



**On the Nationwide Variability of Low-Level Jets Prior
to Warm-season Nocturnal Rainfall in China Revealed
by Radar Wind Profilers**

Ning Li^{a,b}, Jianping Guo^{a,d*}, Xiaoran Guo^{a,d}, Tianmeng Chen^{a,d}, Zhen Zhang^a, Na
Tang^a, Yifei Wang^a, Honglong Yang^d, Yongguang Zheng^c

^a State Key Laboratory of Severe Weather Meteorological Science and Technology &
Specialized Meteorological Support Technology Research Center, Chinese Academy
of Meteorological Sciences, Beijing 100081, China

^b College of Earth and Planetary Sciences, University of Chinese Academy of
Sciences, Beijing 100049, China

^c National Meteorological Centre, Beijing 100081, China

^d CMA Field Scientific Experiment Base for Low-Altitude Economy Meteorological
Support of Unmanned Aviation in Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area,
Shenzhen 518108, China

Correspondence to:

Dr./Prof. Jianping Guo (Email: jpguocams@gmail.com)



Abstract

Nocturnal rainfall initiation is closely linked to low-level jets (LLJs), but national-scale LLJ features over China—especially their evolution preceding warm-season nocturnal rainfall—remain unknown due to scarce high-resolution vertical wind observations. Here, we reveal the multiscale responses of LLJs within 2 hours preceding the onset of nocturnal heavy rain (HR) and non-HR across four phases of rainy seasons in China during the warm season (April–October) of 2023–2024, utilizing data from a nationwide network of radar wind profilers (RWPs) in combination with surface observations and reanalysis data. Results show that nocturnal rainfall accounted for over 50% of warm-season rainfall, with 56% preceded by LLJs within 2 hours leading up to their onset. In monsoon regions, ~40% of nocturnal HR (LLJ_HR) were LLJ-associated and had higher heavy rainfall probability than non-LLJ_HR. Critically, these LLJ_HR events depended on rapid, coupled minute-scale dynamical intensification, typically occurring 30 to 120 minutes before rainfall initiation. Specifically, coherent changes in LLJ wind profiles, frequency, vertical wind shear, and pronounced evolution in jet height were observed, operating in synergy with substantial thermodynamic instability. This behavior stood in sharp contrast to LLJ_non-HR events, which were characterized by relatively stable, weakening, or declining LLJ evolution and an inadequate thermodynamic response. These findings demonstrate that a minute-scale 'rapid reorganization' of dynamic and thermodynamic conditions driven by swift evolution of the LLJ is essential for nocturnal HR, providing observational constraints for regional model parameterizations and nowcasting.



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Short Summary

47 Nighttime rainfall often links to low-level jets (LLJs), but we lack clarity on nationwide
48 LLJ features due to limited wind data. To address this, we used a nationwide radar wind
49 profiler network to study LLJ changes 2 hours before rainfall, covering China's 2023–
50 2024 rainy seasons. 56% nighttime rainfall had LLJs. The heavy rains linked to LLJs
51 needed LLJs to strengthen quickly 30–120 minutes preceding rain. These findings show
52 the importance of LLJ in nowcasting nighttime rainfall.

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61 1. Introduction

62 Forecasting nocturnal heavy rainfall (HR) and associated severe convective
63 weather remains a major challenge in hazardous weather prediction (Davis et al., 2003;
64 Trier et al., 2006), owing to the complexity of triggering mechanisms, the scarcity of
65 continuous high-resolution observations, and inaccuracies in model parameterizations
66 (Carbone and Tuttle, 2008; Reif and Bluestein, 2017; Weckwerth et al., 2019; Zhao et
67 al., 2025). Crucially, the low-level jet (LLJ) that exhibit a diurnal cycle with a
68 maximum at night is widely recognized as a key contributor to nocturnal HR (Bonner
69 1968; Mitchell et al., 1995; Tuttle and Davis, 2006), as documented in regions or
70 countries such as the Great Plains of the United States (Maddox, 1983; Higgins et al.,
71 1997), Argentina (Marengo et al., 2004), India (Monaghan et al., 2010), North China
72 Plain (Li et al., 2024).

73 The LLJs primarily originate from the inertial oscillations (IO) following the
74 sudden decay of turbulence after sunset (Blackadar, 1957) and thermal imbalances
75 induced baroclinicity over sloping terrain (Holton, 1967). Functioning as concentrated
76 corridors for heat, moisture, and momentum transport, LLJs can modulate the diurnal
77 oscillation in water vapor by IO (Rasmusson, 1967; Zhang et al., 2019) and enhance
78 convective instability, particularly when elevated high- θ_e air encounters frontal
79 boundaries (Trier et al., 2017). Also, strong low-level vertical wind shear (VWS)
80 associated with LLJs necessarily benefits deep lifting (Maddox et al., 1979; Stensrud,
81 1996; Rasmussen and Houze, 2016). These mechanisms collectively provide essential
82 thermodynamic and dynamic support for the initiation and organization of nocturnal
83 convection, especially where LLJs force low-level ascent at jet termini or via positive
84 vorticity advection left of the jet axis (Chen et al., 2017; Du and Chen, 2019; Xia and
85 Zhao, 2009).

86 Furthermore, LLJs interact synergistically with other key factors to trigger HR,
87 including terrain effects (Anthes et al., 1982; Pan and Chen, 2019; Huang et al., 2020),
88 gravity waves (Weckwerth & Wakimoto, 1992), and mesoscale systems (Chen et al.
89 2010; Chen et al., 2017), among others. These interactions are highly sensitive to the



90 prevailing synoptic and subsynoptic-scale environmental conditions (e.g., Hodges and
91 Pu, 2019) and fine-scale structural of LLJs, including LLJ frequency, spatial
92 redistribution, and particularly localized wind profile accelerations (Pitchford and
93 London, 1962; Walters and Winkler, 2008; Du and Chen, 2019; Li et al., 2024).
94 Understanding these intricate evolution features of LLJs is critical for improving the
95 forecasting of nocturnal HR.

96 Despite advances facilitated by regional reanalysis (e.g., Doubler et al., 2015; Li
97 et al., 2021), numerical modeling (e.g., Zhang and Meng, 2019), radiosonde
98 observations (e.g., Whiteman et al., 1997; Yan et al., 2020), and emerging artificial
99 intelligence techniques (e.g., Subrahmanyam et al., 2024) in understanding the
100 climatology and physical mechanisms of LLJs and their role in HR forecasting,
101 significant knowledge gaps remain. However, a critical shortcoming lies in the inability
102 to capture minute-scale evolution of LLJs during the nocturnal pre-storm period.
103 Conventional observing systems lack the spatiotemporal resolution required to resolve
104 rapid changes in pre-storm environments (Weisman et al., 2015; Cao et al., 2025; Roots
105 et al., 2025), thereby hindering systematic analysis of fine-scale structure of LLJs and
106 their evolution within the critical 2-hour window preceding rainfall.

107 Moreover, the mechanisms and impacts of LLJs exhibit considerable variation
108 across monsoon phases and geographic regions. As a classic monsoon climate region,
109 China exhibits particularly prominent nocturnal rainfall contributions across major
110 climate-sensitive areas (Yu et al., 2014), where LLJs play a crucial role in modulating
111 primary rainfall belts (Sun, 1986; Chen et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013; Horinouchi et
112 al., 2019), such as those in Eastern China (Chen et al., 2017; Xue et al., 2018) and South
113 China (Du et al., 2020; Bai et al., 2021; Fu et al., 2021). However, nationwide
114 comparative studies examining LLJ precursor signals across different monsoon phases
115 in China are still lacking.

116 Radar wind profilers (RWP) can offer transformative potential by capturing
117 minute-resolution wind profiles to reveal pre-rainfall dynamic precursors (Zamora et
118 al., 1987; Du et al., 2012; Molod et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2023). For example, Gebauer



119 et al. (2018) demonstrated the capability of RWPs to elucidate how heterogeneous
120 structures of LLJ trigger nocturnal convection in Great Plains; Based on a linear net of
121 RWPs deployed across the North China Plain, Li et al. (2024) observed rapid
122 intensification of MFC driven by a surge in LLJs profile within 30 min preceding
123 nocturnal rainfall onset, highlighting the sensitivity of RWP to minute-scale
124 perturbations of LLJs profiles.

