

Interactive comment on “ESMValTool (v1.0) – a community diagnostic and performance metrics tool for routine evaluation of Earth System Models in CMIP” by V. Eyring et al.

V. Eyring et al.

veronika.eyring@dlr.de

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Reply to Anonymous Referee #1

We thank the reviewer for the helpful comments. We have now revised our manuscript in light of these and the other review comments we have received. A pointwise reply is given below.

In this very long paper the authors present a new diagnostic tool for comparing climate models against either observations or other models. The paper

C4352

is written very clearly and is easy to follow. As the ESMValTool is still under construction and is expected to add more functionalities in future I regard this paper as a snap-shot of the project. For me it's fine to publish it as is. I just have a few general comments/questions and one minor typo that I found.

General comments:

i) The ESMValTool is still in development. The single functions or namelists are explained in great detail. However, since this undertaking is evolving it would be nice to have some tool or platform to look for changes/additions to the existing namelists and descriptions of new functionalities. Is something like this planned?

Yes. The current version already includes a first implementation of Sphinx (<http://www.sphinx-doc.org/en/stable/>), which allows for an easier and automatic documentation method as the tool grows. In future releases, the ESMValTool code will be formatted to allow for automatic documentation using Sphinx. We added more details on code documentation using Sphinx as well as a reference to the “ESMValTool User's Guide” (i.e., the supplementary information) to section 2 of the revised manuscript.

ii) If new functions are build, is there a central place where the code is checked/reviewed or how is the quality of the tool being maintained?

Checking the tool quality is a responsibility of the core development team. For that, we implemented an automatic testing framework, which allows checking that every new development does not affect existing code. In term of code formatting, we followed the pep8 standard for Python, which we also adapted to check also NCL scripts. This is described in detail in the “ESMValTool User's Guide” (i.e., the

C4353

supplementary information).

iii) The tool checks and corrects certain errors such as units and so on. But from experience there are 'issues' that are harder to detect, for example mistakes in sign conventions, soil moisture in Antarctica, zeros instead of missing values over land in the ocean files, . . . Mostly these problems are found after a while. So what I would like to say is that the know issues can be changed easily but what about the ones which are not expected/known? Are there any efforts to automatically search for inconsistencies?

The reformat routines are able to automatically spot errors in variable dimensionality, coordinates (names, ordering and units), variable units, missing values definition. Other less common errors in the data are hard to detect automatically, hence an automatic search method has not been implemented yet. However, errors in the data are usually evident once a diagnostic is applied. In such a case, users can take advantage of the fixing framework in the reformat routines and define project- and model-specific procedures to correct any kind of error in the input data.

v) I find it really helpful, that it can be used to compare a model with observations but also with other models or previous versions of a model. Hopefully, the latter results in more homogeneous data on the archives (see point iii).

Thanks for highlighting this feature. Indeed, the tool can be also applied to compare different versions/releases of a dataset. Modelling groups could apply the tool to check the quality of their data before submitting them.

Typo: pg 7584, line 6: 'e.g. CMIP, models' (i guess at least) should be 'e.g., CMIP models'

C4354

For clarity, we have rephrased this sentence as follows: "against other models, e.g. CMIP5 models".

Interactive comment on Geosci. Model Dev. Discuss., 8, 7541, 2015.

C4355

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Reply to Anonymous Referee #2

We thank the reviewer for the helpful comments. We have now revised our manuscript in light of these and the other review comments we have received. A pointwise reply is given below.

[0] Ditto what the first reviewer wrote.

C4356

[1] I like that the tool is focused and modularized on 'specific scientific themes'. Unfortunately for me, the subsequent descriptions are a bit tedious to read because each theme section seems to follow a pattern. That said: the paper does what it has to do! I have no substantive suggestions that would improve the pace of the presentation.

Thanks very much for supporting the modularized structure around specific scientific themes!

[2] Regridding is mentioned several times in the text and I assume that each module has used the appropriate interpolation method. For example (p7553), "Model output is linearly regridded". I assume this means bilinear interpolation. Most commonly, this method is used because it is fast and simple. However, being 'fast and simple' does not mean it is the most appropriate. In practice, if the variable being interpolated is smoothly varying, just about any interpolation method will produce reasonable results. However, bilinear interpolation may not be appropriate for variables that are fractal in space such 3-hrly and daily precipitation. I suggest that in each place where regridding is mentioned it should mention the type of interpolation used. This could simply be an adjective: (p7562) "After regridding all .." use "After bilinearly regridding all ..".

Agreed. We have revised the text making sure that the adopted regridding method is mentioned in each section (where appropriate).

[3] The text (p7589) states "One current limitation is the lack of parallelization." The most recent version of the NCAR CVDP (v4.0.0) has a Python driver that uses simple task parallelism to substantially reduce wall clock times. The driver uses standard Python functions (no custom functions). This approach

C4357

should be investigated for future use by the ESMValTool developers.

Thanks for this suggestion! We are currently planning to revise the parts of the code dealing with data preprocessing, which are the most time consuming operations in v1.0. The preprocessing includes common operation such as data reformatting and regridding. The goal is to move these operations to a higher level in the code structure, so that they can be performed in advance and in a parallel framework. This will be probably written in Python and the package you are suggesting could be useful.

[4] I note that there is wiki page (p7590) for developers and contributors. Like model development, developing data processing functionality is 'kinda' fun!!! The authors mention (p7548) a testing framework and code documentation. No details are mentioned. Sometimes developing good test codes can take more time than developing the processing function(s) they are testing. With regard to documentation, cryptic descriptions are better than nothing but *not* much better. I suggest encouraging (?requiring?), simple usage examples.

We aim at having a standardized code documentation based on Sphinx: the framework is already part of v1.0, but it has not been completely applied to existing code yet. Concerning automated testing, the developers are currently required to provide a test namelist together with their codes. The goal of such test namelists is to provide quick but yet comprehensive test cases and to serve as usage examples. Following the suggestion of the reviewer, we added more details on automated testing and on code documentation using Sphinx as well as a reference to the "ESMVal-Tool User's Guide" (i.e., the supplementary information) to section 2 of the revised manuscript.

What is not mentioned at all? Ummm, let me think! Ah yes, now I remember:

C4358

USER SUPPORT. I am sure: (a) the tool's implementation and the components are perfect; (b) all users will carefully read the documentation; (c) all users will write clean, unambiguous structured code; and (d) all users will spend time trying to debug their codes. However, in the highly unlikely event that my assertions are not correct, how do users get support? To whom or what should questions be addressed? Should questions be sent to some central location? Will someone monitor the support location? Ultimately, who is responsible for user support?

Based upon experience, user support can be time consuming, tedious and frustrating. On the other hand, it can be rewarding. It can expose developers to different ways of thinking. It can offer insight into new development paths.

Following your suggestion we are setting up a user mailing list, where users can submit questions and ask for support. Once fully operational, the link to the mailing-list will be made available on the ESMValTool webpage at www.esmvaltool.org.

[5] Some journals have suggested that software tools should be referenced via a DOI or a link. Python, NCL and R are mentioned but there are no references to these tools.

- **The original R reference is the following. Ihaka and Gentleman are the original R developers. It is 20 years old but I could not find any better reference. Also, I could not find a specific R language DOI.
R: A Language for Data Analysis and Graphics Ross Ihaka and Robert Gentleman Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics Vol. 5, No. 3 (Sep., 1996), pp. 299- 314 DOI: 10.2307/1390807.**
- **Python: <https://www.python.org/> I could not find a specific DOI. Perhaps this link is the best.**

C4359

- **Should NCL be spelled out in addition to the commonly used acronym (NCL)? NCL (NCAR Command Language) NCL has a DOI. The NCL web page suggests the following citation:
The NCAR Command Language (Version 6.3.0) [Software]. (2016). Boulder, Colorado: UCAR/NCAR/CISL/TDD.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.5065/D6WD3XH5>**

We apologize for this omission and agree these references should be added. Thanks for pointing us to the proper citations, which have been inserted in the manuscript. NCL has been spelled out as suggested.

I am happy to see that the ESMValTool will have a DOI!

We have assigned a DOI which is now given in the Code Availability Section.

Interactive comment on Geosci. Model Dev. Discuss., 8, 7541, 2015.

ESMValTool (v1.0) - A community diagnostic and performance metrics tool for routine evaluation of Earth System Models in CMIP

[V. Veronika](#) Eyring¹, [M. Mattia](#) Righi¹, [M. Axel](#) Lauer¹, [Martin](#) Evaldsson², [A. Lauer](#)⁴, [S. Sabrina](#) Wenzel¹, [C. Colin](#) Jones^{3,4}, [A. Alessandro](#) Anav⁵, [O. Oliver](#) Andrews⁶, [I. Irene](#) Cionni⁷, [E. Edouard](#) L. Davin⁸, [C. Clara](#) Deser⁹, [C. Carsten](#) Ehbrecht¹⁰, [P. Pierre](#) Friedlingstein⁵, [P. Peter](#) Gleckler¹¹, [K.-D. Klaus-Dirk](#) Gottschaldt¹, [S. Stefan](#) Hagemann¹², [M. Martin](#) Juckes¹³, [S. Stephan](#) Kindermann¹⁰, [J. John](#) Krasting¹⁴, [D. Dominik](#) Kunert¹, [R. Richard](#) Levine⁴, [A. Alexander](#) Loew^{15,12}, [J. Jarmo](#) Mäkelä¹⁶, [G. Gill](#) Martin⁴, [E. Erik](#) Mason^{14,17}, [A. Adam](#) Phillips⁹, [S. Simon](#) Read¹⁸, [C. Catherine](#) Rio¹⁹, [R. Romain](#) Roehrig²⁰, [D. Daniel](#) Senftleben¹, [A. Andreas](#) Sterl²¹, [L. Lambertus](#) H. van Ulft²¹, [J. Jeremy](#) Walton⁴, Shiyu Wang², and [K. Keith](#) D. Williams⁴

[1] Deutsches Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt (DLR), Institut für Physik der Atmosphäre, Oberpfaffenhofen, Germany

[2] Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute (SMHI), 60176 Norrköping, Sweden.

[3] University of Leeds, Leeds, UK

[4] Met Office Hadley Centre, Exeter, UK

[5] University of Exeter, Exeter, UK

[6] Tyndall Centre for Climate Change Research, School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK

[7] Agenzia nazionale per le nuove tecnologie, l'energia e lo sviluppo economico sostenibile (ENEA), Rome, Italy

[8] ETH Zurich, Switzerland

[9] National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), Boulder, USA

[10] Deutsches Klimarechenzentrum, Hamburg, Germany

- 1 [11] Program for Climate Model Diagnosis and Intercomparison, Lawrence Livermore National
2 Laboratory, Livermore, CA, USA
- 3 [12] Max-Planck-Institute for Meteorology, Hamburg, Germany
- 4 [13] National Centre for Atmospheric Science, British Atmospheric Data Centre, STFC Rutherford
5 Appleton Laboratory, United Kingdom
- 6 [14] Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory/NOAA, Princeton, NJ, USA
- 7 [15] Ludwig ~~Maximilian University~~ Maximilians-Universität München, Munich, Germany
- 8 [16] Finnish Meteorological Institute, Finland
- 9 [17] Engility Corporation, Chantilly, VA, USA
- 10 [18] University of Reading, Reading, UK
- 11 [19] Institut Pierre Simon Laplace, Paris, France
- 12 ~~[19] University of Reading, Reading, UK~~
- 13 [20] CNRM-GAME, Météo France and CNRS, Toulouse, France
- 14 [21] Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute (KNMI), De Bilt, The Netherlands

15

16 Correspondence to: V. Eyring (veronika.eyring@dlr.de)

17

18 **Abstract**

19 A community diagnostics and performance metrics tool for the evaluation of Earth System Models
20 (ESMs) has been developed that allows for routine comparison of single or multiple models, either
21 against predecessor versions or against observations. The priority of the effort so far has been to
22 target specific scientific themes focusing on selected Essential Climate Variables (ECVs), a range
23 of known systematic biases common to ESMs, such as coupled tropical climate variability,
24 monsoons, Southern Ocean processes, continental dry biases and soil hydrology-climate
25 interactions, as well as atmospheric CO₂ budgets, tropospheric and stratospheric ozone, and
26 tropospheric aerosols. The tool is being developed in such a way that additional analyses can easily
27 be added. A set of standard namelists for each scientific topic reproduces specific sets of diagnostics

1 or performance metrics that have demonstrated their importance in ESM evaluation in the peer-
2 reviewed literature. The Earth System Model Evaluation Tool (ESMValTool) is a community effort
3 open to both users and developers encouraging open exchange of diagnostic source code and
4 evaluation results from the CMIP ensemble. This will facilitate and improve ESM evaluation
5 beyond the state-of-the-art and aims at supporting such activities within the Coupled Model
6 Intercomparison Project (CMIP) and at individual modelling centres. Ultimately, we envisage
7 running the ESMValTool alongside the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) as part of a more
8 routine evaluation of CMIP model simulations while utilizing observations available in standard
9 formats (obs4MIPs) or provided by the user.

10

11 **1. Introduction**

12 Earth System Model (ESM) evaluation with observations or reanalyses is performed both to
13 understand the performance of a given model and to gauge the quality of a new model, either
14 against predecessor versions or a wider set of models. Over the past decades, the benefits of multi-
15 model intercomparison projects such as the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) have
16 been demonstrated. Since the beginning of CMIP in 1995, participating models have been further
17 developed, with more complex and higher resolution models joining in CMIP5 (Taylor et al., 2012)
18 which supported the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Fifth Assessment Report
19 (AR5) (~~IPCC, 2013~~)([IPCC, 2013](#)). The main purpose of these internationally coordinated model
20 experiments is to address outstanding scientific questions, to improve the understanding of climate,
21 and to provide estimates of future climate change. Standardization of model output in a format that
22 follows the [Network Common Data Format \(netCDF\) Climate and Forecast \(CF\) Metadata](#)
23 [Convention \(<http://cfconventions.org/>\)](#) and collection of the model output on the Earth System Grid
24 Federation (ESGF, <http://esgf.llnl.gov/>) facilitated multi-model analyses. However, CMIP has
25 historically lacked a common analysis tool available that could operate directly on submitted model
26 data and deliver a standard evaluation of models against observations.

27 An important new aspect ~~for CMIP6~~[in the next phase of CMIP \(i.e., CMIP6 \(Eyring et al., 2015\)\)](#) is
28 a more distributed organization under the oversight of the CMIP Panel, where a set of standard
29 model experiments, which were common across earlier CMIP cycles, the Diagnostic, Evaluation
30 and Characterization of Klima (DECK) experiments and the CMIP6 ~~Historical Simulation~~[historical](#)
31 [simulations](#), will be used to broadly characterize model performance and sensitivity to standard

1 external forcing. Standardization, coordination, common infrastructure, and documentation
2 functions that make the simulation results and their main characteristics available to the broader
3 community are envisaged to be a central part of CMIP6 (~~Meehl et al., 2014~~). ~~The Earth System~~
4 ~~Model eValuation~~. The Earth System Model Evaluation Tool (ESMValTool) presented here is a
5 community development that can be used as one of the documentation functions in CMIP to help
6 diagnose and understand the origin and consequences of model biases and inter-model spread. Our
7 goal is to develop an evaluation tool that users can run to produce well-established analyses of the
8 CMIP models once the output becomes available on the ESGF. This is realized through text files
9 that we refer to as standard namelists ~~that~~, each calling a certain set of diagnostics and
10 performance metrics to reproduce analyses that have demonstrated to be of importance in ESM
11 evaluation in previous peer-reviewed papers or assessment reports. Through this approach routine
12 and systematic evaluation of model results can be made more efficient. The framework enables
13 scientists to focus on developing more innovative analysis methods rather than constantly having to
14 “re-invent the wheel”. An additional purpose of the ESMValTool is to facilitate model evaluation at
15 individual modelling centres, in particular to rapidly assess the performance of a new model against
16 predecessor versions. Righi et al. (2015) and Jöckel et al. (2015) have applied a subset of the
17 namelists presented here to evaluate a set of simulations using different configurations of the global
18 ECHAM/MESy Atmospheric Chemistry model (EMAC). In this paper we also highlight the
19 integration of ESMValTool into modelling workflows – including models developed at NOAA’s
20 Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL), the EMAC model, and the NEMO ocean model
21 – through the use of the ESMValTool’s reformatting routine capabilities.

22 In addition to standardized model output, the ESGF hosts observations for Model Intercomparison
23 Projects (obs4MIPs, ~~Teixeira et al. (2014)~~) (Ferraro et al., 2015; Teixeira et al., 2014) and
24 reanalyses data (ana4MIPs, <https://www.earthsystemcog.org/projects/ana4mips>). The
25 obs4MIP obs4MIPs and ana4MIP ana4MIPs projects provide the community with access to CMIP-
26 like data sets (in terms of variables, temporal and spatial frequencies, and time periods) of satellite
27 data and reanalyses, together with the corresponding technical documentation. The ESMValTool
28 makes use of these observations as well as observations available from other sources to evaluate the
29 models. In several of the diagnostics and metrics, more than one observational data set or
30 meteorological reanalysis is used to account for uncertainties in observations. This is crucial for
31 assessing model performance in a more robust and scientifically valid way.

1 For the model evaluation we apply diagnostics and in several cases also performance metrics.
2 Diagnostics (e.g., the calculation of zonal means or derived variables in comparison to
3 observations) provide a qualitative comparison of the models with observations. Performance
4 metrics are defined as a quantitative measure of agreement between a simulated and observed
5 quantity which can be used to assess the performance of individual models or generation of models.
6 Quantitative performance metrics are routinely calculated for numerical weather forecast models,
7 but have been increasingly applied to Atmosphere-Ocean General Circulation Models (AOGCMs)
8 or ESMs. Performance metrics used in these studies have mainly focused on climatological mean
9 values of selected ECVs (Connolley and Bracegirdle, 2007; Gleckler et al., 2008; Pincus et al.,
10 2008; Reichler and Kim, 2008), and only a few studies have developed process-based performance
11 metrics (SPARC-CCMVal, 2010; Waugh and Eyring, 2008; Williams and Webb, 2009). The
12 implementation of performance metrics in the ESMValTool enables a quantitative assessment of
13 model improvements, both for different versions of individual ESMs and for different generations
14 of model ensembles used in international assessments (e.g., CMIP5 versus CMIP6). Application of
15 performance metrics to multiple models helps highlighting when and where one or a few more
16 models represent a particular process well. While quantitative metrics provide a valuable summary
17 of overall model performance, they usually do not give information on how particular aspects of a
18 model's simulation interact to determine the overall fidelity. For example, a model could simulate a
19 mean state (and trend) in global mean surface temperature that agrees well with observations, but
20 this could be due to compensating errors. To learn more about the sources of errors and
21 uncertainties in models and thereby highlight specific areas requiring improvement, evaluation of
22 the underlying processes and phenomena is necessary. A range of diagnostics and performance
23 metrics focussing on a number of key processes are also included in ESMValTool.

24 This paper describes ESMValTool version 1.0 (v1.0) which is the first release of the tool to the
25 wider community for application and further development as open source software. It demonstrates
26 the use of the tool by showing example figures for each namelist for either all or a subset of CMIP5
27 models. Section 2 describes the technical aspects of the tool, and Section 3 the type of modelling
28 and observational data currently supported by ESMValTool (v1.0). In Section 4 an overview of the
29 namelists of ESMValTool (v1.0) is given along with their diagnostics and performance metrics and
30 the variables and observations used. Section 5 describes the use of the ESMValTool in a typical
31 model development cycle and evaluation workflow and Section 6 closes with a summary and an
32 outlook.

1 2. Brief overview of the ESMValTool

2 In this section we give a brief overview of ESMValTool (v1.0) which is schematically depicted in
3 Fig. 1. A detailed user's guide is provided in the [supplementary material Supplement](#).

4 The ESMValTool consists of a workflow manager and a number of diagnostic and graphical output
5 scripts. It builds on a previously published diagnostic tool for chemistry-climate model evaluation
6 (CCMVal-Diag Tool, (Gettelman et al. (2012))), but is different in its focus. In particular, it extends
7 to ESMs by including diagnostics and performance metrics relevant for the coupled Earth system,
8 and also focuses on evaluating models with a common set of diagnostics rather than being mostly
9 flexible as the CCMVal-Diag tool. In addition, several technical and structural changes have been
10 made that facilitate development by multiple users. The workflow manager is written in Python,
11 while a multi-language support is provided in the diagnostic and the graphic routines. ~~The current~~
12 ~~version supports Python, NCL and R, but it can be extended to other open-source languages.~~ The
13 current version supports Python (www.python.org), the NCAR Command Language (NCL, 2016)
14 and R (Ihaka and Gentleman, 1996), but it can be extended to other open-source languages. The
15 ESMValTool is executed by invoking the *main.py* script, which takes a namelist as a single input
16 argument. The namelists are text files written using the XML (eXtensible Markup Language) syntax
17 and define the data to be read (models and observations), the variables to be analysed and the
18 diagnostics to be applied. The XML-syntax has been chosen in order to allow users to express the
19 relationship between these three elements (data, variables and diagnostics) in a structured, easy to
20 use way.

21 Within the workflow, the input data are checked for compliance with the CF and Climate Model
22 Output Rewriter (CMOR, <http://pcmdi.github.io/cmor-site/tables.html>) standards required by the
23 tool (see Section 3) via a set of dedicated reformatting routines, which are also able to fix the most
24 common errors in the input data (e.g., wrong coordinates, undefined or missing values, non-
25 compliant units, etc.). It is additionally possible to define new variables using variable-specific
26 scripts, for example ~~in order~~ to calculate the total column ozone from a 3D ozone field (tro3),
27 temperature (ta) and surface pressure (~~pslps~~). The diagnostic and graphic routines are written in a
28 modular and flexible way so that they can be customized by the user via diagnostic-specific settings
29 in the configuration file (cfg-file) and variable-specific settings (in the directory
30 variable_ ~~def_dir~~ defs/) without changing the source code ~~of the workflow manager~~. These routines
31 are complemented by a set of libraries, providing general-purpose code for the most common
32 operations (statistical analyses, regridding tools, graphic styles, etc.). The output of the tool can be

1 both netCDF and graphics files in various formats. In addition, a log file is written
2 containing all the information of a specific call of the main script: creation date of running the
3 script, version number, analysed data (models and observations), applied diagnostics and variables,
4 and corresponding references. This helps to increase the traceability and reproducibility of the
5 results.

6 To facilitate the development of new namelists and diagnostics by multiple developers from various
7 institutions while preserving code quality and reliability, an automated testing framework is
8 included in the package. This allows the developers to verify that modifications and new code are
9 compatible with the existing code and do not change the results of existing diagnostics. Automated
10 testing within the ESMValTool is implemented on two complementary levels:

- 11 • unittests are used to verify that small code units (e.g., functions/subroutines) provide the
12 expected results.
- 13 • integration testing is used to verify that a diagnostic integrates well into the ESMValTool
14 framework and that a diagnostic provides expected results. This is verified by comparison of
15 the results against a set of reference data generated during the implementation of the
16 diagnostic.

17 Each diagnostic is expected to produce a set of well-defined results, i.e. files in a variety of formats
18 and types (e.g., graphics, data files, ASCII files). While testing results of a diagnostic, a special
19 namelist file is executed by ESMValTool which runs a diagnostic on a limited set of test data only
20 minimizing executing time for testing while ensuring that the diagnostic produces the correct
21 results. The tests implemented include:

- 22 • file availability: a check that all required output data have been successfully generated by the
23 diagnostic. A missing file is always an indicator for a failure of the program.
- 24 • file checksum: currently the MD5 checksum is used to verify that contents of a file are the
25 same.
- 26 • graphics check: for graphic files an additional test is implemented which verifies that two
27 graphical outputs are identical. This is in particular useful to verify that outputs of a
28 diagnostic remain the same after code changes.

29 Unittests are implemented for each diagnostic independently using nose
30 (<https://nose.readthedocs.org/en/latest/>). Test files are searched recursively, executed and a statistic
31 on success and failures is provided at the end of the execution. In order to run integration tests for

1 each diagnostic, a small script needs to be written once. As for the unittests, a summary of success
2 and failures is provided as output (see the Supplement for details).

3 For the documentation of the code, Sphinx is used (<http://sphinx-doc.org/>;) to organize and format
4 ESMValTool documentation, including text which has been extracted from source code. Sphinx can
5 help to create documentation in a variety of formats, including HTML, LaTeX (and hence printable
6 PDF), manual pages and plain text. Sphinx was originally developed for documenting Python code,
7 and one of its features is that it is able – using the so-called autodoc extension – to extract
8 documentation strings from Python source files and use them in the documentation it generates.
9 This feature apparently does not exist for NCL source files (such as those which are used in
10 ESMValTool), but it has been mimicked here via a Python script, which walks through a subset of
11 the ESMValTool NCL scripts, extracts function names, argument lists and descriptions (from the
12 comments immediately following the function definition), and assembles them in a subdirectory for
13 usage with Sphinx. The documentation includes a listing of the functions, procedures, and plotting
14 routines in order to encourage the reuse of existing code in multiple namelists.

16 **3. Models and observations**

17 The open-source release of ESMValTool (v1.0) that accompanies this paper is intended to work
18 with CMIP5 model output, but the tool is compatible with any arbitrary model output, provided that
19 it is in CF-compliant netCDF format and that the variables and metadata are following the CMOR
20 tables and definitions. The namelists are designed such that it is straightforward to execute the same
21 diagnostics with either CMIP DECK or CMIP6 model output rather than CMIP5 output, and these
22 will be provided when the new simulations are available. As mentioned in the previous section,
23 routines are provided for checking CF/CMOR compliance and fixing the most common minor flaws
24 in the model output submitted to CMIP5. More substantial deviations from the required standards in
25 the model output may be corrected via project- and model-specific procedures defined by the user
26 and automatically applied within the workflow. The current reformatting routines are, however, not
27 able to convert arbitrary model output to the full CF/CMOR standard. In this case, it is the
28 responsibility of the individual modelling groups to perform that conversion. Currently, model-
29 specific reformatting routines are provided for EMAC (Jöckel et al., 2015; Jöckel et al., 2010), the
30 GFDL CM3 and ESM models (Donner et al., 2011; Dunne et al., 2012; Dunne et al., 2013), and for
31 NEMO (Madec, 2008) which is the ocean model used in for example EC-Earth (Hazeleger et al.,

1 2012). Users can develop similar reformatting routines specific to their model using the template
2 included in the package allowing the tool to run directly on the original model output rather than
3 having to reformat the model output to CF/CMOR beforehand.

4 The observations are organized in tiers. Where available, observations from the obs4MIPs and
5 reanalysis from the ana4MIPs archives at the ESGF are used in the ESMValTool. These data sets
6 form “Tier 1”. Tier 1 data are freely available for download to be directly used by the tool since
7 they are formatted following the CF/CMOR standard and do not need any additional processing.
8 For other observational data sets, the user has to retrieve the data from their respective source and
9 reformat them into the CF/CMOR standard. To facilitate this task, we provide specific reformatting
10 routines for a large number of such data sets together with detailed information of the data source,
11 as well as download and processing instructions (see Table 1). “Tier 2” includes other freely
12 available data sets and “Tier 3” includes restricted data sets (e.g., requiring the user to accept a
13 license agreement issued by the data owner). For Tier 2 and 3 data, links and help scripts are
14 provided, so that these observations can be easily retrieved from their respective sources and
15 processed by the user. A collection of all observational data used in ESMValTool (v1.0) is hosted at
16 DLR and the ESGF nodes at BADC and DKRZ, but depending on the license terms of the
17 observations these might not be publicly available.

18

19 **4. Overview of namelists included in ESMValTool (v1.0)**

20 A number of namelists have been included in ESMValTool (v1.0) that group a set of performance
21 metrics and diagnostics for a given scientific topic. Namelists that focus on the evaluation of
22 physical climate process for respectively, the atmosphere, ocean, and land surface are presented in
23 Sections 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3. These can be applied to simulations with prescribed SSTs (i.e., AMIP
24 runs) or the CMIP5 historical simulations (simulations for 1850 to present-day conducted with the
25 best estimates of natural and anthropogenic climate forcing) that are run by either coupled
26 AOGCMs or ESMs. Another set of namelists has been developed to evaluate biogeochemical biases
27 present in ESMs when additional components of the Earth system such as the carbon cycle,
28 atmospheric chemistry or aerosols are simulated interactively (Sections 4.4 and 4.5 for carbon cycle
29 and aerosols/chemistry, respectively).

30 In each subsection, we first scientifically motivate the inclusion of the namelist by reviewing the
31 main systematic biases in current ESMs and their importance and implications. We then give an

1 overview of the namelists that can be used to evaluate such biases along with the diagnostics and
2 performance metrics included, and the required variables and corresponding observations that are
3 used in ESMValTool (v1.0). For each namelist we provide 1-2 example figures that are applied to
4 either all or a subset of the CMIP5 models. An assessment of CMIP5 models is however not the
5 focus of this paper. Rather, we attempt to illustrate how the namelists contained within
6 ESMValTool (v1.0) can facilitate the development and evaluation of climate model performance in
7 the targeted areas. Therefore, the results of each figure are only briefly described in each figure
8 caption.

9 Table 1 provides a summary of all namelists included in ESMValTool (v1.0) along with
10 information on the quantities and ESMValTool variable names for which the namelist is tested, the
11 corresponding observations or reanalyses, the section and example figure in this paper, and
12 references for the namelist. Table 2 then provides an overview of the diagnostics included for each
13 namelist along with specific calculations, the plot type, settings in the configuration file (cfg-file),
14 and comments.

15 **4.1. Detection of systematic biases in the physical climate: atmosphere**

16 **4.1.1. Quantitative performance metrics for atmospheric ECVs**

17 A starting point for the calculation of performance metrics is to assess the representation of
18 simulated climatological mean states and the seasonal cycle for essential climate variables (ECVs,
19 (GCOS (2010))). This is supported by a large observational effort to deliver long-term, high quality
20 observations from different platforms and instruments (e.g., obs4MIPs and the ESA Climate
21 Change Initiative (CCI)) and ongoing efforts to improve global reanalysis products (e.g.,
22 ana4MIPs).

23 Following (Gleckler et al. (2008)) and similar to Fig. 9.7 of (Flato et al. (2013)), a namelist has been
24 implemented in the ESMValTool that produces a “portrait diagram” by calculating the relative
25 space-time root-mean square error (RMSE) from the climatological mean seasonal cycle of
26 historical simulations for selected variables [*namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5.xml*]. In Fig. 2 the
27 relative space-time RMSE for the CMIP5 historical simulations (1980-2005) against a reference
28 observation and, where available, an ~~alternate~~alternative observational data set, is shown. ~~The code~~
29 ~~allows comparison of up to four observational data sets.~~The overall mean bias can additionally be
30 calculated and adding other statistical metrics ~~like the PDF-Skill Score introduced in Section 4.4.1~~

1 is straightforward. Different normalizations (mean, median, centered median) can be chosen and the
2 multi model mean/median can also be added. [In order to calculate the RMSE, the data is regridded](#)
3 [to a common grid using a bilinear interpolation method. The user can select which grid to use as a](#)
4 [target grid. The results shown in this section have been obtained after regridding the data to the grid](#)
5 [of the reference dataset.](#) With this namelist it is also possible to perform more in-depth analyses of
6 the ECVs, by calculating seasonal cycles, Taylor diagrams (Taylor, 2001), zonally averaged vertical
7 profiles and latitude-longitude maps. In the latter two cases, it is also possible to produce difference
8 plots between a given model and a reference (usually the observational data set) or between two
9 versions of the same model, and to apply a statistical test to highlight significant differences. As an
10 example, Fig. 3 (left panel) shows the zonal profile of seasonal mean temperature differences
11 between the MPI-ESM-LR model (Giorgetta et al., 2013) and ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al.,
12 2011), and Fig. 3 (right panel) a Taylor diagram for temperature at 850 hPa for CMIP5 models
13 compared to ERA-Interim. A similar analysis can be performed with
14 *namelist_righi15gmd_ECVs.xml*, which reproduces the ECV plots of Righi et al. (2015) for a set of
15 EMAC simulations.

16 Tested variables in ESMValTool (v1.0) that are shown in Fig. 2 are selected levels of temperature
17 (ta), eastward (ua) and northward wind (va), geopotential height (zg), and specific humidity (hus),
18 as well as near-surface air temperature (tas), precipitation (pr), all-sky longwave (rlut) and
19 shortwave (rsut) radiation, long-wave (LW_CRE) and shortwave (SW_CRE) cloud radiative effect,
20 and aerosol optical depth (AOD) at 550 nm (od550aer). The models are evaluated against a wide
21 range of observations and reanalysis data: ERA-Interim and NCEP (Kistler et al., 2001) for
22 temperature, winds and geopotential height, AIRS (Aumann et al., 2003) for specific humidity,
23 CERES-EBAF for radiation (Wielicki et al., 1996), Global Precipitation Climatology Project
24 (GPCP, Adler et al. (2003)) for precipitation, Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MODIS,
25 (Shi et al. (2011))) and the ESA CCI aerosol data (Kinne et al., 2015) for AOD. Additional
26 observations or reanalyses can be provided by the user for these variables and easily added. The
27 tool can also be applied to additional variables if the required observations are made available in an
28 ESMValTool compatible format (see Section 2 and [supplementary materialSupplement](#)).

29 **4.1.2. Multi-model mean bias for temperature and precipitation**

30 Near-surface air temperature (tas) and precipitation (pr) are the two variables most commonly
31 requested by users of ESM simulations. Often, diagnostics for tas and pr are shown for the multi-
32 model mean of an ensemble. Both of these variables are the end result of numerous interacting

1 processes in the models, making it challenging to understand and improve biases in these quantities.
2 For example, near surface air temperature biases depend on the models' representation of radiation,
3 convection, clouds, land characteristics, surface fluxes, as well as atmospheric circulation and
4 turbulent transport [Flato et al. \(2013\)](#), [\(Flato et al., 2013\)](#), each with their own potential biases that
5 may either augment or oppose one another.

6 The *namelist_flato13ipcc.xml* reproduces a subset of the figures from the climate model evaluation
7 chapter of IPCC AR5 (Chapter 9, (Flato et al. (2013))). This namelist will be further developed and
8 a more complete version included in future releases. The diagnostic that calculates the multi-model
9 mean bias compared to a reference data set is part of this namelist and reproduces Figures 9.2 and
10 9.4 of (Flato et al. (2013)). Figure 4 shows the CMIP5 multi-model average as absolute values and
11 as biases relative to ERA-Interim and the GPCP data for the annual mean surface air temperature
12 and precipitation, respectively. Model output is [linearly](#) regridded [using bilinear interpolation](#) to the
13 reanalysis or observational grid by default, but alternative options that can be set in the *cfg*-file
14 include regridding of the data to the lowest or highest resolution grid in the entire input data set.
15 Such figures can also be produced for individual seasons as well as for a single model simulation or
16 other 2D variables if suitable observations are provided.

17 **4.1.3. Monsoon**

18 Monsoon systems represent the dominant seasonal climate variation in the tropics, with profound
19 socio-economic impacts. Current ESMs still struggle to capture the major features of both the South
20 Asian summer monsoon (SASM, Section 4.1.3.1) and the West African monsoon (WAM, Section
21 4.1.3.2). Sperber et al. (2013) and Roehrig et al. (2013) provide comprehensive assessments of the
22 ability of CMIP5 models to represent these two monsoon systems. By implementing diagnostics
23 from these two studies into ESMValTool (v1.0), we aim to facilitate continuous monitoring of
24 progress in simulating the SASM and WAM systems in ESMs.

25 **4.1.3.1. South Asian summer monsoon (SASM)**

26 While individual models vary in their simulations of the SASM, there are known biases in ESMs
27 that span a range of temporal and spatial scales. The namelists in the ESMValTool are targeted
28 toward analysing these biases in a systematic way. Climatological mean biases include excess
29 precipitation over the equatorial Indian Ocean, too little precipitation over the Indian subcontinent
30 and excess precipitation over orography such as the southern slopes of the Himalayas (Annamalai et
31 al., 2007; Bollasina and Nigam, 2009; Sperber et al., 2013), see also Fig. 4. The monsoon onset is

1 typically too late in the models, and the boreal summer intra-seasonal oscillation (BSISO), which
2 has a particularly large socio-economic impact in South Asia, is often weak or not present
3 (Sabeerali et al., 2013). Monsoon low pressure systems, which generate many of the most intense
4 rain events during the monsoon (Krishnamurthy and Misra, 2011) are often too infrequent and weak
5 (Stowasser et al., 2009). In coupled models, biases in SSTs, evaporation, precipitation and air-sea
6 coupling are common (Bollasina and Nigam, 2009) and have been shown to affect both present-day
7 simulations and future projections (Levine et al., 2013). Interannual teleconnections with ENSO
8 (Lin et al., 2008) and the Indian Ocean Dipole (Ashok et al., 2004; Cherchi and Navarra, 2013) are
9 also not well-captured (Turner et al., 2005).

10 Three SASM namelists for the basic climatology, seasonal cycle, intra-seasonal and inter-annual
11 variability and key teleconnections have been implemented into the ESMValTool focusing on
12 SASM rainfall and horizontal winds in June-September (JJAS) [*namelist_SAMonsoon.xml*,
13 *namelist_SAMonsoon_AMIP.xml*, *namelist_SAMonsoon_daily.xml*]. Rainfall and wind
14 climatologies, including their pattern correlations and RMSE against observations, are similar to the
15 metrics proposed by the Climate Variability and Predictability (CLIVAR) Asian–Australian
16 Monsoon Panel (AAMP) Diagnostics Task Team and used by Sperber et al. (2013). Diagnostics for
17 determining global monsoon domains and intensity follow the definition of (Wang et al. (2012))
18 where the global precipitation intensity is calculated from the difference between the hemispheric
19 summer (May-September in the Northern Hemisphere, November-March in the Southern
20 Hemisphere) and winter (vice versa) mean values, and the global monsoon domain is defined by
21 those areas where the precipitation intensity exceeds 2.0 mm/day and the summer precipitation is $>$
22 $0.55 \times$ the annual precipitation (Fig. 5). Seasonal cycle diagnostics include monthly rainfall over the
23 Indian region (5° - 30° N, 65° - 95° E) and dynamical indices based on wind-shear (Goswami et al.,
24 1999; Wang and Fan, 1999; Webster and Yang, 1992). Figure 6 shows examples of the seasonal
25 cycle of area-averaged Indian rainfall from selected CMIP5 models and their AMIP counterparts.
26 The namelists include diagnostics to calculate maps of inter-annual standard deviation of JJAS
27 rainfall and horizontal winds at 850 hPa and 200 hPa, and maps of teleconnection diagnostics
28 between Nino3.4 SSTs (defined by the region 190° - 240° E, 5° S to 5° N) and JJAS precipitation
29 across the monsoon region (30° S to 30° N, 40° - 300° E) following (Sperber et al., 2013). To generate
30 difference maps, data are first regridded using an area-conservative binning and using the lowest
31 resolution grid as target. For atmosphere-only models, we also evaluate their ability to represent
32 year to year monsoon variability directly against time-equivalent observations to see if check

1 | whether models, given correct inter-annual SST forcing, can reproduce observed year to year
2 | variations and significant events occurring in particular years. This evaluation is done by plotting
3 | the time-series across specified years of standardized anomalies (normalized by climatology) of
4 | JJAS-averaged dynamical indices and area-averaged JJAS precipitation over the Indian region
5 | (defined above) for both the models and observations. Namelists for intra-seasonal variability
6 | include maps of standard deviation of 30-50 day filtered daily rainfall, with area-averaged values
7 | for key regions including the Bay of Bengal (10°-20°N, 80°-100°E) and the Eastern equatorial
8 | Indian Ocean (10°S-10°N, 80°-100°E) given in the plot titles. To illustrate the northward and
9 | eastward propagation of the BSISO, Hovmöller lag-longitude and lag-latitude diagrams show either
10 | the latitude-averaged (10°S-10°N) and plotted for 60°-160°E, or longitude-averaged (80°E-100°E)
11 | and plotted for 10°S-30°N, anomalies of 30-80 day filtered daily rainfall correlated against
12 | intraseasonal precipitation at the Indian Ocean reference point (75°E-100°E, 10°S-5°N). These use a
13 | slightly modified (for season, region and filtering band) version of the existing Madden-Julian
14 | Oscillation (MJO) NCL scripts, available at <https://www.ncl.ucar.edu/Applications/mjoclivar.shtml>,
15 | that are based on the recommendations from the US CLIVAR MJO Working Group (Waliser et al.,
16 | 2009) and are similar to those shown in Lin et al. (2008) and used in Section 4.1.4.2 for the MJO.

