

1 **Evaluating the representation of tropical stratocumulus**
2 **and shallow cumulus clouds as well as their radiative**
3 **effects in CMIP6 models using satellite observations**

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8 **Key Points:**

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- 10 • We introduce a new approach to distinguish stratocumulus and shallow cumulus regimes over tropical oceans based on cloud cover.
 - 11 • The ‘too-few, too bright’ tropical low-cloud problem persists in twelve CMIP6 models within stratocumulus and shallow cumulus regimes.
 - 12 • Most CMIP6 models underestimate (overestimate) the relative frequency of occurrence of stratocumulus (shallow cumulus).
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Abstract

Low clouds over tropical oceans reflect a great proportion of solar radiation back to space and thereby cool the Earth, yet this phenomenon has been poorly simulated in several previous generations of climate models. The principal aim of the present study is to employ satellite observations to evaluate the representation of marine tropical low clouds and their radiative effect at the top of the atmosphere in a subset of latest climate models participating in CMIP6. We strive for regime-oriented model validation and hence introduce a qualitative approach to discriminate stratocumulus (Sc) from shallow cumulus (Cu). The novel Sc-Cu categorization has a conceptual advantage of being based on cloud properties, rather than relying on a model response to a cloud-controlling factor. We find that CMIP6 models underestimate low-cloud cover in both Sc- and Cu-regions of tropical oceans. A more detailed investigation of cloud biases reveals that most CMIP6 models underestimate the relative frequency of occurrence (RFO) of Sc and overestimate RFO of Cu. We further demonstrate that tropical low cloudiness in CMIP6 models remains too bright. The regime-oriented validation represents the basis for improving parameterizations of physical processes that determine the cloud cover and radiative impact of Sc and Cu, which are still misrepresented in current climate models.

Plain Language Summary

Similar as white snow and ice caps, bright low clouds have a high shortwave albedo, reflecting a huge amount of sunlight back to space and thereby helping us counteract global warming. The shadowing effect of bright low clouds is especially pronounced over tropical oceans, since equatorial regions of our planet receive most sunshine, which is in clear skies otherwise practically entirely absorbed within the contrastingly dark ocean. Climate models had traditionally struggled simulating these clouds by underestimating their areal extent and simultaneously overestimating their reflectivity. In other words, simulated clouds were commonly found to be ‘too few’ and ‘too bright’ compared to observations, which introduced a substantial uncertainty to climate projections. Herein we proposed a novel approach to proficiently decompose tropical low cloudiness into stratocumulus and shallow cumulus regime, which is essential to provide a proper guidance for climate model development. We subsequently showed that the newest generation of climate models still suffers from the ‘too few, too bright’ tropical low cloud problem within both stratocumulus and shallow cumulus regimes, which thus needs to be further tackled with the greatest possible endeavor.

1 Introduction

Bright low clouds cover substantial areas of dark tropical oceans and play a critical role in regulating the Earth’s radiative energy budget (Bony and Dufresne, 2005; Schneider et al., 2017; Cesana and Del Genio, 2021). They reflect a substantial portion of the incoming sunlight back to space and thus exert a profound cooling effect on the Earth’s climate. Climate models, however, have a longstanding problem simulating these clouds, which limits our ability to accurately predict the amount of global warming caused by rising greenhouse gas emissions (Bony and Dufresne, 2005; Sherwood et al., 2020).

A major issue, which persisted in previous generations of climate models of the World Climate Research Programme’s Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP), is known as the ‘too-few, too bright’ tropical low-cloud problem (Nam et al., 2012). In brief, climate models commonly underestimated the amount of tropical and subtropical low-level clouds (e.g., Teixeira et al. 2011; Cesana and Chepfer, 2012; Cesana and Waliser, 2016; Cesana et al., 2019c) and simultaneously overestimated their reflectance (e.g., Weare, 2004; Karlsson et al., 2008; Nam et al., 2012). In the present study we revisit the ‘too-few, too bright’ tropical low-cloud problem in latest climate models participating in phase

64 6 of CMIP (CMIP6; Eyring et al., 2016), which are currently being evaluated as a com-
65 munity effort (Schuddeboom and McDonald, 2021; Tselioudis et al., 2021).

66 Satellite observations have been regularly exploited to assess the fidelity of climate
67 models (e.g., Pincus et al., 2008; Jiang et al., 2012; Cesana and Chepfer, 2012; Cesana
68 et al., 2019c), being especially valuable due to their extensive coverage. Evaluating clouds
69 (and other fields) simulated by global climate models (GCMs) using satellite observa-
70 tions, however, is challenging, because satellite-borne instruments do not directly mea-
71 sure meteorological quantities of interest as simulated by GCMs. In order to facilitate
72 the comparison between observed and model-simulated fields, the Cloud Feedback Model
73 Intercomparison Project (CFMIP) community introduced the CFMIP Observation Sim-
74 ulator Package (COSP; Bodas-Salcedo, 2011; Swales et al., 2018). Given the atmospheric
75 data provided by a GCM, the COSP software reproduces observations of multiple instru-
76 ments on board of various satellite missions such as CloudSat (Stephens et al., 2002) and
77 Cloud-Aerosols Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations (CALIPSO; Winker
78 et al., 2010) within the A-train constellation (Stephens et al., 2002, 2018).