125 Therefore, this study utilizes a nationwide network of RWPs to address the
126 following two questions: 1) How do the vertical structure of LLJs and their minute-
127 scale evolution within 0–2 hours preceding nocturnal rainfall vary across different rainy
128 season phases? and 2) What are the systematic differences in LLJ dynamic-
129 thermodynamic mechanisms between LLJ-influenced HR and non-HR events? The
130 remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 details data and methodology,
131 Section 3 presents comparative analyses of characteristics of rainfall and LLJs
132 evolution, and Section 4 synthesizes key conclusions.

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134 **2. Data and Methodology**

135 *2.1 Radar wind profiler measurements*

136 The RWP observations collected from 31 stations across China (Fig.1) from April
137 to October in 2023-2024 were analyzed in this study, which can provide wind speed
138 and direction with a vertical resolution of 120 m and an interval of 6 minutes (Liu et al.,
139 2019). To reduce the potential influence of poor data quality, RWP data underwent
140 strict quality control following procedures proposed by Wei et al. (2014) and Miao et
141 al. (2018). Firstly, observations recorded during rainfall periods were eliminated.
142 Secondly, for each profile, if more than 40% of the data points below 3 km above
143 ground level (AGL) were outliers or missing, that entire profile was discarded. Next,
144 within each profile below 3 km AGL, missing values and significant outliers that
145 defined as values exceeding 2.5 standard deviations from the mean were removed.
146 Finally, discontinuous, or missing data points were estimated using linear interpolation.



147 Following this quality control process, 109,400 wind profiles were discarded and a total
148 of 2,606,042 profiles across China were available for analysis during the study period.

149 *2.2 Miscellaneous meteorological data*

150 In addition, 1-min rainfall measurements were directly acquired from the rain
151 gauge measurements at 2160 national weather stations across China to identify rainfall
152 events. Rainfall amounts were accumulated over 6-min intervals to ensure temporal
153 alignment with the RWP measurements. Ground-based meteorological variables are
154 measured at 1-min intervals from national weather stations, including 2-m air
155 temperature, relative humidity, and surface pressure. All ground-based data have
156 undergone rigorous quality control and are publicly available by the China
157 Meteorological Administration (CMA).

158 Furthermore, to diagnose large-scale circulation patterns and environmental
159 conditions preceding nocturnal rainfall influenced by LLJs, this study utilized
160 meteorological variables derived from the fifth generation of the European Centre for
161 Medium-Range Weather Forecasts atmospheric reanalysis (ERA5) of the global
162 climate (Hersbach et al., 2020). The ERA5 data features a horizontal resolution of
163 $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ across 37 vertical pressure levels and hourly temporal resolution. Unless
164 otherwise specified, all datasets cover the study period of April to October in 2023–
165 2024.

166 *2.3 Identification of nocturnal rainfall events*

167 Firstly, days with typhoon activity were excluded. To minimize the impact of
168 rainfall on RWP measurements, a minimum dry interval of 2 hours was required
169 between consecutive rainfall events. Following the methodology of Li et al. (2024), a
170 rainfall occurrence was defined when the total accumulated rainfall which was
171 measured by all rain gauges within a 25-km radius of each RWP station exceeded 0.1
172 mm. Accounting for rainfall intermittency, a valid rainfall event required at least two
173 subsequent occurrences within 30 min following initial detection. Any isolated initial
174 occurrence not meeting this criterion was discarded.



175 Nocturnal rainfall events were defined as those occurring between 2000 and 0800
 176 Local Standard Time (LST). Based on operational classifications from the National
 177 Water Resources Bureau and CMA, the rainy season was categorized into four
 178 consecutive phases: (1) the South China Pre-summer Rainy Season (April 1 to June 8,
 179 2023 and April 1 to June 9, 2024), (2) the Meiyu Season (June 9 to July 14, 2023 and
 180 June 10 to July 21, 2024), (3) the North China Rainy Season (July 22 to August 31,
 181 2023 and July 15 to August 31, 2024), and (4) the West China Autumn Rainy Season
 182 (September 1 to October 31 for both 2023 and 2024). These phases are subsequently
 183 designated as Phase 1 to Phase 4 throughout this study. Four regions of interest (ROIs)
 184 were subsequently selected for detailed analysis (see Table 1).

185 Further screening identified nocturnal HR events where the mean 6-min rainfall
 186 intensity exceeded the 75th percentile of all rainfall events at each station. Statistical
 187 analysis revealed 3,155 nocturnal rainfall events during the 2023–2024 warm seasons
 188 (within the 31 red circles shown in Fig.1). Event counts per rainy season phase were
 189 1,109, 689, 652, and 705 respectively, with 841 events classified as nocturnal HR
 190 events.

191 *2.4 Identification of LLJs and associated rainfall event*

192 To ensure identified LLJs exhibit significant vertical wind shear characteristic of
 193 jet-like profiles, the following criteria are adopted: (1) a maximum horizontal wind
 194 speed exceeding 10 m s^{-1} in the lowest 3 km AGL, and (2) a wind speed reduction of at
 195 least 3 m s^{-1} from the maximum to minimum below 3 km AGL, or to 3 km AGL if no
 196 minimum exists (Bonner, 1968; Whiteman et al., 1997; Du et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2020).
 197 These deliberately conservative wind speed thresholds maximize LLJ sample size for
 198 enhanced statistical robustness. The strength of LLJ or jet nose is defined as the
 199 maximum wind speed along the entire profile. The LLJ core height is defined as the
 200 altitude of the wind speed maximum during LLJ occurrences. Correspondingly, the LLJ
 201 direction is determined by the wind direction at the height of the LLJ.

202 We define rainfall events where LLJ occurs at least twice within 2 hours before
 203 rainfall as an LLJ event. And HR events influenced by LLJs (LLJ_HR events), HR



204 events without LLJ influence (non-LLJ_HR events), and non-HR events affected by
 205 LLJ (LLJ_non-HR events) are further distinguished.

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207 **3. Results and discussion**

208 *3.1 General characteristics of nocturnal rainfall and LLJs*

209 Firstly, we characterized the spatiotemporal patterns of rainfall and LLJs observed
 210 nationwide during the 2023-2024 warm season. Nationally, nocturnal rainfall
 211 accounted for 51.6% of total warm-season rainfall (Fig. 2g), with pronounced
 212 concentrations over North, East, and Southwest China. In contrast, the pronounced
 213 daytime rainfall dominance in South China may arise from sea-breeze-front convective
 214 systems triggered by afternoon land-sea thermal contrasts and rapid destabilization of
 215 the local boundary layer. The frequency of nocturnal rainfall (52.5%) notably exceeded
 216 that in the daytime (47.5%) at the national scale, with the highest values occurring over
 217 southwestern and eastern regions (Fig. 2h). While the North China displayed distinct
 218 characteristics of low-frequency but high-intensity nocturnal rainfall. Although mean
 219 nocturnal rainfall intensity was generally lower, the probability of HR was higher at
 220 night than during the day, particularly across western China, North China, and
 221 northeastern China (Fig. 2i).

222 Figure 3 displayed key attributes of LLJs detected at all 31 RWPs across China
 223 using Section 2 criteria. Compared to daytime, the occurrence frequency of nocturnal
 224 LLJs increased significantly by nearly 18%, with the most pronounced enhancement
 225 observed particularly over northern and eastern regions where nocturnal rainfall is more
 226 intense. Nocturnal LLJs exhibited stronger strength of core and highly occurrences
 227 below 1 km AGL, reflecting enhanced nocturnal LLJs within the boundary layer
 228 vertically. This vertical restructuring likely responds to nocturnal surface cooling and
 229 resultant low-level wind-field modifications. The dominant wind direction shifted to
 230 southerly or southwesterly flows at night across most regions, potentially driven by
 231 thermal contrasts within the monsoon circulation pattern and topographic forcing.



232 Statistical analysis revealed substantial linkage between LLJs and nocturnal
233 rainfall. Specifically, 56% of nocturnal rainfall events across China were preceded by
234 the presence of LLJs within 2 hours. Consequently, nocturnal rainfall influenced by
235 LLJs represents a major component of warm-season rainfall in China. And this
236 relationship was modulated by the seasonal migration of the western Pacific subtropical
237 high (WPSH), which drove corresponding shifts in HR belts that closely synchronized
238 with the spatiotemporal evolution of LLJ activity. The proportion of nocturnal rainfall
239 events associated with LLJs during the four rainy season phases reached 60.4%, 56.3%,
240 49.4%, and 54.9%, respectively (Fig. 4a). Among 841 identified nocturnal HR events,
241 the percentages classified as LLJ_HR events were 47.2%, 43.6%, 33.9%, and 45.5%
242 from Phase 1 to Phase 4. For non-HR events, LLJ_non-HR events accounted for
243 approximately 37.8%. These statistics collectively demonstrate the crucial role of LLJs
244 in initiating and modulating nocturnal rainfall across China.

