parameterization that accounts for the covariability of moisture, temperature  
538 and vertical velocity. REx observations are being used in a number of different ways to evaluate  
539 the parameterization and the models into which it is being incorporated (Yamaguchi et al. 2012).  
540 A second CPT, led by Joao Teixeira at the NASA/Jet Propulsion Laboratory, aims to improve  
541 the representation of the stratocumulus-to-cumulus transition in the CAM and the NCEP Global  
542 Forecast System models.

## 543 **7. Capacity building**

544 Many students participated in VOCALS-REx alongside seasoned scientists, both out at  
545 sea and in the air. This is leading to numerous student-led publications (see, e.g., Berner et al.  
546 2011; George and Wood 2010; Hawkins et al. 2010; Jones et al. 2011; Painemal et al. 2010,

547 2011; Shank et al. 2011; Terai et al. 2012; Zheng et al. 2011) and PhD theses. Students served as  
548 flight scientists on many aircraft missions and helped in mission planning. VOCALS participants  
549 also reached out to both English and Spanish-speaking K-12 classrooms through the ‘Windows  
550 to the Universe’ (W2U) project led by R. Johnson at NCAR. Within W2U, VOCALS scientists  
551 submitted dozens of “Postcards from the Field” describing their field research experiences to  
552 inspire the next generation of scientists.

553 VOCALS also provided learning opportunities to K-12 students and teachers. NOAA’s  
554 Teacher at Sea Program permitted one teacher to participate in VOCALS-REx on the RHB cruise

## 555 **8. Current activities, summary of findings, and remaining questions**

556 At the present time, the VOCALS community is engaged in detailed analyses of the  
557 datasets collected by REx, as well as other information for the period of the field campaign. The  
558 data are being used for support of research leading to parameterization revision for model  
559 improvement.

560 VOCALS set up very ambitious goals, and progress has been achieved in several fronts.

- 561 • A unique dataset has been produced by VOCALS-REx and is available to the research  
562 community as integrated datasets and through the VOCALS Data Archive  
563 (<http://www.eol.ucar.edu/projects/vocals/>). The WHOI buoy data are currently not used for  
564 model assimilation and so represent a unique independent resource for model validation.
- 565 • The VOCA model assessment suggests that the REx data will continue to provide important  
566 constraints on aerosol-chemistry-cloud interactions in the next generation of climate and  
567 chemical transport models. In particular, the sampling across strong microphysical gradients  
568 along 20°S is providing a unique dataset to confront models. The gradients are caused by

569 pollution aerosol and by a longitudinal gradient in precipitation. Some of the pollution  
570 aerosol is transported offshore in the free troposphere and then entrained into the clouds.

571 • The air-sea exchanges across the region at 20°S, from 85°W to 75°W, are well described. It  
572 has been firmly established that mean advection and eddy advection both contribute  
573 importantly to the heat budget of the ocean column in the SEP, though to varying degrees  
574 dependent upon the offshore distance and the difference between Peru and Chile.

575 • The existence of a daytime upsidence wave initiated by Andean slope heating that propagates  
576 over 1500 km offshore over the southeastern Pacific stratocumulus region has been  
577 confirmed. The wave impacts clouds by strengthening the diurnal cycle, which reduces  
578 daytime cloud albedo and increases nocturnal precipitation.

579 • Strong depletion of aerosols driven by precipitation losses appears to be a fundamental  
580 component of POCs. Precipitation in takes on a fundamentally distinct character from that in  
581 the surrounding cloud, with cold pools driving a reorganization of the mesoscale structure  
582 and dynamics. POCs can be triggered by reduced aerosol concentrations but also by modest  
583 moisture and temperature perturbations and by gravity waves.

584 • Slow aerosol replenishment in the ultra-clean POC environment permits the maintenance of  
585 open cells. The aerosol sources are a combination of mechanical surface production,  
586 entrainment of aerosol from above the inversion, and nucleation of new particles in the  
587 cloud-scavenged ultra-clean layer below the inversion.

588 • Maintenance of open-cells is also dependent on the self-organization within the system. The  
589 sub-cloud evaporation of precipitation drives cold pools, and the interaction between these  
590 cold pools helps regenerate clouds.

591 • The first aerosol indirect effect has been observationally quantified over the SEP, with cloud  
592 thinning of the more polluted coastal clouds mitigating the overall radiative impact. The  
593 effects were also quantified in the region using a regional model.