17 | Tested variables in ESMValTool (v1.0), some of which are illustrated in Figs. 5 and 6, include
18 | precipitation (pr), eastward (ua) and northward wind (va) at various levels, and skin temperature
19 | (ts). The primary reference data sets are ERA-Interim for horizontal winds, Tropical Rainfall
20 | Measuring Mission 3B43 version 7 (TRMM-3B43-v7; Huffman et al. (2007) for rainfall and
21 | HadISST (~~Rayner et al., 2003~~)(Rayner et al., 2003) for SST, although the models are evaluated
22 | against a wide range of other observational precipitation data sets (see Table 1) and an alternate
23 | reanalysisreanalysis data set: the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and
24 | Applications (MERRA; Rienecker et al. (2011)).

25 | **4.1.3.2. West African Monsoon Diagnostics**

26 | West Africa and the Sahel are highly dependent on seasonal rainfall associated with the WAM.
27 | Rainfall in the region exhibits strong inter-decadal variability (Nicholson et al., 2000), with major
28 | socio-economic impacts (Held et al., 2005). Projecting the future response of the WAM to
29 | increasing concentrations of greenhouse gases (GHG) is therefore of critical importance, as is the
30 | ability to make dependable forecasts of the WAM evolution on monthly to seasonal timescales.
31 | Current ESMs exhibit biases in their representation of both the mean state (Cook and Vizzy, 2006;
32 | Roehrig et al., 2013) and temporal variability (Biasutti, 2013) of WAM. Such biases can affect the

1 skill of monthly to seasonal predictions of the WAM as well as long term future projections. CMIP5
2 coupled models often exhibit warm SST biases in the equatorial Atlantic, which induce a southward
3 shift of the WAM in summer (Richter et al., 2014). Because of the zonal symmetry, the 10°W-10°E
4 meridional transect of any geophysical variable (see below) is particularly informative with respect
5 to the main features of the WAM and their representation in climate models (Redelsperger et al.,
6 2006). For instance, the JJAS-averaged Sahel rainfall has a large inter-model spread with biases
7 ranging from +50% of the observed value (Cook and Vizzy, 2006; Roehrig et al., 2013). Differences
8 in simulated surface air temperatures are large over the Sahel and Sahara, with deficiencies in the
9 Saharan heat low inducing feedback errors on the WAM structure. Here, a correct simulation of the
10 surface energy balance is critical, where biases related to the representation of clouds, aerosols and
11 surface albedo (Roehrig et al., 2013). The seasonal cycle also shows large inter-model spread,
12 pointing to deficiencies in the representation of key processes important for the seasonal dynamics
13 of the WAM. Daily precipitation is highly intermittent over the Sahel, mainly caused by a few
14 intense mesoscale convective systems during the monsoon season (Mathon et al., 2002). Intense
15 mesoscale convective systems over Africa as well as the diurnal cycle of the WAM are still a
16 challenge for most climate models (Roehrig et al., 2013). Improving the quality of the WAM in
17 climate models is therefore urgently needed.

18 To evaluate key aspects of the WAM, two namelists have been implemented into ESMValTool
19 (v1.0) [*namelist_WAMonsoon.xml, namelist_WAMonsoon_daily.xml*]. These include maps and
20 meridional transects (averages over 10°W to 10°E) that provide a climatological picture of the
21 summer (JJAS) WAM structure: (i) precipitation (pr) for the mean position of the WAM, (ii) near-
22 surface air temperature (tas) for biases in the Atlantic cold tongue and the Saharan heat low, (iii)
23 horizontal winds (ua, va) for the mean position and intensity of the monsoon flow at 925 hPa and of
24 the mid- (700 hPa) and upper-level (200 hPa) jets. The surface and top of the atmosphere (TOA)
25 radiation budgets provide a picture of the radiative fluxes associated with the WAM. Figure 7
26 shows the meridional transect of summer-averaged precipitation over West Africa for a range of
27 CMIP5 models as an example for this namelist. Diagnostic for the mean seasonal cycle of
28 precipitation is also provided to evaluate the WAM onset and withdrawal. Finally, a set of
29 diagnostics for the WAM intra-seasonal variability evaluates the ability of models to capture
30 variability of precipitation on timescales associated with African easterly waves (3-10 day), the
31 MJO (25-90 days) and more broadly the WAM intra-seasonal variability (1-90 days). The strong
32 day-to-day intermittency of precipitation is also diagnosed using maps of 1-day autocorrelation of

1 intra-seasonal precipitation anomalies (Roehrig et al., 2013). To perform the autocorrelation
2 analysis, data is first regridded to a common 1°×1° map using a bilinear interpolation method,
3 whereas for generating difference maps the same regridding method as for the SASM diagnostics is
4 used (see Section 4.1.3.1). Observations for evaluation are based on the following data sets: GPCP
5 version 2.2 and Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission 3B43 version 7 (TRMM-3B43-v7, Huffman
6 et al. (2007)) precipitation retrievals, Clouds and Earth's Radiant Energy Systems (CERES) Energy
7 Balanced and Filled (EBAF) edition 2.6 radiation estimates (Loeb et al., 2009), NOAA daily TOA
8 outgoing longwave radiation (~~Liebmann and Smith, 1996~~), (Liebmann and Smith, 1996), ERA-
9 Interim reanalysis for the dynamics.

10 **4.1.4. Natural modes of climate variability**

11 **4.1.4.1. NCAR Climate Variability Diagnostics Package**

12 Modes of natural climate variability from interannual to multi-decadal time scales are important as
13 they have large impacts on regional and even global climate with attendant socio-economic impacts.
14 Characterization of internal (i.e., unforced) climate variability is also important for the detection and
15 attribution of externally-forced climate change signals (Deser et al., 2012; Deser et al., 2014).
16 Internally-generated modes of variability also complicate model evaluation and intercomparison. As
17 these modes are spontaneously generated, they do not need ~~not~~ to exhibit the same chronological
18 sequence in models as in nature. However, their statistical properties (e.g., time scale,
19 autocorrelation, spectral characteristics, and spatial patterns) are captured to varying degrees of skill
20 among climate models. Despite their importance, systematic evaluation of these modes remains a
21 daunting task given the wide range to consider, the length of the data record needed to adequately
22 characterize them, the importance of sub-surface oceanic processes and uncertainties in the
23 observational records (Deser et al., 2010).

24 In order to assess natural modes of climate variability in models, the NCAR Climate Variability
25 Diagnostics Package (CVDP) (Phillips et al., 2014) has been implemented into the ESMValTool.
26 The CVDP has been developed as a standalone tool. To allow for easy updating of the CVDP once
27 a new version is released, the structure of the CVDP is kept in its original form and a single
28 namelist [*namelist_CVDP.xml*] has been written to enable the CVDP to be run directly within
29 ESMValTool. The CVDP facilitates evaluation of the major modes of climate variability, including
30 ENSO (Deser et al., 2010), PDO (Deser et al., 2010; Mantua et al., 1997), the Atlantic Multi-
31 decadal Oscillation (AMO, Trenberth and Shea (2006)), the Atlantic Meridional Overturning

1 Circulation (AMOC, Danabasoglu et al. (2012)), and atmospheric teleconnection patterns such as
2 the Northern and Southern Annular Modes (NAM (Hurrell and Deser, 2009; Thompson and
3 Wallace, 2000) and SAM (Thompson and Wallace, 2000), respectively), North Atlantic Oscillation
4 (NAO, Hurrell and Deser (2009)), and Pacific North and South American (PNA and PSA,
5 respectively (Thompson and Wallace, 2000)) patterns. For details on the actual calculation of these
6 modes in CVDP we refer to the original CVDP package and explanations available at
7 <http://www2.cesm.ucar.edu/working-groups/cvewg/cvdp>.

8 Depending on the climate mode analyzed, the CVDP package uses the following variables:
9 precipitation (pr), sea level pressure (psl), near-surface air temperature (tas), skin temperature (ts),
10 snow depth (snd), and basin-average ocean meridional overturning mass ~~streamfunction~~
11 ~~function~~ (msftmyz). The models are evaluated against a wide range of observations and reanalysis
12 data, for example NCEP for near-surface air temperature, HadISST for skin temperature, and the
13 NOAA-CIRES Twentieth Century Reanalysis Project (Compo et al., 2011) for sea level pressure.
14 Additional observations or reanalysis can be added by the user for these variables. The
15 ESMValTool (v1.0) namelist runs on all CMIP5 models. As an example, Fig. 8 shows the
16 representation of the PDO as simulated by 41 CMIP5 models and observations (HadISST) and Fig.
17 9 the mean AMOC from ~~45~~13 CMIP5 models.

18 **4.1.4.2. Madden-Julian oscillation (MJO)**

19 The MJO is the dominant mode of tropical intraseasonal variability (30-80 day) and has wide
20 impacts on numerous regional climate and weather phenomena (Madden and Julian, 1971).
21 Associated with enhanced convection in the tropics, the MJO exerts a significant influence on
22 monsoon precipitation, e.g. on the South Asian Monsoon (Pai et al., 2011) and on the west African
23 monsoon (Alaka and Maloney, 2012). The eastward propagation of the MJO into the West Pacific
24 can trigger the onset of some El Nino events (Feng et al., 2015; Hoell et al., 2014). The MJO also
25 influences tropical cyclogenesis in various ocean basins (Klotzbach, 2014). Increased vertical
26 resolution in the atmosphere and better and representation of stratospheric processes have led to an
27 improvement in MJO fidelity in CMIP5 compared with CMIP3 (Lin et al., 2006). However, current
28 generation models still struggle to adequately capture the eastward propagation of the MJO (Hung
29 et al., 2013) and the variance intensity is typically too weak. Identifying and reducing such biases
30 will be important for ESMs to accurately represent important climate phenomena, such as regional
31 precipitation variability in the tropics arising through the differing impact of MJO phases on ENSO
32 and ENSO forced regional climate anomalies (Hoell et al., 2014).

1 To assess the main MJO features in ESMs, a namelist with a number of diagnostics developed by
2 the US CLIVAR MJO Working Group (Kim et al., 2009; Waliser et al., 2009) has been
3 implemented in the ESMValTool (v1.0) [*namelist_mjo_mean_state.xml*, *namelist_mjo_daily.xml*].
4 These diagnostics are calculated using precipitation (pr), outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) (rlut),
5 eastward (ua) and northward wind (va) at 850 hPa (u850) and 200 hPa (u200) against various
6 observations and reanalysis data sets for boreal summer (May-October) and winter (November-
7 April).

8 Observation and reanalysis data sets include GPCP-1DD for precipitation, ERA-Interim and NCEP-
9 DOE reanalysis 2 for wind components (Kanamitsu et al., 2002) and NOAA polar-orbiting satellite
10 data for OLR (Liebmann and Smith, 1996). The majority of the scripts are based on example scripts
11 at <http://ncl.ucar.edu/Applications/mjoclivar.shtml>. Daily data is required for most of the scripts.
12 The basic diagnostics include mean seasonal state and 20-100 day bandpass filtered variance for
13 precipitation and u850 in summer and winter. To better assess and understand model biases in the
14 MJO, a number of more sophisticated diagnostics have also been implemented. These include;
15 univariate empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis for 20-100 day bandpass filtered daily
16 anomalies of precipitation, OLR, u850 and u200. To illustrate the northward and eastward
17 propagation of the MJO, lag-longitude and lag-latitude diagrams show either the equatorial
18 (latitude) averaged (10°S-10°N) or zonal (longitude) averaged (80°E-100°E) intraseasonal
19 precipitation anomalies and u850 anomalies correlated against intraseasonal precipitation at the
20 Indian Ocean reference point (75°E-100°E, 10°S-5°N). Similar figures can also be produced for
21 other key variables and regions following the definitions of (Waliser et al. (2009)). To further
22 explore the MJO intraseasonal variability, the wavenumber-frequency spectra for each season is
23 calculated for individual variables. In addition, we also produce cross-spectral plots to quantify the
24 coherence and phase relationships between precipitation and ~~U850~~u850. Figure 10 shows examples
25 of boreal summer (May-October) wavenumber-frequency spectra of 10°S-10°N averaged daily
26 precipitation from GPCP-1DD, ~~HadGEM~~HadGEM2-ES, MPI-ESM-LR and EC-~~EARTH~~Earth.
27 Finally, we also calculate the multivariate combined EOF (CEOF) modes using equatorial averaged
28 (15°S-15°N) daily anomalies of U850, U200 and OLR. This analysis demonstrates the relationship
29 between lower- and upper-tropospheric wind anomalies and convection. To further illustrate the
30 spatial-temporal structure of the MJO, the first two leading CEOFs are used to derive a composite
31 MJO life cycle which highlights intraseasonal variability and northward/eastward propagation of

1 | the MJO. [The data used in these diagnostics are regridded to a common 0.5°×0.5° grid using an](#)
2 | [area-conservative method.](#)

3 | **4.1.5. Diurnal cycle**

4 | In addition to the previously discussed biases in precipitation, many ESMs that rely on
5 | parameterized convection exhibit biases related to the diurnal cycle and timing of precipitation.
6 | Over land, ESMs tend to simulate a diurnal cycle of continental convective precipitation in phase
7 | with insolation, while observed precipitation peaks in the early evening. This constitutes one of the
8 | endemic biases of ESMs, in which convective precipitation intensity is often related to atmospheric
9 | instability. This bias can have important implications for the simulated climate, as the timing of
10 | precipitation influences subsequent surface evaporation, and convective clouds affect radiation
11 | differently around noon or in late afternoon. The biases in the diurnal cycle are most pronounced
12 | over land areas and the diurnal cycles of convection and clouds during the day contribute to the
13 | continental warm bias (~~Cheruy et al., 2014~~)([Cheruy et al., 2014](#)). Similarly, biases in the diurnal
14 | cycle also exist over the ocean (Jiang et al., 2015). Another motivation for looking at the diurnal
15 | cycle in models is that its representation is more closely linked to the parameterizations of surface
16 | fluxes, boundary-layer, convection and cloud processes than any other diagnostics. The phase of
17 | precipitation and radiative fluxes during the day is the consequence of surface warming, boundary-
18 | layer turbulence mixing and cumulus clouds moistening, as well as of the triggering criteria used to
19 | activate deep convection, and the closure used to compute convective intensity. The evaluation of
20 | the diurnal cycle thus provides a direct insight into the representation of physical processes in a
21 | model. Recent efforts to improve the representation of the diurnal cycle of precipitation models
22 | include modifying the convective entrainment rate, revisiting the quasi-equilibrium hypothesis for
23 | shallow and deep convection, and adding a representation of key missing processes such as
24 | boundary-layer thermals or cold pools. We envisage that ESMValTool will help to quantify the
25 | impact of those improvements in the next generation of ESMs.

26 | To help document progress made in the representation of the diurnal cycle of precipitation (pr) in
27 | models, a set of diagnostics has been implemented in ESMValTool. After regridding all data on a
28 | common [2.5°×2.5° grid using bilinear interpolation](#), the mean diurnal cycle computed every 3 hours
29 | is approximated at each grid-point by a sum of sine and cosine functions (first harmonic analysis)
30 | allowing to derive global maps of the amplitude and phase of maximum rainfall over the day. Mean
31 | diurnal cycle of precipitation is also provided over specific regions in the tropics. Over land, we
32 | contrast semi-arid (Sahel) and humid (Amazonia) regions as well as West-Africa and India. Over

1 the ocean, we focus on the Gulf of Guinea, the Indian Ocean and the East and West Equatorial
2 Pacific. We use TRMM 3B42 ~~V6V7~~, as a reference
3 ([http://mirador.gsfc.nasa.g](http://mirador.gsfc.nasa.gov/collections/TRMM_3B42_daily_006.shtml)
4 [ov/collections/TRMM_3B42_daily_007.shtml](http://mirador.gsfc.nasa.gov/collections/TRMM_3B42_daily_007.shtml)). The ESMValTool also includes diagnostics for
5 the evaluation of the diurnal cycle of radiative fluxes at the top of the atmosphere and at the surface,
6 and their decomposition into LW and SW, total and clear-sky components, however not all are
7 available for all models from the CMIP5 archive. As a reference, we use 3-hourly SYN1deg
8 CERES products (Wielicki et al., 1996), derived from measurements at top of the atmosphere and
9 computed using a radiative transfer model at the surface
10 (<http://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/products.php?product=SYN1deg>). These diagnostics provide a first
11 insight into the representation of the diurnal cycle, but further analysis is required to understand the
12 links between the model's parameterizations and the representation of the diurnal cycle, as well as
13 the impact of errors in the diurnal cycle on other, slower timescale climate processes. Figure 11
14 shows the evaluation against TRMM observations of the mean diurnal cycle averaged over specific
15 regions in the tropics for five summers (2004-2008) simulated by four CMIP5 ESMs.

16 **4.1.6. Clouds**

17 **4.1.6.1. Clouds and radiation**

18 Clouds are a key component of the climate system because of their large impact on the radiation
19 budget as well as their crucial role in the hydrological cycle. The simulation of clouds in climate
20 models has been challenging because of the many nonlinear processes involved (Boucher et al.,
21 2013). Simulations of long-term mean cloud properties from CMIP3 and CMIP5 models show large
22 biases compared ~~with~~to observations (Chen et al., 2011; Klein et al., 2013; Lauer and Hamilton,
23 2013). Such biases have a range of implications as they affect application of these models to
24 investigate chemistry-climate interactions and aerosol-cloud interactions, while also having an
25 impact on the climate sensitivity of the model.

26 The namelist *namelist_lauer13jclim.xml* computes the climatology and interannual variability of
27 climate relevant cloud variables such as cloud radiative forcing, liquid and ice water path, and cloud
28 cover and reproduces the evaluation results of Lauer and Hamilton (2013). The standard namelist
29 includes a comparison of the geographical distribution of multi-year average cloud parameters from
30 individual models and the multi-model mean with satellite observations. Taylor diagrams are
31 generated that show the multi-year annual or seasonal average performance of individual models

1 and the multi-model mean in reproducing satellite observations. The diagnostic routine also
2 facilitates the assessment of the bias of the multi-model mean and zonal averages of individual
3 models compared with satellite observations. Interannual variability is estimated as the relative
4 temporal standard deviation from multi-year timeseries of data with the temporal standard
5 deviations calculated from monthly anomalies after subtracting the climatological mean seasonal
6 cycle. Data regridding is applied using a bilinear interpolation method and choosing the grid of the
7 reference dataset as target. As an example, Fig. 12 shows the bias of the 20-year average
8 (~~1986~~1985-2005) annual mean cloud radiative effects from CMIP5 models (multi-model mean)
9 against the CERES EBAF satellite climatology (2001-2012) (Loeb et al., 2012; Loeb et al., 2009),
10 similar to Flato et al. (2013) their Figure 9.5.

11 The cloud namelist focuses on precipitation (pr) and four cloud parameters that largely determine
12 the impact of clouds on the radiation budget and thus climate in the model simulations: total cloud
13 amount (clt), liquid water path (lwp), ice water path (iwp), and ~~To~~FeATOA cloud radiative effect
14 (CRE) consisting of the longwave CRE and shortwave CRE that can also separately be evaluated
15 with the performance metrics namelist (see Section 4.1.1). Precipitation is evaluated with GPCP
16 data, total cloud amount with MODIS, liquid water path with passive-microwave satellite
17 observations from the University of Wisconsin (O'Dell et al., 2008), and the ice water path with
18 MODIS Cloud Model Intercomparison Project (MODIS-CFMIP, (Pincus et al. (2012)), (King et al.
19 (2003))) data.

20 **4.1.6.2. Quantitative performance assessment of cloud regimes**

21 The cloud-climate radiative feedback process remains one of the largest sources of uncertainty in
22 determining the climate sensitivity of models (Boucher et al., 2013). Traditionally, clouds have
23 been evaluated in terms of their impact on the mean top of atmosphere fluxes. However, it is
24 possible to achieve good performance on these quantities through compensating errors, for example
25 boundary layer clouds may be too reflective but have insufficient horizontal coverage (Nam et al.,
26 2012). Williams and Webb (2009) proposed a Cloud Regime Error Metric (CREM) which critically
27 tests the ability of a model to simulate both the relative frequency of occurrence and the radiative
28 properties correctly for a set of cloud regimes determined by the daily mean cloud top pressure, in-
29 cloud albedo and fractional coverage at each grid-box. Having previously identified the regimes by
30 clustering joint cloud-top pressure-optical depth histograms from the International Satellite Cloud
31 Climatology Project (ISCCP, Rossow and Schiffer (1999)) as per (Williams and Webb (2009)),
32 each daily model grid box is assigned to the regime cluster centroid with the closest cloud top

1 pressure, in-cloud albedo and fractional coverage as determined by the 3-element Euclidean
2 distance. The fraction of grid points assigned to each of the regimes and the mean radiative
3 properties of those grid points are then compared to the observed values. [This routine also uses a](#)
4 [bilinear regridding method with a 2.5°×2.5° target grid.](#)

5 This metric is now implemented in ESMValTool (v1.0), with references in the code to tables in the
6 (Williams and Webb (2009)) study defining the cluster centroids
7 [*namelist_williams09climdyn_CREM.xml*]. Required are daily data from ISCCP mean cloud albedo
8 (albiscpp), ISCCP Mean Cloud Top Pressure (pctiscpp), ISCCP Total Total Cloud Fraction
9 (cltiscpp), TOA outgoing short- and long-wave radiation (rsut, rlut), TOA outgoing shortwave
10 radiation (rlutcs), surface snow area fraction (snc) or surface snow amount (snw), and sea ice area
11 fraction (sic). The metric has been applied over the period January ~~1979~~1985 to December
12 ~~1983~~1987 to those CMIP5 models ~~that submitted with~~ the required diagnostics (daily data) [available](#)
13 for their AMIP simulation (see caption of Fig. 13). A perfect score with respect to ISCCP would be
14 zero. (Williams and Webb (2009)) also compared data from the MODIS and the Earth Radiation
15 Budget Experiment (ERBE, Barkstrom (1984)) to ISCCP in order to provide an estimate of
16 observational uncertainty. This observational regime characteristic was found to be 0.96 as marked
17 on Fig. 13 when calculated over the period March 1985 to February 1990. Hence a model with a
18 score that is similar to this value can be considered to be within observational uncertainty, although
19 it should be noted that this does not necessarily mean that the model lies within the observations for
20 each regime. Error bars are not plotted since experience has shown that the metric has little
21 sensitivity to interannual variability and models that are visibly different on Fig. 13 are likely to be
22 significantly so. A minimum of two years, and ideally five years or more, of daily data are required
23 for the scientific analysis.

24 **4.2. Detection of systematic biases in the physical climate: ocean**

25 **4.2.1. Handling of ocean grids**

26 Analysis of ocean model data from ESMs poses several unique challenges for analysis. First, in
27 order to avoid numerical singularities in their calculations, ocean models often use irregular grids
28 where the poles have been rotated or moved to be located over land areas. For example, the global
29 configuration of the Nucleus for European Modelling of the Ocean (NEMO) framework uses a
30 tripolar grid (Madec, 2008), with the three poles located over Siberia, Canada and Antarctica.
31 Second, transports of scalar quantities (e.g., overturning ~~streamfunctions~~[stream functions](#) and heat

1 transports) can only be calculated accurately on the original model grids as interpolation to other
2 grids introduces errors. This means that, e.g. for the calculation of water transport through a strait,
3 both the horizontal and vertical extent of the grids on which the u and v currents are defined is
4 required. Therefore, this type of diagnostic can only be used for models for which all native grid
5 information is available. State variables like SSTs, sea ice and salinity are regridded using grid
6 information (i.e., coordinates, bounds, and cell areas) available in the ocean input files of the
7 CMIP5 models. To create difference plots against observations or other models all data are
8 | regridded to a common grid (e.g., $1^\circ \times 1^\circ \times 1^\circ$) using the regridding functionality of the Earth System
9 Modeling Framework (ESMF, <https://www.ncl.ucar.edu/Applications/ESMF.shtml>).

10 **4.2.2. Southern Ocean Diagnostics**

11 **4.2.2.1. Southern Ocean mixed layer dynamics and surface turbulent fluxes**

12 Earth system models often show large biases in the Southern Ocean mixed layer. For example, Sterl
13 et al. (2012) showed that in EC-Earth/NEMO the Southern Ocean is too warm and salinity too low,
14 while the mixed-layer is too shallow. These biases are not specific to EC-Earth, but are rather
15 widespread. At the same time, values for Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) transport vary
16 between 90 and 264 Sv in CMIP5 models, with a mean of 155 ± 51 Sv. The differences are
17 associated with differences in the ACC density structure.

18 A namelist has been implemented in the ESMValTool to analyse these biases
19 [*namelist_SouthernOcean.xml*]. With these diagnostics polar stereographic (difference) maps can be
20 | produced to compare monthly/annual mean model fields with corresponding ERA-Interim data. [The](#)
21 [patch recovery technique is applied to regrid data to a common \$1^\circ \times 1^\circ\$ grid.](#) There are also scripts to
22 plot the differences in the area mean vertical profiles of ocean temperature and salinity between
23 models and data from the World Ocean Atlas (Antonov et al., 2010; Locarnini et al., 2010). The
24 ocean mixed layer thickness from models can be compared with that obtained from the Argo floats
25 (Dong et al., 2008). Finally, the ACC strength, as measured by water mass transport through the
26 Drake Passage, is calculated using the same method as in the CDFTOOLS package (CDFTOOLS,
27 <http://servforge.legi.grenoble-inp.fr/projects/CDFTOOL>). This diagnostic can be used to calculate
28 the transport through other sections as well, but is presently only available for NEMO/ORCA1
29 output, for which all grid information is available. The required variables for the comparison with
30 ERA-Interim are sea surface temperature (tos), downward heat flux (hfds, calculated from ERA-
31 Interim by summing the surface latent and sensible heat flux and the net shortwave and longwave

1 fluxes (hfsl+hfss+rsns+rlns)), water flux (wfpe, calculated by summing precipitation and
2 evaporation (pr+evspsbl)) and the wind stress components (tauu and tauv). For the comparison with
3 the World Ocean Atlas 2009 data (WOA09) sea surface salinity (sos), sea water salinity (so) and
4 temperature (to) are required variables. For the comparison with the Argo floats the ocean mixed
5 layer thickness (mlotst) is required. Finally the two components of sea water velocity (uo and vo)
6 are required for the volume transport calculation. Some example figures from this set of diagnostic
7 scripts are shown for EC-Earth in Fig. 14.

8 **4.2.2.2. Atmospheric processes forcing the Southern Ocean**

9 One leading cause of SST biases in the Southern Ocean is systematic biases in surface radiation
10 fluxes (Trenberth and Fasullo, 2010) coupled with systematic errors in macrophysical (e.g. cloud
11 amount) and microphysical (e.g. frequency of mixed-phase clouds) cloud properties (Bodas-Salcedo
12 et al., 2014).

13 A namelist has been implemented into the ESMValTool that compares model estimates of cloud,
14 radiation and surface turbulent flux variables over the Southern Ocean with suitable observations
15 [*namelist_SouthernHemisphere.xml*]. Due to the lack of surface/in-situ observations over the
16 Southern Ocean, remotely sensed data can be subject to considerable uncertainty (Mace, 2010).

17 While this ~~is~~ uncertainty is not explicitly addressed in ESMValTool (v1.0), in future releases we
18 will include a number of alternative satellite based data sets for cloud variables (e.g., MISR,
19 MODIS, ISCCP) as well as new methods under development to derive surface turbulent flux
20 estimates constrained by observed TOA radiation flux estimates and atmospheric energy divergence
21 derived from reanalysis products (Trenberth and Fasullo, 2008). Inclusion of multiple satellite-
22 based estimates will provide some estimate of observational uncertainty over the region. Variables
23 analysed include (i) total cloud cover (clt), vertically integrated cloud liquid water and cloud ice
24 water (clwvi, clivi) (ii) surface/ (TOA) downward/outgoing total sky and clear_sky short wave and
25 longwave radiation fluxes (rsds, rsdcs, rlds, rldscs / rsut, rsutcs, rlut, rlutcs) and (iii) surface
26 turbulent latent and sensible heat fluxes (hfsl, hfss). Observational constraints are derived from,
27 respectively; cloud: CloudSat level 3 data (Stephens et al., 2002), radiation: CERES-EBAF level 3
28 Ed2 data and surface turbulent fluxes: WHOI-OAflux (Yu et al., 2008).

29 The following diagnostics are calculated with accompanying plots: (i) Seasonal mean absolute-
30 value and difference maps for model data versus observations covering the Southern Ocean region
31 (30°S-65°S) for all variables. (ii) Mean seasonal cycles using zonal means averaged separately over

1 three latitude bands (i) 30°S-65°S, the entire Southern Ocean, (ii) 30°S-45°S, the sub-tropical
2 Southern Ocean and (iii) 45°S-65°S, the mid-latitude Southern Ocean. (iii) Annual means of each
3 variable (models and observations) plotted as zonal means, over 30°S-65°S, (iv) Scatter plots of
4 seasonal mean downward (surface) and outgoing (TOA) longwave and short wave radiation as a
5 function of; total cloud cover, cloud liquid water path or cloud ice water path, calculated for the
6 three regions outlined above. The data are regridded using a cubic interpolation method with the
7 observations grid as target. Figure 15 provides an example diagnostic, with the top panel showing
8 covariability of seasonal mean surface downward short wave radiation as a function of total cloud
9 cover. To construct the figure, grid point values of cloud cover, for each season covering 30°S to
10 65°S, are saved into bins of 5% increasing cloud cover. For each grid point the corresponding
11 seasonal mean radiation value is used to obtain a mean radiation flux for each cloud cover bin. The
12 lower panel plots the fractional occurrence of seasonal mean cloud cover from CloudSat and model
13 data for the same spatial and temporal averaging as used in the upper panel. Observations from
14 CERES-EBAF radiation plotted against CloudSat cloud cover are compared to an example CMIP5
15 model. From the covariability plot we can diagnose whether models exhibit a similar dependency
16 between incoming surface short wave radiation and cloud cover as seen in observations. We can
17 further assess if there is a systematic bias in surface solar radiation and whether this bias occurs at
18 specific values of cloud cover. Similar covariability plots are available for surface incoming
19 longwave radiation and for TOA long and short wave radiation, plotted respectively against cloud
20 cover, cloud liquid water path and cloud ice water path. Combining these diagnostics provides a
21 comprehensive evaluation of simulated relationships between surface and TOA radiation fluxes and
22 cloud variables.

23 **4.2.3. Simulated tropical ocean climatology**

24 An accurate representation of the tropical climate is fundamental for ESMs. The majority of solar
25 energy received by the Earth is in the tropics and the potential for thermal emission of absorbed
26 energy back to space is also largest in the tropics due to the high column concentrations of water
27 vapor at low latitudes (Pierrehumbert, 1995; Stephens and Greenwald, 1991). Coupled interactions
28 between equatorial SSTs, surface wind stress, precipitation and upper-ocean mixing are central to
29 many tropical biases in ESMs. This is the case both with respect to the mean state and for key
30 modes of variability, influenced by, or interacting with, the mean state (e.g., El Nino Southern
31 Oscillation (ENSO), (Choi et al. (2011))). Such biases are often reflected in a “double ITCZ” seen
32 in the majority of CMIP3 and CMIP5 CCMs (Li and Xie, 2014; Oueslati and Bellon, 2015). The

1 double ITCZ bias, present in many ESMs, occurs when models fail to simulate a single, year round,
2 ITCZ rainfall maximum north of the equator. Instead, an unrealistic secondary maximum in models
3 south of the equator is present for some or all of the year. Such biases are particularly prevalent in
4 the tropical Pacific, but can also occur in the Atlantic (Oueslati and Bellon, 2015). This double
5 ITCZ is often accompanied by an overextension of the East Pacific equatorial cold tongue into the
6 Central Pacific, collocated with a positive bias in easterly near-surface wind speeds and a shallow
7 bias in ocean mixed layer depth (Lin, 2007). Such biases can directly impact the ability of an ESM
8 to accurately represent ENSO variability (An et al., 2010; Guilyardi, 2006) and its potential
9 sensitivity to climate change (Chen et al., 2015), with negative consequences for a range of
10 simulated features, such as regional tropical temperature and precipitation variability, monsoon
11 dynamics and ocean and terrestrial carbon uptake (Iguchi, 2011; Jones et al., 2001).

12 To assess such tropical biases with the ESMValTool, we have implemented a namelist with
13 diagnostics motivated by the work of Li and Xie (2014) [*namelist_TropicalVariability.xml*]. In
14 particular, we reproduce their Fig. 5 for models and observations/reanalyses, calculating equatorial
15 mean (5°N-5°S), longitudinal sections of annual mean precipitation (pr), skin temperature (ts),
16 horizontal winds (ua and va) and 925 hPa divergence (derived from the sum of the partial
17 derivatives of the wind components extracted at the 925 hPa pressure level (that is $du/dx + dv/dy$).
18 Latitude cross sections of the model variables are plotted for the equatorial Pacific, Indian and
19 Atlantic Oceans with observational constraints provided by the TRMM-3B43-v7 for precipitation,
20 the HadISST for SSTs, and ERA-interim reanalysis for temperature and winds. Latitudinal sections
21 of absolute and normalized annual mean SST and precipitation are also calculated, spatially
22 averaged for the three ocean basins. Normalization follows the procedure outlined in Fig. 1 of Li
23 and Xie (2014) whereby values at each latitude are normalized by the tropical mean (20°N-20°S)
24 value of the corresponding parameter (e.g., annual mean precipitation at a given location is divided
25 by the 20°N-20°S annual mean value). Finally, to assess how models capture observed relationships
26 between SST and precipitation we calculate the co-variability of precipitation against SST for
27 specific regions of the tropical Pacific. This analysis includes calculation of the Mean Square Error
28 (MSE) between model SST/precipitation and observational equivalents. [A similar regridding
29 procedure as for the Southern Hemisphere diagnostics is applied here, based on a cubic
30 interpolation method and using the observations as target grid.](#) The namelist as included in
31 ESMValTool (v1.0) runs on all CMIP5 models. Figure 16 provides one example of the tropical
32 climate diagnostics, with latitude cross sections of absolute and tropical normalized SST and

1 precipitation from three CMIP5 models (HadGEM2-ES (Collins et al., 2011), MPI-ESM-LR and
2 | IPSL-CM5A-MR (Dufresne et al., 2013)) plotted against HadISST [and TRMM](#) data.

3 **4.2.4. Sea ice**

4 Sea ice is a key component of the climate system through its effects on radiation and seawater
5 density. A reduction in sea ice area results in increased absorption of shortwave radiation, which
6 warms the sea ice region and contributes to further sea ice loss. This process is often referred to as
7 the sea ice albedo climate feedback which is part of the Arctic amplification phenomena (Curry,
8 | 2007). CMIP5 models tend to underestimate the ~~sharp~~ decline in summer Arctic sea ice extent
9 observed by satellites during the last decades (Stroeve et al., 2012) which may be related to models'
10 | underestimation of the sea ice albedo feedback process (~~Boé et al., 2009~~), ([Boé et al., 2009](#)).
11 Conversely in the Antarctic, observations show a small increase in March sea ice extent while the
12 CMIP5 models simulate a small decrease (Flato et al., 2013; Stroeve et al., 2012). It is therefore
13 important that model sea-ice processes are evaluated and improvements regularly assessed. Caveats
14 have been noted with respect to the limitations of using only sea ice extent as a metric of model
15 performance (Notz et al., 2013) as the sea ice concentration, volume, and drift, sea ice thickness and
16 surface albedo, as well as sea ice processes such as melt pond formation or the summer sea ice melt
17 are all important sea ice related quantities. In addition the atmospheric forcings (e.g., wind, clouds,
18 and snow) and ocean forcings (e.g., salinity and ocean transport) impact on the sea ice state and
19 evolution.