245 Spatial analysis of rainfall intensity further revealed that LLJ_HR events
246 consistently produced heavier rainfall than non-LLJ_HR events, particularly within the
247 four ROIs identified in each phase (red boxes in Fig. 5). Therefore, a total of 142, 118,
248 63, and 59 nocturnal HR events were identified in these ROIs during from Phase 1 to
249 Phase 4 (Fig. 4b). From the LLJs perspective, nearly 31.1% of LLJ events were
250 classified as HR events across phases relative to LLJ_non-HR events, which suggests
251 the presences of LLJs do not inherently increase the occurrence of HR. From the HR
252 perspective, nearly 45.0% of HR events were associated with LLJs within 2 hours
253 before occurred relative to non-LLJ_HR events (see the pie charts in Fig. 6). And the
254 highest proportion of LLJ_HR events occurred over ROI-2 during Phase 2, while the
255 lowest occurred in ROI-4 during Phase 4. In general, while nearly half of HR events
256 involved LLJs, merely 30% of LLJ events produced HR, indicating LLJs are necessary
257 but insufficient for HR.

258 Furthermore, probability distributions of rainfall intensity (Fig. 6) indicated that
259 LLJ_HR events generally produced heavier rainfall at the national scale compared to
260 non-LLJ_HR events, though the differences were less pronounced during Phases 2 and
261 4. Within the key regions, both event types showed higher probabilities of HR than the



262 national average, particularly for LLJ_HR events. LLJ_HR events in ROI-1 and ROI-
263 2 demonstrated significantly higher probabilities of extreme rainfall (≥ 2 mm/6 min),
264 while those in ROI-4 during Phase 4 favored intensities near 0.5 and 2.8 mm/6 min.
265 Notably, although ROI-3 in Phase 3 exhibited a relatively high proportion of LLJ_HR
266 events, their probability of producing heavier rainfall was lower than for non-LLJ_HR
267 events, suggesting that LLJs may not represent the dominant mechanism for extreme
268 rainfall in this particular region and season.

269 3.2 Minute-scale evolution of LLJs preceding nocturnal heavy and non-heavy 270 rainfall

271 Although previous analyses have established the importance of LLJs in HR events,
272 it is noteworthy that approximately 70% of LLJ occurrences were not accompanied by
273 concurrent HR (i.e., LLJ_non-HR events). To elucidate the contrasting precursor
274 characteristics of LLJs that lead to nocturnal rainfall of differing intensities, this section
275 examines fine-scale vertical structure and continuous evolution of LLJs within 2 hours
276 preceding both LLJ_HR and LLJ_non-HR events during four phases in their respective
277 ROIs. The results reveal distinct spatiotemporal variations in vertical structure and
278 evolutionary patterns of LLJs.

279 During Phase1 in ROI-1, LLJ_HR events exhibited a significant increase in
280 frequency starting 108 min before rainfall onset, reaching secondary peaks at -84 min
281 and -60 min and culminating in maximum frequency immediately preceding rainfall
282 (Fig. 7a). These LLJs featured a bimodal vertical distribution with frequent occurrence
283 layers at 0.5–1 km and 1.5–2 km AGL. Wind profiles showed that LLJs strength
284 maximized at 48 min preceding rainfall accompanied by a slight downward extension,
285 followed by a modest weakening (Fig. 8a). In contrast, LLJ_non-HR events exhibited
286 lower overall frequency predominantly below 1 km AGL, although they showed
287 gradual frequency increases from -48 min alongside strengthening winds and rising jet
288 heights (Figs. 7e and 8e).

289 However, both event types exhibited notably high frequencies and intensities of
290 LLJs over ROI-2 during Phase 2. For LLJ_HR events, the total frequency and height



291 of LLJ occurrence initially declined followed by a rise. At -120 min, the frequency of
292 LLJs peaked and strength of jet profile reached a maximum (exceeding 12 m s^{-1}). These
293 values then rapidly declined to a minimum at -84 min, concurrent with the jet height
294 descending from $1.5\text{--}2$ km to below 1 km AGL. Then frequency of LLJs subsequently
295 increased with gradual height recovery, reaching a secondary peak at -48 min while
296 intensity of jet nose stabilized near 11 m s^{-1} . In comparison, LLJ_non-HR events
297 maintained consistent LLJs strength (near 11.8 m s^{-1}) and a preferred height range of
298 $1\text{--}2$ km AGL (Fig. 8f). And LLJs frequency exhibited gradual changes, culminating in
299 a single peak 36 min before rainfall, followed by a rapid decrease (Fig. 7f).

300 During Phase 3 in ROI-3, LLJ_HR events exhibited a bimodal temporal
301 distribution in LLJ frequency, with distinct peaks occurring at -96 min and -48 min
302 prior to rainfall (Fig. 7c). The dominant LLJ height was centered between $1\text{--}1.5$ km
303 AGL. Beginning approximately 30 min before rainfall onset, a discernible descent of
304 the jet core was observed, accompanied by accelerated intensification of the wind
305 profile, which reached its maximum strength by -48 min (Fig. 8c). This rapid vertical
306 restructuring of LLJ is likely a key factor influencing HR occurrence. However,
307 markedly weaker wind profiles (near 9 m s^{-1}) potentially explained the lower
308 probability of heavier rainfall in LLJ_HR events over ROI-3 during Phase 3 relative to
309 other region and phases. Conversely, LLJ_non-HR events were characterized by lower
310 LLJs frequency and a more uniform height distribution (Fig. 7g).

311 During Phase 4 in ROI-4, LLJ_HR events showed a rapid frequency increase from
312 -48 min prior to rainfall. The LLJs were concentrated between $0.5\text{--}1.5$ km AGL, and the
313 intensity of wind profile intensified progressively, with average maximum peaking near
314 13 m s^{-1} just before rainfall onset (Fig. 8d). Conversely, LLJ_non-HR events peaked
315 earlier at -84 min in both frequency and intensity of LLJs, followed by general
316 attenuation (Fig. 7h). By -48 min, wind profiles stabilized into a double-core structure
317 maintaining around 10 m s^{-1} , with distinct jet cores near 0.8 km and 1.7 km AGL (Fig.
318 8h).

319 Furthermore, probability distributions of LLJ strength and height within 2 hours
320 preceding rainfall were compared across key regions (Fig. 9). During Phase 1 in ROI-



1, the strength of LLJs in LLJ_HR events was notably stronger by 2–3 m s⁻¹ than that in LLJ_non-HR events (Fig. 9a). Height distributions showed distinct bimodal peaks near 0.9 km and 1.75 km AGL (Fig. 9e), consistent with previously documented double LLJs influences (Du and Chen, 2019). And average LLJs height was generally higher in LLJ_HR events. During Phase 2 in ROI-2, LLJ_HR events showed higher probabilities of strong LLJs (17–28 m s⁻¹) compared to the dominant 13 m s⁻¹ intensity in LLJ_non-HR events (Fig. 9b). Influenced by large-scale circulation patterns, both event types featured LLJs centered near 1.5 km AGL (Fig. 9f), though LLJ_HR events developed a secondary maximum near 0.8 km AGL due to pre-rainfall descent of the jet core (Fig. 7b). Contrastingly, Figure 9c shows that LLJ_HR events were associated with weaker jet strengths (around 11 m s⁻¹) compared to LLJ_non-HR events (14–23 m s⁻¹) in ROI-3 during Phase 3, suggesting that strong LLJs don't necessarily induce HR here. The height of LLJ in LLJ_HR events mainly concentrated near 1.2 km AGL, whereas in LLJ_non-HR events, it was more uniformly distributed between 0–3 km AGL with a higher probability above 1.7 km (Fig. 9g). For Phase 4 in ROI-4, LLJs strength peaked near 15 m s⁻¹ in both event types, but LLJ_HR events featured stronger jets reaching 25–30 m s⁻¹ (Fig. 9d). And LLJs height in both events peaked predominantly at 0.8 km AGL, with secondary peaks at 1.5 km for LLJ_HR and 2.0 km AGL for LLJ_non-HR events (Fig. 9h).