594 However, several issues and questions remain:

595 • Some controversy remains in the understanding of the vertical heat transports by turbulence,  
596 sub-mesoscale eddies, and possibly other processes, and on the role of such processes in  
597 determining the SST in the SEP.

598 • The relative contributions of surface, entrainment, and nucleation aerosol sources to the  
599 aerosol budget in the remote MBL remains poorly understood.

600 • The frequency and climatic importance of POCs remains poorly-characterized. A full  
601 assessment of all triggering mechanisms for POC formation given realistic aerosols and  
602 meteorology has not yet been conducted. The ability of anthropogenic pollutants to hinder  
603 the formation of POCs is also not yet known, with the implied significant increase in albedo  
604 important for geoengineering (Rosenfeld et al. 2006).

605 The impetus on the research on VOCALS issues in the SEP continues unabated. One year  
606 after VOCALS-REx - in late spring 2009 - the Chilean Upwelling Experiment (CUpEx) in the  
607 near-shore region of 30°S focused on the ocean-atmosphere interaction in a major upwelling  
608 center off northern Chile (Garreaud et al. 2011). CUpEx included two radiosonde stations,  
609 several ground stations, buoys, and marine radars. This experiment has confirmed finding of  
610 VOCALS-Rex in the coastal SEP and provided additional detailed information on coastal processes.

611 VOCALS is also motivating research in other major upwelling regions. Coupled GCMs  
612 suffer from common biases in the eastern Atlantic Ocean that resemble those in the Pacific.

613 Observational research has an active history in the equatorial Atlantic also, e.g., the PIRATA

614 buoy array and research cruises, aircraft campaigns, and the recent AMMA program. VOCALS  
615 and Atlantic researchers are planning joint activities under the U.S. CLIVAR Working Group on  
616 Eastern Tropical Ocean Synthesis (<http://www.usclivar.org/working-groups/etos>) with the  
617 ultimate goal of further reducing the SST biases of CGCMs using targeted process studies and  
618 model assessments.

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## Figure Captions

977 Figure 1. The VOCALS study region

978 Figure 2. The first ten years (2001-2010) of upper ocean temperature data from the WHOI buoy,  
979 daily averaged and contoured and with two mixed layer depth estimates, the white line showing  
980 where temperature is 0.5°C cooler than the surface and the black line showing when temperature  
981 is 1.0°C cooler than the surface.

982 Figure 3. Schematics of the VOCALS-Regional Experiment (REx)

983 Figure 4. Concentrations along 20°S of (a) cloud droplet number and (b) sulfate mass at 150 m  
984 altitude from assorted VOCA models and C-130 observations.

985 Figure 5. Surface heat budget errors of CGCMs participating in CMIP3. Surface heat budget  
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987 SST errors. The ocean residual error is on the order of the radiative error, but less consistent  
988 among models. Surface fluxes measured along 20°S imply the southeastern Pacific Ocean  
989 circulation plays an important role in the upper ocean heat budget, and that these circulations are  
990 often improperly simulated in CGCMs.

991 Figure 6. Alongshore absolute geostrophic velocity (m/s) near the Perú shelf (14°S) in 2008: (a)  
992 October 4th-8th, (b) October 18th-22th, and (c) November 3rd-8th . See Pietri et al. (2012) for  
993 more details on the data.

994 Figure 7. Cloud, precipitation and aerosol mean statistics taken along the 20°S cross section. (a)  
995 cloud top, base and LCL from the VOCALS ship cruises and from the C-130 during REx; (b)  
996 cloud fraction (blue) and liquid water path (LWP, black) from the C-130, from the ship cruises,

997 and from passive microwave satellite (AMSR-E) during REx; (c) Precipitation rate estimates  
998 from four instruments on three platforms: RHB C-band  
999 scanning radar (black circles), CloudSat cloud radar (red line), C-130 aircraft zenith and nadir-  
1000 pointing cloud radar (black squares), and the C-130 2D-C drop probe (blue squares). Error bars  
1001 show estimated uncertainties. Radar cloud base rain rates are derived from the maximum  
1002 reflectivity in each boundary layer column sampled; (d) Near-surface aerosol concentrations for  
1003 particles larger than 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  (black) from the RHB and the aircraft (Allen et al. 2011) and cloud  
1004 droplet concentrations (red) from aircraft and from MODIS (Bretherton et al. 2010); (e)  
1005 submicron sulfate aerosol mass loadings from the RHB and from the aircraft in REx; (f)  
1006 schematic summarizing the key aerosol, cloud and precipitation changes from the coast to the  
1007 remote ocean along 20°S.