79 To summarize, the objective of the present study is to employ satellite observations
80 to evaluate tropical low clouds together with their radiative effect at the top of the at-
81 mosphere (TOA) in a subset of CMIP6 models. In particular, we strive to assess model
82 representation of individual low-cloud regimes commonly found in tropical areas of large-
83 scale subsidence – namely the eastern ocean stratocumulus (Sc) and trade wind shal-
84 low cumulus (Cu). These essentially contrasting cloud types are driven by a distinct in-
85 terplay of small-scale processes within the moist marine boundary layer – convection,
86 turbulence, radiation and cloud microphysics (Ackerman et al., 1993, 2000, 2009; Ack-
87 erman and Toon, 1996; Stevens et al., 2001), which are often poorly and inconsistently
88 parameterized across climate models (Randall et al., 2003; Stevens and Bony, 2013; Bony
89 et al., 2015; Klein et al., 2017). A cloud-regime-oriented model evaluation would help
90 identify shortcomings of physical parameterization schemes, which govern the formation
91 and evolution of Sc and Cu clouds, and is thus a crucial first step towards more reliable
92 climate change projections. Furthermore, Sc and Cu clouds exhibit a fundamentally con-
93 trasting response to the change in their controlling meteorological factors such as rising
94 sea surface temperature and low-level inversion strength and are associated with differ-
95 ent feedbacks (Cesana and Del Genio, 2021), which highlights the importance of a regime-
96 based investigation. Accurate representation of geographical distributions of Sc and Cu
97 clouds is thereby essential for realistic low-cloud feedbacks (Cesana and Del Genio, 2021).

98 To carry out such a cloud regime-oriented evaluation of climate models, however,
99 one has to find a qualitative way to separate Sc from Cu, because CMIP diagnostics do
100 not distinguish between stratiform and convective cloud covers. A classic way to sepa-
101 rate Sc from Cu clouds in tropical and subtropical areas of large-scale subsidence is by
102 means of the estimated inversion strength (EIS), which is known to be a good predic-
103 tor of stratocumulus (Wood and Bretherton, 2006). Even though this approach gener-
104 ally works well in the real world, it has limitations when applied to climate models which
105 misrepresent EIS. An important aim of the present work is to introduce a novel Sc-Cu
106 categorization, which can be utilized to reliably separate contributions from Sc and Cu
107 clouds in both observations and climate models.

108 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents observa-
109 tional, reanalysis and CMIP6 data as well as various approaches to discriminate Sc from
110 Cu. The evaluation of climate models using the Sc-Cu categorization introduced in this
111 study is carried out in Section 3. A brief summary and concluding remarks are given in
112 Section 4.

113 2 Data and Methods

114 2.1 Satellite observations and reanalysis data

115 We utilize low-cloud cover (LCC) observations from the GCM-Oriented CALIPSO
 116 Cloud Product version 2.9 (CALIPSO-GOCCP; Chepfer et al., 2010, Cesana et al., 2016),
 117 which was specifically designed to evaluate cloudiness simulated by GCMs using a lidar
 118 simulator. It is based on measurements taken by the CALIPSO Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with
 119 Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP, Winker et al., 2010). We restrict our analysis to sub-
 120 sidence regimes over tropical and subtropical oceans (between 35S and 35N), where the
 121 pressure vertical velocity at 500 hPa exceeds 10 hPa day^{-1} . In these regions the amount
 122 of high-cloud is small and hence generates less attenuation of the lidar signal, thereby
 123 reducing the high-cloud shielding effect.

124 To discriminate Sc from Cu we use the recently created Cumulus And Stratocu-
 125 mulus CloudSat-CALIPSO Dataset (CASCCAD) described in detail by Cesana et al.
 126 (2019b). This unique algorithm considers cloud morphology to classify low cloudiness
 127 into several categories including Sc, Cu and various transitioning regimes (broken Sc, Cu
 128 under Sc, and Cu with stratiform outflow) at the orbital level. CASCCAD reports monthly
 129 values of cloud fraction over a 10-year period (2007–2017) and has a spatial resolution
 130 of 2.5 degrees in both latitudinal and longitudinal directions.

131 The observed cloud-radiative effect (CRE) estimates at TOA are obtained from the
 132 Clouds and the Earth’s Radiant Energy System (CERES) Energy Balanced and Filled
 133 (EBAF) satellite product Ed. 4.1 (Loeb et al., 2018). Specifically, the CERES-EBAF
 134 clear-sky and all-sky radiative fluxes are employed to compute the CRE. We consider
 135 solely the short-wave (SW) CRE component, since low clouds contribute minorly to the
 136 long-wave TOA radiation budget.

137 The middle-tropospheric pressure vertical velocity at 500 hPa, which is used to de-
 138 fine the subsidence regimes, is derived from averaging three reanalysis datasets includ-
 139 ing Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications version 2 (MERRA-
 140 2), the fifth generation of ECMWF reanalysis (ERA-5) and the NCEP Department of
 141 Energy Atmospheric Model Intercomparison Project reanalysis (NCEP-DOE R-2). The
 142 same three reanalysis datasets are employed to compute EIS. All data were regridded
 143 to the CASCCAD spatial grid.

144 2.2 Climate models

145 We analyze monthly mean output of CMIP6 climate model experiments, which re-
 146 late to the Atmospheric Model Intercomparison Project (AMIP) using a prescribed sea
 147 surface temperature. The CALIPSO lidar simulator (Chepfer et al., 2008) integrated in
 148 COSP is employed to consistently compare low cloudiness in observations and climate
 149 models. We investigate the realism of 12 model configurations stemming from different
 150 modeling centers given in Table 1, which provided the output of CALIPSO lidar sim-
 151 ulator. To address the atmospheric variability within a vast GCM grid column, the COSP
 152 instrument simulator operates on a multitude of homogeneous subcolumns to reproduce
 153 satellite pixel variability. These subcolumns are normally produced within COSP in ac-
 154 cordance with GCM’s assumptions for subgrid cloud structure utilizing the Subgrid Cloud
 155 Overlap Profile Sampler (Webb et al., 2001). A few GCMs from the analyzed set em-
 156 ploy COSP2 (Swales et al., 2018), whereby subcolumns can be adopted directly from a
 157 GCM, since they are often stochastically generated (Räisänen et al., 2004) within model’s
 158 radiation scheme such as the commonly employed McICA algorithm (Pincus et al., 2003).