In summary, distinct temporal evolution patterns in frequency, occurrence height, and wind profile intensity of LLJs preceding LLJ_HR events were observed across key regions during each phase. Except for ROI-3 during Phase 3, LLJ_HR events exhibited significantly higher probabilities of stronger jets, most notably in ROI-2 during Phase2. LLJs height were generally lower in LLJ_HR events, except in ROI-1 during Phase1. These findings highlight the role of fine-scale LLJ structures and their rapid vertical reorganization in modulating nocturnal rainfall intensity, offering valuable insights for improving regional nocturnal HR forecasting.



348 *3.3 Thermodynamic evolution associated with LLJs preceding nocturnal heavy*
349 *and non-heavy Rainfall*

350 The preceding section 3.2 has clarified that the fine-scale dynamic characteristics
351 of LLJs—including their temporal evolution, vertical structure, and intensity
352 variations—play a pivotal role in modulating nocturnal rainfall intensity across
353 different key regions and rainy season phases. However, the influence of LLJs on
354 rainfall generation and intensification rarely operates in isolation; instead, it depends
355 strongly on the accompanying large-scale thermodynamic environment, which
356 provides the necessary moisture supply and convective instability to sustain or amplify
357 heavy rainfall. Thus, to fully unravel the mechanisms underlying the distinction
358 between LLJ_HR and LLJ_non-HR events, it is essential to complement the dynamic
359 analysis with an in-depth examination of the thermodynamic conditions associated with
360 LLJs in the 1-hour preceding nocturnal rainfall.

361 Further analysis of large-scale thermodynamic conditions at 1-hour preceding
362 rainfall (Figs. 10 and 11) reveals consistently stronger thermal instability for LLJ_HR
363 versus LLJ_non-HR events, accompanied by stronger MFC within key regions during
364 each rainy season.

365 During Phase 1 in ROI-1, thermodynamic conditions were comparable between
366 event types. Southwesterly LLJs transported warm-moist air masses from the South
367 China Sea and Bay of Bengal, forming a pronounced warm-humid tongue. Coupled
368 with MFC centers developing north of the jet axis, this configuration facilitated
369 nocturnal rainfall development. During Phase 2 in ROI-2, although warm-moist airflow
370 prevailed northwest of the subtropical high in both event types, LLJ_HR events
371 exhibited more favorable thermodynamic conditions: mean θ_e was approximately 2 K
372 higher than in LLJ_non-HR events, with a high- θ_e center reaching 358 K, alongside
373 stronger LLJ cores ($>1.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ difference). Through baroclinic instability and LLJ
374 dynamic forcing, strong MFC centers formed along the left side of the jet axis,
375 ultimately triggering HR. During Phase 3 in ROI-3, LLJ_HR events were characterized
376 by enhanced southwesterly moisture transport interacting with cold air advection from



377 westerly troughs. Superimposed with topographic forcing from the Taihang Mountains,
378 this resulted in MFC intensities south of Beijing nearly $30 \times 10^{-5} \text{ km m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ than those
379 in LLJ_non-HR events, thereby driving nocturnal HR. Thermodynamic contrasts were
380 most pronounced during Phase 4 in ROI-4. Unlike LLJ_non-HR events characterized
381 by southwestward-extending cold highs, LLJ_HR events developed deep high- θ_e
382 centers ($>360 \text{ K}$) over the southeastern Tibetan Plateau, supplying abundant moisture
383 and convective instability. Concurrently, stronger anticyclonic circulation (consistent
384 with enhanced LLJ winds in Fig. 8d) drove cold air intrusion into ROI-4. This cold
385 airflow converged with warm-moist plateau currents over the Sichuan Basin,
386 synergizing with orographic forcing to generate a strong MFC center on the eastern lee
387 slope of plateau to promote nocturnal HR in ROI-4.

388 To elucidate the rapid processes leading to occurrence of rainfall, the minute-scale
389 evolution of key thermodynamic and dynamic parameters was further analyzed (Fig.
390 12), including surface θ_e , LLJ index (defined as the ratio of maximum wind speed below
391 3 km to the height where wind first exceeds 10 m s^{-1}) and VWS (calculated as the wind
392 speed difference between the surface and jet height divided by the jet height).

393 Figure 12a shows that during Phase 1 in ROI-1, although large-scale environments
394 were similar between event types (LLJ_HR and LLJ_non-HR), the rapid, minute-scale
395 co-intensification of thermodynamic and dynamic process prior to rainfall onset
396 governs the resulting rainfall intensity. LLJ_HR events exhibited abrupt
397 thermodynamic enhancement at 90 min preceding the onset of rainfall, with surface θ_e
398 and VWS surging approximately 1.5 K and 0.5 s^{-1} respectively. Concurrently, the LLJ
399 index surged by 0.03 and VWS peaked sharply at -60 min, signaling LLJs
400 intensification and core descent (Figs. 7a, 8a). This coordinated intensification suggests
401 a tightly coupled process in which low-level warming and moistening reinforced wind
402 acceleration, thereby enhancing shear and promoting deeper lifting conducive to HR.
403 In contrast, LLJ_non-HR events showed weaker increases and a declining LLJ index
404 (by about 0.015) alongside rising jet cores, reducing low-level shear and convergence
405 efficiency, thereby diminishing overall rainfall intensity.



406 During Phase 2 in ROI-2, LLJ_HR events showed concurrent peaks in dynamic
407 parameters (LLJ index, strength and VWS) coupled with high θ_e (348.3K) at -120 min
408 (Fig. 12b). At -84 min, a critical rapid descent of jet core height below 1 km AGL
409 coincided with surface warming and a LLJ index maximum. This change likely
410 enhanced boundary-layer convergence by bringing stronger winds into closer proximity
411 to the surface, effectively steepening VWS and facilitating deeper convective initiation.
412 The timing of this rapid evolution suggests a transient optimal window for nocturnal
413 rainfall triggering that is characteristic of LLJ_HR events in ROI-2. Subsequently, the
414 LLJ index declined sharply and a rapid surface cooling initiates beginning 60 min prior
415 to HR likely resulted from the outflow of cold pool outflow associated with alternation
416 of convective systems in the Mei-Yu front cloud system (Zhang et al., 2023). The
417 combination of the cold air and the strong southwesterly LLJs may have further enhanced
418 uplift and promoted rainfall (Luo et al., 2014). For LLJ_non-HR events, weaker
419 thermodynamic support and diminished dynamic forcing with consistently lower LLJ
420 indices ($\Delta I \approx 0.015$) within 60 min preceding rainfall resulted in insufficient lift to
421 sustain HR. These contrasting features underscored the importance of thermal-dynamic
422 synergy influenced by LLJs evolution in triggering HR.

423 During Phase 3 in ROI-3, LLJ_HR events featured prominent thermal
424 compensation (surface $\Delta\theta_e > 1\text{K}$, 850hPa $\Delta\theta_e > 2\text{K}$ versus non-HR events) despite
425 weaker dynamics compared to other phases (Fig. 12c). The LLJ index progressively
426 increased while VWS peaked synchronously with LLJ frequency. Within 30 min
427 preceding rainfall, substantial intensification of VWS by about 1.5 m s^{-1} occurred
428 driven by a rapid acceleration in the LLJ wind profile. This co-evolution with rapid
429 surface warming (increase of 0.25 K) released convective instability, enhancing
430 boundary-layer convergence (Fig. 10) and explaining the stronger MFC observed.
431 Nevertheless, the overall weaker dynamical conditions likely limited the depth and
432 organization of convection, explaining the reduced probability of heavier rainfall
433 compared to other phases.

434 And LLJ_HR events showed explosive dynamic intensification from 48 min
435 preceding rainfall in ROI-4 during Phase 4. with VWS surging 0.9 s^{-1} and LLJ index



0.025 (Fig. 12d). This rapid strengthening of the jet occurred concurrently with a gradual rise in θ_e (>346 K), enhancing low-level moist static energy and supporting vigorous uplift along the windward slopes of the Sichuan Basin. The synergistic coupling between dynamic forcing and thermodynamic persistence underscores the critical role of minute-scale jet intensification as a precursor to nocturnal HR under favorably pre-conditioned environments in ROI-4. For LLJ_non-HR events, VWS and surface θ_e reached their peaks almost simultaneously at 84 min before rainfall followed by gradual decline. The premature peak and subsequent decay in both dynamic and thermodynamic fields resulted in a lack of sustained forcing during the critical pre-convective period. And these events exhibited weaker changes of dynamics with marginal temporal evolution ($VWS < \Delta 0.45 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\Delta I < 0.02$), reflecting an absence of the coordinated intensification necessary to initiate and sustain HR.