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1011 clean air advected from south into the VOCALS region. b) size distributions for above cloud legs  
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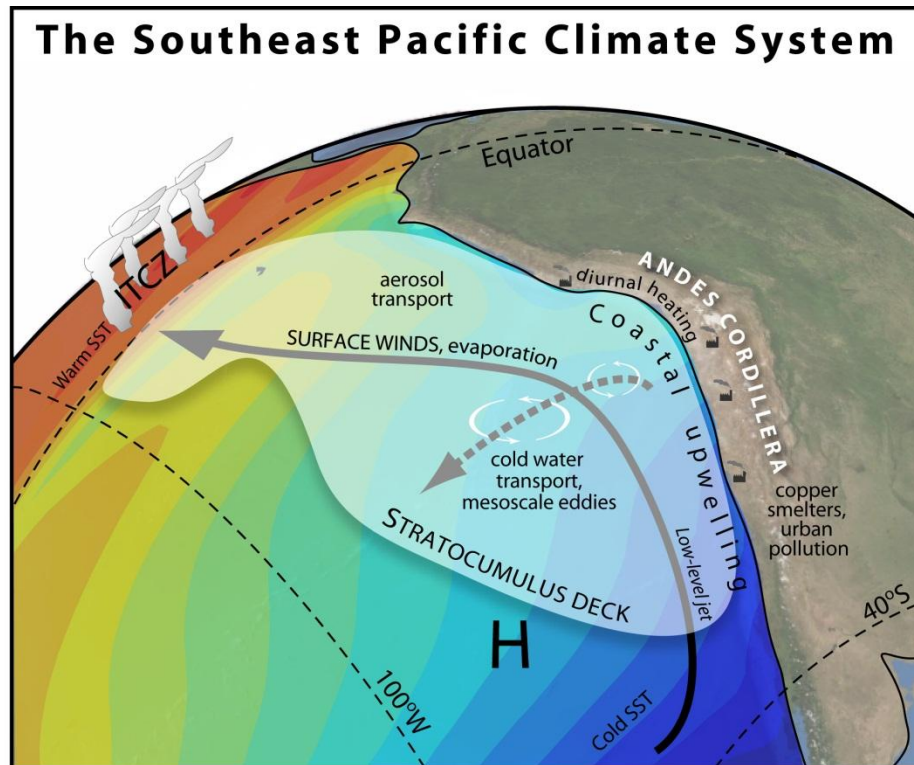


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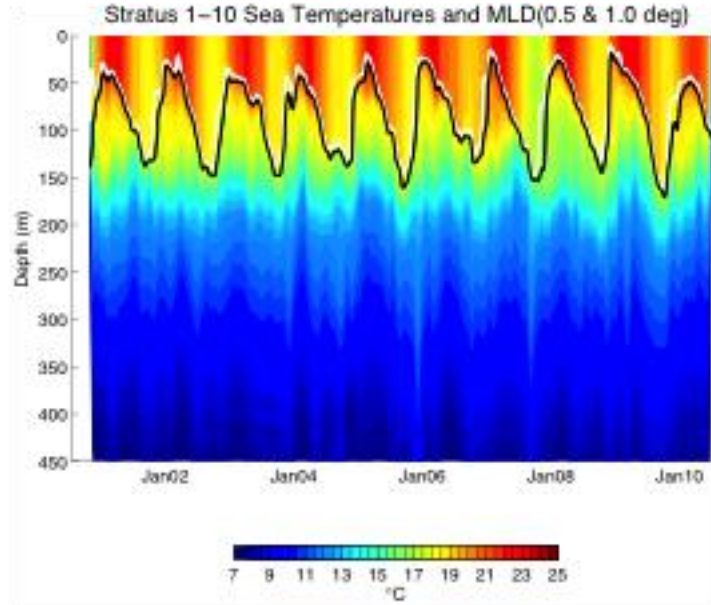