159 We employ 8 years of CMIP6 simulations (2007–2014), which overlap with the CASC-
 160 CAD temporal range and regrid them to the observational spatial grid.

Model acronym	Modeling center	Reference
NorESM2-LM	Norwegian Climate Center, Norway	Seland et al. (2020)
MIROC6	Center for Climate System Research, Japan	Tatebe et al. (2019)
GISS-E2-1-G	NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies, USA	Kelley et al. (2020)
BCC-CSM2-MR	Beijing Climate Center, China	Wu et al. (2019)
MRI-ESM2-0	Meteorological Research Institute, Japan	Yukimoto et al. (2019)
GFDL-CM4	NOAA Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, USA	Held et al. (2019)
IPSL-CM6A-LR	Institute Pierre Simon Laplace, France	Boucher et al. (2020)
CNRM-CM6-1	National Centre for Meteorological Research, France	Voltaire et al. (2019)
CESM2	National Center for Atmospheric Research, USA	Danabasoglu et al. (2020)
E3SM-1-0	US Department of Energy, USA	Golaz et al. (2019)
HadGEM3-GC31-LL	Met Office Hadley Centre, UK	Andrews et al. (2020)
CanESM5	Centre for Climate Modeling and Analysis, Canada	Swart et al. (2019)

Table 1. List of analyzed CMIP6 models.

161 2.3 Approaches to discriminate Sc from Cu

162 As pointed out in the Introduction it is challenging to evaluate the representation
 163 of Sc and Cu in climate model output, since only a single low-cloud cover variable is archived
 164 in the CMIP database. In the following we first summarize the traditional approach to
 165 separate Sc from Cu based on environmental characteristics and subsequently present
 166 an alternative, new categorization.

167 2.3.1 Categorization based on EIS

168 A traditional approach to differentiate between individual low-cloud regimes in trop-
 169 ical and subtropical areas governed by large-scale subsidence is by means of some mea-
 170 sure of lower-tropospheric stability (e.g., Nam et al., 2012; Myers et al., 2021), since re-
 171 gions of the main stratocumulus decks off the west coast of the continents are associated
 172 with stronger atmospheric stability than shallow cumulus areas in the trade winds. A
 173 convenient parameter to describe low-level atmospheric stability is the estimated inver-
 174 sion strength (Wood and Bretherton, 2006) and an EIS threshold of 1 K – despite be-
 175 ing imperfect (Cesana and Del Genio, 2021) – was commonly employed in previous work
 176 to determine whether (model) grid box is classified as being either Sc- or Cu-dominated
 177 (e.g., Myers et al., 2021).

178 This categorization has additional shortcomings when applied to climate models.
 179 Figure 1 (left) shows probability density of EIS in averaged reanalysis (combining MERRA-
 180 2, ERA-5, NCEP data) and CMIP6 models. All analyzed models systematically under-
 181 estimate EIS implied by reanalyses, although they relatively well capture the shape of
 182 the EIS distribution. This large underestimation of EIS in CMIP6 models implies that
 183 the traditional Sc-Cu categorization utilizing a fixed EIS threshold of 1 K tends to al-
 184 locate an insufficient amount of LCC to the Sc component, while attributing an exces-
 185 sive amount of LCC to the Cu component in models.

186 Figure 1 (right) additionally visualizes LCC as a function of EIS derived from ob-
 187 servations/reanalyses and CMIP6 models. Observed LCC increases with an approximately
 188 constant rate of about 5 % per K of EIS rise. Models have a differing ability to repro-
 189 duce the rate of this increase, whereby multiple models strongly misrepresent the LCC-
 190 EIS relationship, making EIS not the ideal choice for discriminating among cloud types.

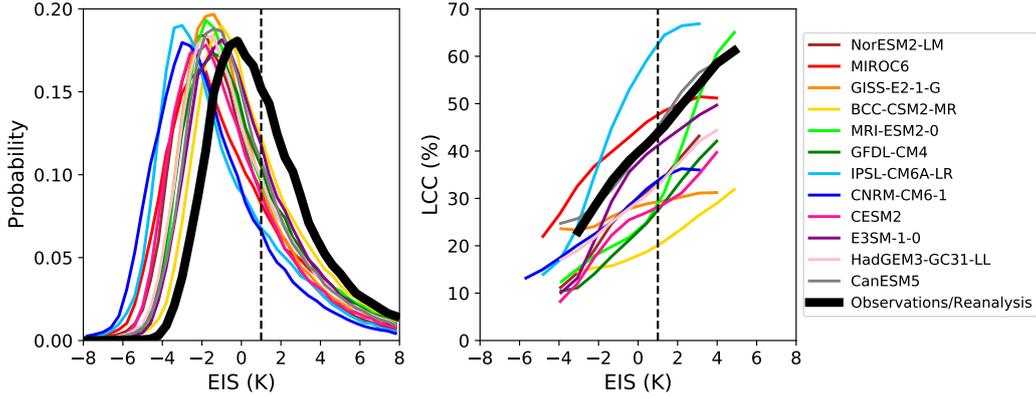


Figure 1. Left: Probability density functions of estimated inversion strength in subsidence regimes of tropical oceans derived from reanalyses and CMIP6 models. Right: Relationship between LCC and EIS in observations/reanalyses and CMIP6 models. The vertical dashed line at EIS of 1 K marks the common threshold used to discriminate Sc from Cu.