Overall, these results adequately showcase the sensitivity of regional HR to the fine-scale structural evolution of LLJs and their coupling with thermodynamic environments.

4. Summary and concluding remarks

There exists a critical gap in the observation of minute-scale LLJ evolution prior to nocturnal rainfall. To fill this knowledge gap, this study presents the first nationwide analysis of continuous LLJ dynamics using observations from 31 RWP across China during the warm seasons (April–October) of 2023–2024. We examined vertically resolved differences in LLJ behavior within 2 hours preceding nocturnal HR and non-HR events throughout four distinct phases of the rainy season and investigated associated thermodynamic regulatory mechanisms.

At the national scale, nocturnal rainfall accounted for nearly half of the total warm-season precipitation, with 56% of these nocturnal events exhibiting LLJ influence within the preceding 2 hours. Furthermore, nocturnal HR events in ROIs during the four different phases of rainy season were identified. Statistical results revealed that approximately 45.0% of HR events were associated with LLJs, which exhibited a



465 higher probability of producing heavier rainfall than non-LLJ_HR events, underscoring
466 the strong linkage between LLJs and nocturnal HR.

467 Pronounced differences and varying lead times were observed in vertically
468 resolved evolution of LLJs and their thermodynamic environments when comparing
469 LLJ_HR and LLJ_non-HR events. During Phase 1 in ROI-1, LLJ_HR events were
470 marked by a sharp rise in LLJ frequency beginning 108 min before rainfall,
471 accompanied by abrupt thermodynamic intensification ($\Delta\theta_e \approx 1.5\text{K}$, $\Delta\text{VWS} \approx 0.5\text{ s}^{-1}$)
472 from -90 min. In contrast, LLJ_non-HR events exhibited weaker and more stable
473 thermo-dynamic conditions. During Phase 2 in ROI-2, LLJ_HR events were preceded
474 by initially strong jets ($>12\text{ m s}^{-1}$) and elevated surface θ_e ($\sim 348.3\text{ K}$), followed by a
475 rapid descent of the LLJ core below 1 km AGL at -84 min, leading to a peak in the LLJ
476 index. While LLJ_non-HR events were characterized by a stable jet core but declining
477 dynamic indices and frequency within the final 60 min before rainfall. During Phase 3
478 in ROI-3, LLJ_HR events exhibited higher LLJ frequency and an increasing LLJ index,
479 culminating in rapid wind profile restructuring within 30 min before rainfall, all under
480 significantly more unstable thermal conditions (surface $\Delta\theta_e > 1\text{ K}$) compared to non-
481 HR events. During Phase 4 in ROI-4, LLJ_HR events were driven by favorable
482 thermodynamic environments and minute-scale dynamical changes. A surge in jet
483 frequency at -48 min triggered abrupt increases in VWS ($\approx 0.9\text{ s}^{-1}$) and the LLJ index
484 (≈ 0.025) accompanied with high θ_e air, enhancing strong MFC over the southeastern
485 plateau. By contrast, LLJ_non-HR events lacked adequate thermal forcing, and LLJ
486 intensity, frequency, and dynamical parameters showed a consistent declining trend.

487 Crucially, A key finding is that nocturnal LLJ_HR events universally require rapid,
488 coupled minute-scale dynamical intensification occurring 30-120 min preceding
489 rainfall onset, acting in synergy with thermodynamic instability. LLJ_non-HR events
490 consistently displayed insufficient dynamic-thermodynamic coupling, reflected in
491 stable or declining LLJ parameters. This underscores that the intensity and timing of
492 nocturnal rainfall are ultimately regulated by regionally specific thermo-dynamic
493 interactions modulated by the evolution of fine vertical structure of the LLJ.



494 This study establishes distinct dynamic-rainfall linkages associated with LLJs
495 across different warm-season rainy periods in China. Future research should: (1)
496 expand multi-source observations to establish dynamic thresholds for early forecasting
497 systems of nocturnal rainfall, and (2) develop quantitative frameworks relating LLJ
498 structural evolution to rainfall intensity, offering theoretical support for optimizing
499 physical processes in LLJ parameterization schemes within high-resolution numerical
500 models. Additionally, the physical mechanisms governing evolution of LLJs height or
501 strength immediately preceding rainfall onset require further investigation.

502 **Data Availability**

503 The LLJs retrieved from the RWP network can be acquired from
504 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17176759> (Li and Guo, 2025). The data from the
505 weather station are obtained from the China Meteorological Data Service Centre at
506 <https://data.cma.cn/en>, and the original ERA5 reanalysis data used here are available
507 from the ECMWF in Hersbach et al. (2020).

508 **Acknowledgments**

509 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China
510 under Grants of 42325501 and 42105090, and by the National Key Research and
511 Development Program of China under grant 2024YFC3013001. Last but not least, we
512 appreciated tremendously the constructive comments and suggestions made by the
513 anonymous reviewers that significantly improved the quality of our manuscript.

514 **Author Contributions**

515 The study was completed with close cooperation between all authors. JG designed
516 the research framework; NL performed the analysis and drafted the original manuscript
517 with contribution from JG; JG, XG, ZZ, YZ. JG, NT and YW helped revise the
518 manuscript.

519 **Completing interests**

520 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

521



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732



733 **Table 1.** Table of Representative Radar Wind Profiler Stations in Mainland China

Region	Station	Longitude (°)	Latitude (°)	Altitude (m)
ROI-1	58839 MQ	118.86	26.22	160.70
	59046 LZ	109.46	24.36	314.40
	59137 JJ	118.54	24.81	124.80
	59287 GZ	113.48	23.21	65.00
	59758 HK	110.25	19.99	69.00
ROI-2	57461 YC	111.36	30.74	253.80
	57687 CS	112.79	28.11	119.00
	57793 YCN	114.36	27.79	132.00
	58238 BJ	118.90	31.93	40.60
	58321 HF	117.03	31.57	50.00
	58367 LH	121.47	31.18	5.00
	58459 XS	120.29	30.18	48.80
ROI-3	53463 HHHT	111.68	40.82	1152.10
	53772 TY	112.58	37.62	785.00
	54511 BJ	116.47	39.81	31.50
	54534 TS	118.10	39.65	23.20
	54602 BD	115.48	38.73	16.80
ROI-4	57816 GY	106.73	26.59	1197.60
	56290 XD	104.18	30.77	514.00
	56651 LJ	100.22	26.85	2382.40
Other stations	50936 BC	122.47	45.36	156.00
	51463 WLMQ	87.65	43.79	935.00
	51628 AKS	80.38	41.12	1107.10
	52754 GC	100.08	37.2	3301.50
	52889 LZ	103.89	36.06	1519.20
	57516 CQ	106.46	29.57	260.00
	53845 YA	109.45	36.58	1180.40
	54342 SY	123.51	41.73	50.00
	54857 QD	120.13	36.23	12.00
	55664 DR	87.07	28.63	4302.00
	57171 PDS	113.12	33.77	142.00



Figures

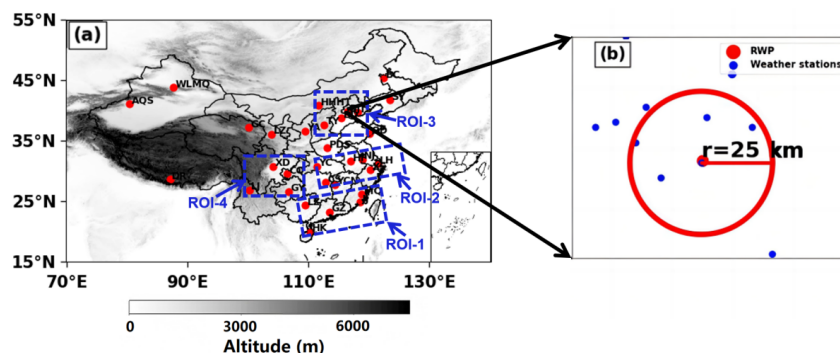


Figure.1 (a) Spatial distribution of 31 Radar Wind Profiler (RWP) stations across China, with four regions of interest (ROIs) demarcated by blue dashed boxes: ROI-1, ROI-2, ROI-3, and ROI-3. (b) Schematic of spatial co-location: Beijing Observatory's RWP (red star) and rain gauges (black dots) within a 25-km radius