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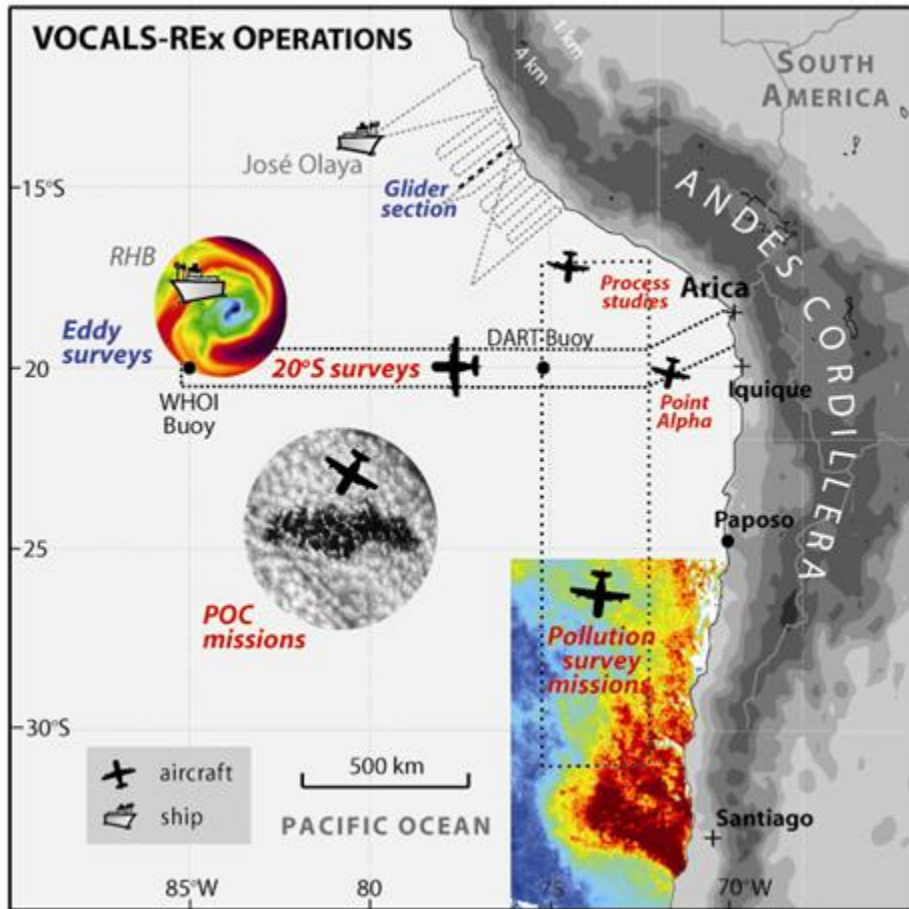


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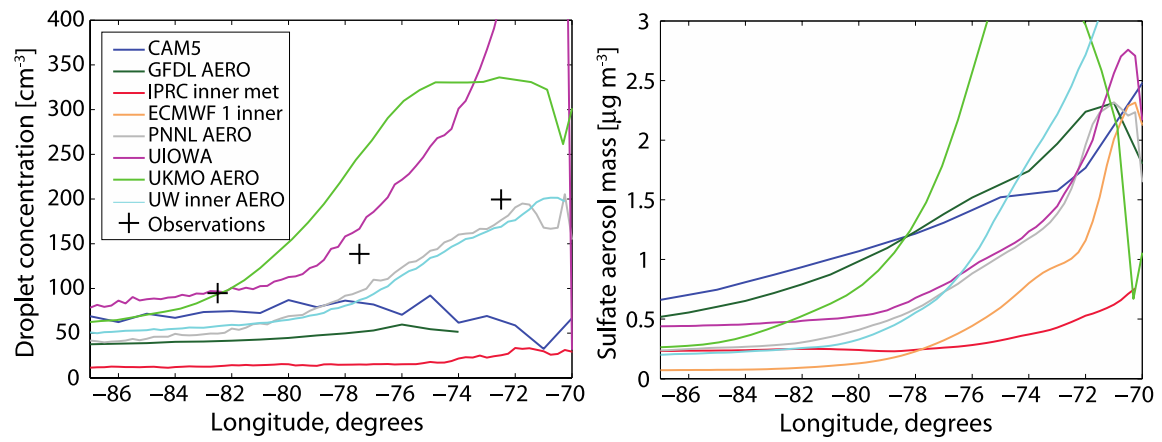