20 In ESMValTool (v1.0) the sea ice namelist includes diagnostics that cover sea ice extent and
21 concentration [*namelist_SeaIce.xml*], but work is underway to include other variables and processes
22 in future releases. An example diagnostic produced by the sea ice namelist is given in Figure 17,
23 which shows the timeseries of September Arctic sea ice extent from the CMIP5 historical
24 simulations compared to observations from the National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC)
25 produced by combining concentration estimates created with the NASA Team algorithm and the
26 Bootstrap algorithm (Meier et al., 2013; Peng et al., 2013) and SSTs from the HadISST data set,
27 | similar to Figure 9.24 of (Flato et al. (2013)). Sea ice extent is calculated as the total area (km²) of
28 grid cells over the Arctic or Antarctic with sea-ice concentrations (sic) of at least 15%. The sea ice
29 namelist can also calculate the seasonal cycle of sea ice extent and polar stereographic contour and
30 | polar contour difference plots of Arctic and Antarctic sea ice concentration. [For the latter](#)
31 [diagnostic, data is regridded to a common 1°×1° grid using the patch recovery technique.](#)

1 4.3. Detection of systematic biases in the physical climate: land

2 4.3.1. Continental dry bias

3 The representation of land surface processes and fluxes in climate models critically affects the
4 simulation of near-surface climate over land. In particular, energy partitioning at the surface
5 strongly influences surface temperature and it has been suggested that temperature biases in ESMs
6 can be in part related to biases in evapotranspiration. The most notable feature in a majority of
7 CMIP3 and CMIP5 models is a tendency to overestimate evapotranspiration globally (Mueller and
8 Seneviratne, 2014). ~~(Mueller and Seneviratne, 2014).~~

9 A diagnostic to analyse the representation of evapotranspiration in ESMs has been included in the
10 ESMValTool [~~namelist_Evapotransport~~Evapotranspiration.xml]. For comparison with the
11 LandFlux-EVAL product (Mueller et al., 2013), the modelled surface latent heat flux (hfls) is
12 converted to evapotranspiration units using the latent heat of vaporization. The diagnostic then
13 produces lat-lon maps of absolute evapotranspiration as well as bias maps (model minus reference
14 product), ~~after regridding data to the coarsest grid using area-conservative interpolation~~. In Fig.
15 18, the global pattern of monthly mean evapotranspiration is evaluated against the LandFlux-EVAL
16 product. The evapotranspiration diagnostic is complemented by the Standardized Precipitation
17 Index (SPI) diagnostic [~~namelist_SPI~~SPI.xml], which gives a measure of drought intensity from an
18 atmospheric perspective and can help relating biases in evapotranspiration to atmospheric causes
19 such as the accumulated precipitation amounts. For each month, precipitation (pr) is summed over
20 the preceding months (options for 3, 6 or 12-monthly SPI). Then a two-parameter Gamma
21 distribution of cumulative probability is fitted to the strictly positive month sums, such that the
22 probability of a non-zero precipitation sum being below a certain value x corresponds to $\text{Gamma}(x)$.
23 The shape and scale parameters of the gamma distribution are estimated with a maximum likelihood
24 approach. Accounting for periods of no precipitation, occurring at a frequency q , the total
25 cumulative probability distribution of a precipitation sum below x , $H(x)$, becomes $H(x) = q + (1 -$
26 $q) * \text{Gamma}(x)$. In the last step, a precipitation sum x is assigned to its corresponding SPI value by
27 computing the quantile $q_{N(0,1)}$ of the standard normal distribution at probability $H(x)$. The SPI of
28 a precipitation sum x , thus, corresponds to the quantile of the standard normal distribution which is
29 assigned by preserving the probability of the original precipitation sum, $H(x)$. Mean and annual
30 cycle are not meaningful since the SPI accounts for seasonality and transforms the data to a zero
31 average in each month. Therefore the diagnostic focuses on lat-lon maps of annual or seasonal
32 trends in SPI (unitless) ~~making comparison between~~when comparing models ~~and observation with~~

1 | [observations](#).

2 | **4.3.2. Runoff**

3 | Evaluation of precipitation is a challenge due to potentially large errors and uncertainty in observed
4 | precipitation data (Biemans et al., 2009; Legates and Willmott, 1990). An alternative or additional
5 | option to the direct evaluation of precipitation over land (such as, e.g., included in the global
6 | precipitation evaluation in Sect. 4.1.2) is the evaluation of river runoff that can in principle be
7 | measured with comparatively small errors for most rivers. Routine measurements are performed for
8 | many large rivers, generating a large global database (e.g. ~~available at the Global Runoff Data~~
9 | ~~Centre (GRDC, Dümenil Gates et al. (2000))~~, [available at the Global Runoff Data Centre \(GRDC,](#)
10 | [Dümenil Gates et al. \(2000\)\)](#)). The length of available time series, however, varies between the
11 | rivers, with large data gaps especially in recent years for many rivers. The evaluation of runoff
12 | against river gauge data can provide a useful independent measure of the simulated hydrological
13 | cycle. If both river flow and precipitation are given with reasonable accuracy, it will also provide an
14 | observational constraint on model surface evaporation, provided that the considered averaging time
15 | periods are long enough so that changes in surface water storages are negligible (Hagemann et al.,
16 | 2013), e.g., by considering climatological means of 20 years or more. For present climate
17 | conditions ESMS often exhibit a dry and warm near-surface bias during summer over mid-latitude
18 | continents (Hagemann et al., 2004). Continental dry biases in precipitation exist in the majority of
19 | CMIP5 models over South America, the Mid-west of US, the Mediterranean region, Central and
20 | Eastern Europe, West and South Asia (Fig. ~~9.4 of Flato et al. (2013)~~[4 and Fig. 9.4 of Flato et al.](#)
21 | [\(2013\)](#)). These precipitation biases often transfer into dry biases in runoff, but sometimes dry biases
22 | in runoff can be caused by a too large evapotranspiration (Hagemann et al., 2013). In order to relate
23 | biases in runoff to biases in precipitation and evapotranspiration, the catchment oriented evaluation
24 | in this section considers biases in all three variables. This means that the respective variables are
25 | considered as spatially averages over the drainage basins of large rivers.

26 | Beside bias maps, a set of diagnostics to produce basin-scale comparisons of runoff (mrro),
27 | evapotranspiration (evspsbl) and precipitation (pr) have also been implemented in ESMValTool
28 | [[namelist_runoff_et.xml](#)]. This namelist calculates biases in climatological annual means of the
29 | three variables for 12 large-scale catchments areas on different continents and for different climates.
30 | For total runoff, catchment averaged model values are compared to climatological long-term
31 | averages of GRDC observations. Due to the incompleteness of these station data, a year-to-year
32 | correspondence of data cannot be achieved so only climatological data are considered, as in

1 Hagemann et al. (2013). Simulated precipitation is compared to catchment-averaged WATCH
2 forcing data based on ERA-Interim (WFDEI) data (Weedon et al., 2014) for the period 1979-2010.
3 Evapotranspiration observations are estimated using the difference of the catchment-averaged
4 WFDEI precipitation minus the climatological GRDC river runoff. As an example, Fig. 19 shows
5 biases in runoff coefficient (runoff/precipitation) against the relative precipitation bias for the
6 historical simulation of one of the CMIP5 models (MPI-ESM-1.1-LR).

7 **4.4. Detection of biogeochemical biases: carbon cycle**

8 **4.4.1. Terrestrial biogeochemistry**

9 A realistic representation of the global carbon cycle is a fundamental requirement for ESMs. In the
10 past, climate models were directly forced by atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, but since CMIP5,
11 ESMs are routinely forced by anthropogenic CO₂ emissions, the atmospheric concentration being
12 inferred from the difference between these emissions and the ESM simulated land and ocean carbon
13 sinks. These sinks are affected by atmospheric CO₂ and climate change, inducing feedbacks
14 between the climate system and the carbon cycle (Arora et al., 2013; Friedlingstein et al., 2006).
15 Quantification of these feedbacks is critical to estimate the future of these carbon sinks and hence
16 atmospheric CO₂ and climate change (Friedlingstein et al., 2014).

17 The diagnostics implemented in ESMValTool to evaluate simulated terrestrial biogeochemistry are
18 based on the study of Anav et al. (2013) and span several time-scales: climatological means, intra-
19 annual (seasonal cycle), interannual and long-term trends [*namelist_anav13jclim.xml*]. Further
20 extending these routines, ~~carbon cycle~~[the diagnostics presented in Sect. 4.1.1 are also applied here](#)
21 [to calculate quantitative performance metrics from Anav et al. \(2013\) are implemented in](#)
22 [namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5_](#). These metrics assess how both the land and ocean biogeochemical
23 components of ESMs reproduce different aspects of the land and ocean carbon cycle, with an
24 emphasis on variables controlling the exchange of carbon between the atmosphere and these two
25 reservoirs. The analysis indicates some level of compensating errors within the models. Selecting,
26 within the namelist, several specific diagnostics to be applied to more key variables controlling the
27 land or ocean carbon cycle, can help reducing the risk of missing such compensating errors. Figure
28 20 shows a portrait diagram similar to Fig. 3 ~~but for seasonal carbon cycle metrics based on the~~
29 ~~point-wise RMSE against suitable reference data sets (see below). For annual mean trend~~
30 ~~diagnostics, such as those shown in Fig. 21, a PDF-Skill Score metric is additionally implemented~~
31 ~~which compares the mean state and the interannual variability of a given variable at each grid point~~

1 ~~by comparing the common area under both PDFs. The overlap of both PDFs provides a measure for~~
2 ~~the model ranking, with a perfect score of 1 meaning a full overlap of both PDFs (Anav et al.~~
3 ~~(2013), Eq.53 of Anav et al. (2013) but for seasonal carbon cycle metrics against suitable reference~~
4 ~~data sets (see below).~~

5 For land, diagnostics of the land carbon sink net biosphere productivity (nbp) are essential.
6 Although direct observations are not available, nbp can be estimated from atmospheric CO₂
7 inversions (JMA and TRANSCOM) and on the global scale combined with observation-based
8 estimates of the oceanic carbon sink (fgco2 from GCP (Le Quéré et al., 2014)). In addition to net
9 carbon fluxes, diagnostics for gross primary productivity of land (gpp), leaf area index (lai),
10 vegetation (cVeg) and soil carbon pools (cSoil) are also implemented in the ESMValTool to assess
11 possible error compensation in ESMs. Observation-based gpp estimates are derived from Model
12 Tree Ensemble (MTE) upscaling data (Jung et al., 2009) from the network of eddy-covariance flux
13 towers (FLUXNET, Beer et al. (2010)). The leaf area index data set used for evaluation (LAI3g) is
14 derived from the Global Inventory Modeling and Mapping Studies group (GIMMS) AVHRR
15 normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI-017b) data (Zhu et al., 2013). Finally, cSoil and
16 cVeg are assessed as mean annual values over different large sub-domains using the Harmonised
17 World soil Database (HWSD, (Nachtergaele et al. (2012))) and the Olson based vegetation carbon
18 data set (Gibbs, 2006; Olson et al., 1985).

19 **4.4.2. Marine biogeochemistry**

20 Marine biogeochemistry models form a core component of ESMs and require evaluation for
21 multiple passive tracers. The increasing availability of quality-controlled global biogeochemical
22 data sets for the historical period (e.g. Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas Version 2 (SOCAT v2, Bakker et
23 al. (2014)) provides further opportunity to evaluate model performance on multi-decadal timescales.
24 Recent analyses of CMIP5 ESMs indicate that persistent biases exist in simulated biogeochemical
25 variables, for instance as identified in ocean oxygen (Andrews et al., 2013) and carbon cycle (Anav
26 et al., 2013) fields derived from CMIP5 historical experiments. Some systematic biases in
27 biogeochemical tracers can be attributed to physical deficiencies within ocean models (see Section
28 [4.32](#)), motivating further understanding of coupled physical-biogeochemical processes in the
29 current generation of ESMs. For example, erroneous over oxygenation of subsurface waters within
30 the MPI-ESM-LR CMIP5 model has been attributed to excess ventilation and vertical mixing in
31 mid- to high-latitude regions (Ilyina et al., 2013).

1 A namelist is provided that includes diagnostics to support the evaluation of ocean biogeochemical
2 cycles at global scales, as simulated by both ocean-only and coupled climate-carbon cycle ESMs
3 [*namelist_GlobalOcean.xml*]. Supported input variables include surface partial pressure of CO₂
4 (spco2), surface chlorophyll concentration (chl), surface total alkalinity (talk) and dissolved oxygen
5 concentration (o2). These variables provide an integrated view of model skill with regard to
6 reproducing bulk marine ecosystem and carbon cycle properties. Observation-based reference data
7 sets include SOCAT v2 and ETH-SOM-FFN (Landschützer et al., 2014a, b) for surface *p*CO₂
8 (*intPP*), Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor (SeaWiFS) satellite data for surface chlorophyll
9 (McClain et al., 1998), climatological data for total alkalinity (Takahashi et al., 2014), and World
10 Ocean Atlas 2005 climatological data (WOA05) with in situ corrections following Bianchi et al.
11 (2012) for dissolved oxygen. Diagnostics calculate contour plots for climatological distributions,
12 inter-annual or inter-seasonal (e.g. JJAS) variability together with the difference between each
13 model and a chosen reference data set. Such differences are calculated after regridding the data to
14 the coarsest grid using an area-conservative interpolation. Monthly, seasonal or annual frequency
15 time-series plots can also be produced either globally averaged or for a selected latitude-longitude
16 range. Optional extensions include the ability to mask model data with the same coverage as
17 observations, calculate anomaly fields, and to overlay trend lines, and running or multi-model
18 means. Pre-processing routines are also included to accommodate native curvilinear grids, common
19 in ocean model discretisation (see Section 4.3.2.1), along with providing the ability to extract depth
20 levels from 3-D input fields. An example plot is presented in Fig. 22, showing inter-annual
21 variability in surface ocean *p*CO₂ as simulated by a subset of CMIP5 ESMs (BNU-ESM,
22 HadGEM2-ES, GFDL-ESM2M), expressed as the standard deviation of de-trended annual averages
23 for the period ~~1998—2011. The Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP) 4.5 CMIP5 model~~
24 ~~experiments are used to extend historical integrations beyond 1992 – 2005 to facilitate comparison~~
25 ~~with.~~ As an observation-based reference *p*CO₂ field (ETH SOM-FFN), (1998-2011) is used, which
26 extrapolates SOCAT v2 data (Bakker et al., 2014) using a 2-step neural network method. As
27 described in Landschützer et al. (2014a), ETH SOM-FFN partitions monthly SOCAT v2 *p*CO₂
28 observations into discrete biogeochemical provinces by establishing common relationships between
29 independent input parameters using a Self Organising Map (SOM). Non-linear input-target
30 relationships, as derived for each biogeochemical province using a Feed-Forward Network (FFN)
31 method, are then used to extrapolate observed *p*CO₂.

1 A diagnostic for oceanic Net Primary Production (NPP) is also implemented in ESMValTool for
2 climatological annual mean and seasonal cycle, as well as for inter-annual variability over the 1986-
3 2005 period [*namelist_anav13jclim.xml*]. Observations are derived from the SeaWiFS satellite
4 chlorophyll data, using the Vertically Generalized Production Model (VGPM, Behrenfeld and
5 Falkowski (1997)). ~~Finally, similarly to land carbon, the net air-sea CO₂ flux from ESMs (Fig. 21~~
6 ~~right panels) is evaluated in terms of mean and interannual variations and climatological annual~~
7 ~~means over different zonally averaged domains using atmospheric inversions of the air-sea CO₂~~
8 ~~flux as reference data (Gurney et al., 2003) and GCP estimates for the global ocean (Le Quéré et al.,~~
9 ~~2014).~~

10 **4.5. Detection of biogeochemical biases: aerosols and trace gas chemistry**

11 **4.5.1. Tropospheric aerosols**

12 Tropospheric aerosols play a key role in the Earth system and have a strong influence on climate
13 and air pollution. The global aerosol distribution is characterized by a large spatial and temporal
14 variability which makes its representation in ESMs particularly challenging (Ghan and Schwartz,
15 2007). In addition, aerosol interactions with radiation (direct aerosol effect (Schulz et al., 2006))
16 and with clouds (indirect aerosol effects (Lohmann and Feichter, 2005)) need to be accounted for.
17 Model-based estimates of anthropogenic aerosol effects are still affected by large uncertainties,
18 mostly due to an incorrect representation of aerosol processes (Kinne et al., 2006). ~~Myhre et al.~~
19 ~~(2013).~~ Myhre et al. (2013) report a substantial spread in simulated aerosol direct effects among 16
20 global aerosol models and attribute it to diversities in aerosol burden, aerosol optical properties and
21 aerosol optical depth (AOD). Diversities in black carbon (BC) burden up to a factor of three, related
22 to model disagreements in simulating deposition processes were also found by Lee et al. (2013).
23 Model meteorology can be a source of diversity since it impacts on atmospheric transport and
24 aerosol lifetime. This in turn relates to the simulated essential climate variables such as winds,
25 humidity and precipitation (see Section 4.1). Large biases also exist in simulated aerosol indirect
26 effects (IPCC, 2013) and are often a result of systematic errors in both model aerosol and cloud
27 fields (see Section 4.1.6).

28 To assess current biases in global aerosol models, the aerosol namelist of the ESMValTool
29 comprises several diagnostics to compare simulated aerosol concentrations and optical depth at the
30 surface against station data, motivated by the work of ~~Pringle et al. (2010),~~ (Poizzer et al. (2012);
31 Pringle et al. (2010)), Poizzer et al. (2012), and Righi et al. (2013) [*namelist_aerosol_CMIP5.xml*].

1 Diagnostics include time series of monthly or yearly mean aerosol concentrations, scatter plots with
2 the relevant statistical indicators, and contour maps directly comparing model results against
3 observations. ComparisonThe comparison is performed considering collocated model and
4 observations in space and time. In the current version of ESMValTool, these diagnostics are
5 supplied with observational data from a wide range of station networks, including Interagency
6 Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) and CASTNET (North America),
7 European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (EMEP, Europe) and the recently-established
8 Asian network (EANET). The AERONET data are also available for evaluating aerosol optical
9 depth in continental regions and in a few remote marine locations. For evaluating aerosol optical
10 depth, we also use satellite data, the primary advantage of which is almost-global coverage,
11 particularly over the oceans. Satellite data is however affected by uncertainties related to the
12 algorithm used to process radiances into relevant geophysical state variables. The tool currently
13 implements data from the Multi-angle Imaging SpectroRadiometer (MISR, Stevens and Schwartz
14 (2012)), MODIS and the ESACCI-AEROSOL product (Kinne et al., 2015) which is a combination
15 of ERS2-ATSR2 and ENVISAT-AATSR data. To calculate model biases against satellite data,
16 regridding is performed using a bilinear interpolation to the coarsest grid. Aerosol optical depth
17 time series over the ocean for the period 1850-~~2015~~2010 are shown in Fig. 23 for the CMIP5
18 models in comparison to MODIS and ESACCI-AEROSOL. Finally, more specific aerosol
19 diagnostics have been implemented to compare aerosol vertical profiles of mass and number
20 concentrations and aerosol size distributions, based on the evaluation work by Lauer et al. (2005)
21 and Aquila et al. (2011). These diagnostics, however, use model quantities that were not part of the
22 CMIP5 data request and therefore will not be discussed here.

23 **4.5.2. Tropospheric trace gas chemistry and stratospheric ozone**

24 In the past, climate models were forced with prescribed tropospheric and stratospheric ozone
25 concentration, but since CMIP5 some ESMs include interactive chemistry and are capable of
26 representing prognostic ozone (Eyring et al., 2013; Flato et al., 2013). This allows models to
27 simulate important chemistry-climate interactions and feedback processes. Examples include the
28 increase in oxidation rates in a warmer climate which leads to decreases in methane and its lifetime
29 (Voulgarakis et al., 2013) or the increase in tropical upwelling (associated with the Brewer Dobson
30 circulation) in a warmer climate and corresponding reductions in tropical lower stratospheric ozone
31 as a result of faster transport and less time for ozone production (Butchart et al., 2010; Eyring et al.,
32 2010). It is thus becoming important to evaluate the simulated atmospheric composition in ESMs. A

1 common high bias in the Northern Hemisphere and a low bias in the Southern Hemisphere has been
2 identified in tropospheric column ozone simulated by chemistry-climate models participating in the
3 Atmospheric Chemistry Climate Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP), which could partly be
4 related to deficiencies in the ozone precursor emissions (Young et al., 2013). Analysis of CMIP5
5 models with respect to trends in total column ozone show that the multi-model mean of the models
6 with interactive chemistry is in good agreement with observations, but that significant deviations
7 exist for individual models (Eyring et al., 2013; Flato et al., 2013). Large variations in stratospheric
8 ozone in models with interactive chemistry drive large variations in lower stratospheric temperature
9 trends. The results show that both ozone recovery and the rate of GHG increase determine future
10 Southern Hemisphere summer-time circulation changes and are important to consider in ESMs
11 (Eyring et al., 2013).

12 The namelists implemented in the ESMValTool to evaluate atmospheric chemistry ~~and the impact~~
13 ~~of stratospheric ozone changes on Southern Hemispheric surface climate~~ can reproduce the analysis
14 of tropospheric ozone and precursors of Righi et al. (2015) [*namelist_righi15gmd_tropo3.xml*,
15 *namelist_righi15gmd_Emmons.xml*] and the ~~studies by Eyring et al. (2006) and Eyring et al.~~
16 ~~(2013) study by Eyring et al. (2013)~~ [*namelist_eyring06jgr.xml*, *namelist_eyring13jgr.xml*]. The
17 calculation of the RMSE, mean bias, and Taylor diagrams (see Section 4.1.1) has been extended to
18 tropospheric column ozone (derived from tro3 fields), ozone profiles (tro3) at selected levels, and
19 surface carbon monoxide (vmrco) (see Righi et al. (2015) for details). This enables a consistent
20 calculation of relative performance for the climate parameters and ozone, which is particularly
21 relevant given that biases in climate can impact on biases in chemistry and vice versa. In addition,
22 diagnostics that evaluate tropospheric ozone and its precursors (nitrogen oxides (vmrnox), ethylene
23 (vmrc2h4), ethane (vmrc2h6), propene (vmrc3h6), propane (vmrc3h8) and acetone (vmrch3coch3))
24 are compared to the observational data of (Emmons et al. (2000)). A diagnostic to compare
25 tropospheric column ozone from the CMIP5 historical simulations to Aura MLS/OMI observations
26 (Ziemke et al., 2011) is also included and shown as an example in Fig. 24. ~~For the stratosphere,~~
27 ~~total column ozone (toz) and processes oriented diagnostics from Eyring et al. (2006) are~~
28 ~~implemented that include the seasonal cycle of temperature at 100 hPa and the correlation of the~~
29 ~~heat flux at 100 hPa (vt100) versus temperatures (ta) at 50 hPa, both evaluated with ERA-40 data~~
30 ~~(Uppala et al., 2005), vertical and latitudinal profiles of inorganic chlorine (ely), methane (ch4),~~
31 ~~water vapour (h2o) and time height sections of water vapour mixing ratio (i.e., the tape recorder)~~
32 ~~evaluated with satellite data from HALOE (Grooß and Russell III, 2005), and age of air (age)~~

1 ~~evaluated against satellite measurements of HF and HCl from HALOE [Anderson et al., 2000] and~~
2 ~~other sources (see Eyring et al. (2006) for details). Figure 25 shows the CMIP5 total column ozone~~
3 ~~time series compared to five different observational data sets: ground-based measurements (updated~~
4 ~~from Fioletov et al. (2002)), NASA TOMS/OMI/SBUV(/2) merged satellite data (Stolarski and~~
5 ~~Frith, 2006), 24. This diagnostic also remaps the data to the coarsest grid using local area averaging~~
6 ~~in order to calculate differences. For the stratosphere, total column ozone (toz) diagnostics are~~
7 ~~implemented. As an example, Figure 25 shows the CMIP5 total column ozone time series compared~~
8 ~~to the NIWA combined total column ozone database (Bodeker et al., 2005), Solar Backscatter~~
9 ~~Ultraviolet (SBUV, SBUV/2) retrievals (updated from Miller et al. (2002)), and~~
10 ~~GOME/SCIA/GOME-2 (Loyola and Coldewey-Egbers, 2012).~~

11 **4.6. Linking model performance to projections**

12 The relatively new research field of emergent constraints aims to link model performance
13 evaluation with future projection feedbacks. An emergent constraint refers to the use of
14 observations to constrain a simulated future Earth system feedback. It is referred to as emergent,
15 because a relationship between a simulated future projection feedback and an observable element of
16 climate variability emerges from an ensemble of ESM projections, potentially providing a
17 constraint on the future feedback. Emergent constraints can help focus model development and
18 evaluation onto processes underpinning uncertainty in the magnitude and spread of future Earth
19 system change. Systematic model biases in certain forced modes, such as the seasonal cycle of
20 snow cover or inter-annual variability of tropical land CO₂ uptake appear to project in an
21 understandable way onto the spread of future climate change feedbacks resulting from these
22 phenomena (Cox et al., 2013; Hall and Qu, 2006; Wenzel et al., 2014).

23 To reproduce the analysis of Wenzel et al. (2014) that provides an emergent constraint on future
24 tropical land carbon uptake, a namelist is included into ESMValTool (v1.0) that performs emergent
25 constraint analysis of the carbon cycle-climate feedback parameter (γ_{LT}) (Friedlingstein et al. 2006;
26 Cox et al. 2013) [*namelist_wenzel14jgr.xml*]. This namelist only considers the CMIP5 ESMs that
27 provided the necessary output for the analysis. This criterion precludes most CMIP5 models and
28 only seven ESMs are included here. The namelist includes diagnostics which analyse the short-term
29 sensitivity of atmospheric CO₂ to temperature variability on interannual time scales (γ_{IAV}) for
30 models and observations, as well as diagnostics for γ_{LT} from the models. The observed sensitivity
31 γ_{IAV} is calculated by summing land (nbp) and ocean (fgco2) carbon fluxes which are correlated to

1 tropical near-surface air temperature (tas). Results from historical model simulations are compared
2 to observational based estimates of carbon fluxes from the Global Carbon project (GCP, (Le Quéré
3 et al., 2014)) and reanalysis temperature data from the NOAA National Climate Data Center
4 (NCDC, [Smith et al. \(2008\)](#)). For diagnosing γ_{LT} from the models, nbp from idealized fully coupled
5 and biochemically coupled simulations are used as well as tas from fully coupled idealized
6 simulations (see Fig. 26). Emergent constraints of this type help to understand some of the
7 underlying processes controlling future projection sensitivity and offer a promising approach to
8 reduce uncertainty in multi-model climate projections.

9 **5. Use of the ESMValTool in the model development cycle and evaluation workflow**

10 **5.1. Model development**

11 As new model versions are developed, standardized diagnostics suites as presented here allow
12 model developers to compare their results against previous versions of the same model or against
13 other, e.g. CMIP, models. Such analyses help to identify different aspects in a model that have
14 either improved or degraded as a result of a particular model development. The benchmarking of
15 ESMs using performance metrics (see Section 4.1.1) provides an overall picture of the quality of the
16 simulation, whereas process-oriented diagnostics help determine whether the simulation quality
17 improvements are for the correct underlying physical reasons and point to paths for further model
18 improvement.

19 The ESMValTool is intended to support modelling centres with quality control of their CMIP
20 DECK experiments and the CMIP6 historical simulation, as well as other experiments ~~related to the~~
21 ~~individual Model Intercomparison Projects (MIPs) that are part of CMIP6.~~ [CMIP6-Endorsed](#)
22 [Model Intercomparison Projects \(Eyring et al., 2015\)](#). A significant amount of institutional
23 resources go into running, post-processing, and publishing model results from such experiments. It
24 is important that centres can easily identify and correct potential errors in this process. The
25 standardized analyses contained in the ESMValTool can be used to monitor the progress of CMIP
26 experiments. While the tool is designed to accommodate a wide range of time axes and
27 configurations, and many of the diagnostics may be run on control or future climate experiments,
28 ESMValTool (v1.0) is largely targeted to evaluate AMIP and the CMIP historical simulations.

1 **5.2. Integration into modelling workflows**

2 | The ESMValTool can be run as a stand-alone tool, or be-integrated into existing modelling
3 | workflows. The primary challenge is to provide CF/CMOR compliant data. Not all modelling
4 | centres produce CF/CMOR compliant data directly as part of their workflow although we note that
5 | more are doing so as the potential benefits are being realized. For many groups conversion to
6 | CF/CMOR standards involves significant post-processing of native model output. This may require
7 | some groups to perform analysis via the ESMValTool on their model output after conversion to
8 | CF/CMOR, or to create intermediate “CMOR-like” versions of the data. Users who wish to use
9 | native model output can take advantage of the reformatting routine flexibility (see Section 2.3) to
10 | create scripts that convert this data into the CF/CMOR standard. As an example, reformat scripts for
11 | the NOAA-GFDL models and the EMAC model are included with the initial release. These scripts
12 | are used to convert the native model output for direct use with the ESMValTool. The reformatting
13 | routine capability may provide an alternative to more expensive and complete “CMORization”
14 | processes that are usually required to formally publish model data on the ESGF.

15 **5.3. Running the ESMValTool alongside the ESGF**

16 | Large international model inter-comparison projects (such as CMIP) stimulated the development of
17 | a globally distributed federation of data providers, supporting common data provisioning policies
18 | and infrastructures. ESGF is an international open source effort to establish a distributed data and
19 | computing platform, enabling world wide access to Peta- (in the future Exa-) byte scale scientific
20 | climate data. Data can be searched via a globally distributed search index with access possible via
21 | HTTP, OpenDAP and GridFTP. To efficiently run the ESMValTool on CMIP model data and
22 | observations alongside the ESGF, the necessary data hosted by the ESGF has to be made locally
23 | accessible at the site where ESMValTool is executed. ~~There are two possibilities (which can be
24 | exploited in parallel) to accomplish this. The first is to configure ESMValTool to use locally
25 | available data which is independently managed in a local ESGF data pool (replica and published
26 | files). The second option is to download files remotely from the ESGF and cache them on the user's
27 | local system, under the control of a 'Data Manager', which may be part of the ESMValTool
28 | software, or existing third party software under user (or local administrator) control. Larger ESGF
29 | sites often act as replica centres maintaining a large ESGF replica pool (e.g., DKRZ, BADC, IPSL,
30 | PCMDI) and thus can effectively exploit the first option. Others can rely on the ESMValTool Data
31 | Manager to download and maintain a download cache of required input data sets. Both options~~

1 require configuration of ESMValTool to use data organized in a hierarchical directory tree,
2 organized following the CMIP conventions. Figure 27 provides a schematic overview of the
3 coupling of the ESMValTool to the ESGF. As mentioned, ESMValTool uses a standard namelist
4 written in XML to define models and variables to be analysed. If the ESGF-enabled ESMValTool
5 software is running on an ESGF node, the Data Manager can use information held in the namelist to
6 locate the correct file within the node's local data pool. If the file is unavailable there, or
7 ESMValTool is not running on an ESGF node, the Data Manager can instead use namelist
8 information to locate the file in the local download cache (see above). If files are not available they
9 will be downloaded and stored in the download cache. Using a cache avoids downloading of files
10 more than once. Thus using the Data Manager, which is currently being developed, the
11 ESMValTool is decoupled from the distributed ESGF data infrastructure, which acts as the data
12 source for local copies of the required files. There are various ways this might be achieved. One
13 possibility is to run ESMValTool separately at each site holding datasets required by the analysis,
14 then combine the results. However, this is limited by the extent to which calculations can be
15 performed without requiring data from another site. A more practical possibility is running
16 ESMValTool alongside a large store of replica datasets gathered from across the ESGF, so that all
17 the required data are in one location. Certain large ESGF sites (e.g., DKRZ, BADC, IPSL, PCMDI)
18 provide replica dataset stores, and ESMValTool has been run in such a way at several of these sites.

19 Replica dataset stores do not provide a complete solution however, as it is impossible to replicate all
20 ESGF datasets at one site, so circumstances will arise when one or more required datasets are not
21 available locally. The obvious solution is to download these datasets from elsewhere in the ESGF,
22 and store them locally whilst the analysis is carried out. The indexed search facility provided by the
23 ESGF makes it easy to identify the download URL of such 'remote' datasets, and a prototype of
24 ESMValTool (not included in v1.0) has been developed that performs this search automatically
25 using `esgf-pyclient`¹. If the search is successful, the prototype provides the user with the URL of
26 each file in the dataset, and the user (or system administrator) is then responsible for performing the
27 download. The workflow of this prototype is illustrated in Figure 27. It is possible that the fully
28 automated downloading of remote ESGF datasets may be provided by a future version of
29 ESMValTool, but for now it is preferable for a human to manage the process due to large size of the

¹ <https://pypi.python.org/pypi/esgf-pyclient>

1 [files involved. A more complete coupling to the ESGF was originally planned for version 1.0 but](#)
2 [was not possible due to the long down period of the ESGF.](#)

4 **6. Summary and Outlook**

5 The Earth System Model ~~e~~[Valuation](#)[Evaluation](#) Tool (ESMValTool) is a diagnostics package for
6 routine evaluation of Earth System Models (ESMs) ~~against~~[with](#) observations and reanalyses data or
7 for comparison with results from other models. The ESMValTool has been developed to facilitate
8 the evaluation of complex ESMs at individual modelling centres and to help streamline model
9 evaluation standards within CMIP. Priorities to date that are included in ESMValTool (v1.0)
10 described in this paper, concentrate on selected systematic biases that were a focus of the European
11 Commission's 7th Framework Programme “Earth system Model Bias Reduction and assessing
12 Abrupt Climate change (EMBRACE) project, the DLR Earth System Model Evaluation (ESMVal)
13 project and other collaborative projects, in particular: performance metrics for selected ECVs,
14 coupled tropical climate variability, monsoons, Southern Ocean processes, continental dry biases
15 and soil hydrology-climate interactions, atmospheric CO₂ budgets, ozone, and tropospheric aerosol.
16 We have applied the bulk of the diagnostics of ESMValTool (v1.0) to the entire set of CMIP5
17 historical or AMIP simulations. The namelist on emergent constraints for the carbon cycle has been
18 additionally applied to idealized carbon cycle experiments and the emission driven RCP 8.5
19 simulations.

20 ESMValTool (v1.0) can be used to compare new model simulations against CMIP5 models and
21 observations for the selected scientific themes much faster than this was possible before. Model
22 groups, who wish to do this comparison before submitting their CMIP6 ~~Historical~~
23 ~~Simulation~~[historical simulations](#) or AMIP ~~experiment~~[experiments](#) to the ESGF can do so since the
24 tool is provided as open source software. In order to run the tool locally, observations need to be
25 downloaded and for tiers 2 and 3 reformatted with the help of the reformatting scripts that are
26 included. Model output needs to be either in CF compliant NetCDF or a reformatting routine needs
27 to be written by the modelling group, following given examples for EMAC, GFDL models, and
28 NEMO.

29 Users of the ESMValTool (v1.0) results need to be aware that ESMValTool (v1.0) only includes a
30 subset of the wide behaviour of model performance that the community aims to characterize. The
31 results of running the ESMValTool need to be interpreted accordingly. Over time, the ESMValTool

1 will be extended with additional diagnostics and performance metrics. A particular focus will be to
2 integrate additional diagnostics that can reproduce the analysis of the climate model evaluation
3 chapter of IPCC AR5 (Flato et al., 2013) as well as the projection chapter (Collins et al., 2013). We
4 will also extend the tool with diagnostics to quantify forcings and feedbacks in the CMIP6
5 simulations and to calculate metrics such as the equilibrium climate sensitivity (ECS), transient
6 climate response (TCR), and the transient climate response to cumulative carbon emissions (TCRE)
7 ~~from the idealized CMIP experiments (IPCC, 2013). While inclusion of these diagnostics is straight~~
8 ~~forward (IPCC, 2013). While inclusion of these diagnostics is straightforward,~~ the evaluation of
9 processes and phenomena to improve understanding about the sources of errors and uncertainties in
10 models that we also plan to enhance remains a scientific challenge. The field of emergent
11 constraints remains in its infancy and more research is required how to better link model
12 performance to projections (Flato et al., 2013). In addition, an improved consideration of the
13 interdependency in the evaluation of a multi-model ensemble (Sanderson et al., 2015a, b) as well as
14 internal variability in ESM evaluation is required.

15 A critical aspect in ESM evaluation is the availability of consistent, error-characterized global and
16 regional Earth observations, as well as accurate globally gridded reanalyses that are constrained by
17 assimilated observations. Additional or longer records of observations and reanalyses will be used
18 as they become available, with a focus on using obs4MIPs - including new contributions from the
19 European Space Agency's Climate Change Initiative (ESA CCI) - and ana4MIPs data. The
20 ESMValTool can consider observational uncertainty in different ways, e.g. through the use of more
21 than one observational data set to directly evaluate the models, by showing the difference between
22 the reference data set and the alternative observations, or by including an observed uncertainty
23 ensemble that spans the observed uncertainty range (e.g., available for the surface temperature data
24 set compiled for HadISST). Often the uncertainties in the observations are not readily available.
25 Reliable and robust error characterization/estimation of observations is a high priority throughout
26 the community, and obs4MIPs and other efforts that create data sets for model evaluation should
27 encourage the inclusion of such uncertainty estimates as part of each data set.

28 The ESMValTool will be contributed to the analysis code catalogue being developed by the
29 WGNE/WGCM climate model metrics panel (~~<http://www-metrics-panel.llnl.gov/wiki>~~). The
30 purpose of this catalogue is to make the diversity of existing community-based analysis capabilities
31 more accessible and transparent, and ultimately for developing solutions to ensure they can be
32 readily applied to the CMIP DECK and the CMIP6 historical simulation in a coordinated way. We

1 are currently exploring options to interface with complimentary efforts, e.g. ~~the PCMDI metrics~~
2 ~~package (Gleckler et al., EOS, 2015)~~[the PCMDI Metrics Package \(PMP, Gleckler et al. \(2016\)\)](#) and
3 the Auto-Assess package that is under development at the UK Met Office. An international strategy
4 for organising and presenting CMIP results produced by various diagnostic tools is needed, and this
5 will be a priority for the WGNE/WGCM climate metrics panel in collaboration with the CMIP
6 Panel (<http://www.wcrp-climate.org/index.php/wgcm-cmip/about-cmip>).

7 This paper presents ESMValTool (v1.0) which allows users to repeat all the analyses shown.
8 Additional updates and improvements will be included in subsequent versions of the software,
9 which are planned to be released on a regular basis. The ESMValTool works on CMIP5 simulations
10 and, given CMIP DECK and CMIP6 simulations will be in a similar format, it will be
11 straightforward to run the package on these simulations. A limiting factor at present is the need to
12 download all data to a local cache. This limitation has spurred the development allowing
13 ESMValTool to run alongside the ESGF at one of the data nodes. An initial attempt to couple the
14 tool to the ESGF has been made, but ~~further improvements are required~~[this is still at prototype](#)
15 [stage \(see Section 5.3\)](#). An additional limiting factor is that the model output from all CMIP models
16 has to be mirrored to the ESGF data node where the tool is installed. This is facilitated by providing
17 a listing of the variables and time frequencies that are used in ESMValTool (v1.0) which uses a
18 significantly smaller volume than the data request for the CMIP DECK and CMIP6 simulations will
19 include. This reduced set of data could be mirrored with priority.

20 Several technical improvements are required to make the software package more efficient. One
21 current limitation is the lack of a parallelization. Given the huge amount of data involved in a
22 typical CMIP analysis, this can be highly CPU-time-intensive when performed on a single
23 processor. In future releases, the possibility of parallelizing the tool will be explored. Additional
24 development work is ongoing to create a more flexible pre-processing framework, which will
25 include operations like ensemble-averaging and regridding to the current reformatting procedures as
26 well as an improved coupling to the ESGF. Here, future versions of the ESMValTool will build as
27 much as possible on existing efforts for the backend that reads and reformats data. In this regard it
28 would be helpful if an application programming interface (API) could be defined for example by
29 the WGCM Infrastructure Panel (WIP) that allows for flexible integration of diagnostics across
30 different tools and programming languages in CMIP to this backend.

31 We aim to move ESM evaluation beyond the state-of-the-art by investing in operational evaluation
32 of physical and biogeochemical aspects of ESMs, process-oriented evaluation and by identifying

1 processes most important to the magnitude and uncertainty of future projections. Our goal is to
2 support ~~CMIP-DECK and CMIP6~~model evaluation in CMIP6 by contributing the ESMValTool as
3 one of the standard documentation functions and by running it alongside the ESGF. In collaboration
4 with similar efforts, we aim for a routine evaluation that provides a comprehensive documentation
5 of broad aspects of model performance and its evolution over time and to make evaluation results
6 available at a timescale that was not possible in CMIP5. This routine evaluation is not meant to
7 replace further in-depth analysis of model performance and can to date not strongly reduce
8 uncertainties in global climate sensitivity which remains an active area of research. However, the
9 ability to routinely perform such evaluation will drive the quality and realism of ESMs forward and
10 will leave more time to develop innovative process-oriented diagnostics - especially those related to
11 feedbacks in the climate system that link to the credibility of model projections.