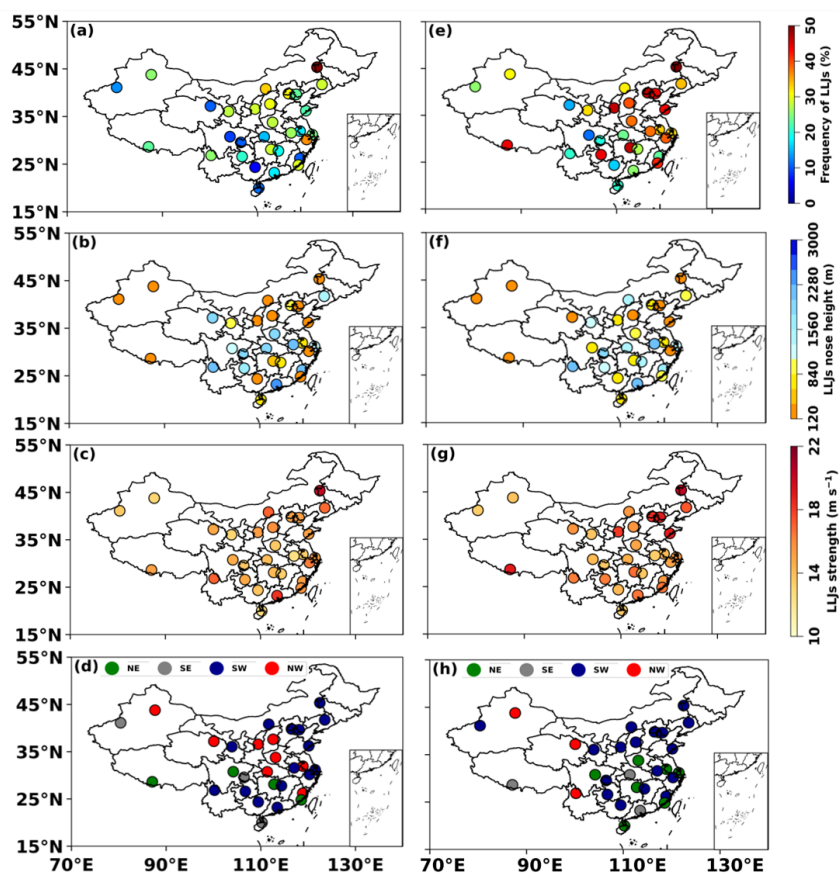
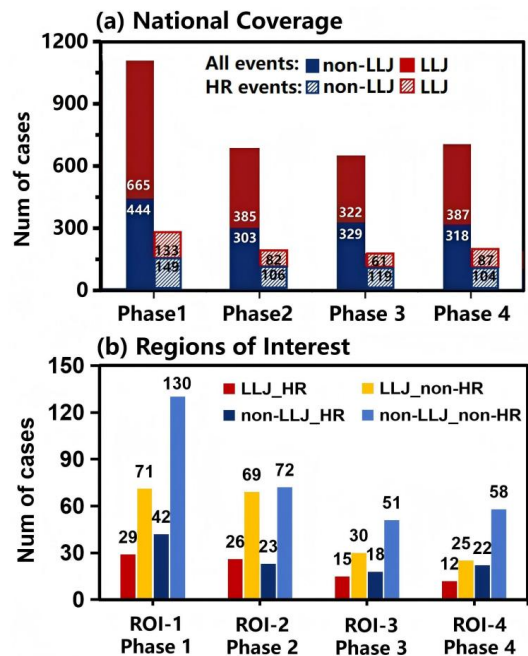
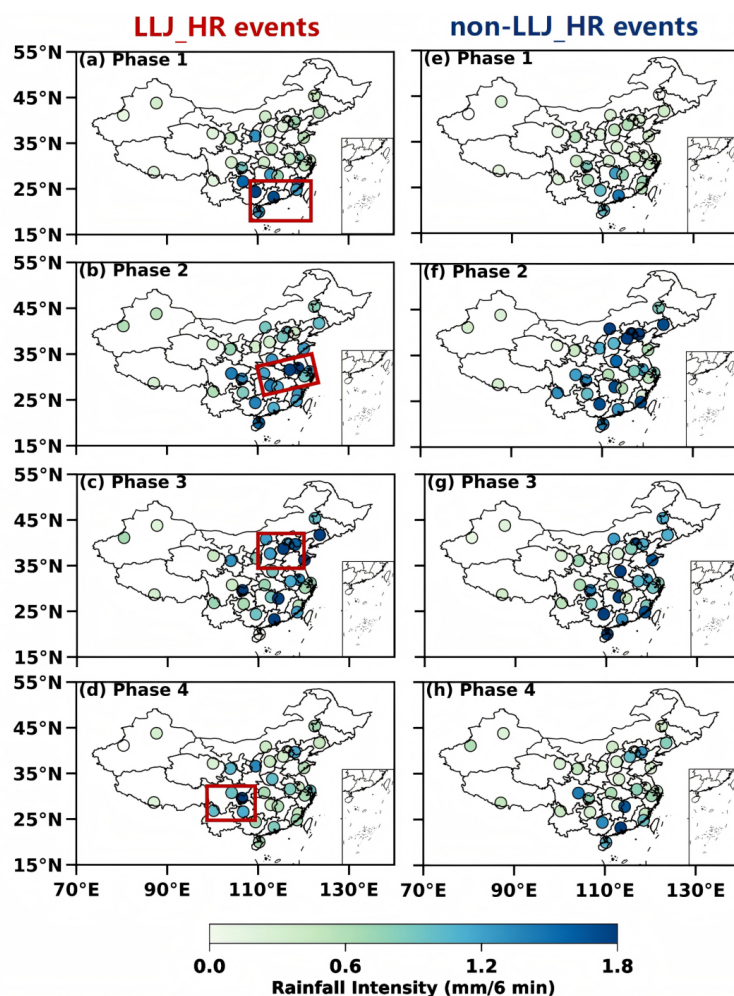


Figure 3. (a–d) Spatial distribution of occurrence frequency, height, strength, and the dominant wind direction of LLJs observed by 31 RWP stations during April–October from 2023 to 2024 in the daytime. (e–h) Same as (a–d), but in the nighttime



776
777 **Figure 4.** (a) Statistic of all nocturnal rainfall events (solid-filled bars) and heavy
778 rainfall (HR; diagonally striped bars) events selected across China during four phases,
779 including LLJ events (red) and non-LLJ events (blue); (b) Same as panel (a), but for
780 nocturnal HR events in from ROI-1 to ROI-4 during corresponding phase, including
781 LLJ-HR (red), LLJ_non-HR (yellow), non-LLJ_HR (dark blue), and non-LLJ_non-HR
782 (light blue) events.