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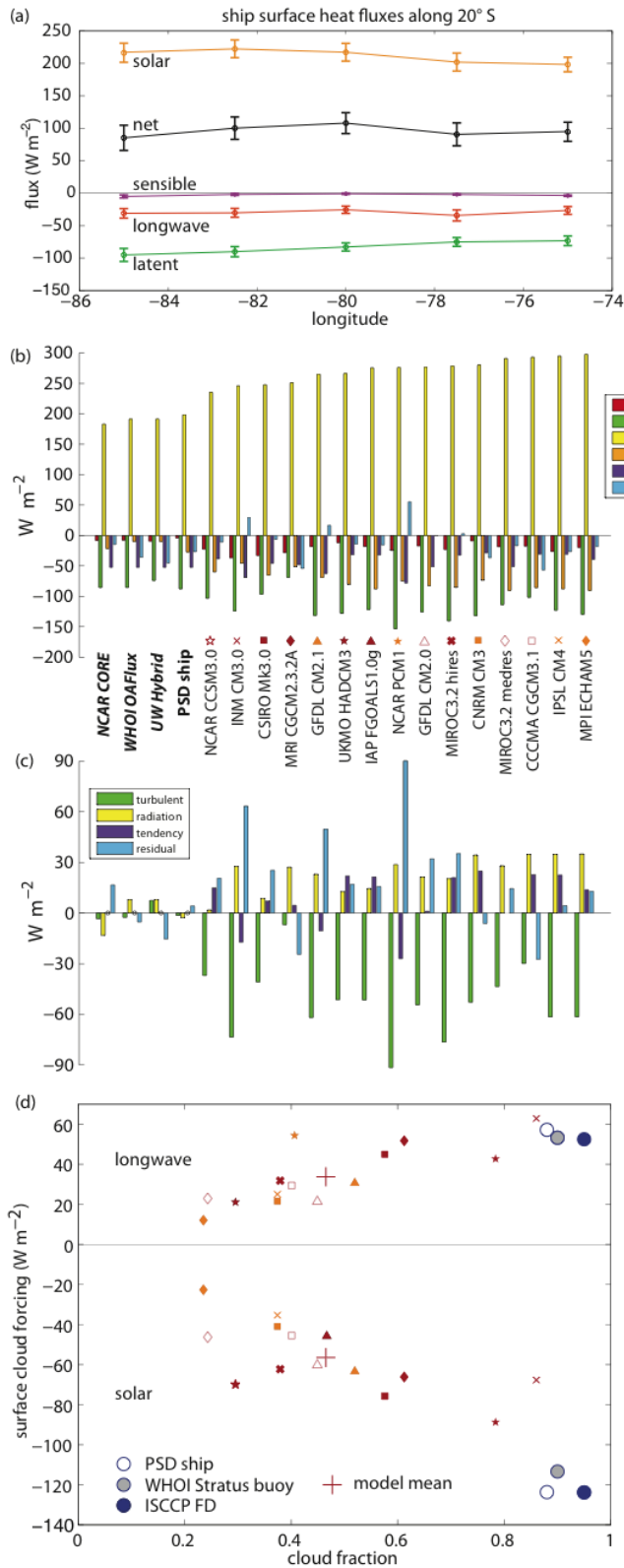