12

13 **7. Code availability**

14 ESMValTool ~~VERSION 1.0 (v1.0) that is described in this paper will be made available from the~~
15 ~~ESMValTool web page at <http://www.pa.op.dlr.de/ESMValTool> via a tar file with a Digital Object~~
16 ~~Identifier (doi) assigned. ESMValTool (v1.0) will be~~ released under the Apache License,
17 ~~VERSION 2.0 and citation. The latest version of this paper is~~ the ESMValTool is available from the
18 ~~ESMValTool webpage at <http://www.esmvaltool.org/>. Users who apply the Software resulting in~~
19 ~~presentations or papers are kindly requested upon use~~asked to cite this paper alongside with the
20 ~~Software doi (doi:10.17874/ac8548f0315) and version number.~~ In addition, ESMValTool will be
21 further developed in a version controlled repository that is accessible only to the development team.
22 Regular releases are planned for the future. The wider climate community is encouraged to
23 contribute to this effort and to join the ESMValTool development team for contribution of
24 additional more in-depth diagnostics for ESM evaluation. A wiki page for the development that
25 describes ongoing developments is also available. Interested users and developers are welcome to
26 contact the lead author.

27

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Form
6 Pt.

1 Table 1. Overview of standard namelists implemented in ESMValTool (v1.0) along with the
 2 quantity and ESMValTool variable name for which the namelist is tested, the corresponding
 3 observations or reanalyses, the section and example figure in this paper, and references for the
 4 namelist. When the namelist is named with a specific paper (naming convention:
 5 *namelist_SurnameYearJournalabbreviation.xml*), it can be used to reproduce in general all or in
 6 some cases only a subset of the figures published in that paper. Otherwise the namelists group a set
 7 of diagnostics and performance metrics for a specific scientific topic (e.g.,
 8 *namelist_aerosol_CMIP5.xml*). Observations and reanalyses are listed together with their Tier, type
 9 (e.g., reanalysis, satellite or in situ observations), the time period used, and a reference. Tier 1
 10 includes observations from obs4MIPs or reanalyses from ana4MIPs. Tier 2 and tier 3 indicate
 11 freely-available and restricted data sets, respectively. For these observations, reformatting routines
 12 are provided to bring the original data in the CF/CMOR standard format so that they can directly be
 13 used in the ESMValTool.

<i>xml namelist</i>	Tested Quantity (<u>CMOR units</u>)	ESMValTool Variable Name	Tested Observations /Reanalyses (Tier, type, time period, reference)	Section / Example Figure(s)	References for namelist
Section 4.1: Detection of systematic biases in the physical climate: atmosphere					
<i>namelist_performance_CMI_P5</i> <i>namelist_righi_15gmd_ECVs</i>	Temperature (<u>°C(K)</u>)	ta	ERA-Interim (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Dee et al., 2011))	Section 4.1.1. / Fig. 2 and Fig. 3	(Gleckler et al. (2008)); (Taylor (2001)); Fig. 9.7 of (Flato et al. (2013)) Righi et al. (2015)
	Eastward wind (m s^{-1})	ua			
	Northward wind (m s^{-1})	va			
	Near-surface air temperature (<u>°C(K)</u>)	tas	NCEP (Tier 2, reanalysis, 1948-2012 (Kistler et al., 2001))		
	Geopotential height (m)	zg			
	Specific Humidity (<u>g kg^{-1}</u>)	hus	AIRS (Tier 1, satellite, 2003-2010 (Aumann et al., 2003))		
	Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	pr	GPCP-SG (Tier 1, satellite & rain gauge, 1979-near-present (Adler et al., 2003))		
TOA outgoing shortwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rsut	CERES-EBAF (Tier 1, satellite, 2001-2011 (Wielicki et al., 1996))			
TOA outgoing longwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rlut				
TOA outgoing clear-sky longwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rlutcs				

	Shortwave cloud radiative effect (W m ⁻²)	SW_CRE			
	Longwave cloud radiative effect (W m ⁻²)	LW_CRE			
	Aerosol optical depth at 550 nm (1)	od550aer	MODIS (Tier 1, satellite, 2001-2012 (King et al., 2003)) ESACCI-AEROSOL (Tier 2, satellite, 1996-2012 (Kinne et al., 2015))		
	Total cloud amount (%)	clt	MODIS (Tier 1, satellite, 2001-2012 (King et al., 2003))		
<i>namelist_flato13ipcc</i>	Near-surface air temperature (°C(K))	tas	ERA-Interim (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Dee et al., 2011))	Section 4.1.2 / Fig. 4	Fig. 9.2 and Fig. 9.4 of (Flato et al. (2013))
	Precipitation (kg m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	pr	GPCP-1DD (Tier 1, satellite, 1997-2010 (Huffman et al., 2001))		
<i>namelist_SAMonsoon</i>	Eastward wind (m s ⁻¹)	ua	ERA-Interim (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Dee et al., 2011))	Section 4.1.3.1 / Fig. 5 and Fig. 6	(Goswami et al. (1999))
	Northward wind (m s ⁻¹)	va			Sperber et al. (2013)
<i>namelist_SAMonsoon_AMIP</i>			MERRA (Tier 1, reanalysis, 1979-2011 (Rienecker et al., 2011))		Wang and Fan (1999) Wang et al. (2012)
<i>namelist_SAMonsoon_daily</i>	Precipitation (kg m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	pr	TRMM-3B42-v7 (Tier 1, satellite, 1998-near-present (Huffman et al., 2007)) GPCP-1DD 1DD (Tier 1, satellite, 1997-2010 (Huffman et al., 2001)) CMAP (Tier 2, satellite & rain gauge, 1979-near-present (Xie and Arkin, 1997)) MERRA (Tier 1,		Webster and Yang (1992) Wang and Fan (1999) Wang et al. (2012) Webster and Yang (1992) Lin et al. (2008); Fig. 9.32 of Flato et al. (2013); Fig. 9.32 of Flato et al. (2013)

			reanalysis, 1979-2011 (Rienecker et al., 2011)) ERA-Interim (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Dee et al., 2011))		
	Skin temperature (K)	ts	HadISST (Tier 2, reanalysis, 1870-2014 (Rayner et al., 2003))		
<i>namelist_WA Monsoon</i> <i>namelist_WA Monsoon_daily</i>	Eastward wind (m s^{-1})	ua	ERA-Interim (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Dee et al., 2011))	Section 4.1.3.2 / Fig. 7	Roehrig et al. (2013); Cook and Vizy (2006) ; Cook and Vizy (2006)
	Northward wind (m s^{-1})	va			
	Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C(K)}$)	ta			
	Near-surface air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C(K)}$)	tas			
	Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)	pr	GPCP-1DD (Tier 1, satellite, 1997-2010 (Huffman et al., 2001)) TRMM (Tier 1, satellite, 1998-near-present (Huffman et al., 2007))		
	TOA outgoing shortwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rsut	CERES-EBAF (Tier 1, satellite, 2001-2011 (Wielicki et al., 1996))		
	TOA outgoing longwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rlut			
	TOA outgoing clear-sky shortwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rsutcs			
	TOA outgoing clear-sky longwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rlutcs			
	Shortwave cloud radiative effect (W m^{-2})	SW_CRE			
Longwave cloud radiative effect (W m^{-2})	LW_CRE				
Shortwave downwelling radiation at surface (W m^{-2})	rsds				
Longwave downwelling radiation at surface (W m^{-2})	rlsds				
TOA outgoing longwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rlut	NOAA polar-orbiting satellites (Tier 2, satellite,			

			1974- 2013 (Liebmann and Smith, 1996))		
<i>namelist_CV DP</i>	Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	pr	GPCP-SG (Tier 1, satellite & rain gauge, 1979-near-present (Adler et al., 2003)) TRMM (Tier 1, satellite, 1998-near-present (Huffman et al., 2007))	Section 4.1.4.1 / Fig. 8 and Fig. 9	(Phillips et al. (2014))
	Air pressure at sea level (Pa)	psl	NOAA-CIRES Twentieth Century Reanalysis Project (Tier 1, reanalysis, 1900-2012 (Compo et al., 2011))		
	Near-surface air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}(\text{K})$)	tas	NCEP (Tier 2, reanalysis, 1948-2012 (Kistler et al., 2001))		
	Skin temperature (K)	ts	HadISST (Tier 2, satellite-based, 1870-2014 (Rayner et al., 2003))		
	Snow depth (m)	snd	without obs		
	Ocean meridional overturning mass streamfunction (kg s^{-1})	msftmyz	without obs		
	<i>namelist_mjo_daily</i> <i>namelist_mjo_mean_state</i>	Eastward wind (m s^{-1})	ua		
Northward wind (m s^{-1})		va			
Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)		pr	GPCP-1DD (Tier 1, satellite, 1997-2010 (Huffman et al., 2001))		
TOA longwave radiation (W m^{-2})		rlut	NOAA polar-orbiting satellites (Tier 2, satellite, 1974- 2013 (Liebmann and Smith, 1996))		
<i>namelist_diur</i> <i>maleyele</i> <i>Diurn alCycle</i>	Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	pr	TRMM (Tier 1, satellite, 1998-near-present (Huffman et al.,	Section 4.1.5 / Fig. 11	Rio et al. (2009)
	Convective Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	prc			

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			2007))		
	TOA outgoing longwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rlut	CERES-SYN1deg (Tier 1, satellite, 2001-2011		
	TOA outgoing shortwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rsut	(Wielicki et al., 1996))		
	TOA outgoing <u>clear sky</u> longwave radiation (clear sky)($W m^{-2}$)	rlutcs			
		rsutcs			
	TOA outgoing <u>clear sky</u> shortwave radiation (clear sky)($W m^{-2}$)	rsds			
	Surface downwelling shortwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rsdscs			
	Surface downwelling <u>clear sky</u> shortwave radiation (clear sky)($W m^{-2}$)	rsus			
	Surface upwelling shortwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rsuscs			
	Surface upwelling <u>clear sky</u> shortwave radiation (clear sky)($W m^{-2}$)	rlus			
		rluscs			
	Surface upwelling longwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rlds			
	Surface upwelling <u>clear sky</u> longwave radiation (clear sky)($W m^{-2}$)	rldscs			
	Surface downwelling shortwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)				
	Surface downwelling clear- <u>sky</u> longwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)				
<i>namelist_laue</i> <i>r13jclim</i>	Atmosphere cloud condensed water content ($kg m^{-2}$)	clwvi	UWisc: SSM/I, TMI, AMSR-E (Tier 3, satellite, 1988-2007 (O'Dell et al., 2008))	Section 4.1.6.1 / Fig. 12	Lauer and Hamilton (2013); Fig. 9.5 of Flato et al. (2013) <u>9.5 of Flato et al. (2013)</u>
	Atmosphere cloud ice content ($kg m^{-2}$)	clivi	MODIS-CFMIP (Tier 2, satellite, 2003-2014 (King et al., 2003; Pincus et al., 2012))		
	Total cloud amount (%)	clt	MODIS (Tier 1, satellite, 2001-2012 (King et al., 2003))		

	TOA outgoing longwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rlut	CERES-EBAF (Tier 1, satellite, 2001-2011)		
	TOA outgoing longwave radiation (clear sky) ($W m^{-2}$)	rlutcs	(Wielicki et al., 1996))		
	TOA outgoing shortwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rsut	SRB (Tier 2, satellite, 1984-2007 (GEWEX-news, February 2011))		
	TOA outgoing shortwave radiation (clear sky) ($W m^{-2}$)	rsutcs			
	Precipitation ($kg m^{-2} s^{-1}$)	pr	GPCP-SG (Tier 1, satellite & rain gauge, 1979-near-present (Adler et al., 2003))		
<i>namelist_williams09climdyn_CREM</i>	ISCCP mean cloud albedo (1)	albiscpp	ISCCP (Tier 1, satellite, 1985-1990 (Rossow and Schiffer, 1991))	Section 4.1.6.2 / Fig. 13	Williams and Webb (2009)
	ISCCP mean cloud top pressure (Pa)	pctiscpp			
	ISCCP total cloud fraction (%)	cltiscpp			
	TOA outgoing shortwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rsut	ISCCP-FD (Tier 2, satellite, 1985-1990 (Zhang et al., 2004))		
	TOA outgoing longwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rlut			
	TOA outgoing clear-sky shortwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rsutcs			
	TOA outgoing clear-sky longwave radiation ($W m^{-2}$)	rlutcs			
	Surface snow area fraction (%)	snc			
	Surface snow amount ($kg m^{-2}$)	snw			
Sea ice area fraction (%)	sic				
Section 4.2: Detection of systematic biases in the physical climate: ocean					
<i>namelist_SouthernOcean</i>	Ocean Mixed Layer Thickness <u>Defined by Sigma T</u> (m)	mloitst	ARGO (Tier 2, Buoy, Monthly mean climatology 2001-2006 (Dong et al., 2008))	Section 4.2.2.1 / Fig. 14	CDFTOOL S
	Sea surface temperature (K)	Tos tos	ERA-Interim (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Dee et al., 2011))		
	Downward heat flux at sea water surface ($W m^{-2}$)	hfds (hfls + hfss + rsns + rlms)			
	Surface Downward Eastward Wind Stress (Pa)	tauu			
Surface Downward Nordward Wind Stress (Pa)	tauv				

	Water Flux from precipitation and evaporation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)	wfpe (pr + evspsbl)				
	Sea water salinity (psu)	so	WOA09 (Tier 2, in-situ, climatology, (Antonov et al., 2010; Locarnini et al., 2010))			
	Sea surface salinity (psu)	sos				
	Sea Water Temperature (K)	to				
	Sea Water X Velocity (m s^{-1})	uo				without obs
	Sea Water Y Velocity (m s^{-1})	vo				
<i>namelist_SouthernHemisphere</i>	Total cloud amount Cloud Fraction (%)	clt	CloudSat (Tier 1, satellite, 2000-2005 (Stephens et al., 2002))	Section 4.2.2.2 / Fig. 15	(Frolicher et al. (2015))	
	Atmosphere cloud ice content (kg m^{-2})	clivi				
	Atmosphere cloud condensed water content (kg m^{-2})	clwvi				
	Surface upward latent heat flux (W m^{-2})	hfls	WHOI-OAflux (Tier 2, satellite-based, 2000-2005 (Yu et al., 2008))			
	Surface upward sensible heat flux (W m^{-2})	hfss				
	TOA outgoing longwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rlut	CERES-EBAF (Tier 1, satellite, 2001-2011 (Wielicki et al., 1996))			
	TOA outgoing clear-sky longwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rlutcs				
	TOA outgoing shortwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rsut	SRB (Tier 2, satellite, 1984-2007 (GEWEX-news, February 2011))			
	TOA outgoing clear sky shortwave radiation (clear-sky) (W m^{-2})	rsutcs				
	Surface downwelling shortwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rlds				
	Surface downwelling clear-sky longwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rldscs				
	Surface downwelling shortwave radiation (W m^{-2})	rsds				
Surface downwelling clear sky shortwave radiation (clear-sky) (W m^{-2})	rsdses					
<i>namelist_TropicalVariability</i>	Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)	pr	TRMM (Tier 1, satellite, 1998-near-present (Huffman et al., 2007))	Section 4.2.3 / Fig. 16	Choi et al. (2011) ; Choi et al. (2011) ; Li and Xie (2014)	
	Sea surface temperature (K)	ts	HadISST (Tier 2, satellite-based, 1870-2014)			

			(Rayner et al., 2003))		
	Eastward wind (m s^{-1})	ua	ERA-Interim (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Dee et al., 2011))		
	Northward wind (m s^{-1})	va			
<i>namelist_Sealce</i>	Sea ice area fraction (%)	sic	HadISST (Tier 2, satellite-based, 1870-2014 (Rayner et al., 2003)) NSIDC (Tier 2, satellite, 1978-2010 (Meier et al., 2013; Peng et al., 2013))	Section 4.2.4 / Fig. 17	Stroeve et al. (2007) Stroeve et al. (2012); Fig. 9.24 of (Flato et al. (2013); Stroeve et al. (2007)) Stroeve et al. (2012); Fig. 9.24 of Flato et al. (2013)
Section 4.3: Detection of systematic biases in the physical climate: land					
<i>namelist_EvaptransportEvapotranspiration</i>	Surface upward latent heat flux (W m^{-2})	hfls	LandFlux-EVAL (Tier 3, ground, 1989-2004 (Mueller et al., 2013)) GPCC (Tier 2, Rain gauge analysis, 1901-2010 (Becker et al., 2013))	Section 4.3.1 / Fig. 18	Mueller and Seneviratne (2014); (Mueller and Seneviratne (2014); Orłowsky and Seneviratne (2013)); Orłowsky and Seneviratne (2013)
<i>namelist_SPI</i>	Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	pr	CRU (Tier 2, Rain gauge analysis, 1901-2010 (Mitchell and Jones, 2005))		
<i>namelist_runoff_et</i>	Total runoff ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) Evaporation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	mrro evspsbl pr	GRDC (Tier 2, river runoff gauges, varying periods (Dümenil Gates et al., 2000)) WFDEI (Tier 2, Reanalysis, 1979-2010 (Weedon et al., 2014))	Section 4.3.2 / Fig. 19	Dümenil Gates et al. (2000); Dümenil Gates et al. (2000); Hagemann et al. (2013); Weedon et al. (2014); Weedon et al. (2014)
Section 4.4: Detection of biogeochemical biases: carbon cycle					
<i>namelist_anav13jclim</i>	Net biosphere production of carbon ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	nbp	TRANSCOM (Tier 2, Reanalysis, 1985 - 2008 (Gurney et al., 2004))	Section 4.4.1 / Fig. 20 and Fig. 21	Anav et al. (2013)
	Surface Downward CO_2 Flux into ocean ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	fgeo2			
	Gross primary production of	gpp	MTE (Tier 2,		

	carbon ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)		Reanalysis, 1982 - 2008 (Jung et al., 2009))		
	Leaf area index ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	lai	LAI3g (Tier 2, Reanalysis, 1981 - 2008 (Zhu et al., 2013))		
	Carbon mass in vegetation (kg m^{-2})	cVeg	NDP-017b (Tier 2, remote sensing 2000 (Gibbs, 2006))		
	Carbon mass in soil pool (kg m^{-2})	cSoil	HWSD (Tier 2, reanalysis, climatology (Nachtergaele et al., 2012))		
	Primary organic Carbon Production by all types of phytoplankton ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	intPP	SeaWiFS (Tier 2, satellite, 1998-2010 (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997; McClain et al., 1998))		
	<u>Near-surface air temperature (K)</u>	<u>tas</u>	<u>CRU (Tier 3, near-surface temperature analysis, 1901-2006)</u>		
	<u>Precipitation ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)</u>	<u>pr</u>	<u>CRU (Tier 2, rain gauge analysis, 1901-2010 (Mitchell and Jones, 2005))</u>		
<i>namelist GlobalOcean</i>	Surface partial pressure of CO ₂ (<u>μatmPa</u>)	spco2	SOCAT v2 (Tier 2, in-situ, 1968 - 2011 (Bakker et al., 2014)) ETH SOM-FFN (Tier 2, extrapolated in situ, 1998 - 2011, (Landschützer et al., 2014a, b))	Section 4.4.2 / Fig. <u>2422</u>	
	Total chlorophyll mass concentration at surface (kg m^{-3})	chl	SeaWiFS (Tier 2, satellite, 1997 - 2010 (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997; McClain et al., 1998))		
	Dissolved oxygen concentration (mol m^{-3})	o2	WOA05 (Tier 2, in situ, climatology 1950-2004 (Bianchi et al., 2012))		
	Total alkalinity at surface (mol m^{-3})	talk	T14 (Tier 2, in situ, 2005 (Takahashi et al.,		

Section 4.5: Detection of biogeochemical biases: chemistry and aerosols					
namelist_aerosol_CMIP5	Surface concentration of SO ₄ ($\mu\text{g kg m}^{-3}$)	eoneso4	CASTNET (Tier 2, Ground, 1987-2012 (Edgerton et al., 1990))	Section 4.5.1 / Fig. 2223	Lauer et al. (2005) Aquila et al. (2011) Righi et al. (2013); Fig. 9.29 of Flato et al. (2013) 9.29 of Flato et al. (2013)
	Surface concentration of NO ₃ ($\mu\text{g kg m}^{-3}$)	eoneso3	EANET (Tier 2, Ground, 2001-2005 (Totsuka et al., 2005))		
	Surface concentration of NH ₄ ($\mu\text{g kg m}^{-3}$)	eonenh4	EMEP (Tier 2, Ground, 1970-2014)		
	Surface concentration of black carbon aerosol ($\mu\text{g kg m}^{-3}$)	eonebe	IMPROVE (Tier 2, Ground, 1988-2014)		
	Surface concentration of dry aerosol primary organic matter ($\mu\text{g kg m}^{-3}$)	eoneoa			
	Surface concentration of PM10 aerosol (kg m^{-3})	eonepm10			
	Surface concentration of PM2.5 aerosol (kg m^{-3})	eonepm25			
		sconco3			
		sconcnh4			
		sconcbc			
	sconcoa				
	sconcpm10				
	sconcpm25				
Aerosol Number Concentration (m^{-3})	eoneenm conccn	Aircraft campaigns (Tier 3, aircraft, various)			
BC Mass Mixing Ratio (kg kg^{-1}) Dry	mrbc				
Aerosol <u>mass mixing ration</u> (kg kg^{-1})	mmraer				
BC-Free Mass Mixing Ratio (kg kg^{-1})	mmrbcfre e				
Aerosol Optical Depth at 550 nm (1)	od550aer	AERONET (Tier 2, Ground, 1992- 2012 2015 (Holben et al.,			

			1998)) MODIS (Tier 1, satellite, 2001-2012 (King et al., 2003)) MISR (Tier 2, Satellite, 2001-2012 (Stevens and Schwartz, 2012)) ESACCI-AEROSOL (Tier 2, satellite, 1996-2012 1998-2011 (Kinne et al., 2015))		
<i>namelist_righi</i> <i>15gmd_tropo3</i> <i>namelist_righi</i> <i>15gmd_Emissions</i>	Ozone (mol mol mol ⁻¹)	tro3	Aura MLS-OMI (Tier 2, satellite, 2005-2013 (Ziemke et al., 2011)) Ozone sondes (Tier 2, sondes, 1995-2009 (Tilmes et al., 2011))	Section 4.5.2 / Fig. 23 24	Ozone of Righi et al. (2015) including Emmons et al. (2000) diagnostic; Emmons et al. (2000) Righi et al. (2015)
	Carbon Monoxide (mol mol ⁻¹)	vmrco	GLOBALVIEW (Tier 2, ground, 1991-2008, (GLOBALVIEW-CO2, 2008))		
	Nitrogen Dioxide (NO _x = NO + NO ₂) (mol mol ⁻¹)	vmrnox	Emmons (Tier 2, aircraft, various campaign (Emmons et al., 2000))		
	C ₂ H ₄ Propane (mol mol ⁻¹)	vmrc2h4			
	C ₂ H ₆ Propane (mol mol ⁻¹)	vmrc2h6			
	C ₃ H ₆ Propane (mol mol ⁻¹)	vmrc3h6			
C ₃ H ₈ Propane (mol mol ⁻¹)	vmrc3h8				
CH3COCH3 Acetone (mol mol ⁻¹)	vmrch3coch3				
<i>namelist_eyring</i> <i>ng06jgreyring</i> <i>13jgr</i>	Temperature (°C(K))	ta	ERA-Interim (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Dee et al., 2011)) NCEP (Tier 2, reanalysis, 1948-2012 (Kistler et al., 2001)) RATPAC (Tier 2,	Section 4.5.2 / Fig. 24 25	(Eyring et al. (2013); Eyring et al. (2006)); Fig. 9.10 of Flato et al. (2013)
	Eastward wind (m s ⁻¹)	ua			
Heat flux (v'T)	vt100				
Temperature (°C)	ta				

			<p>radiosondes, Climatology (Free et al., 2005))</p> <p>ERA40 (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-1999 (Uppala et al., 2005))</p>			
	Methane (mole mole ⁻¹)	eh4	<p>HALOE (Tier 2, satellite, 1991-2002 (Groß and Russell III, 2005))</p>			
	Hydrogen Chlorine (mole mole ⁻¹)	hel				
	Water vapour	h2o				
	Age of Air (years)	age				
	Inorganic Chlorine (mole mole ⁻¹)	ely	<p>HCl estimates from Aura MLS (Tier 2, satellite, 2005-2013 (Ziemke et al., 2011)) and HALOE (Tier 2, campaign, 1991-2002 (Russell et al., 1993))</p>			
	Total Column Ozone (DU)	toz	<p>Ground based (Tier 3, in-situ, climatology, (Fioletov et al., 2002))</p> <p>Merged satellite data (Tier 2, satellite, 1970-2014 (Stolarski and Frith, 2006))</p> <p>NIWA (Tier 3, sondes, climatology, (Bodeker et al., 2005))</p> <p>SBUV/2 (Tier 3, satellite, 1978-present (Miller et al., 2002))</p> <p>GOME/SCIA/GOME 2 (Tier 3, satellite, 1995-2013 (Loyola and Coldewey-Egbers, 2012))NIWA (Tier 3, sondes, climatology, Bodeker et al., 2005)</p>			

	Ozone (mol mol^{-1})	tro3	AURA-MLS-OMI (Tier 2, satellite, 2005-2013 (Ziemke et al., 2011))		
<i>namelist_eyri</i> <i>ng13jgr</i>	Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) Eastward wind (m s^{-1})	ta ua	ERA Interim (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Dee et al., 2011)) NCEP (Tier 2, reanalysis, 1948-2012 (Kistler et al., 2001))	Section 4.6 / Fig. 25	Eyring et al. (2013): Fig. 9.10 of Flato et al. (2013)
	Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	ta	RATPAC (Tier 2, radiosondes; Climatology (Free et al., 2005)) ERA40 (Tier 3, reanalysis, 1979-2014 (Uppala et al., 2005))		
	Total Column Ozone (DU)	toz	See above		
	Tropospheric column ozone (DU)	tropoz	AURA-MLS-OMI (Tier 2, satellite, 2005-2013 (Ziemke et al., 2011))		
	Ozone (mole-molen mol mol^{-1})	tro3			
Section 4.6: Linking model performance to projections					
<i>namelist_wen</i> <i>zell4jgr</i>	Near-surface air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$ (K))	tas	NCDC (Tier 2, reanalysis, 1880-2001 (Smith et al., 2008))	Section 4.76 / Fig. 26	Wenzel et al. (2014); Fig. 9.45 of Wenzel et al. (2014); Fig. 9.45 of (Flato et al. (2013))
	Net biosphere production of carbon ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	nbp	GCP (Tier 2, reanalysis, 1959-present, (Le Quéré et al., 2014))		
	Carbon Dioxide (mol mol^{-1})	co2			
	Surface Downward CO_2 Flux into ocean ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	fgco2			

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1 Table 2. Overview of the diagnostics included for each namelist along with specific calculations,
 2 the plot type, settings in the configuration file (cfg-file), and comments. [See also Annex C in the](#)
 3 [Supplement for additional information.](#)

<i>xml namelist</i>	Diagnostics included	Specific Calculations (e.g., statistical measures, regridding)	Plot Types	Settings in cfg-file	Comments
Section 4.1: Detection of systematic biases in the physical climate: atmosphere					
<i>namelist_perfmetrics_CMI P5</i> <i>namelist_right15gmd_ECVs</i>	perfmetrics_main.ncl	Time averages, Regional weighted averages, t-test for difference plots	Annual cycle line plot, zonal mean plot, lat-lon map plot	Specific plot type, time averaging (e.g. annual, seasonal and monthly climatologies, annual and multi-year monthly means), region, target grid , pressure level, reference model, difference plot (True/False), statistical significance level of t-test for difference plot, multi model mean/median	The results of the analysis are saved to a netCDF file for each model to be read by perfmetrics_grading.ncl or perfmetrics_taylor.ncl.
	perfmetrics_grading.ncl	Grading metric, normalization	No plot	Type Time averaging , region , pressure level , reference model , type of metric for grading models (RMSE, Bias) Type type of normalization (mean, median, centered median)	For tractability the filename for every diagnostic is written into a temporary file, which then is read by the perfmetrics_XXX_collect.ncl scripts. Additional metric and normalization methods can be added.
	perfmetrics_taylor.ncl	Normalization Taylor metrics	No plot	Same as for perfmetrics_grading.ncl Time averaging , region , pressure level , reference model	
	perfmetrics_grading_collect.ncl	Collection of model grades from pre-calculated netCDF files	Portrait diagram		If individual models did not provide output for all variables or are compared to a different number of observations, the code will recognize this and

					return a blank array entry, producing producing a white box in the portrait diagram; produces Figure 9.7 included in <i>namelist_flato13ipcc</i>
	perfmetrics_taylor_collect.ncl	Collection of model grades from precalculated netCDF files	Taylor diagram		
<i>namelist_flato13ipcc</i>	clouds_ipcc.ncl	Multi-model means, linear regridding to the grid of the reference data set	Zonal mean plots, global map	Map projection (CylindricalEquidistant, Mercator, Mollweide), selection of target grid, time mean (annualclim, seasonal-clim), reference data set	Produces Figure 9.5 of Flato et al. (2013) with namelist_flato13ipcc.n Produces Figure 9.5 of Flato et al. (2013) with <i>namelist_flato13ipcc</i>
	clouds_bias.ncl	Multi-model means, linear regridding to the grid of the reference data set	Global map	map projection (CylindricalEquidistant, Mercator, Mollweide), selection of target grid, time mean (annualclim, seasonal-clim), reference data set	Produces Figures 9.2 and 9.4 of Flato et al. (2013) with namelist_flato13ipcc.x Produces Figures 9.2 and 9.4 of Flato et al. (2013) with <i>namelist_flato13ipcc</i>
<i>namelist_SAMonsoon</i>	SAMonsoon_wind_basic.ncl	Mean and interannual standard deviation	Map contour plot, regional mean, RMSE and spatial correlation are given in plot titles	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive month), contour levels	Zonal and meridional wind fields are used; mean and standard deviation (across all years) for each model. This diagnostic also plots the difference of the mean/standard deviation with respect to a reference data set. Mean contour plots include wind vectors.
	SAMonsoon_wind_seasonal.ncl	Climatology, seasonal anomalies and interannual variability	Annual cycle	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive month), line colours, multi model mean (y/n)	Dynamical indices calculated from zonal and meridional wind fields are used. Wind levels are selected by input quantity (e.g. ua-200-850 and va-200-850)
	SAMonsoon_precip_basic.ncl	Mean and interannual standard deviation	Map contour plot, regional mean, RMSE and spatial correlation are given in plot titles	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive month), contour levels	Similar to SAMonsoon_wind_basic.ncl

	SAMonsoon_precip_seasonal.ncl	Climatology, seasonal anomalies and interannual variability	Annual cycle	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive month), line colours, multi model mean (y/n)	Similar to SAMonsoon_wind_seasonal.ncl
	SAMonsoon_precip_domain.ncl	Mean and standard deviation	Map contour plot	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive month), contour levels	Domain and intensity defined using summer and winter precipitation defined appropriately for each hemisphere. Differences from reference data set also plotted. Produces Figure 9.32 included in <i>namelist_flato13ipcc</i>
	SAMonsoon_teleconnections.ncl	Correlation between interannual seasonal mean Nino3.4 SST timeseries (5S-5N, 190-240E) and precipitation over monsoon region.	Map contour plot, regional mean, RMSE and spatial correlation are given in plot titles	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive month), contour levels	pr and ts are used to calculate teleconnections between precip and interannual Nino3.4 SSTs. Differences from reference data set also plotted.
<i>namelist_SAMonsoon_AMIP</i>	SAMonsoon_wind_IAV.ncl	Mean and standard deviation	Time-series line plot	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive month), multi model mean (y/n)	Seasonal means of dynamical indices calculated for each year from zonal and meridional wind fields are used.
	SAMonsoon_precip_IAV.ncl	Mean and standard deviation	Time-series line plot	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive month), multi model mean (y/n)	Seasonal means of precipitation for each year are used. Note that the scripts in <i>namelist_SAMonsoon</i> and <i>namelist_SAMonsoon_daily</i> can be used for coupled and atmosphere-only models alike, but this namelist allows year-to-year variations to be examined only for atmosphere-only simulations forced by observed SSTs.
<i>namelist_SAMonsoon_daily</i>	SAMonsoon_precip_daily.ncl	Standard deviation of filtered daily precipitation rates for each season	Map contour plot. Regional mean, spatial correlation and averages for Bay of	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive month), contour levels	Both, actual standard deviations and standard deviations normalized by a climatology (with masking for precipitation rates <

			Bengal (10-20N, 80-100E) and E. Eq. Indian Ocean (10S-10N, 80-10 ⁰ E) are given in plot titles.		1mm/day) are plotted.
	SAMonsoon_precip_propagation.ncl	Regional averages, lagged correlations, band-pass filtering of daily precipitation rates	Hovmöller diagrams: (lag, lat) and (lag, lon)	Regions (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive months), filter settings	Similar to <i>namelist_mjo_daily_propagation</i> but using 30-80 day band-pass filtering and regions appropriate for SASM.
<i>namelist_WA Monsoon</i> <i>namelist_WA Monsoon_daily</i>	WAMonsoon_contour_basic.ncl	Mean and standard deviation	Map contour plot	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive months), specific contour levels	Similar to SAMonsoon_wind_basic.ncl
	WAMonsoon_wind_basic.ncl	Mean and standard deviation	Map contour and vector plot	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive months), contour levels, reference vector length	Mean wind contour and vector plots at selected pressure level. Similar to SAMonsoon_wind_basic.ncl
	WAMonsoon_10W10E_1D_basic.ncl	Zonal average over 10°W-10°E	Latitude line plot	Region (latitude), season (consecutive month)	Only 2 dimensional fields
	WAMonsoon_10W10E_3D_basic.ncl	Zonal average over 10°W-10°E	Vertical profile (latitude vs. level) contour plot	Region (latitude, pressure level), season (consecutive month), contour levels	Only 3 dimensional fields
	WAMonsoon_precip_IAV.ncl	Seasonal anomalies and interannual variability	Time-series line plot	Region (latitude, longitude)	Similar to SAMonsoon_wind_IAV.ncl
	WAMonsoon_precip_seasonal.ncl	Mean annual cycle	Time-series line plot	Region (latitude, longitude)	Similar to SAMonsoon_wind_seasonal.ncl
	WAMonsoon_autocorr.ncl	1-day autocorrelation of 1-90d (intraseasonal) anomalies	Map contour plot	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive months), filtering properties, contour levels	
	WAMonsoon_isv_filtered.ncl	Intra-seasonal variance (time filtering)	Map contour plot	Region (latitude, longitude), season (consecutive months), filtering properties, contour levels	
<i>namelist_CV DP</i>	cvdp_atmos.ncl	Renaming climo files to CVDP naming convention,	No plot		Needed for the CVDP coupling to the ESMValTool.