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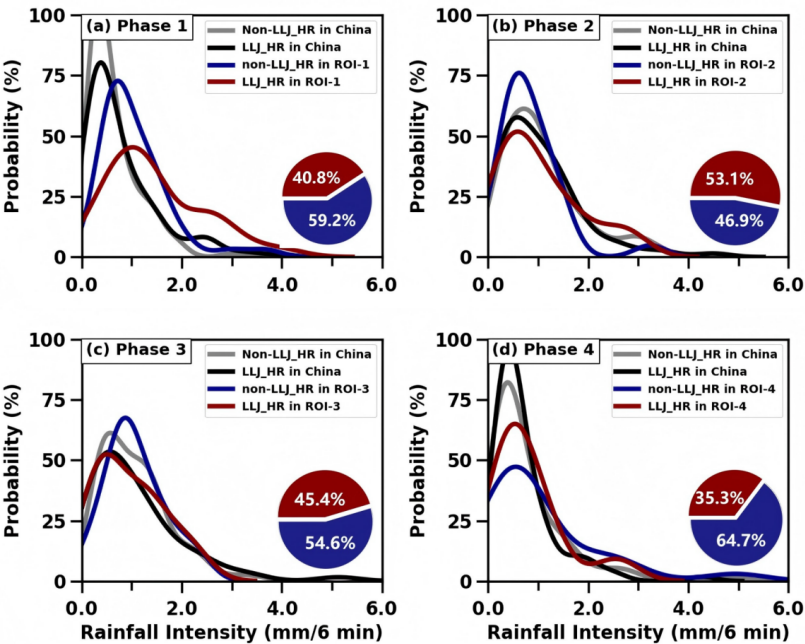
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785 **Figure 5.** (a–d) Spatial distributions of average rain rate (mm/6 min) for nocturnal

786 LLJ_HR events during the warm season from Phase 1 to Phase 4 across China; (e–h)

787 Same as (a–d), but for non-LLJ_HR events. The red frame indicates four ROIs.

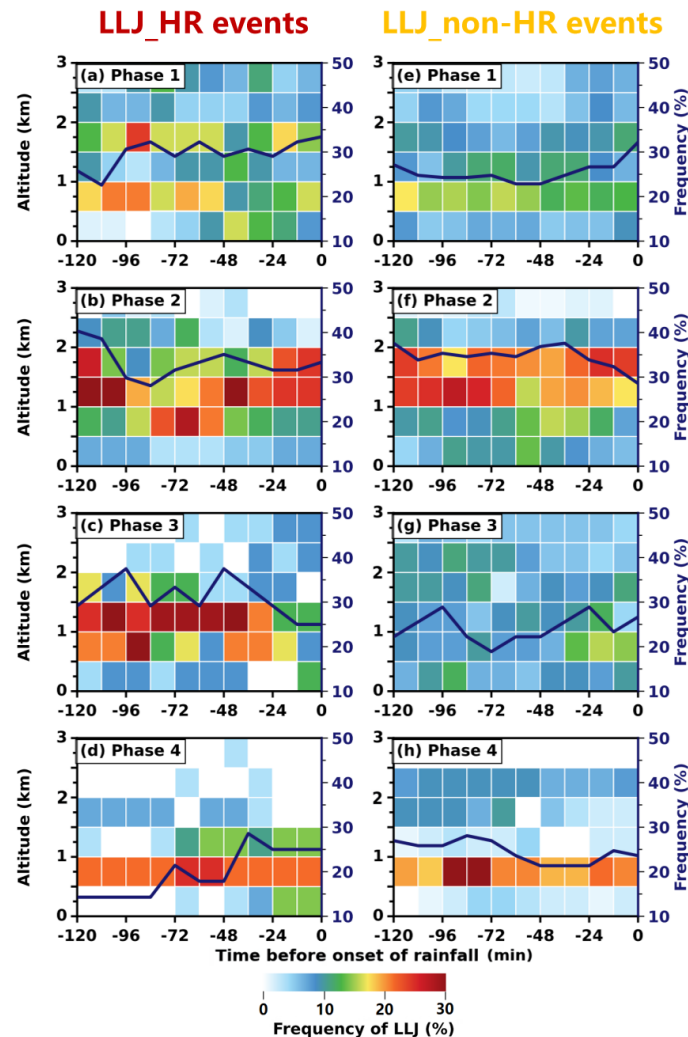
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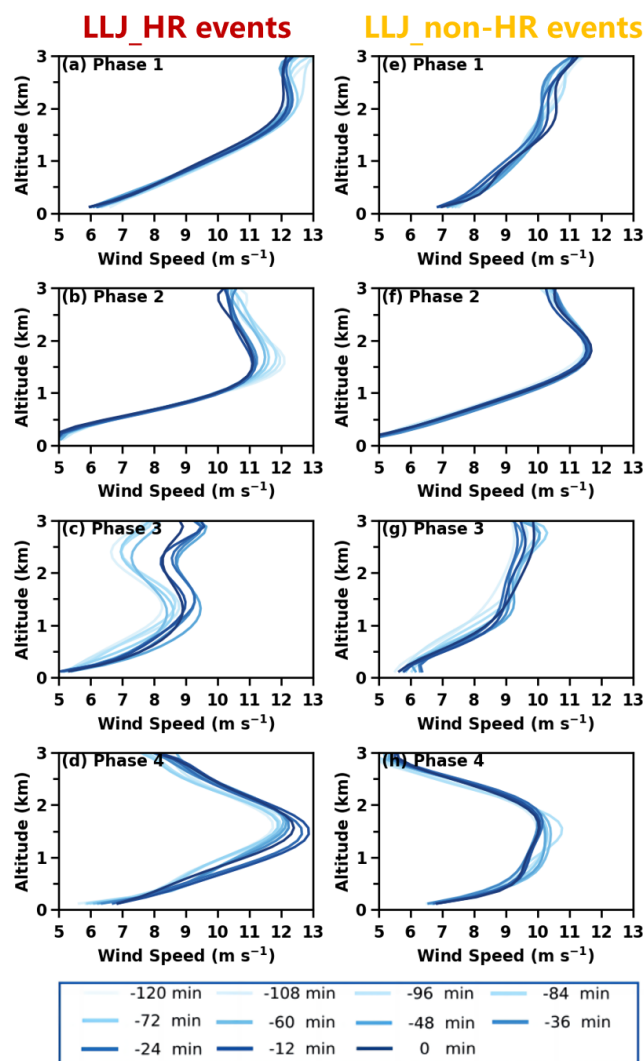
790 **Figure 6.** (a) Probability density distributions of average rain rate (mm/6 min) for LLJ-
791 HR events (black solid lines) and non-LLJ_HR events (gray solid lines) across China
792 during Phase 1, and specifically in ROI-1 for LLJ-HR events (red solid lines) and non-
793 LLJ_HR events (blue solid lines). (b-d) the same as panel (a), but for comparisons
794 between national-scale and other regional-scale events in ROI-2 during Phase 2, ROI-
795 3 during Phase 3, and ROI-4 during Phase 4. The pie chart at the lower right shows the
796 proportion distribution of LLJ-HR and non-LLJ_HR events in these key regions during
797 each period

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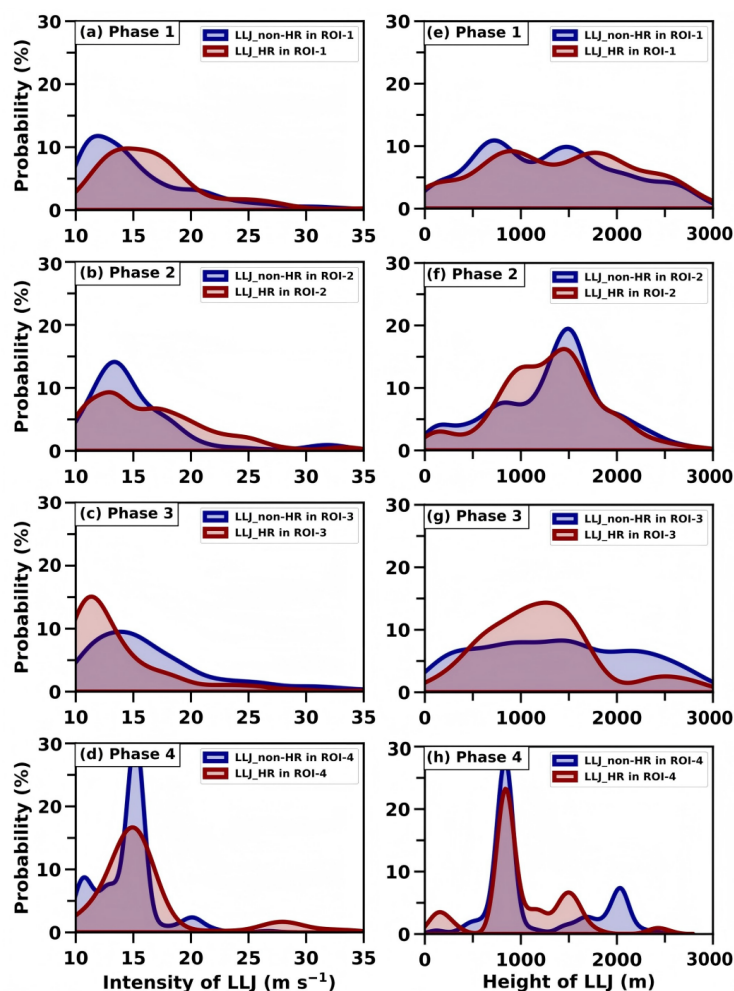
800 **Figure 7.** Time-height evolution of LLJ occurrence frequency (color shading, every 12
801 min, within 500 m vertical bins) detected by RWP with 2 hours preceding nocturnal
802 rainfall in LLJ-HR events in (a) ROI-1 during Phase 1, (b) ROI-2 during Phase 2, (c)
803 ROI-3 during Phase 3, and (d) in ROI-4 during Phase 4. Black solid lines denote
804 accumulated LLJ frequency for 3-km altitude. (e-h) Same as (a-d), but for LLJ_non-
805 HR events