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2.3.2 Categorization based on LCC

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Herein we propose a new approach to discriminate Sc from Cu, which is based on cloud properties and thus alleviates the aforementioned problem. This categorization originates from the idea that overcast Sc scenarios typically have larger cloud cover than broken Cu cloud fields. In particular, we utilize the averaged LCC in tropical subsidence oceanic regions in each monthly time step to determine whether the grid box is dominated by Sc or Cu. The observed Sc- and Cu- cloud cover distributions derived from CASCAD exhibit a crossover at this threshold. It should be noted that throughout this work we incorporate CASCAD transitioning regimes into the Sc component, whereby their contribution to Sc cloud cover is small (Cesana et al., 2019b). This action is further justified by the fact that Sc-Cu transitioning categories (“broken Sc”, “Cu under Sc”, “Cu with stratiform outflow”) overall show a greater resemblance to the pure Sc- than to the pure Cu-category when comparing their morphological characteristics (Cesana et al., 2019b) as well as optical properties (Pincus et al., 1999).

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Figure 2 evaluates geographical distributions of Sc- and Cu-cloud cover created with the novel Sc-Cu categorization being applied to CALIPSO-GOCCP observations of LCC. The benchmark Sc- and Cu-cloud cover components are obtained from CALIPSO-GOCCP utilizing the relative frequency of occurrence (RFO) of a given cloud type derived from CASCAD (e.g., RFO_{Sc} ; whereby $RFO_{Cu} = 1 - RFO_{Sc}$) to determine whether grid box is classified as being either Sc-dominated ($RFO_{Sc} > 0.5$) or Cu-dominated ($RFO_{Sc} \leq 0.5$). Both reconstructed cloud-type distributions show a good match with their benchmark counterparts derived from CASCAD.

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Both Sc-Cu categorizations perform similarly well when applied to observational LCC dataset (Supplementary Text 1). There is indeed some ambiguity about the outcome of the two categorizations when employed in climate models. It should thereby be noted that we utilize a model-dependent LCC threshold when employing a new categorization in GCMs. We next proceed with a regime-oriented validation of CMIP6 models using the new Sc-Cu categorization (Section 3). Finally, Supplementary Text 3 briefly compares the two categorizations in models.

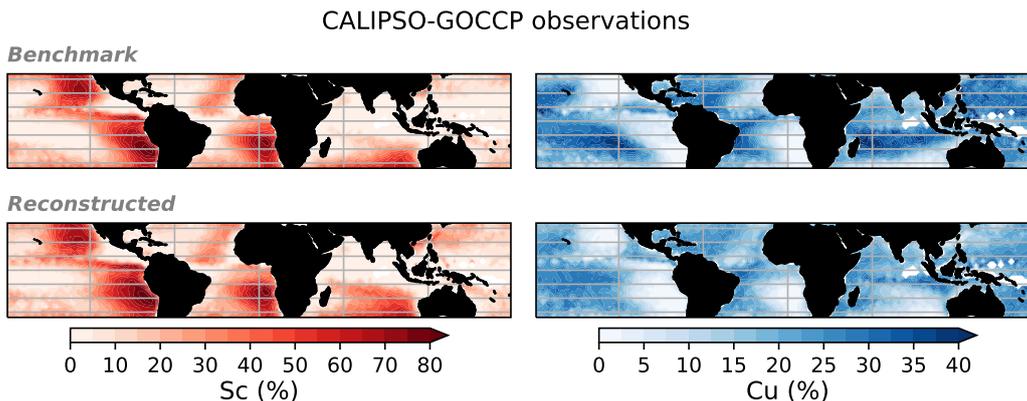


Figure 2. Evaluation of reconstructed cloud-type distributions obtained with novel Sc-Cu discrimination utilizing a dynamic LCC threshold, being applied to CALIPSO-GOCCP observations of LCC. Benchmark Sc- and Cu- cloud cover components are derived from CASCCAD.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Spatial patterns of LCC and shortwave CRE

Figure 3 compares geographical distributions of low-cloud type climatology in subsidence areas of tropical oceans as simulated by the CMIP6 multimodel mean with CALIPSO-GOCCP observations. It is clear that latest climate models still struggle representing low cloudiness: on average, LCC in both Sc- and Cu-regions is strongly underestimated. The absolute bias reaches up to 30 % in Sc-regions and up to 15 % in Cu-regions. The CMIP6 models, on average, approximately capture geographical locations of the two regimes; namely stratocumulus decks off the west coast of the continents and shallow cumuli scattered further west over the open ocean. Nevertheless, the inspection of the relative frequency of occurrence of a given cloud type (e.g., RFO_{Sc} , Fig. 3; bottom row) reveals areas where models simulate inadequate amount of a particular cloud type relative to low clouds compared to observations.

Figure 4 compares the corresponding shortwave cloud-radiative effect at TOA as simulated by the CMIP6 multimodel mean with CERES observations. The negative CRE field implies a cooling effect of low clouds on climate throughout tropical oceans, although the pattern is by far not uniform. Instead, it markedly reflects the presence of individual cloud regimes: it stems predominantly from Sc-regions, whereas it is smaller in Cu-regions. The CMIP6 models, on average, overestimate the magnitude of the observed negative CRE throughout the majority of tropical oceans. Figures S3 and S4 additionally show geographical distributions of LCC and CRE decomposed into Sc- and Cu-components as simulated by individual CMIP6 models.