		Generates CVDP namelist with all models			
	cvdp_ocean.ncl	Renaming climo files to CVDP naming convention	No plot		
	cvdp_obs.ncl	Generates CVDP name-list with all observations	No plot	Reference model(s) for each variable	Needed for the CVDP coupling to the ESMValTool.
	cvdp_driver.ncl	Calls the CVDP	No plot		Needed for the CVDP coupling to the ESMValTool. Flexible implementation for easy update-processes, Results of the analysis are saved in netCDF files for each model/observation
	amo.ncl	Area-weighted average, linear regression, spectral analysis, regridding for area-weighted pattern correlation and RMS difference	Lat-lon contour plots, time-series, spectral plots		Original CVDP diagnostic
	amoc.ncl	Mean, standard deviation, EOF, linear regression, lag correlations, spectral analysis	Pattern plots, spectral plots, time-series		Original CVDP diagnostic
	pdo.ncl	EOF, linear regression, spectral analysis	Lat-lon contour plots, time-series, spectral plots		Original CVDP diagnostic
	pr.mean_stddev.ncl	Global means, standard deviation	Lat-lon contour plots		Original CVDP diagnostic
	pr.trends_timeseries.ncl	Global trends	Lat-lon contour plots, time-series		Original CVDP diagnostic
	psl.mean_stddev.ncl	Global means, standard deviation	Lat-lon contour plots		Original CVDP diagnostic
	psl.modes_indices.ncl	EOF, linear regression,	Lat-lon contour plots, time series		Original CVDP diagnostic
	psl.trends.ncl	Global trends	Lat-lon contour plots		Original CVDP diagnostic
	snd.trends.ncl	Global trends	Lat-lon contour plots		Original CVDP diagnostic

	sst.indices.ncl	Area-weighted average, standard deviation, spectral analysis	Spatial composites, hovmöllerHovmöller diagram, time-series, spectral plots		Original CVDP diagnostic
	sst.mean_stddev.ncl	Global means, standard deviation	Lat-lon contour plots		Original CVDP diagnostic
	sst.trends_timeseries.ncl	Global trends	Lat-lon contour plots, time-series		Original CVDP diagnostic
	tas.mean_stddev.ncl	Global means, standard deviation	Lat-lon contour plots		Original CVDP diagnostic
	tas.trends_timeseries.ncl	Global trends	Lat-lon contour plots, timeseries		Original CVDP diagnostic
	metrics.ncl	Collect all area-weighted pattern correlations and RMS differences created by the various scripts, calculates total score	txt-file		Original CVDP diagnostic
	webpage.ncl	Creates webpages to display CVDP results	.html files		Original CVDP diagnostic
<i>namelist_mjo_daily</i>	mjo_wave_freq.ncl	Meridional averaged over 10°S-10°N, wavenumber-frequency	Wavenumber-frequency contour plot	Season (summer, winter), daily max/min, region (latitude)	
	mjo_univariate_eof.ncl	Conventional (covariance) univariate EOF analysis	Lat-lon contour plot	Region (latitude, longitude), number and name of EOF modes, contour levels	EOF for 20-100 day band-pass filtered daily anomaly data
	mjo_precip_u850-200_propagation.ncl	Correlation, zonal average over 80°E-100°E, meridional average over 10°S-10°N, reference region over 75°E-100°E, 10°S-5°N	Lag-longitude and lag-latitude diagram	Season(summer, winter, annual), region(latitude, longitude)	Lead/lag correlation of two variables with daily time resolution
	mjo_precip_uwnd_variance.ncl	Variance	Lat-lon contour plot	Season (summer, winter), region (latitude, longitude), contour levels	20-100 day bandpass filtered variance for two variables with daily time resolution

	mjo_olr_u850-200_cross_spectra.ncl	Coherence squared and phase lag	Wavenumber -frequency contour plot	Region (latitude), segments length and overlapped segments length, spectra type	Missing values are not allowed in the input data
	mjo_olr_u850_200_ceof.ncl	CEOF	Line plot	Region(latitude), number and names of CEOF modes, y-axis limit	the first two CEOF modes (PC1 and PC2) are retained for the MJO composite life cycle analysis
	mjo_olr_uv850_ceof_life_cycle.ncl	Calculate mean value for each phase category	Lat-lon contour plot	Season (summer, winter), region (latitude, longitude)	The appropriate MJO phase categories are derived from PC1 and PC2 of CEOF analysis
<i>namelist_mjo_mean_state</i>	mjo_precip_u850_basic.ncl	Season mean	Lat-lon contour plot	Season (summer, winter), region (latitude, longitude)	Based on monthly data
<i>namelist_diurnalCycle</i>		Mean diurnal cycle computation, regridding of observations and models over a specific grid and first harmonic analysis to derive amplitude and phase of maximum rainfall	Composites of diurnal cycles over specific regions and seasons, global maps of maximum precipitation phase and amplitude		A prerequisite to use this namelist is to check the time axis of high frequency data from models and observations to be sure of what is provided. One should check in particular if it is instantaneous or averaged values, and if the time provided corresponds to the middle or the end of the 3h interval. Note that timeaxis is modified in the namelist to make data coherent.
<i>namelist_laur13jclim</i>	clouds.ncl	Multi-model mean	Lat-lon contour plot	map projection (CylindricalEquidistant, Mercator, Mollweide), destination grid	Produces Figure 9.5 included in <i>namelist_flato13ipcc</i>
	clouds_taylor.ncl	Multi-model mean	Taylor diagram		Taylor diagrams
	clouds_interannual.ncl	Interannual variability, multi-model mean	Lat-lon contour plot	Map projection (CylindricalEquidistant, Mercator, Mollweide), destination grid, reference data sets	
<i>namelist_williams09climdyn_CREM</i>	ww09_ESMValTool.py	Model data assigned to observed cloud regimes and regime frequency and mean radiative properties calculated.	Bar graph		

Section 4.2: Detection of systematic biases in the physical climate: ocean					
<i>namelist_SouthernOcean</i>	SeaIce_polcon.ncl		Polar stereographic maps	contour values	
	SeaIce_polcon_diff.ncl	Regridding (ESMF)	Polar stereographic maps	contour values, reference model	
	SouthernOcean_vector_polcon_diff.ncl	Vector overlay (magnitude and direction)	Polar stereographic maps	contour plot scales, reference model	based on SeaIce_polcon_diff.ncl, variables with u and v components
	SouthernOcean_areamean_vertconplot.ncl	Regridding (ESMF)	Zonal mean vertical profiles (Hovmöller diagrams)	coordinates of subdomain	based on CDFTOOLS package
	SouthernOcean_transport.ncl	Sea water volume transport calculation	Line plot	coordinates of subdomain	
<i>namelist_SouthernHemisphere</i>	SouthernHemisphere.py	Regridding (interpolation to common grid), Temporal and zonal averages, RMSEs	Seasonal cycle line plot with calculated RMSEs and zonal mean contour plot	Masking of unwanted values (limits), region (coordinates) and season (months) specification, plotting limits, contour colourmap	
	SouthernHemisphere_scatter.py	Covariability of radiation fluxes as function of cloud metrics	Scatter plot of values with line plot of value distribution		
<i>namelist_TropicalVariability</i>	TropicalVariability.py	Temporal and zonal averages, RMSEs, normalization, co-variability	Annual cycles, seasonal scatter plots with calculated RMSEs	Masking of unwanted values (limits), Region (coordinates) and season (months), plotting limits	Fig. 5 of Lie and Xie, 2014
	TropicalVariability_EQ.py	Temporal and zonal averages, RMSEs, normalization, co-variability	Latitude cross sections of equatorial variables		
	TropicalVariability_wind.py	Regridding (interpolation)	Wind divergence plots		
<i>namelist_SeaIce</i>	SeaIce_tsline.ncl	Sea-ice area and extent, regridding (ESMF)	Time series	selection Selection of Arctic/Antarctic,	Produces Figure 9.24 included in <i>namelist_flato13ipcc</i>
	SeaIce_ancyc.ncl	Sea-ice area and extent, regridding (ESMF)	Annual cycle line plot	selection Selection of Arctic/Antarctic	
	SeaIce_polcon.ncl	Sea-ice area and extent, regridding	Polar stereographic maps	selection Selection of Arctic/Antarctic, optional red line	

		(ESMF)		depicting edges of sea-ice extent	
	SeaIce_polcon_diff.ncl	Sea-ice area and extent, regridding (ESMF)	Polar stereographic maps	selection Selection of Arctic/Antarctic, optional red line depicting edges of sea-ice extent	
Section 4.3: Detection of systematic biases in the physical climate: land					
<i>namelist_Evapotranspiration</i>	Evapotranspiration.ncl	Conversion to evapotranspiration units, global average, RMSE	Lat-lon contour plot	Time period	
<i>namelist_SPI</i>	SPI.r	SPI calculation	Lat-lon contour plot	Time period, time scale (3, 6 or 12 monthly)	May require manual installation of certain R-packages to run
<i>namelist_runoff_et</i>	catchment_analysis_val.py	Temporal and spatial mean for 12 large river catchments, regridding to 0.5x0.5 lat-lon grid	Bar plots of evapotranspiration and runoff bias against observation, scatter plots of runoff bias against the biases of evapotranspiration precipitation	(no cfg. file)	Three variables are read by this diagnostic.
Section 4.4: Detection of biogeochemical biases: carbon cycle					
<i>namelist_anav13jclim</i>	Anav_MVI_IAV_Trend_Plot.ncl	Regridding to common grid, monthly and annual special averages, variability (MVI = (model/reference - reference/model) 2)	Scatter plot	Region (latitude), resolution size for regridding (e.g., 0.5°, 1°, 2°)	All carbon flux variables were corrected for the exact amount of carbon in the coastal regions by applying the models land-ocean fraction to the variables.
	Anav_Mean_IAV_ErrorBars_Seasonal_cycle_plots.ncl	Regridding to common grid Monthly and annual special averages	Seasonal cycle line plot, scatter plot, error-bar plot	Region (latitude), resolution size for regridding (e.g., 0.5°, 1°, 2°)	
	Anav_cSoil-cVeg_Scatter.ncl	Regridding to common grid annual special averages	Scatter plot	Region (latitude), resolution size for regridding (e.g., 0.5°, 1°, 2°)	Two variables are read by this diagnostic
	perfmetrics_grading.ncl	RMSE, PDF-skill score	No plot		See details in <i>namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5</i>
	perfmetrics_grading_collect.ncl		Portrait diagram		See details in <i>namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5</i>
<i>namelist_GlobalOcean</i>	GO_tsline.ncl	Multi-model mean	Time-series line plot	Region (lat/lon), pressure levels, optional smoothing,	

				anomaly calculations, overlaid trend lines, and masking of model data according to observations	
	GO_comp_map.ncl	Mean, standard deviation, and difference to reference model	Lat-lon contour plot (for specified z-level)	Region (Lat/lon), ocean depth, contour levels	Actual metrics ported from UK MetOffice IDL-monsoon evaluation scripts
Section 4.5: Detection of biogeochemical biases: chemistry and aerosols					
<i>namelist_aerosol_CMIP5</i>	aerosol_stations.ncl	<u>Collocation of model and observational data</u> <u>Regridding to coarsest grid</u>	Time series, scatter plot, map plot	<u>Observed station data is specified in the efg-file</u> <u>Time averaging, station data network</u>	All available observational data in the selected time period, on a monthly-mean basis is considered. The model data is extracted in the grid boxes where the respective observational stations are located (ee-located <u>collocated</u> model and observational data). <u>Reproducing Figure 9.29 also with namelist_flato13ipee</u>
	aerosol_satellite.ncl	<u>Regridding to coarsest grid</u>	Map plots and difference plots	<u>Target grid</u>	
	aerosol_profiles.ncl	Mean, standard deviation, median, 5-10-25-75-90-95 percentiles	Vertical profiles		The model data are extracted based on the campaign/station location (lat-lon box) and time period (on a climatological basis, i.e. selecting the same days/months, but regardless of the year). Rather specific variables are required (i.e., aerosol number concentration for particles with diameter larger than 14 nm) to match the properties of the instruments used during the campaign.
	tsline.ncl		Line plot	Time averaging (annual, seasonal and monthly climatologies, annual and multi-year monthly	

				means) <u>Region), region</u> (latitude, longitude)	
<i>namelist_righi</i> <i>15gmd_tropo</i> 3	anyc_lat.ncl	Regridding to reference global (area-weighted) average, zonal mean	Seasonal Hovmöller (month vs. latitude)		global (area-weighted) average is calculated only for grid cells with available observational data
	lat_long.ncl	Regridding to coarsest grid global (area-weighted) average			global (area-weighted) average is calculated only for grid cells with available observational data
	perfmetrics_main.ncl		Annual cycle line plot, zonal mean plot, lat-lon map plot		See details in <i>namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5</i>
	perfmetrics_grading.ncl		No plot		See details in <i>namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5</i>
	perfmetrics_taylor.ncl		No plot		See details in <i>namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5</i>
	perfmetrics_grading_collect.ncl		Portrait diagram		See details in <i>namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5</i>
	perfmetrics_taylor_collect.ncl		Taylor diagram		See details in <i>namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5</i>
<i>namelist_righi</i> <i>15gmd_Emmons</i>	Emmons.ncl	Percentiles (5,25,75,95)%	Vertical profiles	<u>Reference/Name(s) of the observational profile file must be specified campaign(s)</u>	
<i>namelist_eyring06jgr</i>	eyring06jgr_fig01.ncl	<u>Climatological mean-bias</u>	<u>Vertical profiles</u>	<u>Multi-model mean (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)</u>	
	eyring06jgr_fig02.ncl	<u>Cosine weighting for latitude averaging</u>		<u>Multi-model mean (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)</u>	
	eyring06jgr_fig03.ncl	<u>Linear regression</u>	<u>Scatter plot and correlation coefficient</u>	<u>Multi-model mean (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); pressure level; time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)</u>	<u>Two variables are read.</u>

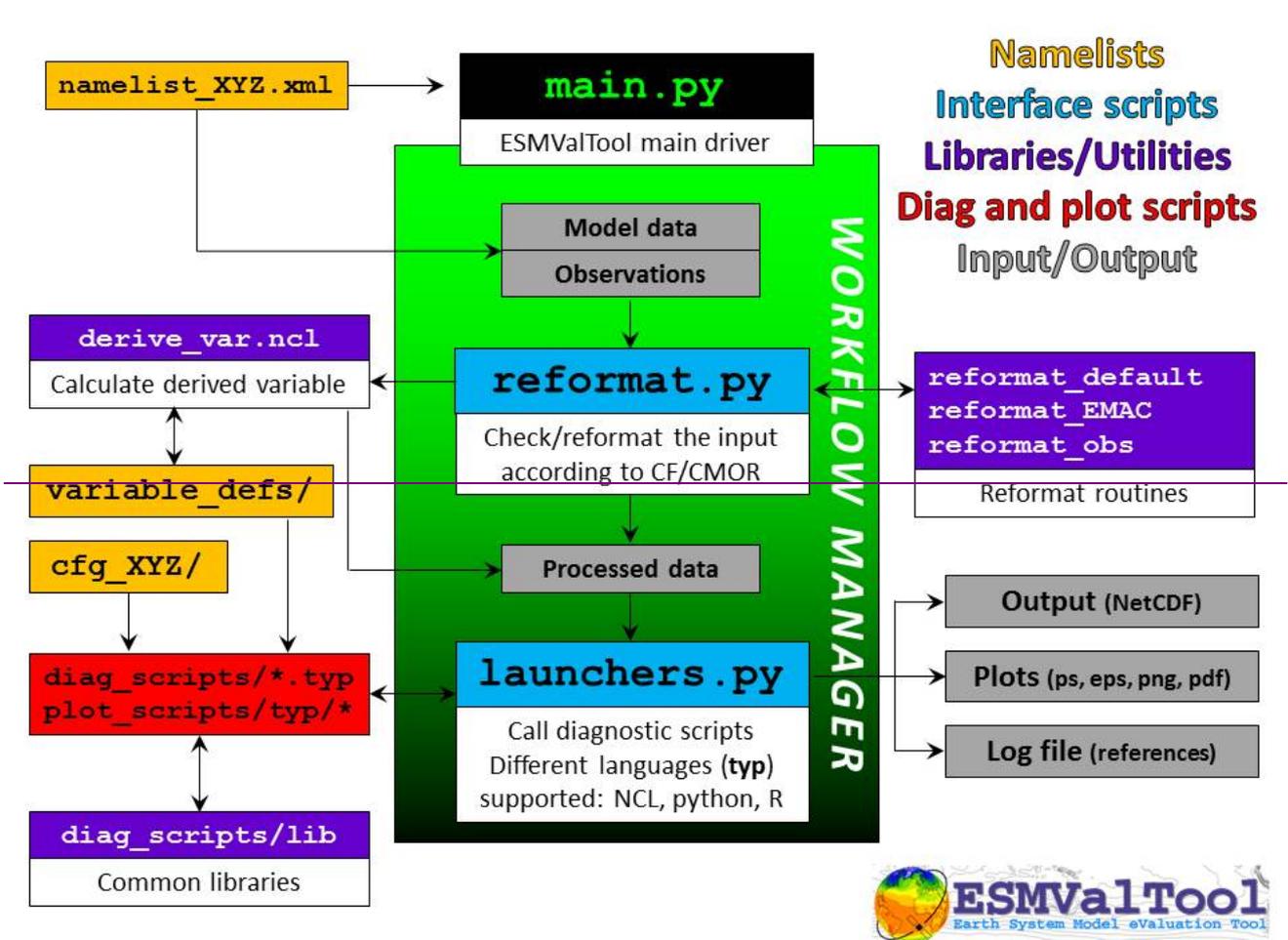
eyring06jgr_fig04 .nel	Anomalies with respect to first 10-years	Time series	Multi model mean (True/False); anomaly (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
eyring06jgr_fig12 b.nel	Anomalies with respect to first 10-years	Time series	Multi model mean (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
eyring06jgr_fig05 .nel	Climatological mean	Zonal mean vertical profile	Multi model mean (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
eyring06jgr_fig07 .nel	Seasonal cycle averages	Seasonal cycle line plot	Multi model mean (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); pressure level; time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
eyring06jgr_fig08 .nel	Cosine weighted area average; seasonal average	Seasonal Hovmöller (month vs. latitude)	Multi model mean (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	Similar to aneye_lat.nel: seasonal Hovmöller (month vs. latitude) diagrams are created but showing the month for two years in a row for improved analysis of the periodicity.
eyring06jgr_fig09 .nel	Phase lag and relative amplitude of annual cycles	Vertical profiles	Multi model mean (True/False); regions (latitude); time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
eyring06jgr_fig12 .nel	Cosine weighted area average; time average	Vertical profile, time series	Multi model mean (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
eyring06jgr_fig14 .nel	Zonal mean; seasonal average	Seasonal Hovmöller (month vs. latitude)	Multi model mean (True/False); regions (latitude, longitude); time averaging (annual,	Similar calculation as for aneye_lat.nel

				individual month, seasons)	
	eyring06jgr_fig15.ncl	Anomalies with respect to first 10 years, seasonal cycle mean	Time series, seasonal cycle line plot	Multi model mean (True/False), regions (latitude, longitude), pressure level, time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	Similar to eyring06jgr_fig04.ncl anomalies of time series are generated but are compared to the seasonal cycle of the quantity in an extra panel.
namelist_eyring13jgr	anyc_lat.ncl		Seasonal Hovmöller (month vs. latitude)		See details in namelist_right15gmd_tropo3
	eyring13jgr_fig01.ncl		Seasonal Hovmöller (month vs. latitude)	Multi model mean (True/False), regions (latitude, longitude), time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
	eyring13jgr_fig02.ncl		Time series	Multi model mean (True/False), regions (latitude, longitude), time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	Produces Figure 9.10 of Flato et al. (2013) included in namelist_flato13ipcc
	eyring13jgr_fig04.ncl	Tropospheric column ozone	Global maps		
	eyring13jgr_fig06.ncl	Anomalies with respect to a specifiable base line, mean and standard deviation (95% confidence) for simulation experiment	Time series	Multi model mean (True/False), regions (latitude, longitude), time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
	eyring13jgr_fig07.ncl	Mean simulation experiments, differences between future scenario simulations and historical simulations	Vertical profile	Multi model mean (True/False), regions (latitude, longitude), time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons), list of models w/o interactive chemistry	
	eyring13jgr_fig10.ncl	Time averages, linear trends	Error bar plot	Multi model mean (True/False), regions (latitude, longitude), height (in km), time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
	eyring13jgr_fig11	Correlations and	Scatterplot	Multi model mean	Two quantities are

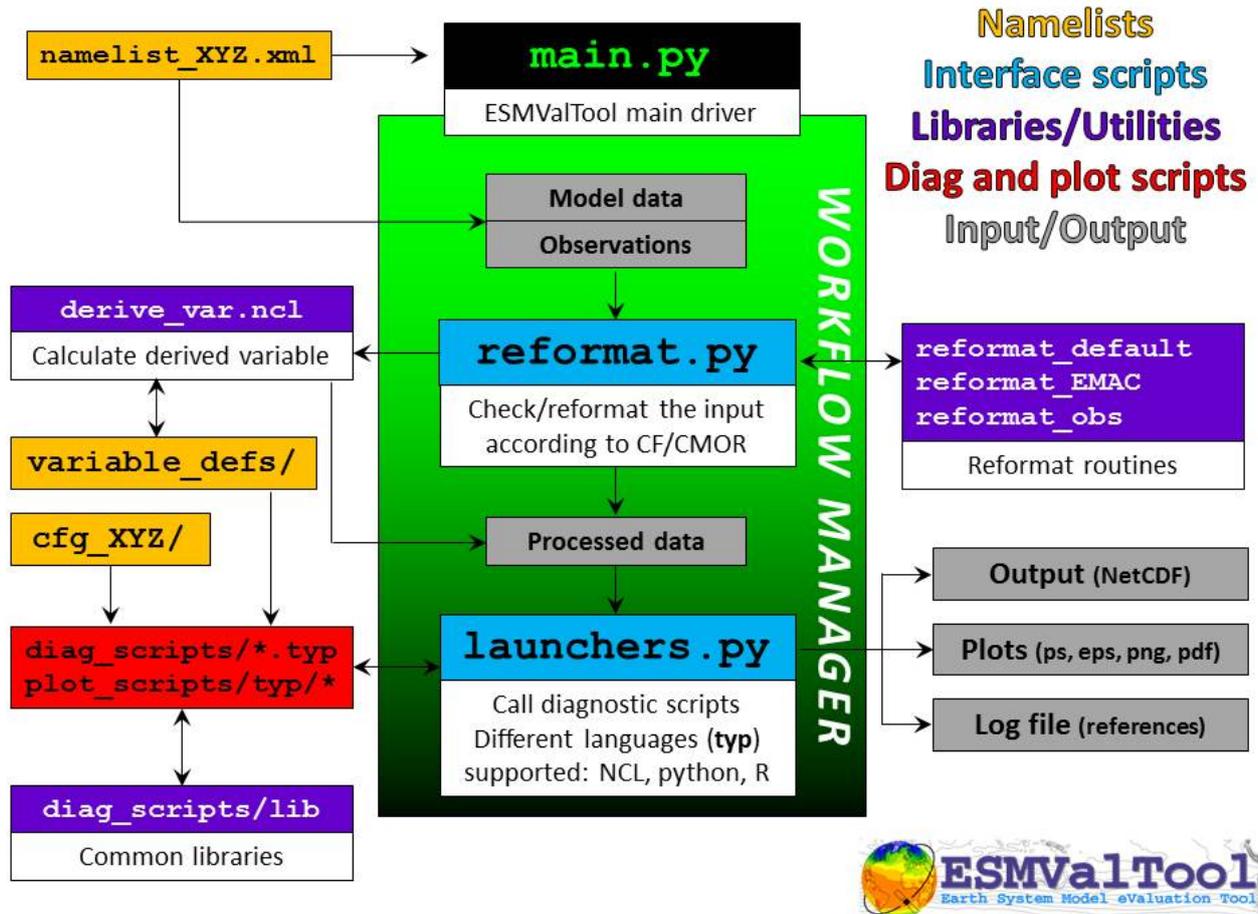
	.ncl	correlation coefficient		(True/False), regions (latitude, longitude), time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	compared to each other for individual models and simulations at once. Simulations are indicated by different marker types.
Section 4.6: Linking model performance to projections					
<i>namelist_wen zell4jgr</i>	tsline.ncl	Cosine weighting for latitude averaging, anomaly with respect to first 10 years	Line plot	Multi model mean (True/False), anomaly (True/False), regions (latitude, longitude), time averaging (annual, individual month, seasons)	
	carbon_corr_2vars.ncl	Linear regression	Scatter plot and correlation coefficient	Exclude two years after volcanic eruptions (True/False: Mount Agung, 1963; El Chichon, 1982; and Mount Pinatubo, 1991)	Two variables are read. The gradient of the linear regression and the prediction error of the fit, giving γ_{IAV} , are saved in an external netCDF file to be read by the <i>carbon_constraint.ncl</i> script.
	carbon_constraint.ncl	$\gamma_{LT} = \frac{\Delta mbp^c - \Delta mbp^u}{\Delta T_{ref}^c}$ 'c' coupled simulation 'u' biocemically coupled simulation Gaussian-Normal PDF Conditional PDF	Scatter plot and correlation coefficient	Time period, region (latitude)	Three variables are read. (1) γ_{LT} is diagnosed from the models (2) the previously saved netCDF files containing γ_{IAV} values are read and correlated to γ_{LT} (3) normal and conditional PDFs for the pure model ensemble and the constraint γ_{LT} values are calculated Produces Figure 9.45 included in <i>namelist_flato13ipcc</i>

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1 FIGURES



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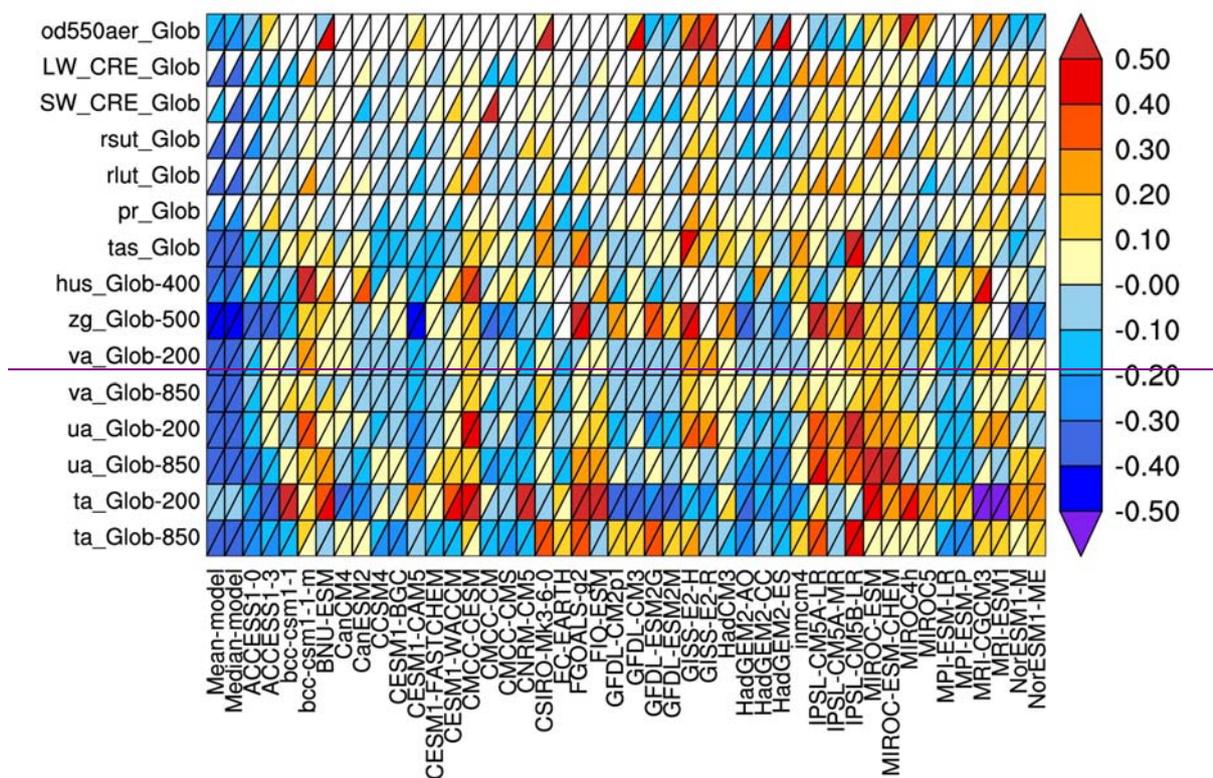


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2 Figure 1. Schematic overview of the ESMValTool (v1.0) structure. The primary input to the
 3 workflow manager is a user-configurable text namelist file (orange). Standardized libraries/utilities
 4 (purple) available to all diagnostics scripts are handled through common interface scripts (blue).
 5 The workflow manager runs diagnostic scripts (red) that can be written in several freely-available
 6 scripting languages. The output of the ESMValTool (gray) includes figures, binary files (netCDF),
 7 and a log-file with a list of relevant references and processed input files for each diagnostic.²²

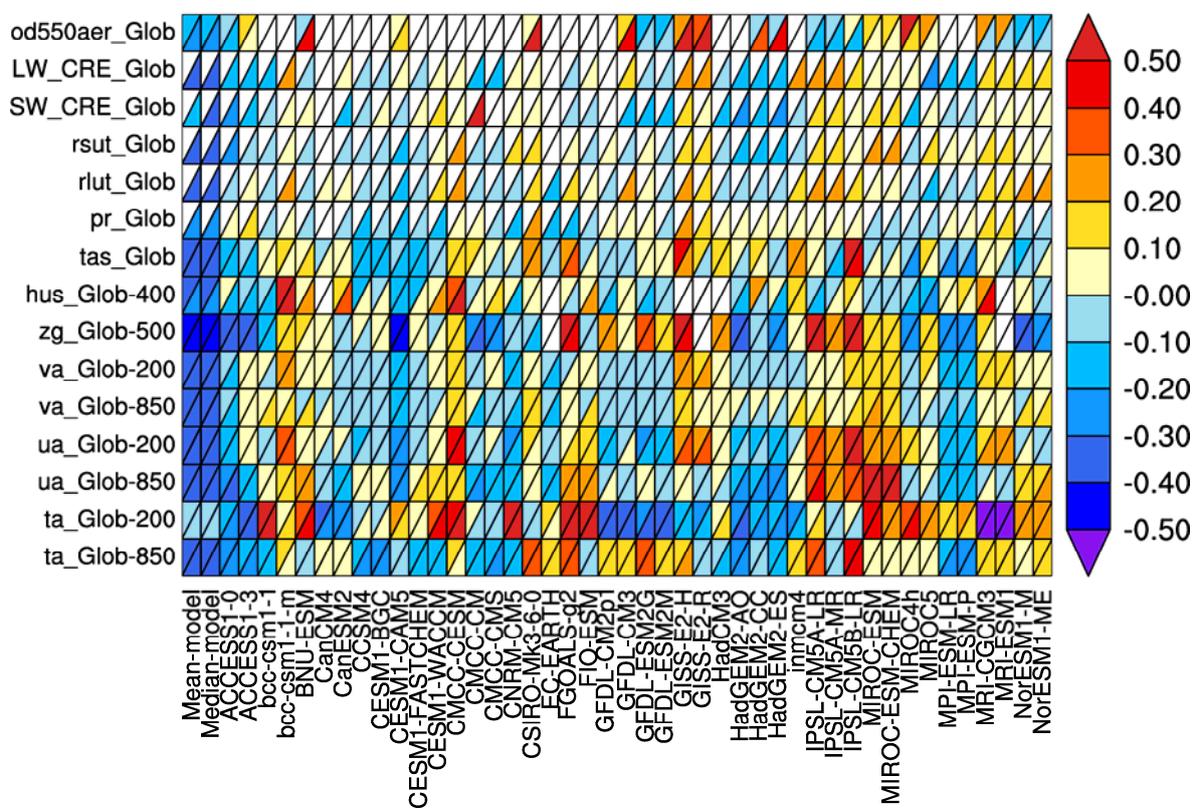
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RMSD - Global

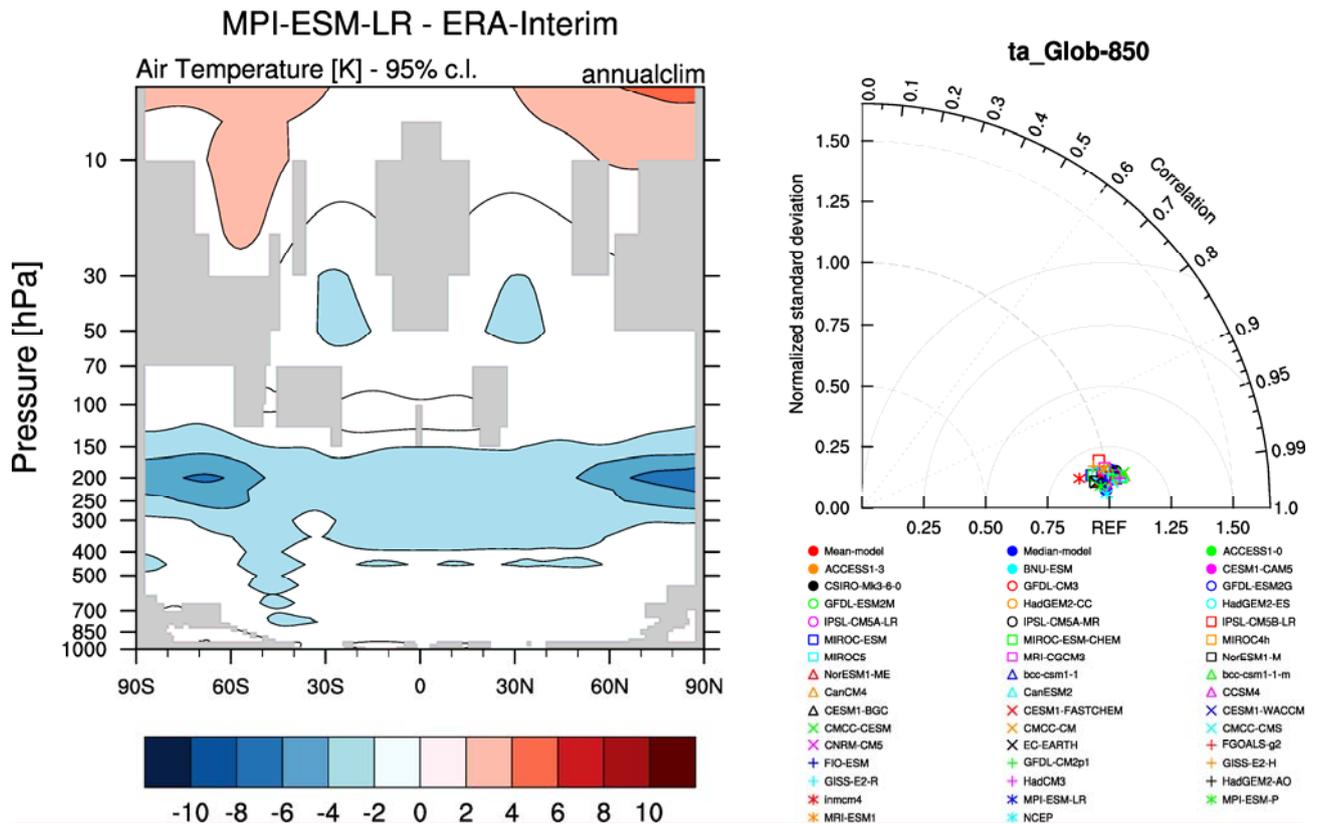


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RMSD - Global

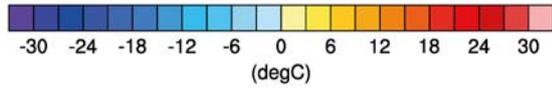
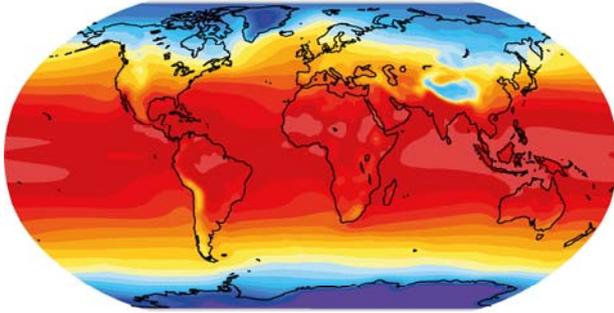


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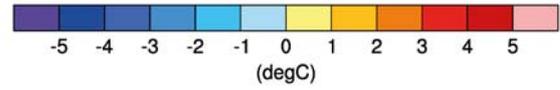
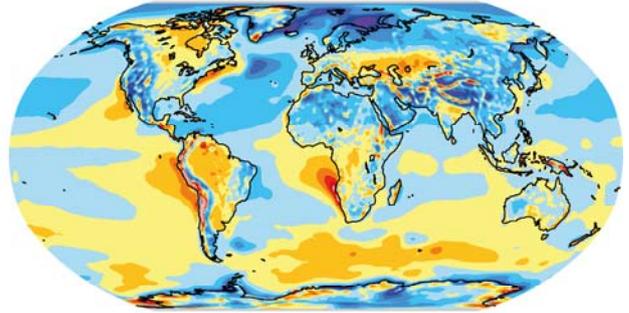


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 2 Figure 3. *Left*. Zonally averaged temperature profile difference between MPI-ESM-LR and the
 3 ERA-Interim reanalysis data with masked non-significant values. MPI-ESM-LR has generally small
 4 biases in the troposphere ($<_{-1-2K} 2 K$), but a cold bias in the tropopause region that is particularly
 5 strong in the extratropical lower stratosphere. This is a systematic bias present in many of the
 6 CMIP3 and CCMVal models (IPCC, 2007; SPARC-CCMVal, 2010), related to an overestimation
 7 of the water vapour concentrations in that region. *Right*: Taylor diagram for temperature at 850 hPa
 8 ~~from~~ from CMIP5 models compared ~~to~~with ERA-Interim (reference observation-based data set) and
 9 NCEP (alternate observation-based data set) showing a very high correlation or $R > 0.98$ with the
 10 reanalyses demonstrating very good performance in this quantity. Both figures produced with
 11 *namelist_perfmetrics_CMIP5.xml*.