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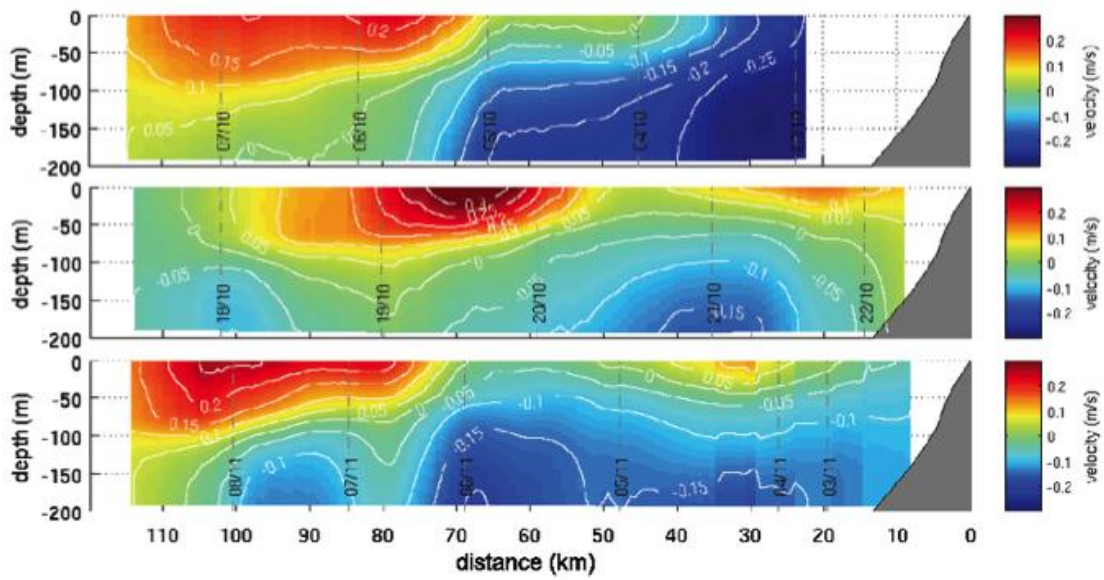


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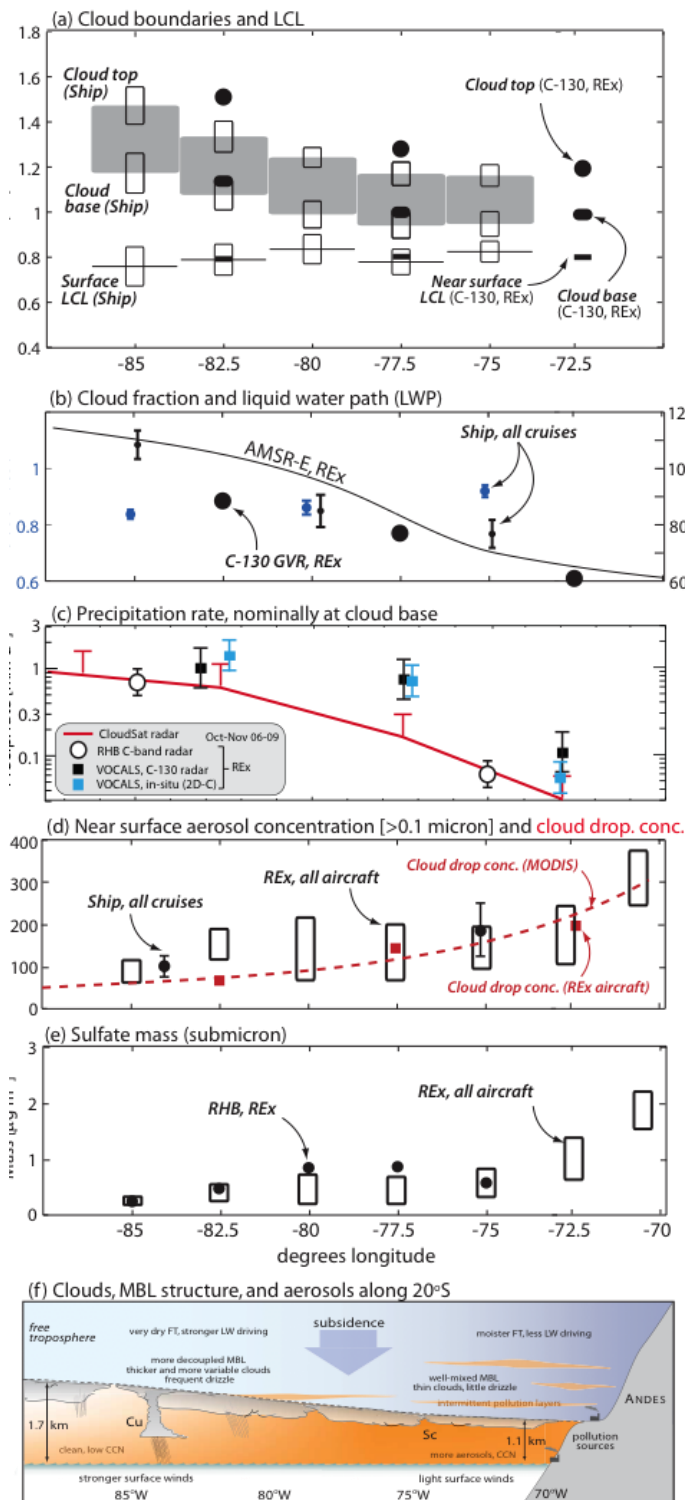
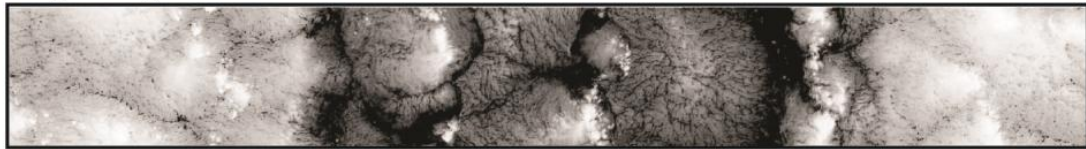