806

807 **Figure 8.** (a-d) Evolution of RWP-detected mean wind profiles of LLJs (blue solid lines,
808 every 12 min) within 2 hours preceding nocturnal rainfall in LLJ-HR events in (a) ROI-
809 1 during Phase 1, (b) ROI-2 during Phase 2, (c) ROI-3 during Phase 3, and (d) in ROI-
810 4 during Phase 4. (e-h) Same as (a-d), but for LLJ_non-HR events

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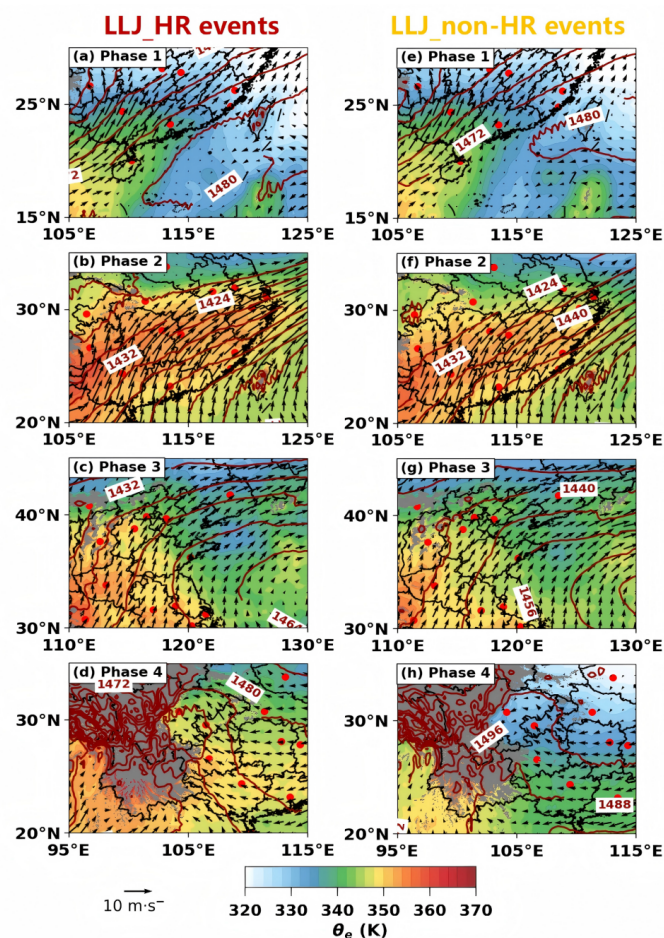
813

814 **Figure 9.** Probability density distributions of jet core intensity from RWP observations
815 within 2 hours preceding nocturnal rainfall in LLJ-HR events in (a) ROI-1 during Phase
816 1, (b) ROI-2 during Phase 2, (c) ROI-3 during Phase 3, and (d) in ROI-4 during Phase
817 4. (e-h) Same as (a-d), but for the height of LLJs

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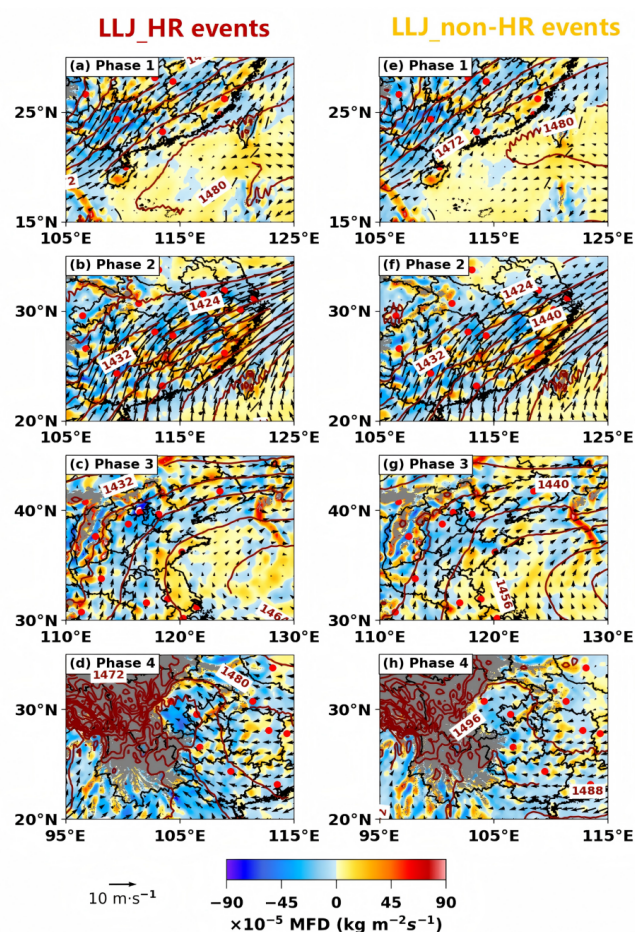
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822 **Figure 10.** Distributions of equivalent potential temperature (shading, unit: K) at 850
 823 hPa, superimposed with 850 hPa horizontal wind vectors (black arrows) and
 824 geopotential height contours (red solid lines), for LLJ-HR events within 1-hour time
 825 window preceding nocturnal rainfall onset in (a) ROI-1 during Phase 1, (b) ROI-2
 826 during Phase 2, (c) ROI-3 during Phase 3, and (d) in ROI-4 during Phase 4. Gray
 827 shading denotes terrain elevation exceeding 850 Pa level. The reference vector (10
 828 m s⁻¹) is shown at the lower-left corner. (e-h) Same as (a-d), but for LLJ_non-HR events



829

830 **Figure 11.** Same as Figure 10, but showing the integrated moisture flux divergence

831 (shading, unit: $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) between 1000–700 hPa at 1 hour preceding nocturnal rainfall

832 onset

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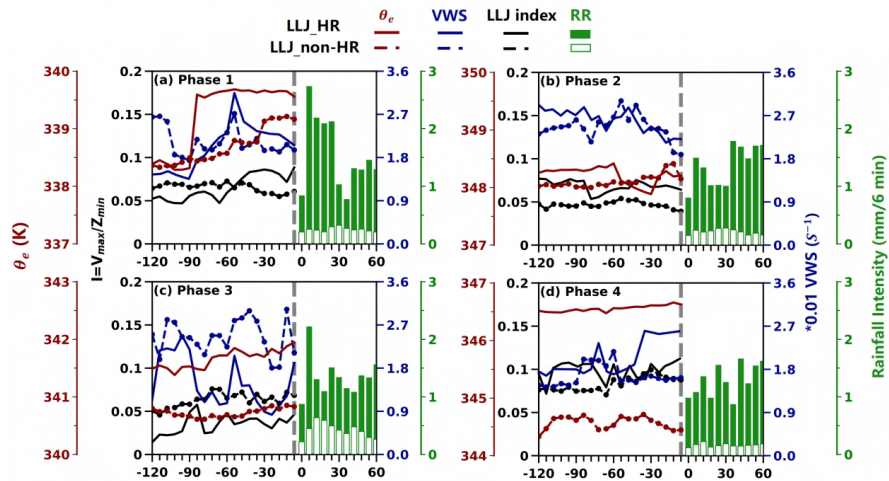


Figure 12. Temporal evolution of surface equivalent potential temperature (θ_e , red lines), vertical wind shear (VWS, blue lines), and LLJ index (I, black lines) averaged within 2 hours preceding nocturnal rainfall for LLJ-HR events (solid lines) and LLJ_non-HR events (dashed lines) in (a) ROI-1 during Phase 1, (b) ROI-2 during Phase 2, (c) ROI-3 during Phase 3, and (d) in ROI-4 during Phase 4. Green bars denote 6-min averaged rain rate (mm/6 min) after LLJ-HR (solid bars) and LLJ_non-HR (open bars) events onset