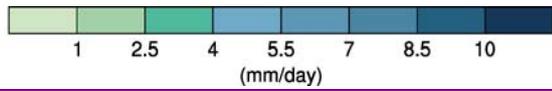
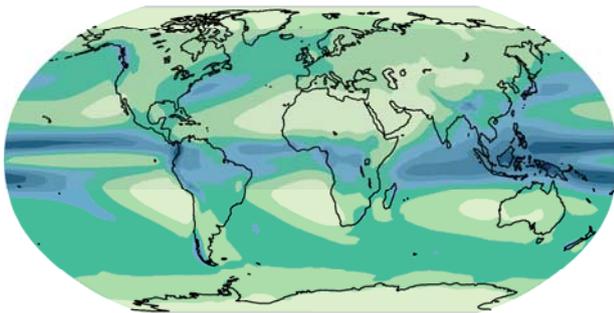
a) Multi Model Mean



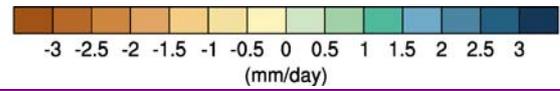
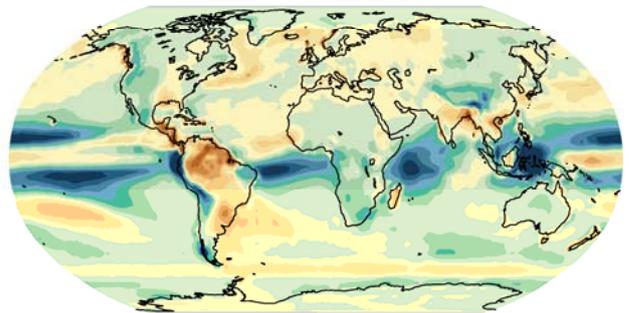
b) Multi Model Mean Bias



c) Multi Model Mean



d) Multi Model Mean Bias



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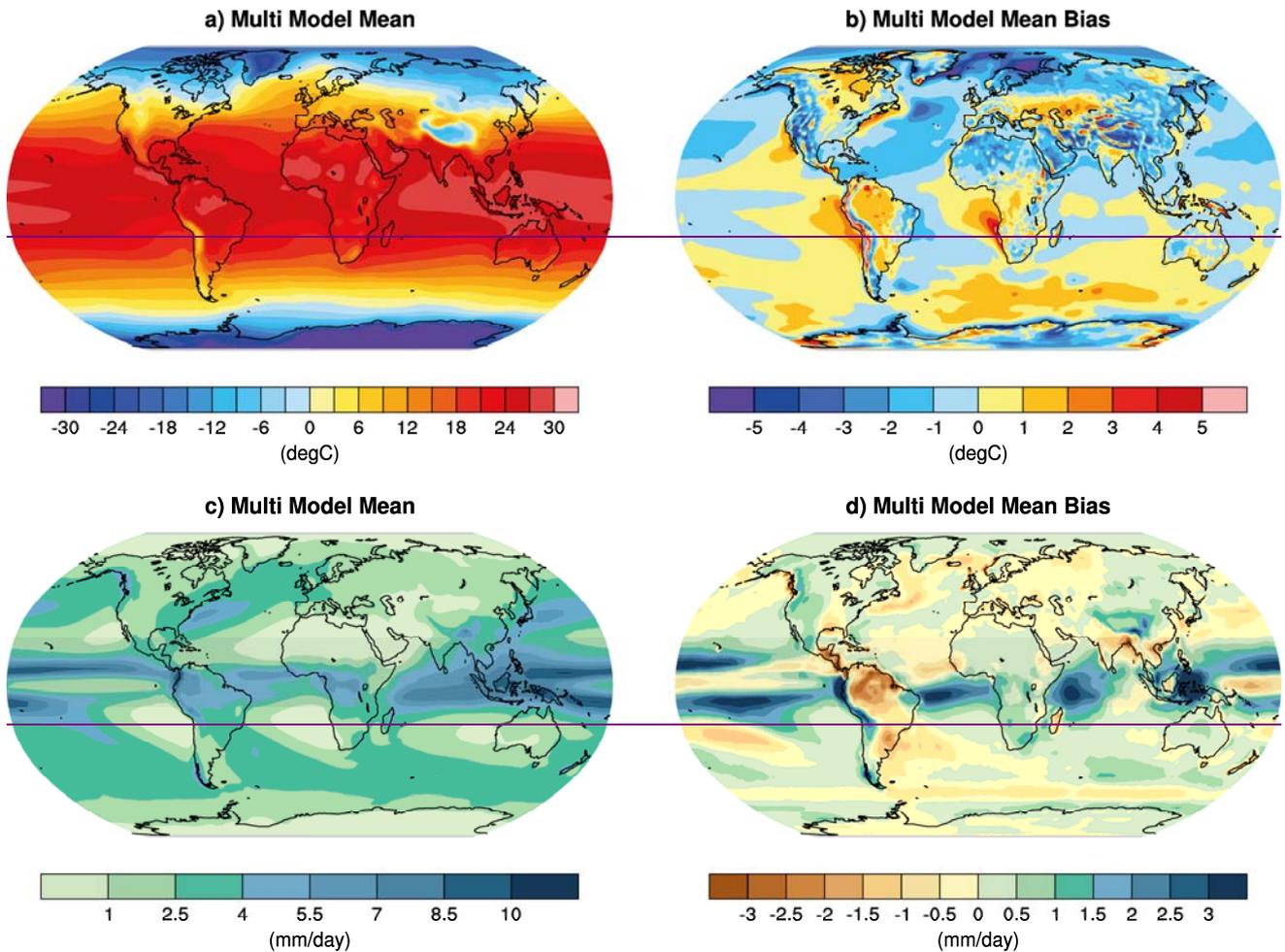
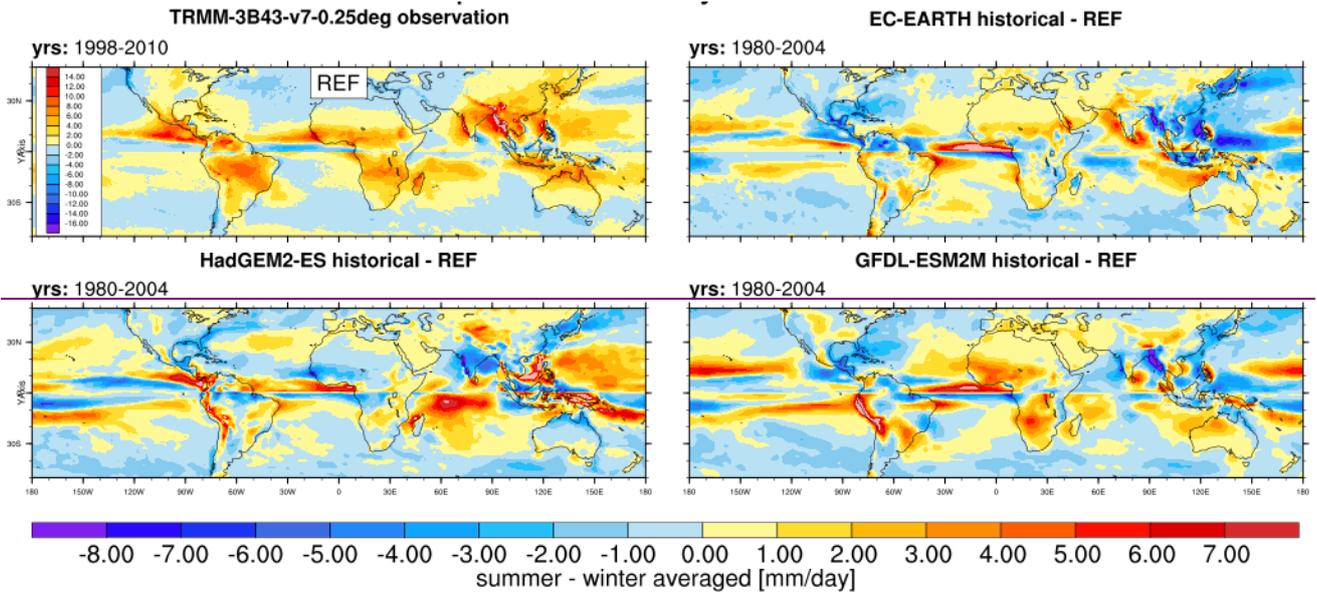
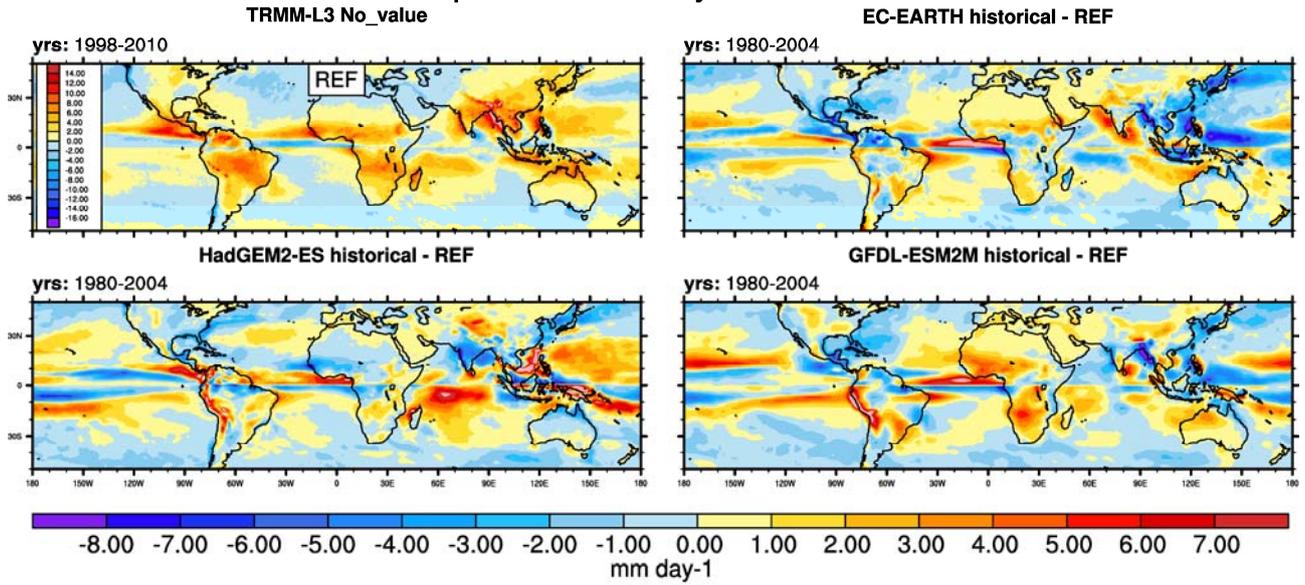


Figure 4. Annual-mean surface air temperature (upper row) and precipitation rate (mm day^{-1}) for the period 1980–2005. The left panels show the multi-model mean and the right panels the bias as the difference between the CMIP5 multi-model mean and the climatology from ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011) and the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (Adler et al., 2003) for surface air temperature and precipitation rate, respectively. The multi-model mean near-surface temperature agrees with ERA-Interim mostly within $\pm 2^\circ\text{C}$. Larger biases can be seen in regions with sharp gradients in temperature, for example in areas with high topography such as the Himalaya, the sea ice edge in the North Atlantic, and over the coastal upwelling regions in the subtropical oceans. Biases in the simulated multi-model mean precipitation include too low precipitation along the equator in the western Pacific and too high precipitation amounts in the tropics south of the equator. [Similar to Figures 9.2 and 9.4 of Flato et al. \(2013\)](#) and [Similar to Figures 9.2 and 9.4 of Flato et al. \(2013\)](#) and produced with *namelist_flato13ipcc.xml*.

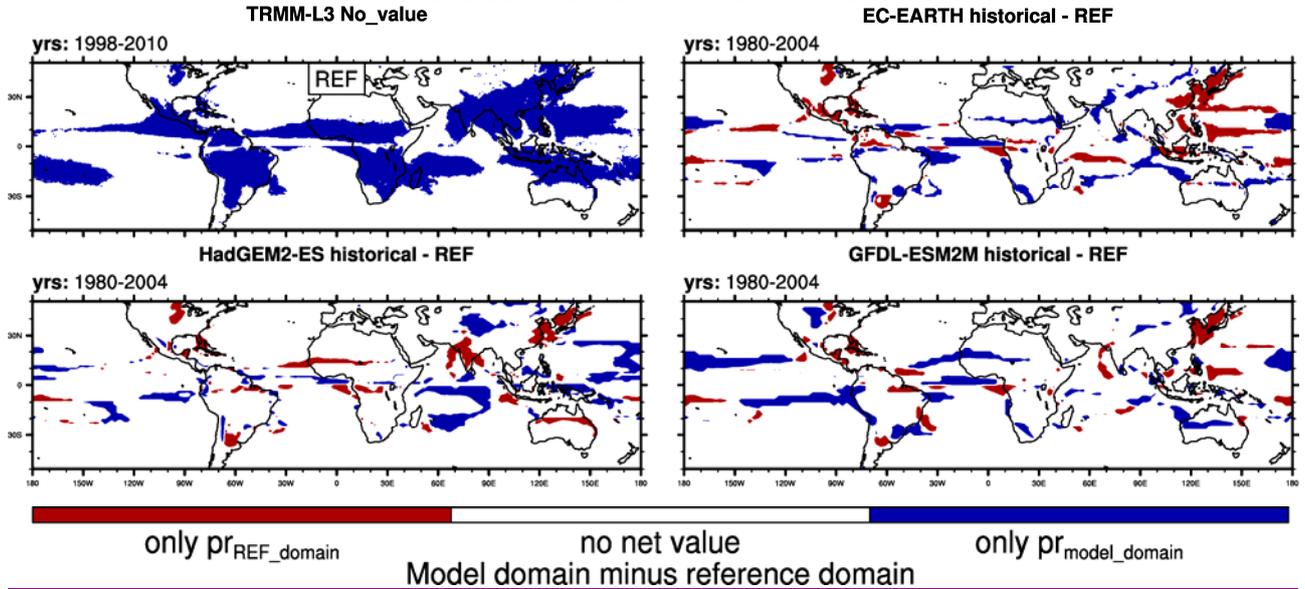


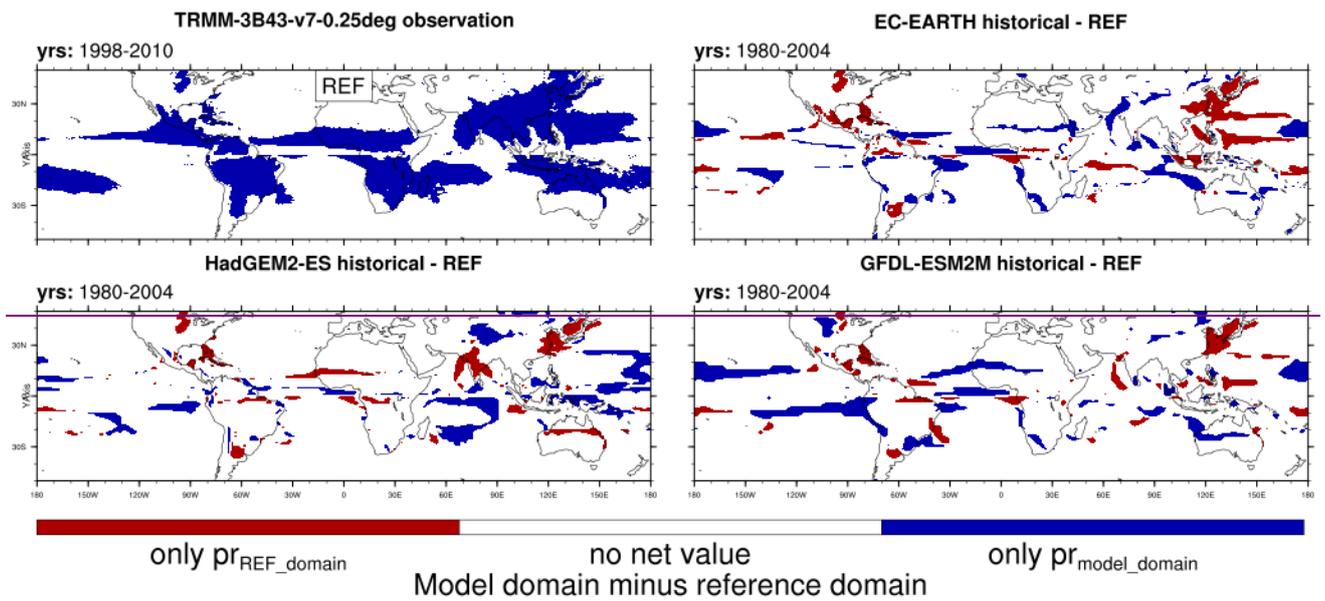
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Monsoon Precipitation Intensity: Model minus Reference



Monsoon Global Domain: Model minus Reference



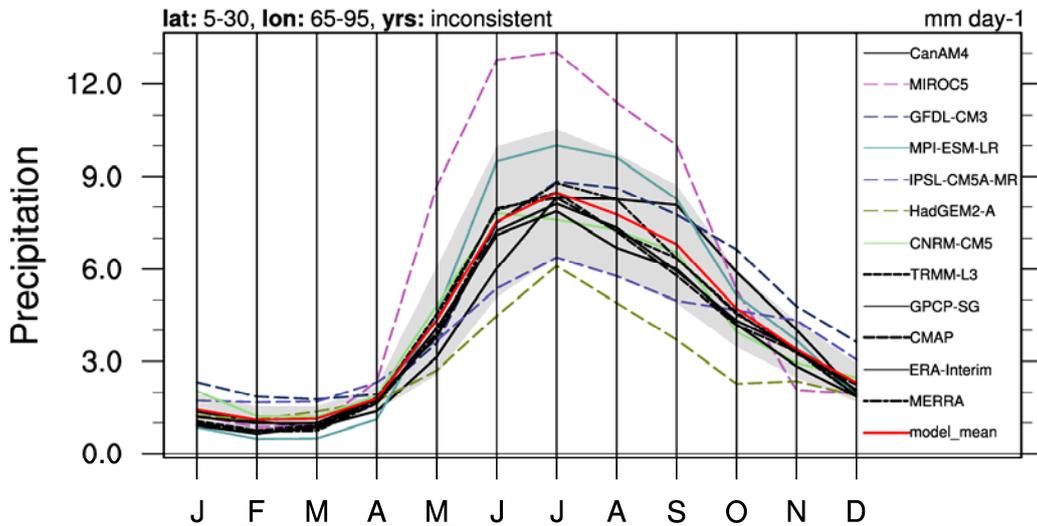
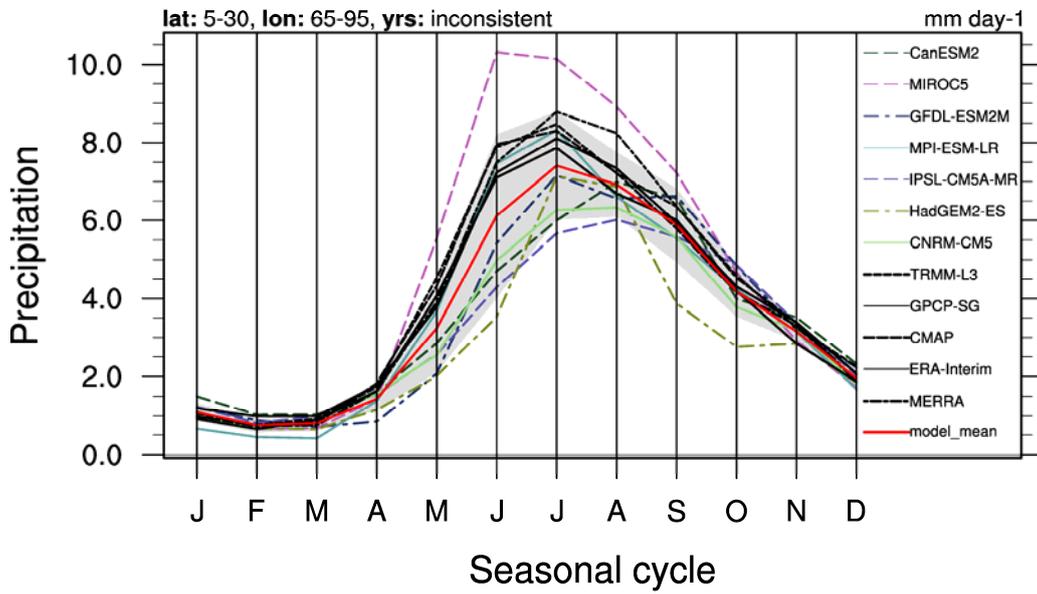
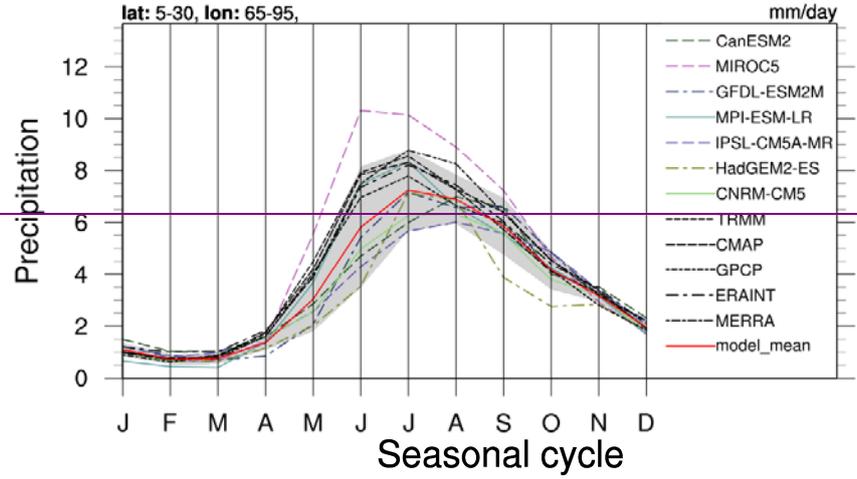


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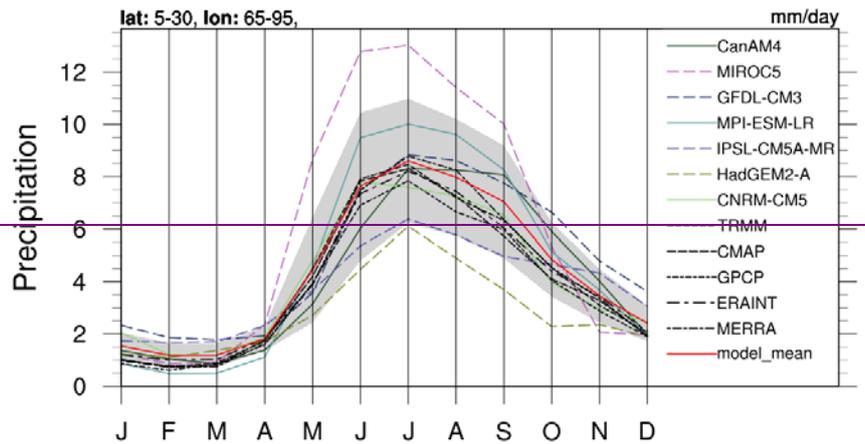
2 Figure 5. Monsoon precipitation intensity (upper panels) and monsoon precipitation domain (lower
 3 panels) for TRMM and an example of deviations from observations from three CMIP5 models (EC-
 4 Earth, HadGEM2-ES, and GFDL-ESM2M). The models have difficulties representing the
 5 eastward extent of the monsoon domain over the South China Sea and western Pacific, and several
 6 models (e.g., HadGEM2-ES) underestimate the latitudinal extent of most of the monsoon regions.
 7 The monsoon precipitation intensity tends to be underestimated in the South Asian, East Asian and
 8 Australian monsoon regions while in the African and American monsoon regions the sign of the
 9 intensity bias varies between models. Similar to Figure 9.32 of Flato et al. (2013)
 10 Similar to Figure 9.32 of Flato et al. (2013) and produced with *namelist_SAMonsoon.xml*.

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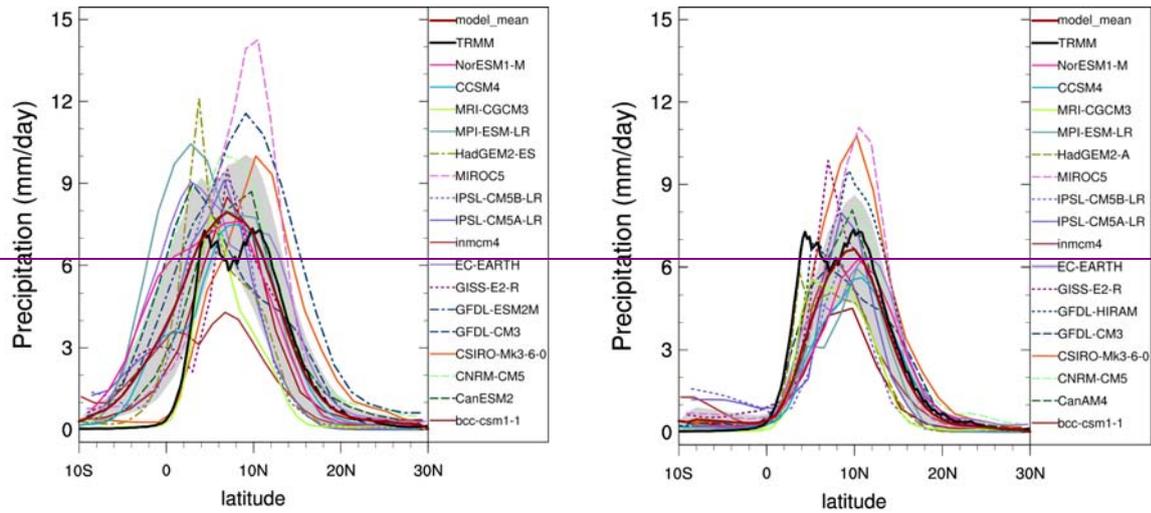
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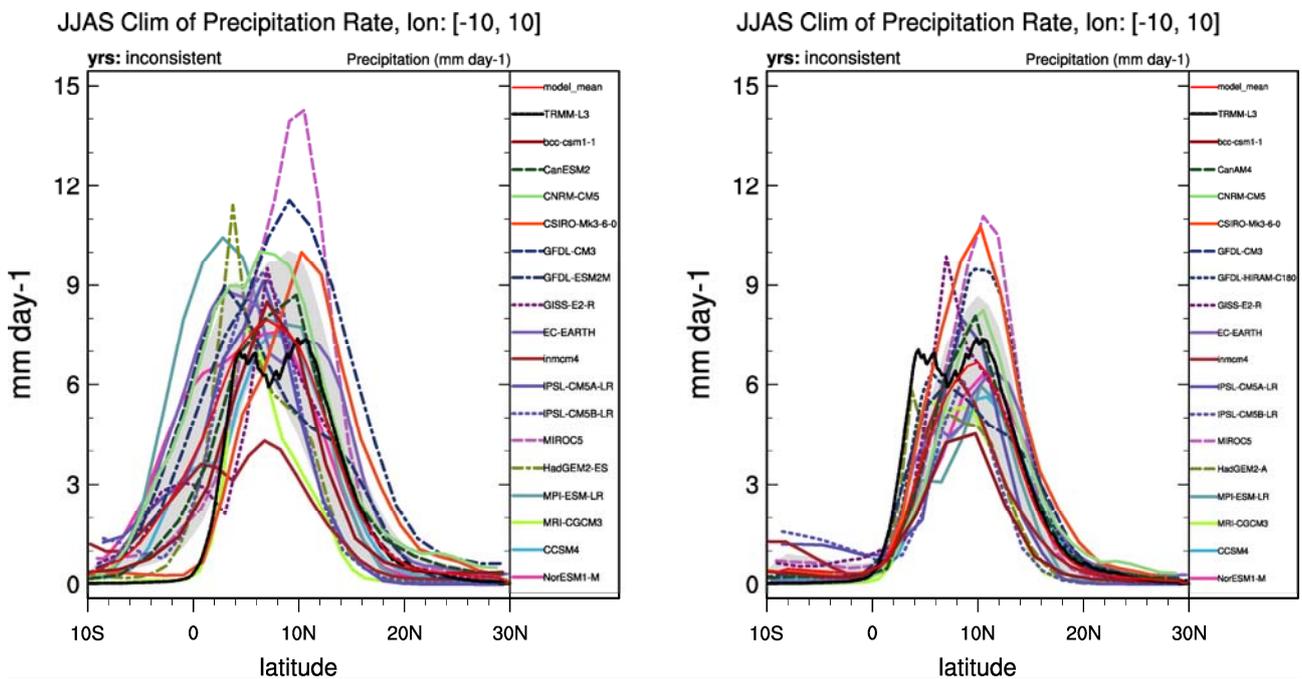
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Figure 6. Seasonal cycle of monthly rainfall averaged over the Indian region (5-30N, 65-95E) for a range of CMIP5 coupled models (upper panel) and their AMIP counterparts (lower panel), averaged over available years (models: 1980-2004, observations: 1998-2009-2010). The grey area in each panel indicates standard deviation from the model mean, to indicate the spread between models (observations/reanalyses are not included in this spread). These illustrate the range of rainfall simulated particularly in AMIP experiments where there is no feedback between precipitation and SST biases that might moderate the rainfall biases (Bollasina and Ming, 2013; Levine et al., 2013). Some of the CMIP5 coupled models (e.g., HadGEM2-ES, IPSL-CM5A-MR) show a delayed monsoon onset that is not apparent in their AMIP configurations. This is related to cold SST biases in the Arabian Sea which develop during boreal winter and spring (Levine et al., 2013). Produced with *namelist_SAMonsoon.xml*.

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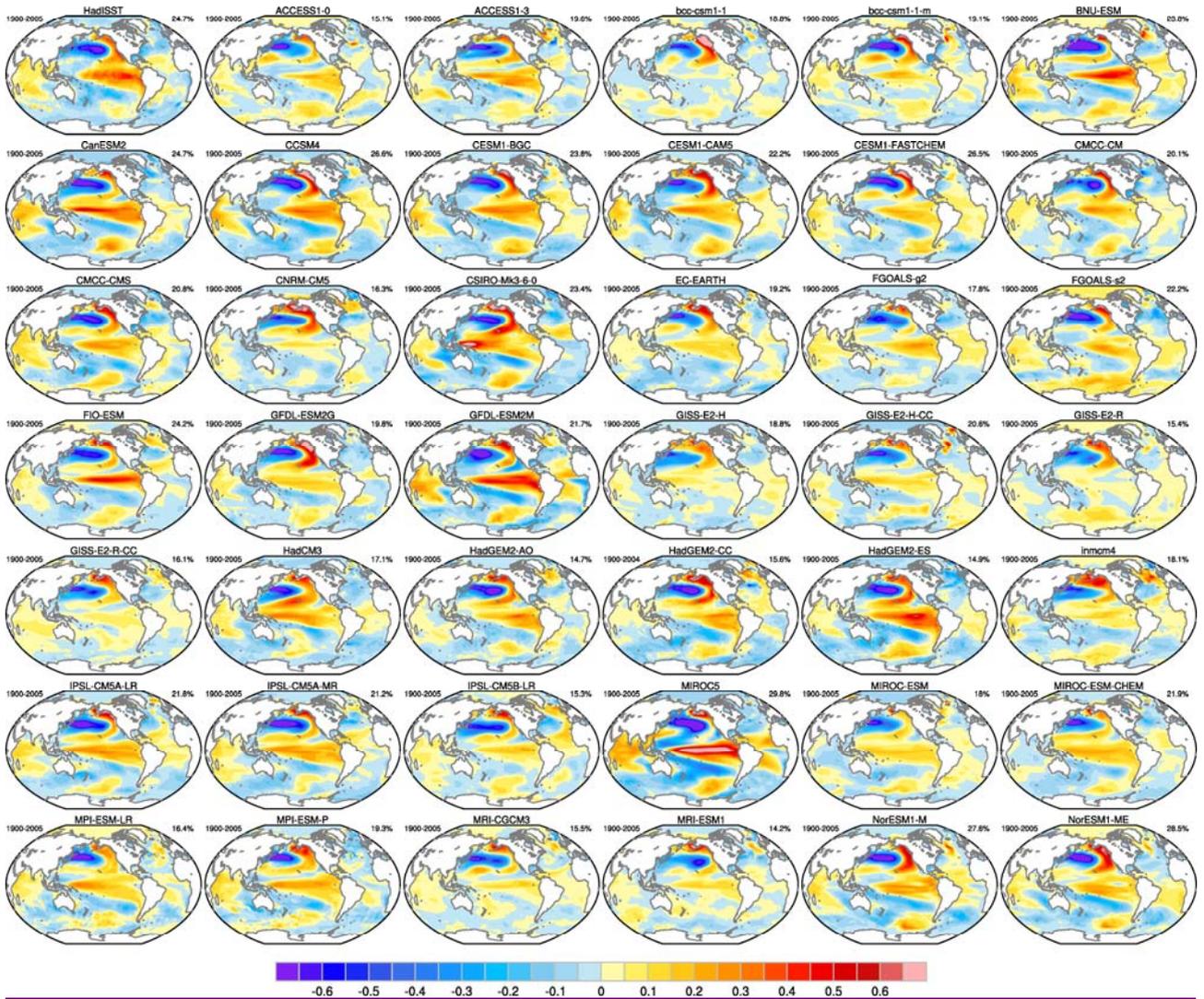
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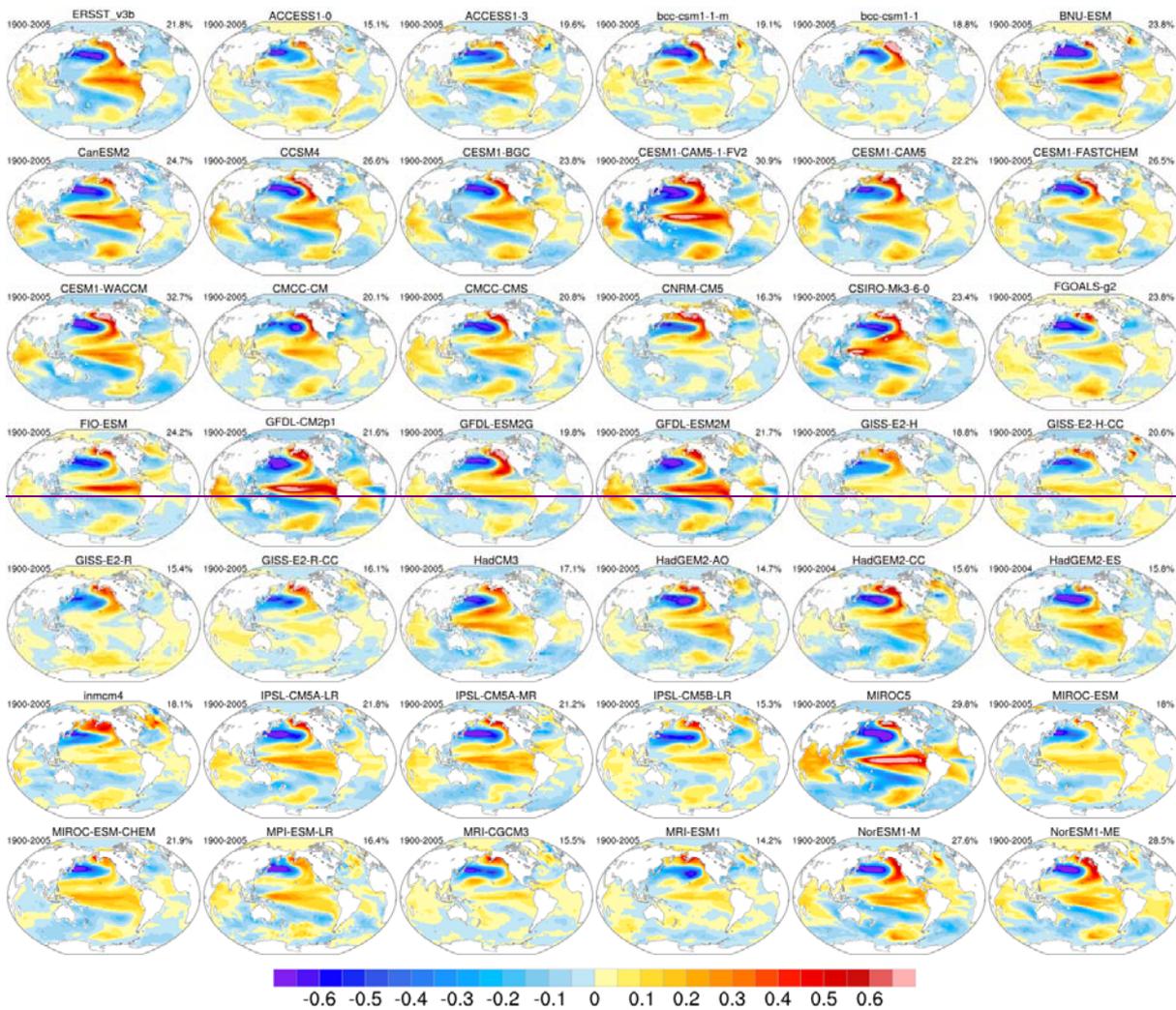
Figure 7. Precipitation (mm day^{-1}) averaged over 10°W - 10°E for the JJAS season for the years 1979-2005 for CMIP5 historical simulations (left) and 1979-2008 for CMIP5 AMIP simulations (right) compared to 1998-2008 for TRMM 3B43 Version 7 data set. The results illustrate the inter-model spread in the mean position and intensity of the WAM among the CMIP5 models. The spread is slightly reduced in AMIP simulations, as the warm SST bias in the equatorial Atlantic is removed. The WAM mean structure, however, is not captured by many models. Produced with *namelist_WAMonsoon.xml*.

PDO (Monthly)



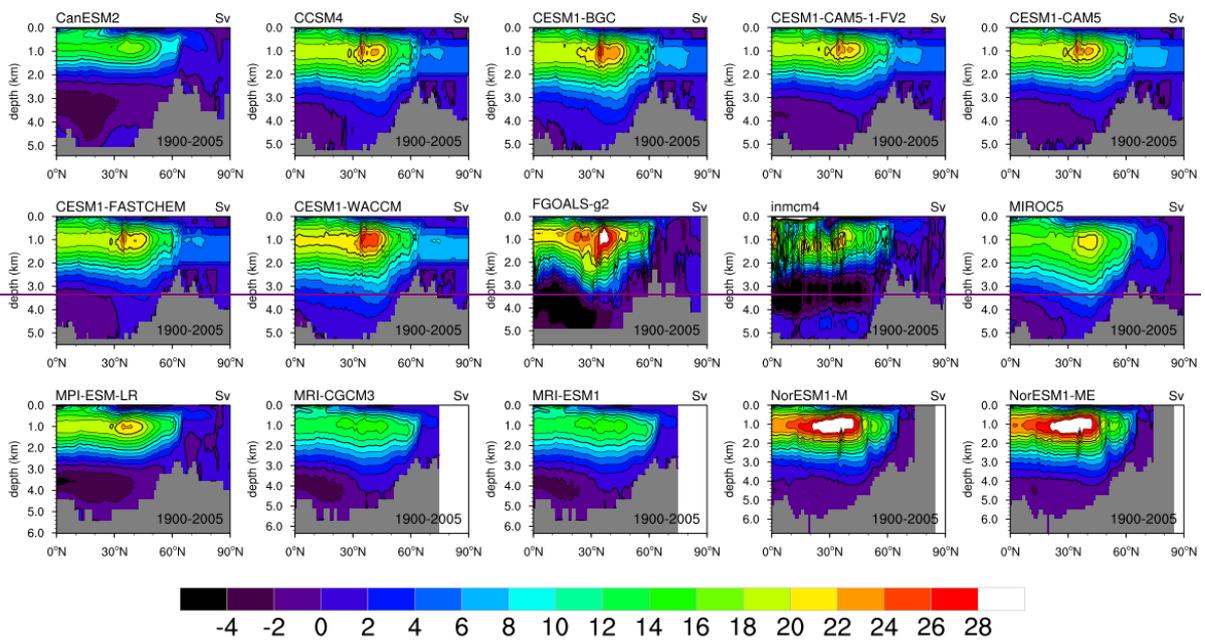
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Pacific Decadal Oscillation



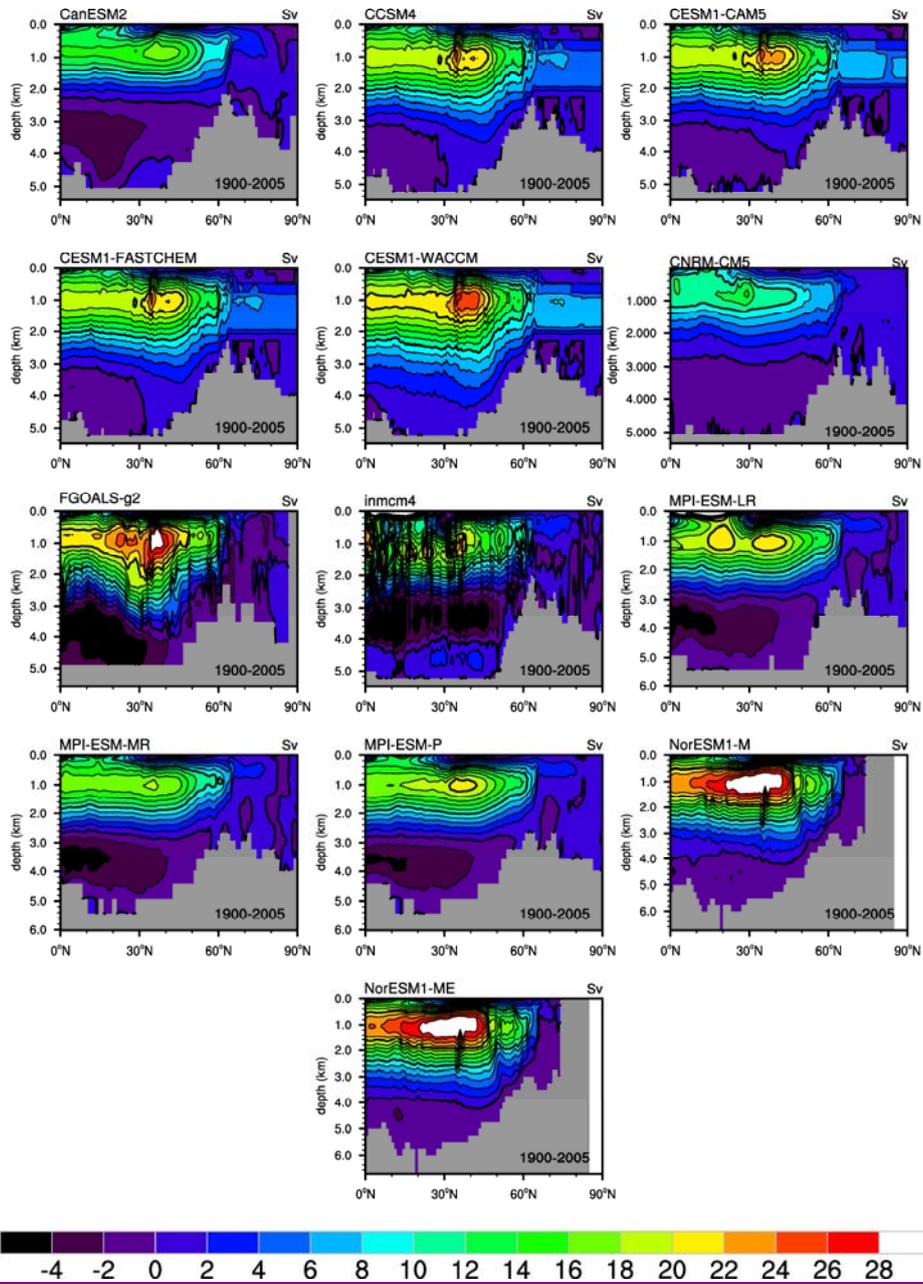
1
2 Figure 8. The PDO as simulated by 41 CMIP5 models (individual panels labelled by model name)
3 and observations (upper left panel) for the historical period 1900-2005. These patterns show the
4 global SST anomalies ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) associated with a one standard deviation change in the normalized
5 principal component (PC) time series. The percent variance accounted by the PDO is given in the
6 upper right of each panel. The PDO is defined as the leading empirical orthogonal function of monthly
7 SST anomalies (minus the global mean SST) over the North Pacific ($20\text{-}70^{\circ}\text{N}$, $110^{\circ}\text{E}\text{-}100^{\circ}\text{W}$). The global
8 patterns ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) are formed by regressing monthly SST anomalies at each grid point onto the PC time series.
9 Most CMIP5 models show realistic patterns in the North Pacific. However, linkages with the
10 tropics and the tropical Pacific in particular, vary across models. The lack of a strong tropical
11 expression of the PDO is a major shortcoming in many CMIP5 models (Flato et al., 2013). Figure
12 produced with *namelist_CVDP.xml*.