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Observations (MODIS)



Large eddy simulation



← 200 km →

Figure 8. Comparison of satellite-observed (top) and modeled (bottom) Pocket of Open Cells (POC) sampled during VOCALS-REx on 28<sup>th</sup> October 2008.

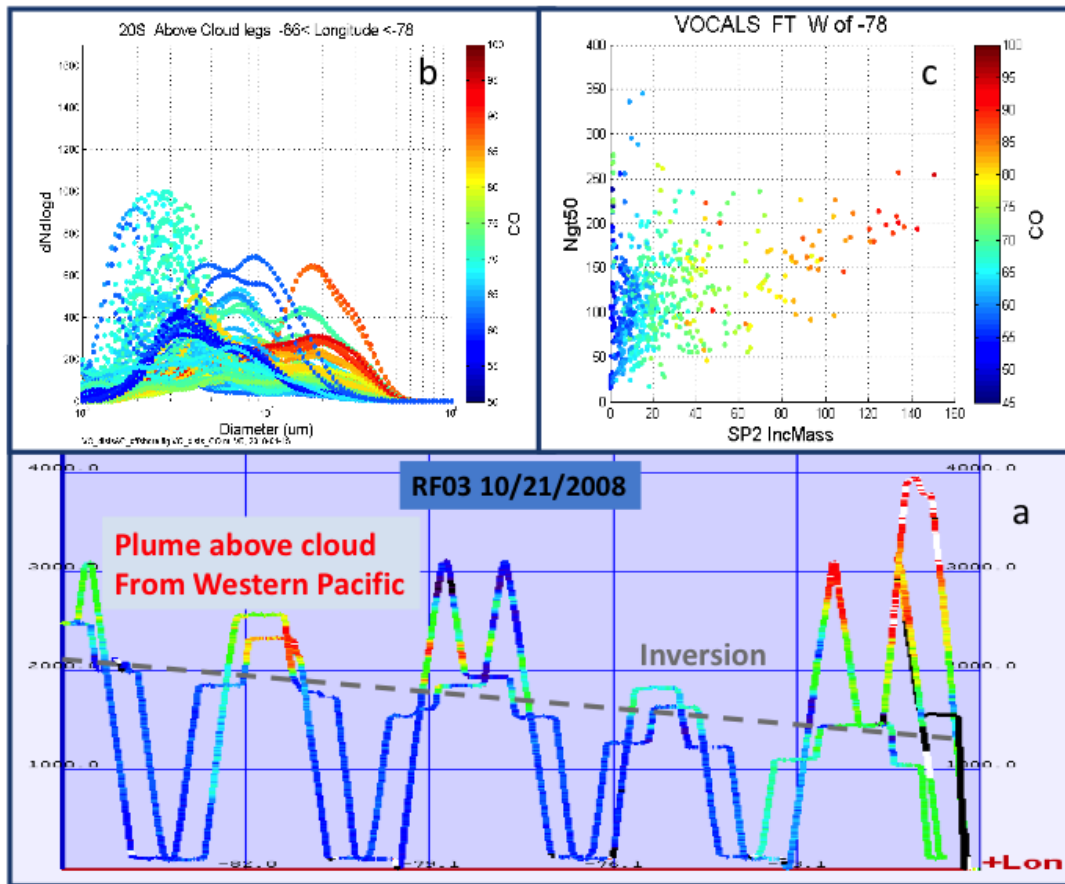


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