Figure 5 evaluates spatial patterns of simulated LCC and SW CRE against observations with the aid of Taylor diagrams (Taylor, 2001). They concurrently display multiple metrics including normalized standard deviation and spatial correlation coefficient, whereby the anomalies are computed relative to the total mean (8-year period). It is apparent that CMIP6 models struggle capturing geographical distributions of LCC and CRE in both Sc- and Cu-regions of tropical oceans. Nevertheless, the correlation coefficient between the modeled and observed field is mostly higher in Sc-regions than in Cu-regions, which is evident for both LCC and CRE. Noteworthy, all models underestimate the observed variability of LCC in both Sc- and Cu-regions, with the exception of IPSL-CM6A-LR, which is in closest agreement with observations. The variability of simulated CRE

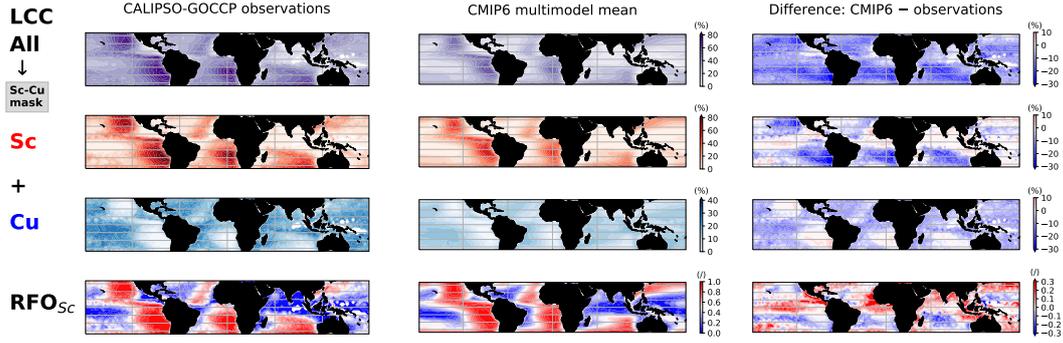


Figure 3. Geographical distributions of low-cloud type in CALIPSO-GOCCP observations and CMIP6 multimodel mean. Bottom left and middle panels visualize RFO_{Sc} : regions shaded red are dominated by Sc, while regions shaded blue are dominated by Cu. The right column shows the corresponding difference between the CMIP6 multimodel mean and observations.

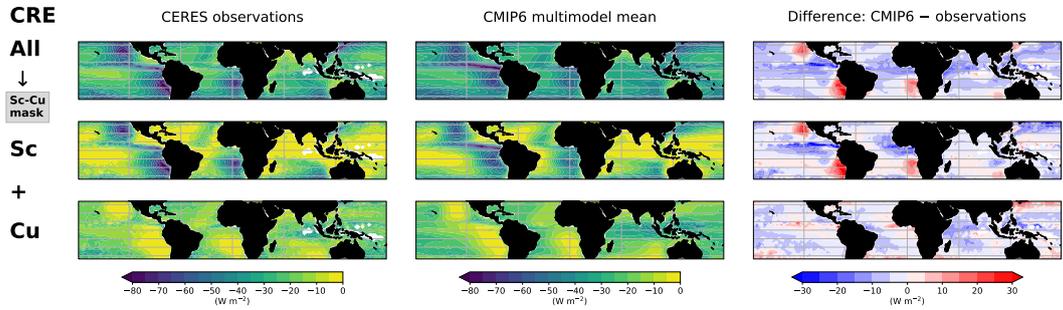


Figure 4. Geographical distributions of SW CRE associated with each low-cloud regime in CERES observations and CMIP6 multimodel mean as well as the corresponding difference.

252 generally shows a better match with observations, whereby normalized standard deviations
 253 commonly lie in the range between 0.8 and 1.2. The most noticeable outlier is MIROC6,
 254 which significantly overestimates the variability in both Sc- and Cu-regions. We identify
 255 further contrasting findings for Sc- and Cu-regimes, whereby models mostly underestimate
 256 the observed variability of CRE in Cu-regions, whereas they tend to overestimate it in
 257 Sc-regions. These results exemplify there are other factors than LCC which profoundly affect
 258 the CRE bias.

259 3.2 Relationship between LCC and shortwave CRE

260 Figure 6 (top) additionally displays probability density functions (PDFs) of LCC
 261 in subsidence regimes of tropical oceans. The division of the latter into Sc- and Cu-components
 262 reveals that models simulate strongly biased LCC distribution within each of the two
 263 regimes. Specifically, the observed PDF peaks at approximately 55 and 35 % within Sc-
 264 and Cu-regions, respectively. Contrarily, model PDFs generally peak in the range between
 265 20 and 40 % in Sc-regions, whereas they predominantly peak between 5 and 30 %
 266 in Cu-regions. We further note that the shape of simulated distributions is highly variable
 267 across the CMIP6 ensemble. The best-performing model is CanESM5, which fairly

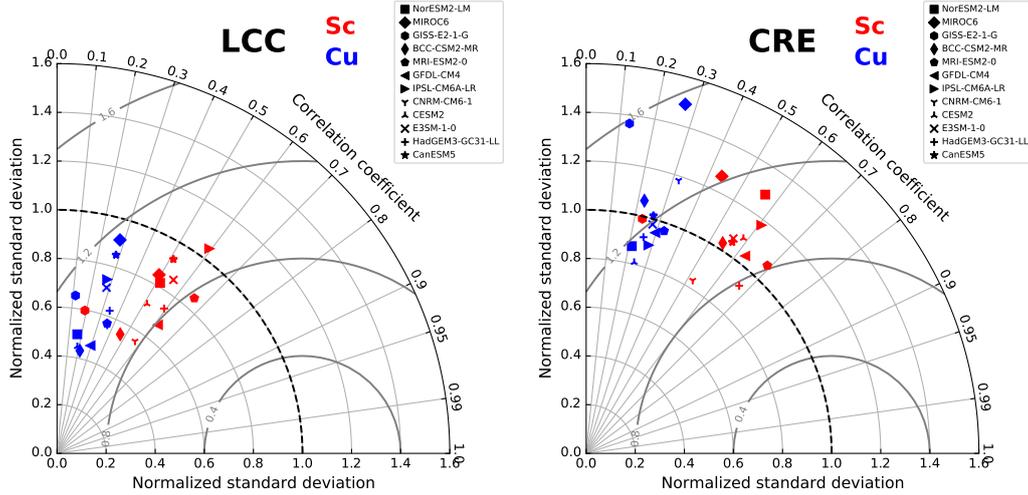


Figure 5. Taylor diagrams evaluating simulated LCC (left) and SW CRE (right) in Sc- and Cu-regions of tropical oceans.