AMOC Means (Annual)



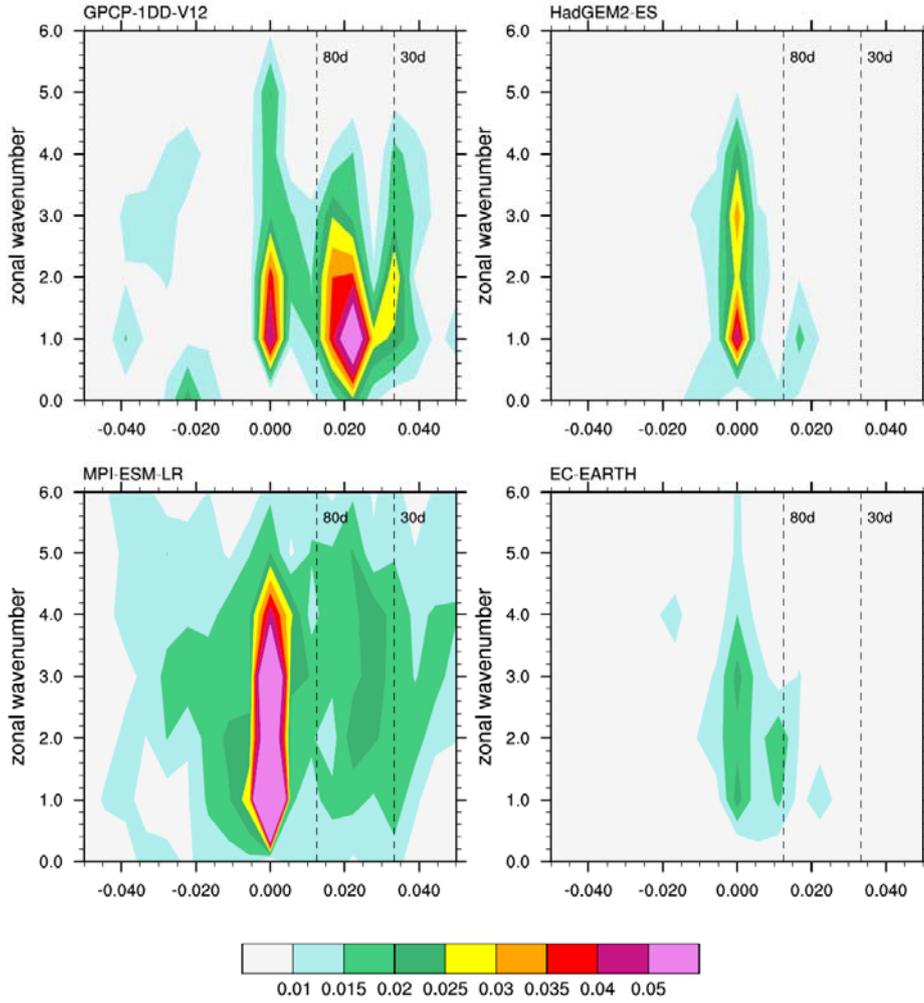
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AMOC Means (Annual)

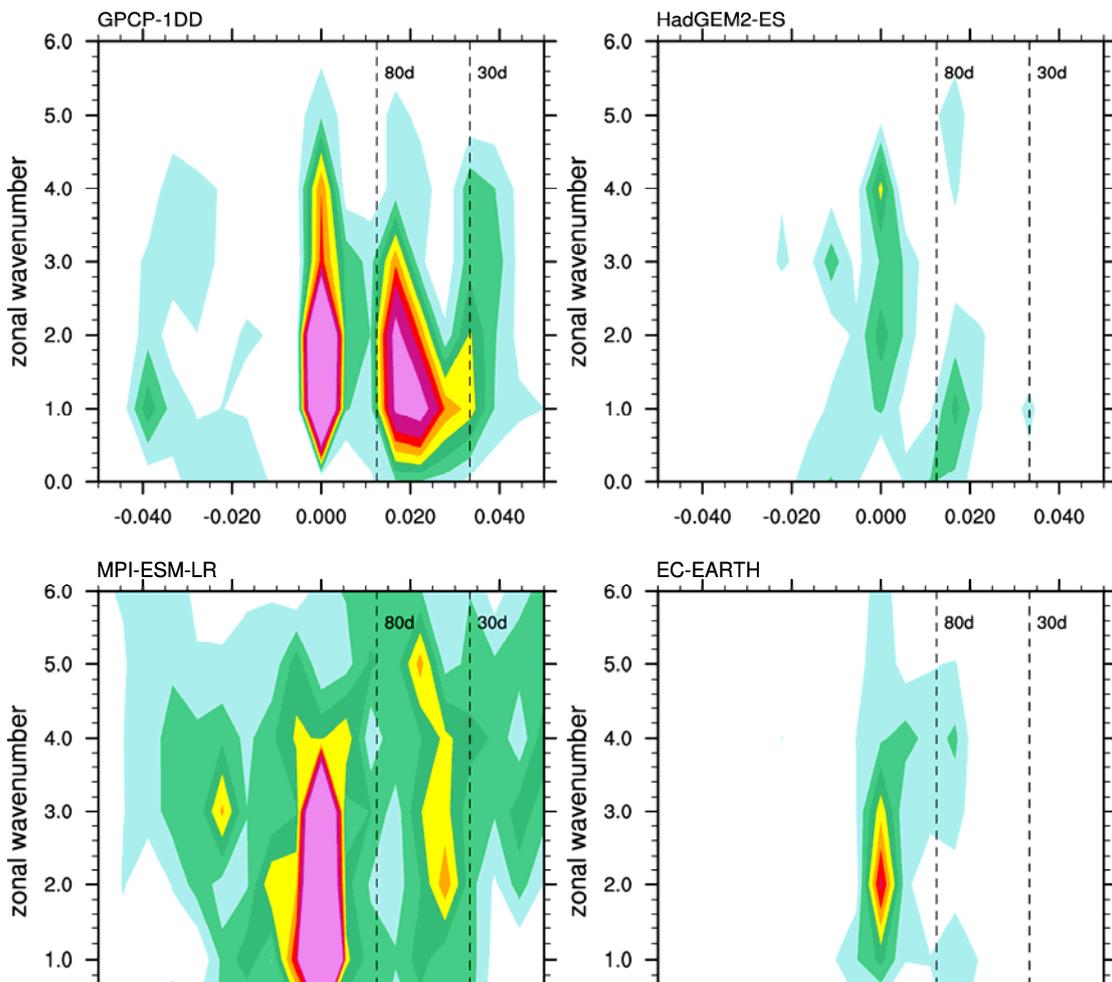


1

2 Figure 9. Long-term annual mean Atlantic Meridional Overturning Streamfunction (AMOC; Sv) as
 3 simulated by 15 CMIP5 models (individual panels labelled by model name) for the historical
 4 period 1900-2005. AMOC annual averages are formed, weighted by the cosine of the latitude
 5 and by the depth of the vertical layer, and then the data is masked by setting all those areas to
 6 missing where the variance is less than $1 \cdot 10^{-6}$. The figure shows that there is a wide spread among the
 7 CMIP5 models, with maximal AMOC strength ranging from ~ 13 Sv (CanESM2) to over ~ 28 Sv
 8 (NorESM1), while the models agree generally well on the position of maximal AMOC strength.
 9 Figure produced with *namelist_CVDP.xml*.

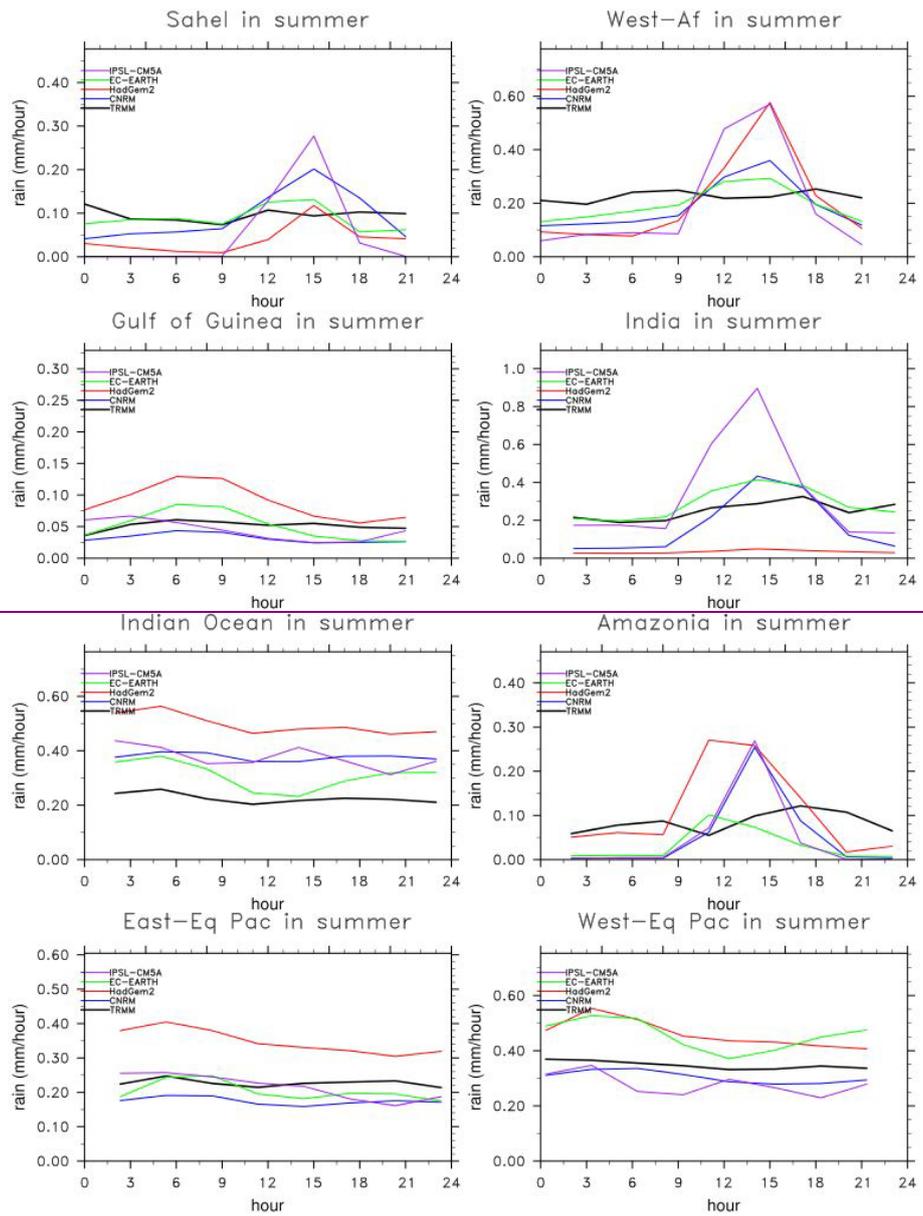


summer



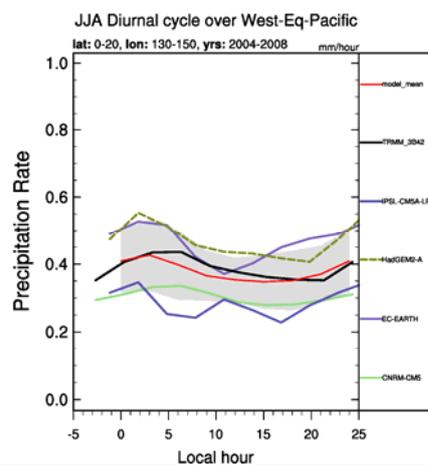
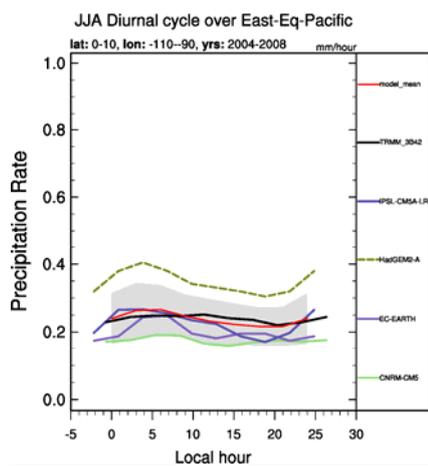
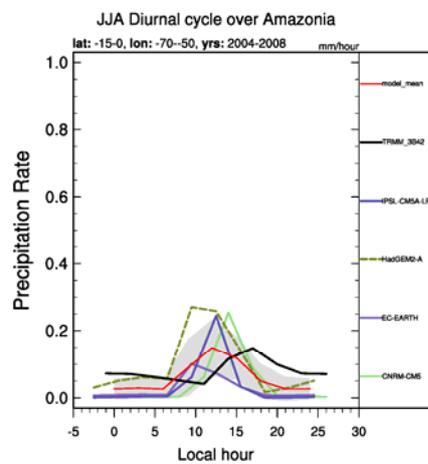
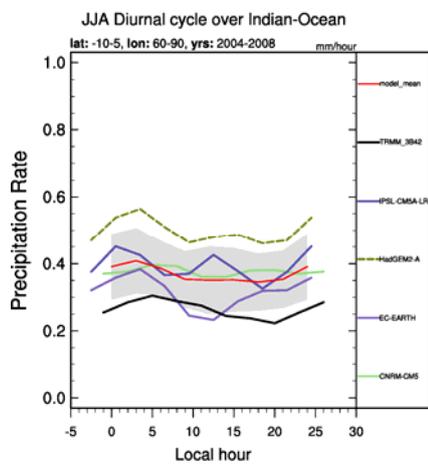
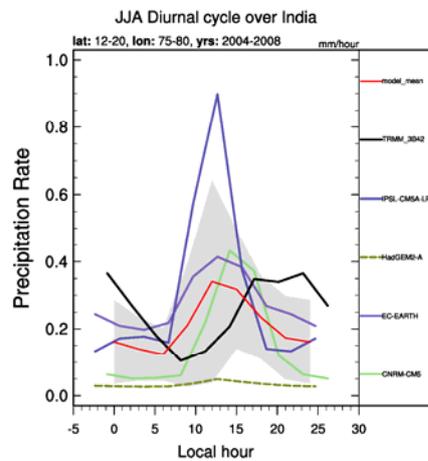
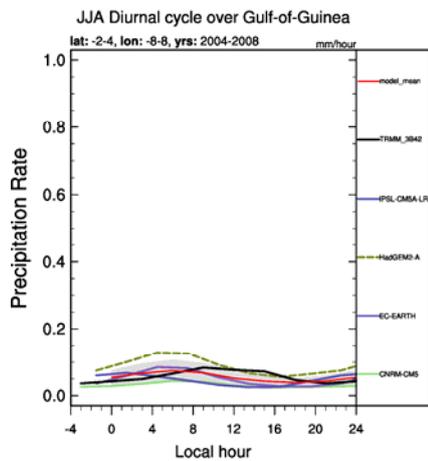
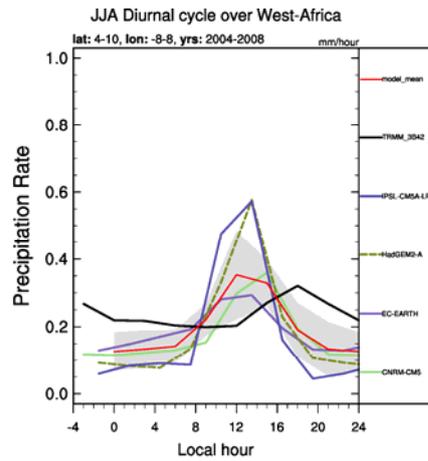
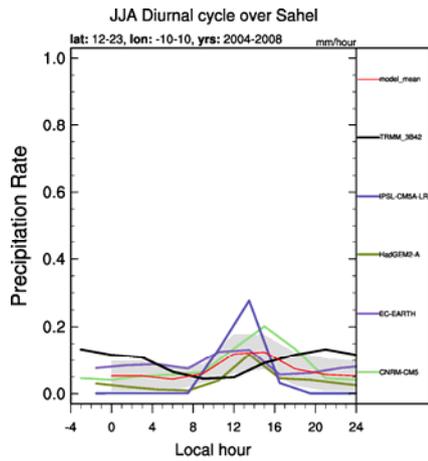
1 Figure 10. May-October wavenumber-frequency spectra of 10°S-10°N averaged precipitation (mm^2
2 day⁻²) for GPCP-1DD, [HadGEMHadGEM2-ES](#), MPI-ESM-LR and EC-[EARTHEarth](#). Individual
3 May-October spectra were calculated for each year and then averaged over all years of data. Only
4 the climatological seasonal cycle and time mean for each May-October segment were removed
5 before calculation of the spectra. The bandwidth is $(180 \text{ days})^{-1}$. The observed precipitation shows
6 the dominant MJO spatial scale is zonal wavenumber 1-3 at the 30-~~80day~~80-day frequency.
7 According to the definition, the positive frequency ~~represent~~represents eastward propagation of the
8 MJO. Compared with observations, both [HadGEMHadGEM2-ES](#) and EC-[EARTHEarth](#) models
9 have difficulties simulating precipitation variability on MJO timescales. Produced with
10 *namelist_mjo_daily.xml*.

11 |



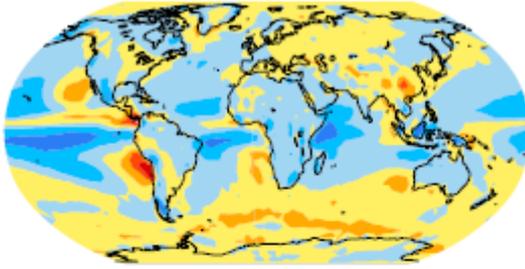
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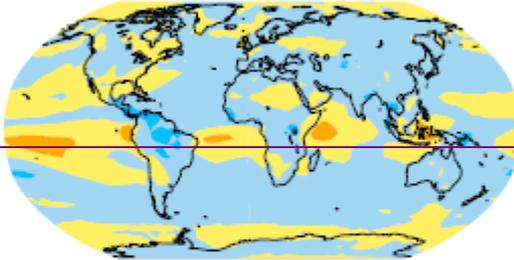


1 Figure 11. Mean diurnal cycle of precipitation (mm/hour) averaged over five summers (2004-2008)
2 over specific regions in the tropics (Sahel, West-Africa, Gulf of Guinea, India, Indian Ocean,
3 Amazonia, East-Equatorial Pacific and West-Equatorial Pacific) as observed by TRMM 3B42
4 ~~V6V7~~ and as simulated by four CMIP5 models: CNRM-CM5, EC-Earth, ~~HadGem2~~HadGEM2-A
5 and IPSL-CM5A-LR. ESMs produce a too strong peak of rainfall around noon over land while the
6 observed precipitation maximum is weaker and delayed to 6 pm. At the same time, most models
7 underestimate nocturnal precipitation. Over the ocean, the diurnal cycle of precipitation is more flat
8 but rainfall maximum usually occurs a few hours earlier than in observations during the night, and
9 the amplitude of oceanic precipitation shows large variations among models. Produced with
10 ~~namelist_~~diurnalDiurnalCycle_box_pr.xml.
11

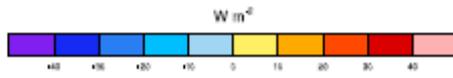
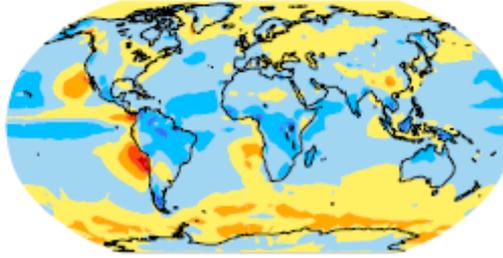
Shortwave cloud radiative effect - MOD-OBS



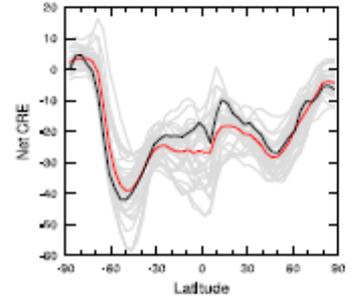
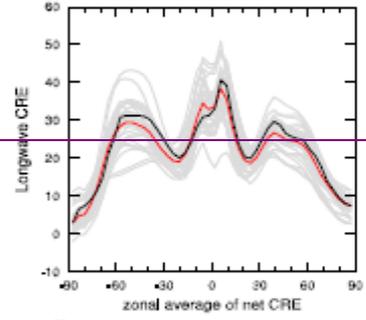
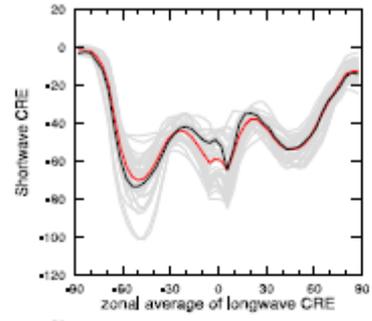
Longwave cloud radiative effect - MOD-OBS

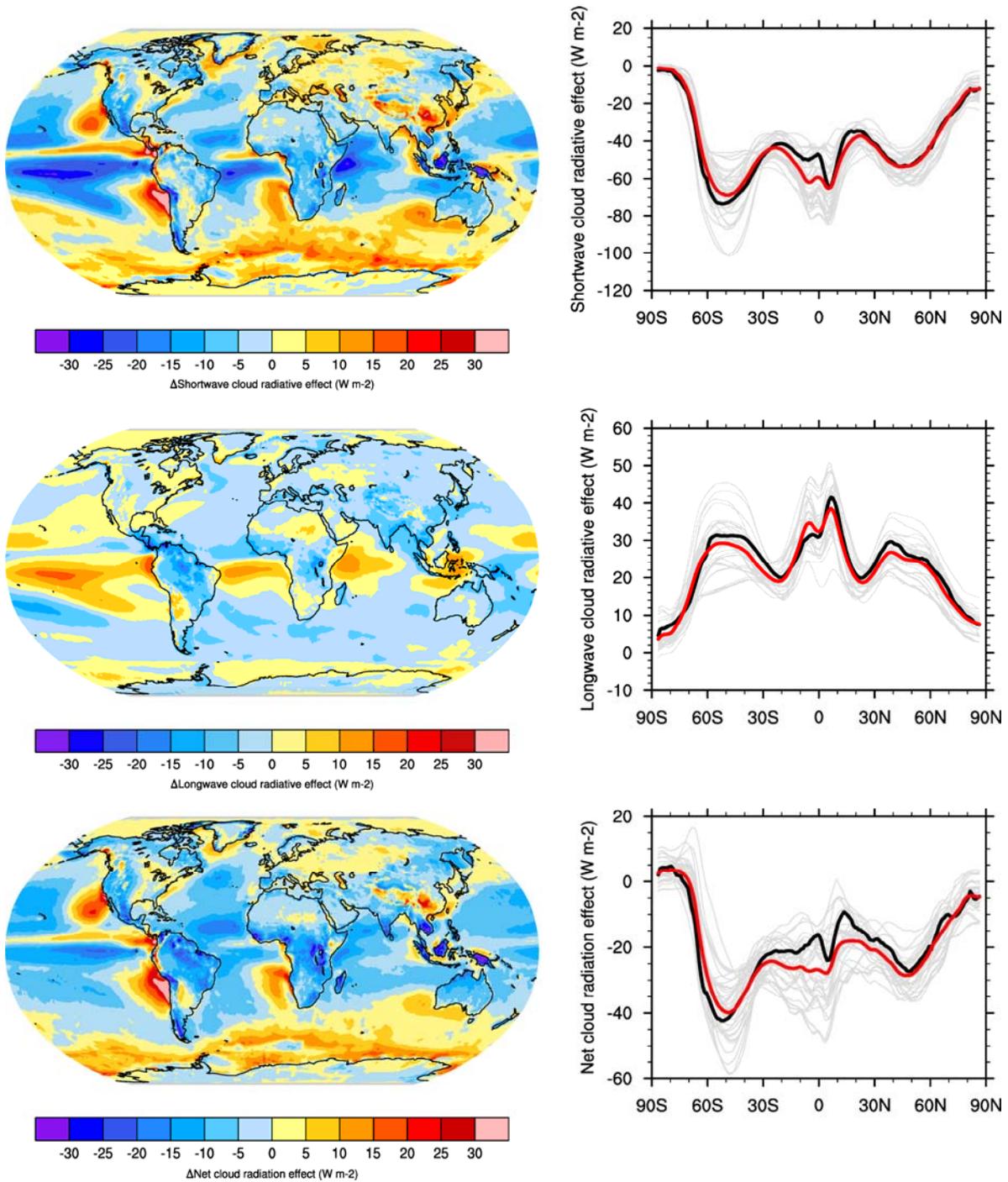


Net cloud radiative effect - MOD-OBS



zonal average of shortwave CRE





1

2 Figure 12. Climatological (1985-2005) annual-mean cloud radiative effects ~~in W m^{-2} for~~from the
 3 CMIP5 models against CERES EBAF (2001–~~2011~~2012) in W m^{-2} . Top row shows the shortwave
 4 effect; middle row the longwave effect, and bottom row the net effect. Multi-model-mean biases
 5 against CERES EBAF 2.6~~7~~ are shown on the left, whereas the right panels show zonal averages
 6 from CERES EBAF 2.6 (~~dashed black~~), CERES ES-47 (black), the individual CMIP5 models (thin
 7 grey lines), and the multi-model mean (thick red line). The multi-model mean longwave CRE is

1 overestimated in models, particularly in the Pacific and Atlantic south of the inter-tropical
2 convergence zone (ITCZ) and in the South Pacific convergence zone (SPCZ). The longwave CRE
3 is underestimated over Central and South America as well as parts of Central Africa and southern
4 Asia. The most striking biases in the multi-model mean shortwave CRE are found in the
5 stratocumulus regions off the west coasts of North and South America, southern Africa, and
6 Australia. Despite biases in component cloud properties, simulated CRE is in quite good agreement
7 with observations. ~~Reproducing Figure 9.5 of Flato et al. (2013)~~Reproducing Figure 9.5 of Flato et
8 al. (2013) and produced with *namelist_flato13ipcc.nml*.

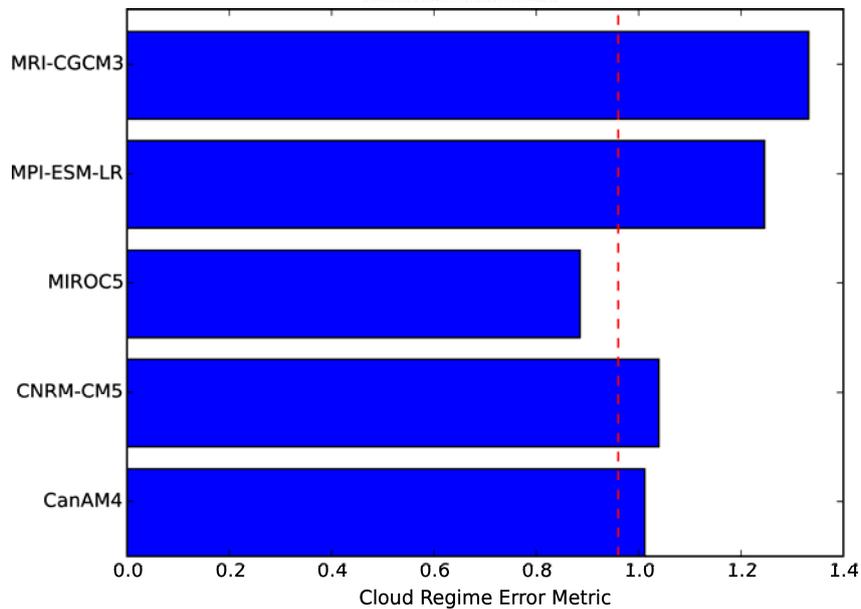
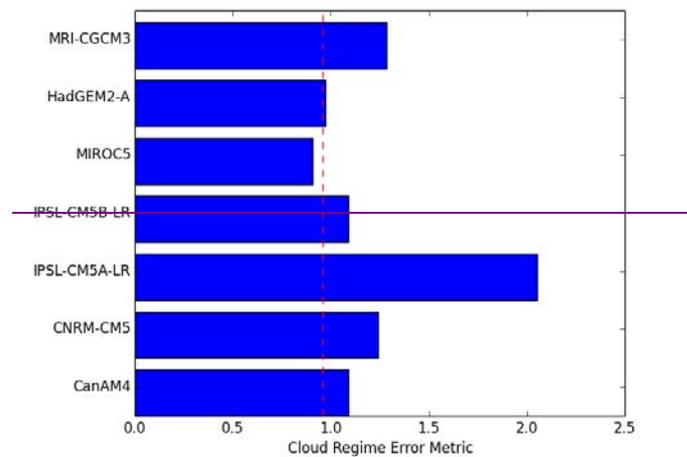
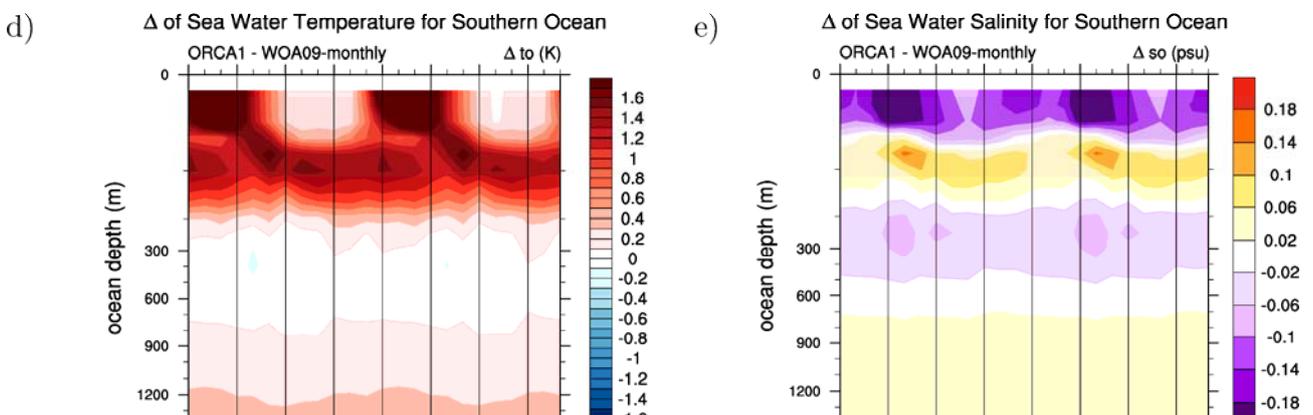
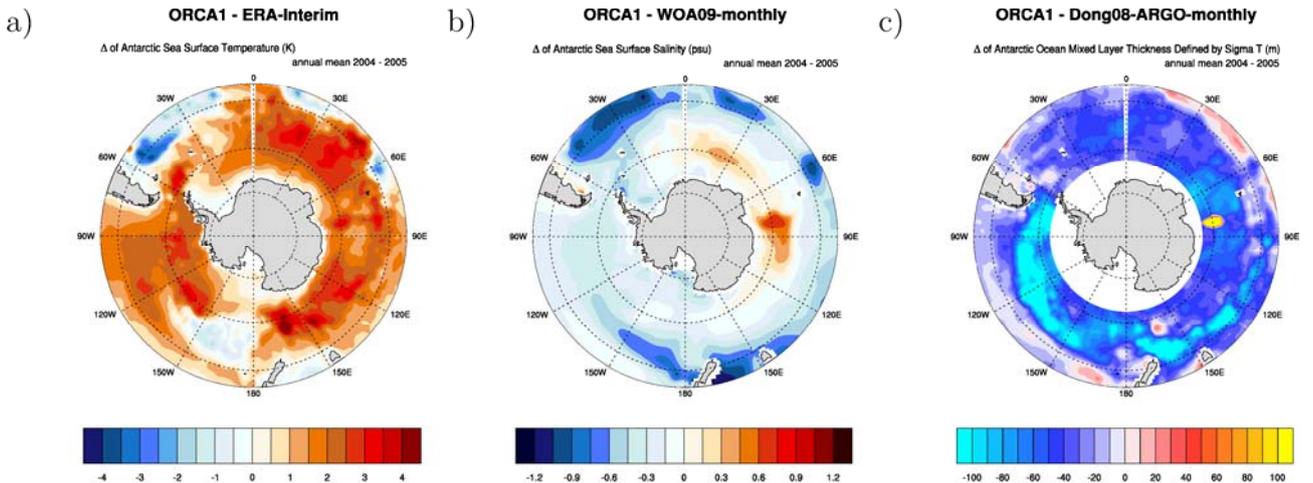
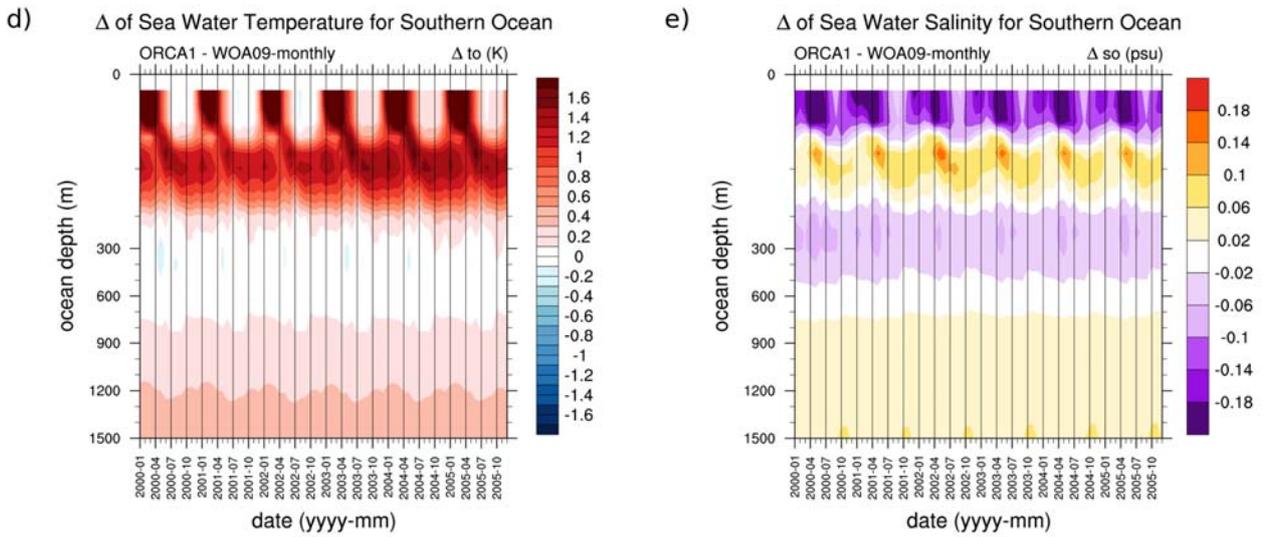
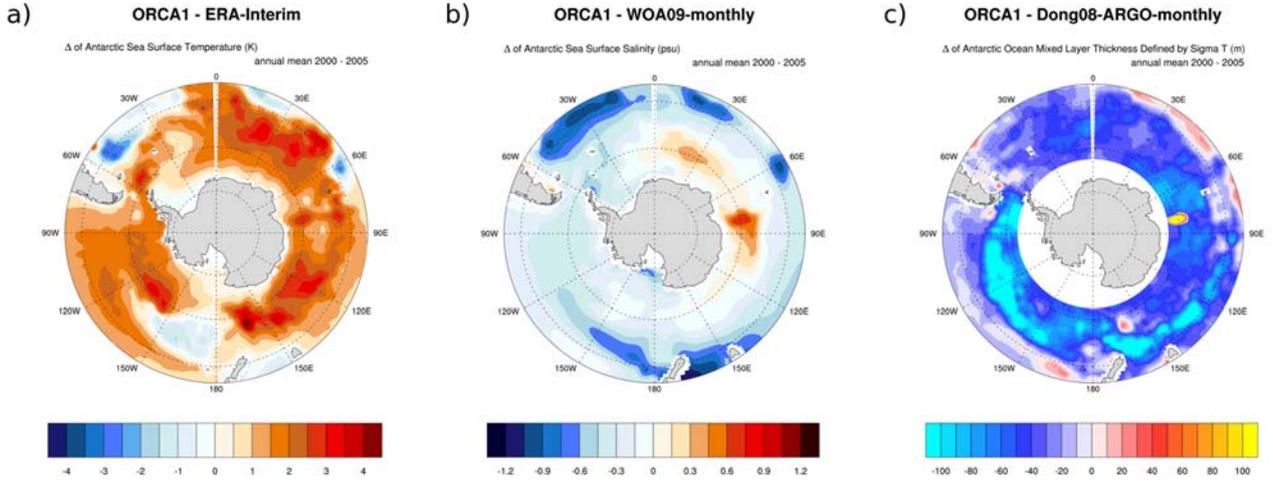


Figure 13. Cloud Regime Error Metric (CREM) from Williams and Webb (2009) applied to those some CMIP5 AMIP simulations with the required data in the archive. The results show that MIROC5 is the best performing model on this metric with HadGEM2-A also having a score comparable to the observational uncertainty. Other, other models are slightly worse and IPSL-CM5A-LR is notably deficient on this metric. The red dashed line shows the observational uncertainty estimated from applying this metric to independent data from MODIS. An advantage of the metric is that its components can be decomposed to investigate the reasons for poor performance. This requires extra print statements compared to the default code, but when this is done might help to identify, for IPSL-CM5A-LR it is found that a number of the instance, cloud regimes that are too reflective (e.g. extra-tropical shallow cumulus and transition regimes) along with the stratocumulus regime being or

1 simulated too frequently at the expense of some of the other regimes. Produced with
2 *namelist_williams09climdyn_CREM.xml*.