268 well captures the observed distributional peak and shape in Sc- and Cu-regions. Figure
 269 S5 offers an alternative visualization of these results.

270 We next investigate the relationship between LCC and SW CRE shown in Fig. 6
 271 (bottom). As expected the observed amount of reflected sunlight and hence the mag-
 272 nitude of negative SW CRE increases with increasing LCC. Noteworthy, the observed
 273 rate of increase is larger in Sc- than in Cu-regions. The observed nonlinear relationship
 274 between LCC and CRE is generally attributed to the increasing liquid water path with
 275 increasing LCC. Črnivec and Mayer (2019), as an illustration, investigated a shallow cu-
 276 mulcus cloud field rising into stratocumulus and showed that both cloud cover and liq-
 277 uid water path concurrently increase with the simulation time.

278 Remarkably, all climate models overestimate the magnitude of negative SW CRE
 279 at a given LCC (by up to a factor of 2 to 3), which is evident throughout the entire range
 280 of LCC. This is consistent with findings of Nam et al. (2012) and implies that tropical
 281 low cloudiness in CMIP6 models remains too bright. The latter bias might be attributed
 282 to the inappropriate amount of averaged liquid water content, which is thus likely over-
 283 estimated in models, as well as to other factors such as the parameterization of subgrid
 284 cloud variability and optical properties within the radiation scheme. CanESM5, which
 285 best captures the observed PDF of LCC, also exhibits the smallest bias in reflectance
 286 within both Sc- and Cu-regions. This is again in line with Nam et al. (2012), who pointed
 287 out that previous version of the Canadian GCM (CanAM4) incorporating proficient pa-
 288 rameterizations of subgrid cloud structure, was the model that minimized the overesti-
 289 mation of negative CRE among their set of analyzed CMIP5 members. BCC-CSM2-MR
 290 exhibits the largest CRE bias in Sc-regions, while in Cu-regions MIROC6 shows the largest
 291 discrepancy from observations. Studies exploiting a rich combination of measurements
 292 (Pincus et al., 1999) and large-eddy-simulations (Črnivec and Mayer, 2020, 2021) reveal
 293 that Sc and Cu own distinct internal inhomogeneity characteristics. The contrasting het-
 294 erogeneity of stratiform and convective clouds is not yet properly addressed within ra-
 295 diation schemes of current GCMs.

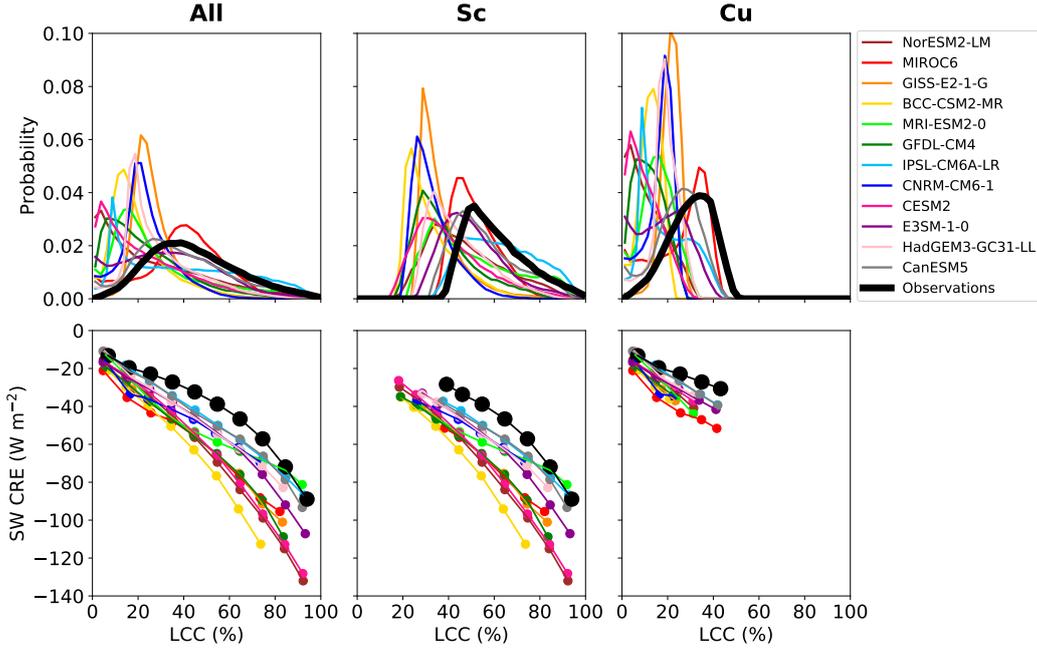


Figure 6. Top: Probability density functions of LCC derived from observations and CMIP6 models in subsidence regimes of tropical oceans as well as separately in regions dominated by Sc and Cu. Bottom: The corresponding mean 2D histograms of LCC and SW CRE.

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3.3 LCC error decomposition

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To gain further insight into cloud biases it is convenient to decompose overall LCC model error of a specific cloud regime (r) into various components as follows (e.g., Schuddeboom and McDonald, 2021):

$$\delta LCC_r = LCC_r^{obs} \Delta RFO_r + RFO_r^{obs} \Delta LCC_r + \Delta LCC_r \Delta RFO_r, \quad (1)$$

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where the relative frequency of occurrence RFO_r is the rate at which given cloud regime occurs; $\Delta RFO_r = RFO_r^{mod} - RFO_r^{obs}$ and $\Delta LCC_r = LCC_r^{mod} - LCC_r^{obs}$ capture the difference between model and observations. Thus the three terms on the right-hand side of Eq. 3.3 represent the error due to RFO, the error due to mean LCC magnitude (\overline{LCC}) and finally the error covariance term.

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Figure 7 shows results of the overall LCC error decomposition according to Eq. 3.3 within each of the two regimes (Sc, Cu), highlighting the complex nature of cloud biases among individual CMIP6 ensemble members. As anticipated the error covariance is generally small, therefore solely RFO and \overline{LCC} errors are discussed in the following. Despite the fact that each model is subjected to its unique problematics, it is possible to draw several interesting conclusions.

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The majority of models underestimate RFO of Sc, whereas they overestimate RFO of Cu (MRI-ESM2-0, GISS-E2-1-G, BCC-CSM2-MR, HadGEM3-GC31-LL, CESM2, GFDL-CM4, NorESM2-LM). The apparent outlier in this regard is MIROC6, which is in line with Williams and Tselioudis (2007), who showed that two previous versions of MIROC6 also considerably overestimated RFO of tropical stratocumulus and simultaneously lacked shallow cumulus regime. There are a few models where the RFO error of both Sc and Cu is essentially zero (particularly CanESM5, IPSL-CM6A-LR, CNRM-CM6-1).

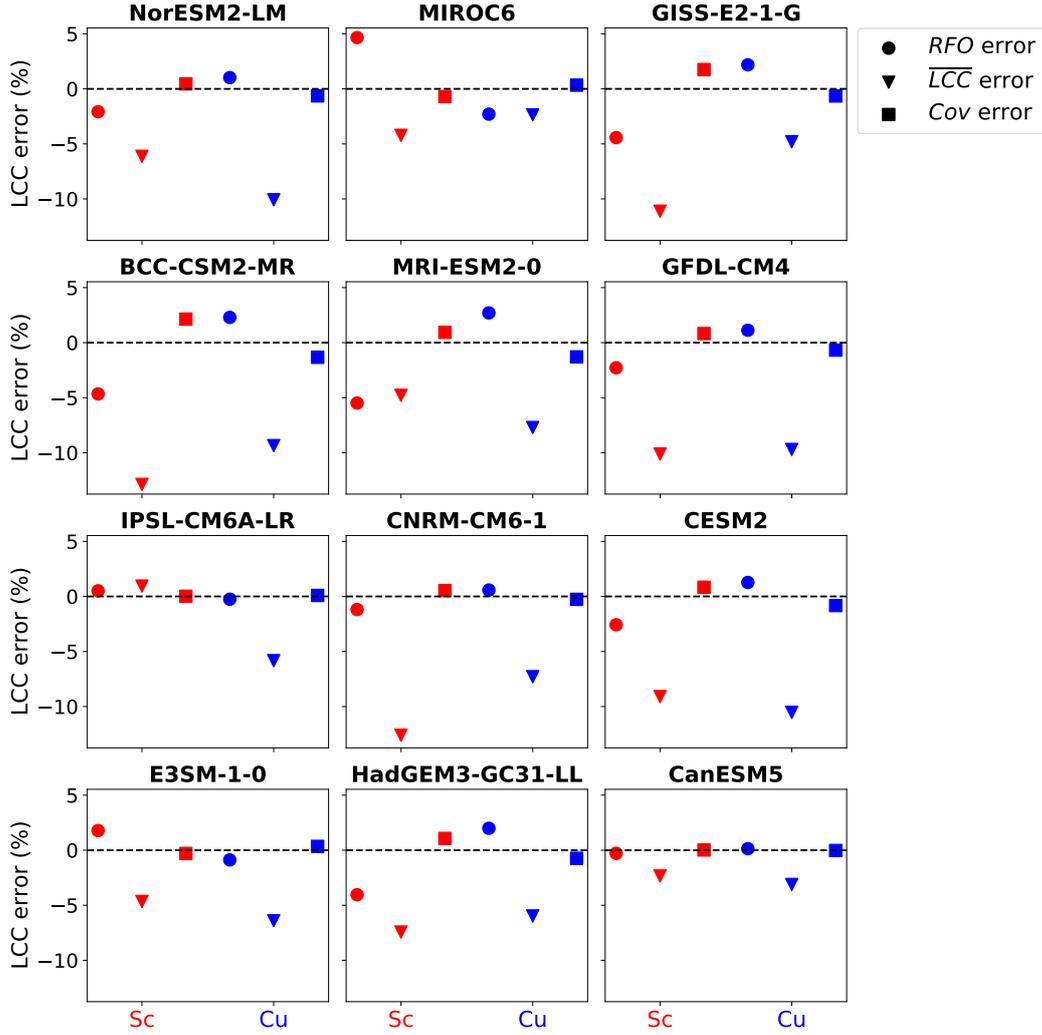


Figure 7. The LCC error in subsidence areas of tropical oceans within Sc- and Cu-regions decomposed into errors stemming from RFO, \overline{LCC} and covariance.

318 Remarkably, all models underestimate \overline{LCC} within Sc- and Cu-regions (except IPSL-
 319 CM6A-LR, which however exhibits a negligible bias in Sc-region). Climate models that
 320 most strongly underestimate the mean Sc- and Cu-cloud cover are BCC-CSM2-MR, CNRM-
 321 CM6-1, CESM2, GFDL-CM4, GISS-E2-1-G and NorESM2-LM. In this subset of mod-
 322 els the \overline{LCC} error exceeds 10 % within either of the two regimes.

323 In the following discussion we strive to provide some physical explanations for the
 324 aforementioned erroneous model behavior. Climate models frequently lack the inclusion
 325 of realistic moist processes within their planetary boundary layer (PBL) parameteriza-
 326 tions (e.g., Cesana et al., 2019a), which affects their ability to sustain low clouds. As an
 327 illustration, the problem with the lack of Sc in GISS-E2-1-G was largely resolved in the
 328 next iteration of the GISS model, whereby the moist turbulence scheme of Bretherton
 329 and Park (2009) was newly implemented. One should also keep in mind that the under-
 330 estimation of low cloudiness can partially stem from the shielding effect of high clouds,
 331 which might be overestimated in some models compared to observations, although we
 332 filter subsidence regimes to minimize this problem.

333 The best performing model overall is CanESM5, which exhibits a zero bias in RFO
 334 and only a minor bias in \overline{LCC} within both Sc- and Cu-regions. Recall that CanESM5
 335 remarkably well matches the observed relationship between LCC and EIS (Fig. 1). The
 336 IPSL-CM6A-LR model, moreover, has a negligible error in RFO and \overline{LCC} within the
 337 Sc-regime. This is in agreement with Madeleine et al. (2020) who showed that the rep-
 338 resentation of low-level clouds (and their reflectance) in the IPSL-CM6 model has con-
 339 siderably improved compared to the previous model version participating in CMIP5. How-
 340 ever, it is important to bear in mind that this apparent model improvement could be a
 341 consequence of model tuning, whereby the same observational datasets of LCC and CRE
 342 employed for the present model validation were used at IPSL to adjust free model pa-
 343 rameters in an attempt to match the observed fields of clouds and radiation (Hourdin
 344 et al., 2019). Figure 1 indeed reveals that in the IPSL-CM6A-LR model LCC grows too
 345 strongly with EIS, which acts to offset the great lack of EIS in this model, so that the
 346 LCC error is eventually small.

347 We furthermore revisited a question, whether the McICA noise could lead to no-
 348 table LCC biases in climate models containing the McICA radiation scheme (NorESM2-
 349 LM, GFDL-CM4, CESM2, E3SM-1-0, HadGEM3-GC31-LL, CanESM5). We found no
 350 evidence that the random noise generated by McICA is responsible for a notable under-
 351 estimation of LCC, which is consistent with previous work examining older generation
 352 of GCMs (e.g., Barker et al., 2008). We also found no relationship between low-cloud
 353 biases in the present-day climate and equilibrium climate sensitivity.

354 4 Summary and conclusions

355 Low clouds are ubiquitous in the tropics and intensely cool the Earth’s climate, thus
 356 it is of tremendous importance to properly capture this effect in climate models. The
 357 overall objective of this study was to employ satellite observations to evaluate the rep-
 358 resentation of marine tropical stratocumulus and shallow cumulus and their impact on
 359 the Earth’s radiation budget in a subset of latest climate models in the present-day cli-
 360 mate. To that end, we first introduced a new approach to discriminate Sc from Cu based
 361 on a dynamic LCC threshold. The new Sc-Cu categorization proved to work well when
 362 applied to CALIPSO-GOCCP observations of LCC, validated against proper Sc- and Cu-
 363 components derived from the Cumulus And Stratocumulus CloudSat-CALIPSO Dataset.
 364 Compared to the traditional approach for establishing low-cloud regimes utilizing a fixed
 365 threshold of EIS, the new Sc-Cu categorization is more reliable when analyzing climate
 366 models, since the latter systematically underestimate EIS implied by multiple reanal-
 367 ysis datasets and generally misrepresent the relationship between EIS and LCC.

368 Utilizing the newly proposed Sc-Cu categorization we then assessed models’ fidelity
 369 to represent Sc and Cu together with their radiative effect at the top of the atmosphere
 370 in the present-day climate. We thereby analyzed a suite of twelve state-of-the-art climate
 371 models stemming from various modeling centers participating in phase 6 of CMIP. We
 372 restricted our analysis on subsidence regimes over tropical oceans, where low clouds are
 373 not obscured by mid- and high-level clouds. We found that CMIP6 models underesti-
 374 mate the cloud cover in both Sc- and Cu-dominated regions of tropical oceans. A more
 375 detailed inspection of cloud biases revealed that most climate models underestimate RFO
 376 of Sc and overestimate RFO of Cu. We further showed that tropical low cloudiness in
 377 CMIP6 models remains too bright.

378 The results of the present study are in line with a recent work by Konsta et al. (2022),
 379 who demonstrated that low-level marine tropical clouds in six CMIP6 models are too
 380 few and too bright, but also too compact and too homogeneous. The present study ex-
 381 tends the results of Konsta et al. (2022) by evaluating twelve CMIP6 models and by dis-
 382 criminating stratocumulus and shallow cumulus regimes. All in all, these findings im-

383 ply that contemporary climate models are still subjected to notable biases in clouds and
 384 radiation, which should fuel further climate model development.

385 5 Open Research

386 The CASCCAD dataset is available at GISS website (<https://data.giss.nasa.gov/clouds/casccad/>).
 387 CERES-EBAF 4.0 shortwave TOA radiative fluxes were downloaded from the CERES
 388 website (<https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/#energy-balanced-and-filled-ebaf>). ERA5 data
 389 were downloaded from [https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-means?tab=form)
 390 [era5-single-levels-monthly-means?tab=form](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-means?tab=form) and [https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels-monthly-means?tab=form)
 391 [era5-pressure-levels-monthly-means?tab=form](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels-monthly-means?tab=form). NCEP-DOE R2 data were downloaded
 392 from the NOAA ESRL Physical Sciences Division website (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/>).
 393 The CMIP6 output was downloaded from the ESGF (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>).

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