3

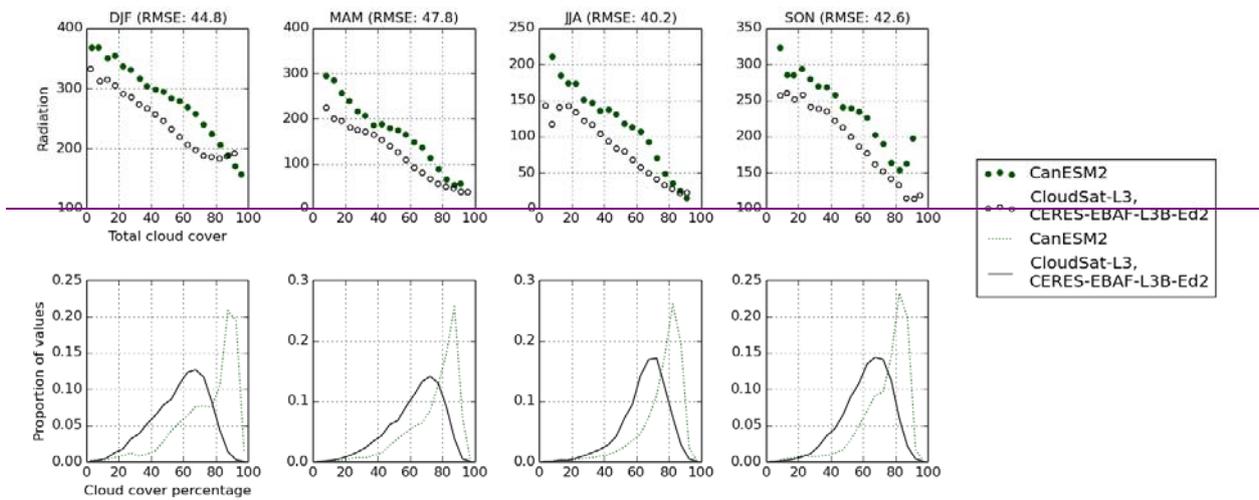


1 Figure 14. Annual-mean difference between EC-Earth/NEMO and ERA-Interim sea surface
2 temperatures (a), the World Ocean Atlas sea surface salinity (b), and the Argo float observations for
3 ocean mixed layer thickness (c), showing that in the Southern Ocean SSTs in EC-Earth are too high,
4 sea surface salinity too fresh, and the mixed layer too shallow. The other available diagnostics of
5 | the *namelist_SouthernOcean.nml* help ~~in~~ understanding these biases. Vertical sections of
6 | temperature (d) and salinity differences (e) reveal that the SST bias is mainly an austral summer
7 | problem, but also that vertical mixing is not able to penetrate a year-round existing warm layer
8 | below 80 m depth.

9 |

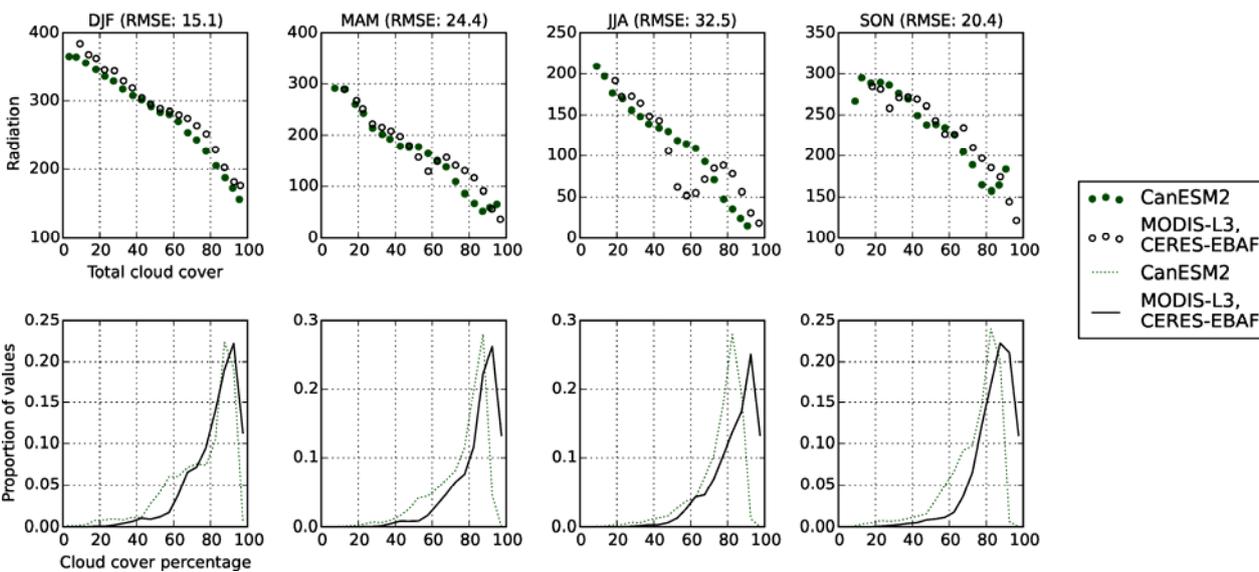
Form

Surface incoming shortwave radiation sensitivity to Total cloud cover



1

Surface incoming shortwave radiation sensitivity to Total cloud cover



2

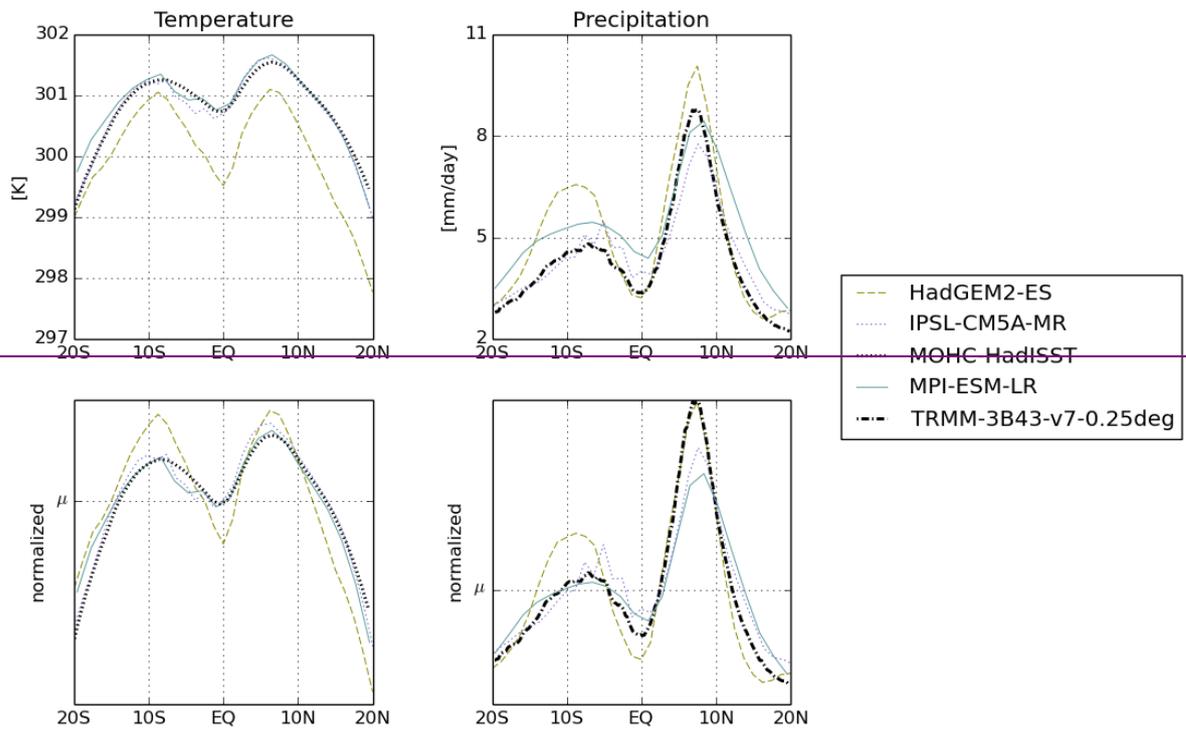
3 Figure 15. Upper panel: Covariability between incoming surface short wave radiation
 4 (rsds) and total cloud cover (clt). Lower panel: Fraction occurrence histograms of binned
 5 cloud cover: Observations are CERES-EBAF (radiation) and CloudSat (cloud cover).
 6 The CanESM2 model from the CMIP5 archive is shown as an example for comparison to
 7 observations (the namelists runs on all CMIP5 models). CanESM2 generally reproduces the
 8 observed slope of rsds as a function of clt, although there is a systematic positive bias in the amount
 9 of shortwave radiation reaching the surface for most cloud cover values. A positive bias is also seen
 10 in the CanESM2 histogram of cloud occurrence, with a strong peak in seasonal cloud fraction of

1 | 90% in most seasons. Produced with *namelist_*~~*SouthernAtmosphere*~~*SouthernHemisphere.xml*.

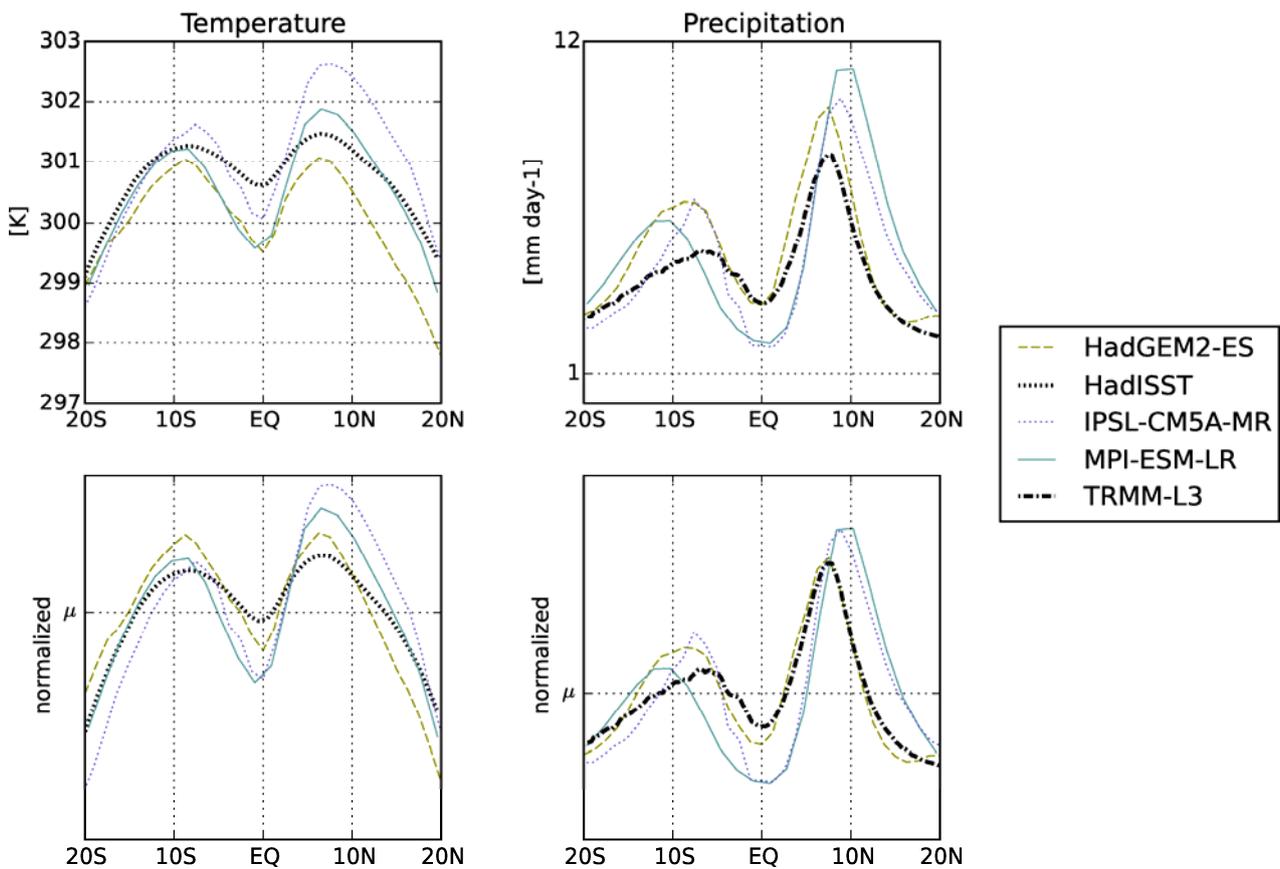
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← Form

Pacific ocean [120E:100W] seasonal mean



Pacific ocean [120E:100W] seasonal mean

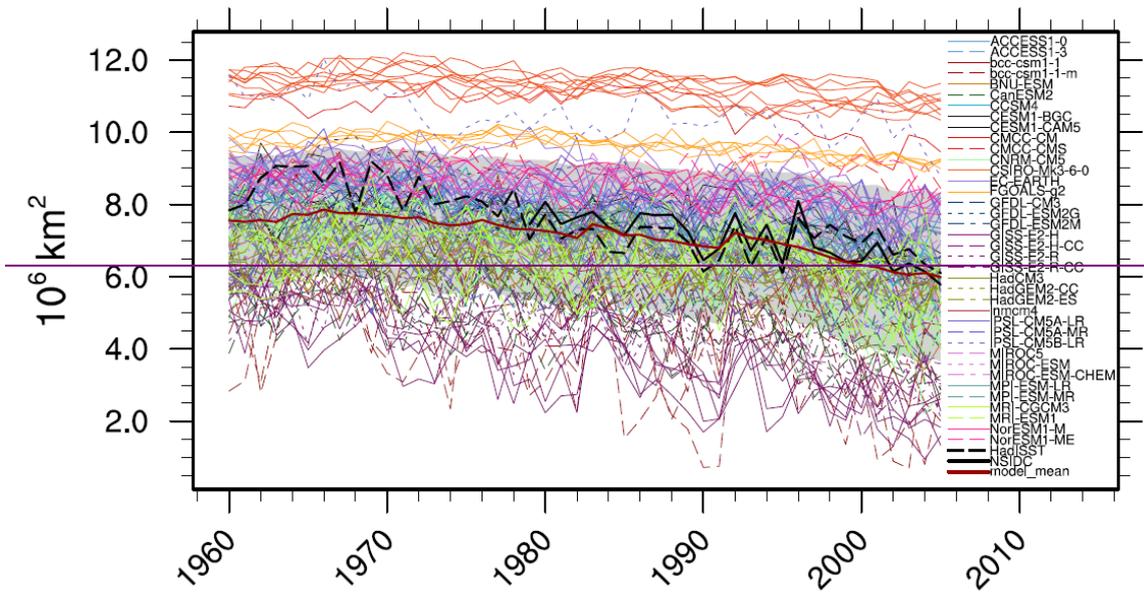


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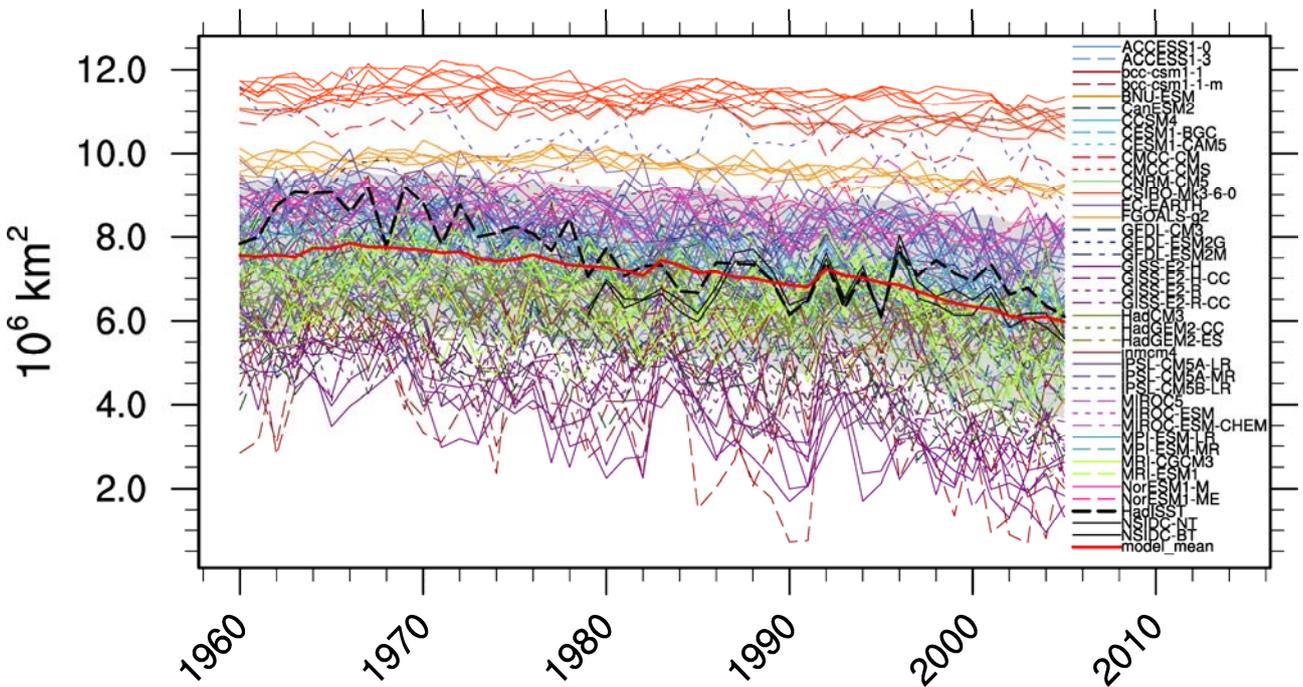
2 Figure 16. Latitude cross-section of seasonal and zonally averaged values of SSTs and precipitation
 3 for the tropical Pacific (zonal averages are made between 120°E and 100°W). Upper panel shows
 4 absolute values of SST and precipitation, lower panel shows values normalized by their respective
 5 tropical mean value (20°N to 20°S). The figure shows that HadGEM2-ES simulates a double ITCZ
 6 in the equatorial Pacific with excessive precipitation south of the equator. This bias is accompanied
 7 by off equatorial warm biases in normalized SST in both hemispheres and a relative cold bias along
 8 the equator. The IPSL-CM5A-MR and MPI-ESM-LR models better capture the SST and
 9 precipitation distributions in the tropical Pacific. Produced with *namelist_TropicalVariability.xml*.

10

September Arctic Sea Ice Extent



September Arctic Sea Ice Extent



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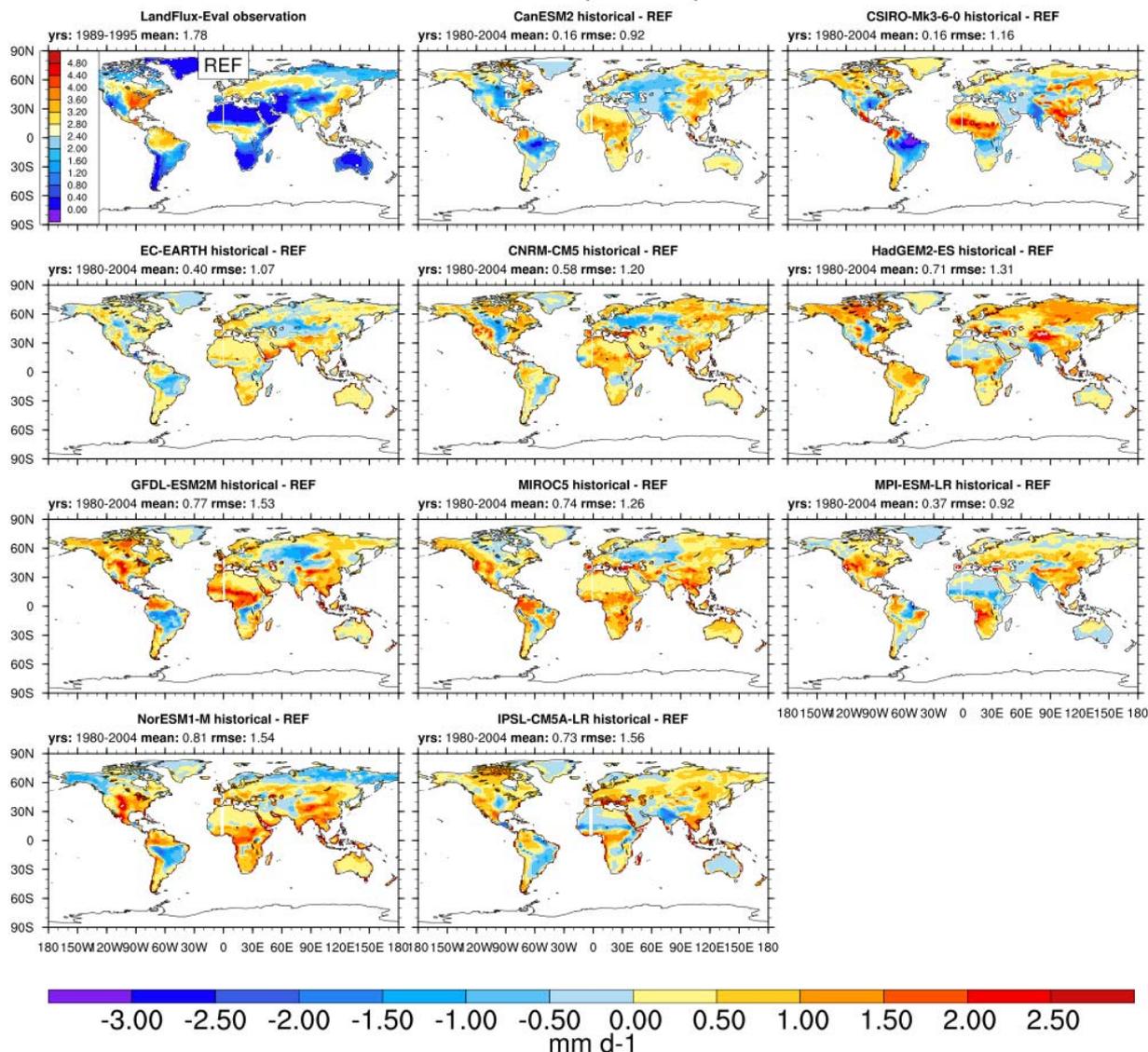
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3 Figure 17. Timeseries (1960-2005) of September mean Arctic sea_ice extent from the CMIP5
 4 historical simulations. The CMIP5 ensemble mean is highlighted in dark red and the individual
 5 ensemble members of each model (coloured lines) are shown in different linestyles. The model
 6 results are compared to observations from the NSIDC (1978-2014+2005, black solid line) and the
 7 Hadley Centre Sea ice and Sea Surface Temperature (HadISST, 1978-2014+1960-2005, black dashed
 8 line). Consistent with observations, most CMIP5 models show a downward trend in sea ice extent

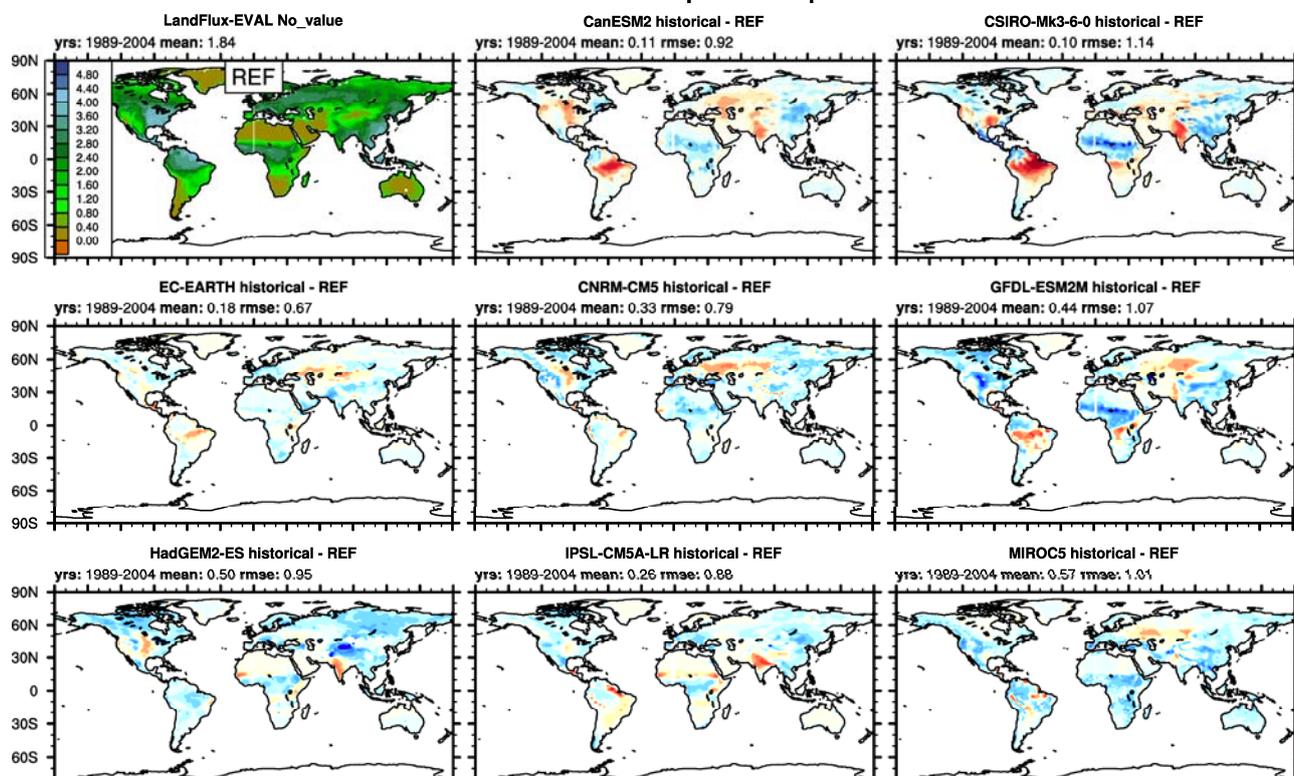
1 over the satellite era. The range in simulated sea ice is however quite large (between 3.2 and 12.1 x
2 10^6 km² at the beginning of the timeseries). The multi-model-mean lies below the observations
3 throughout the entire [timeseriestime period](#), especially after 1978, when satellite observation
4 became available. Similar to upper left panel of Figure 9.24 of (Flato et al. (2013)) and produced
5 with *namelist_SeaIce.nml*.

6

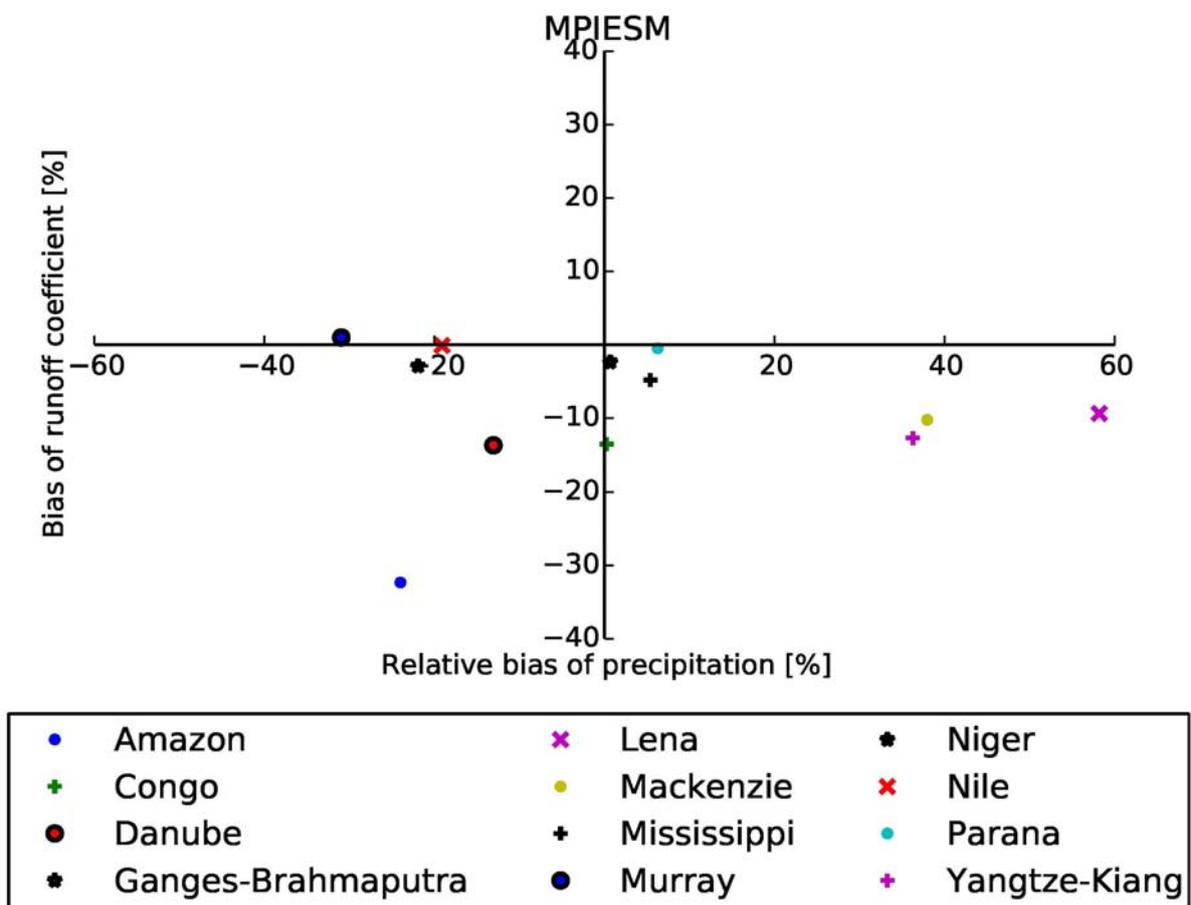
Jul-diff of Evapotranspiration



Jul-mean of Evapotranspiration

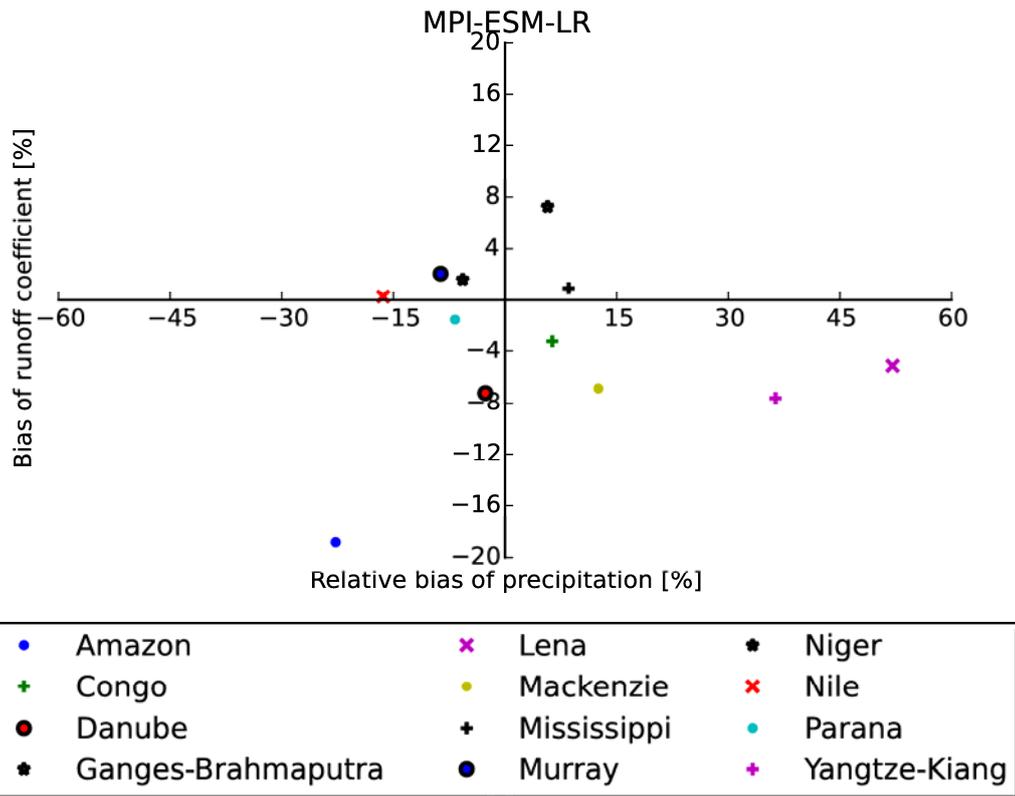


1 | Figure 18. Bias in evapotranspiration (mm/day) for July in a subset of CMIP5 models in reference
 2 | to the LandFlux-EVAL evapotranspiration product. The global mean bias is also indicated for each
 3 | model as well as the RMSE. The comparison reveals the existence of biases in July
 4 | evapotranspiration for a subset of CMIP5 models. All models overestimate evapotranspiration in
 5 | summer, especially in Europe, Africa, China, Australia, Western North America, and parts of
 6 | Amazonia. Biases of the opposite sign (underestimation in evapotranspiration) can be seen in some
 7 | other regions of the world, notably over parts of the tropics. For most regions, there is a clear
 8 | correlation between biases in evapotranspiration and precipitation (see precipitation bias in Fig. 4).
 9 | Produced with *namelist_EvapotransportEvapotranspiration.xml*.



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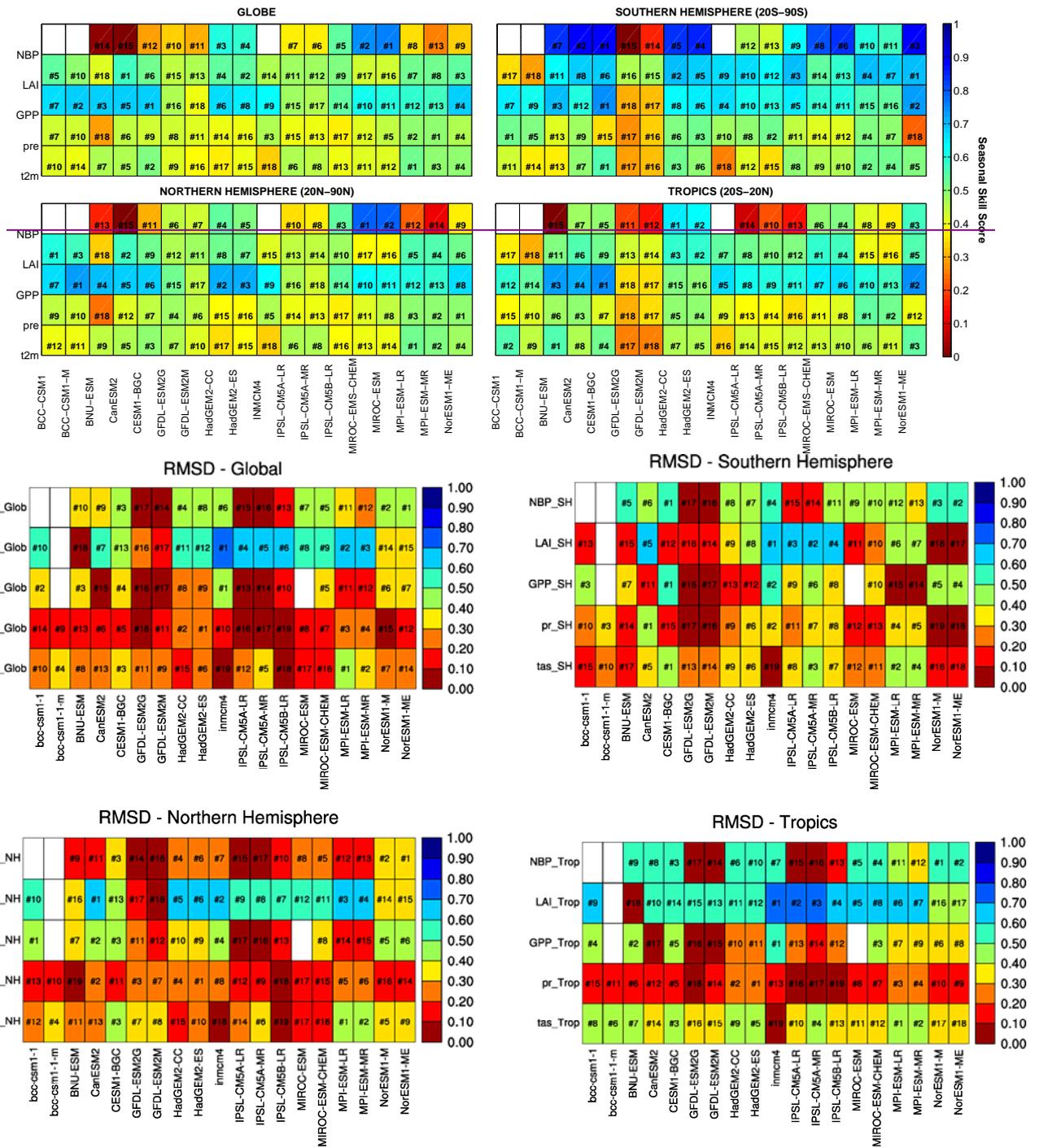


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2 Figure 19. Biases in runoff coefficient (runoff/precipitation) and precipitation for major catchments
 3 of the globe. The MPI-ESM-1.1-LR historical [simulation](#) is used as an example. Even
 4 though positive and negative precipitation biases exist for MPI-ESM-1.1-LR in the various
 5 catchment areas, the bias in the runoff coefficient is usually negative. This implies that the fraction
 6 of evapotranspiration generally tends to be overestimated by the model independently of whether
 7 precipitation has a positive or negative bias. Produced with *namelist_runoff_et.xml*.

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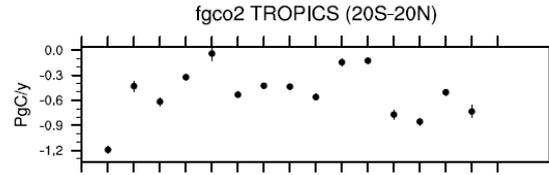
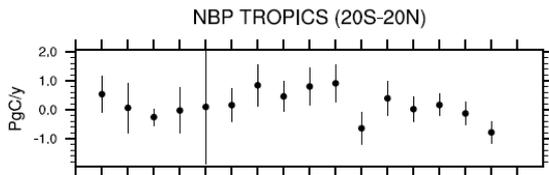
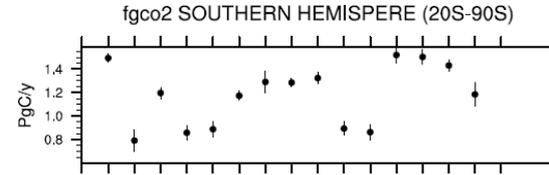
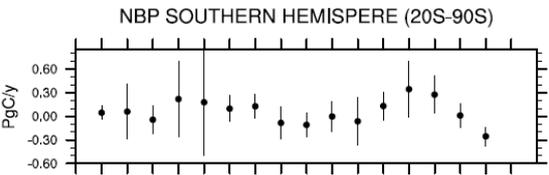
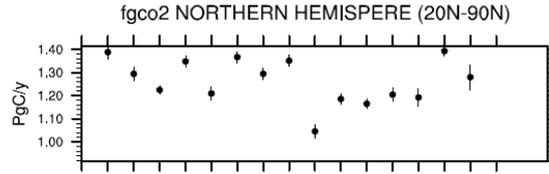
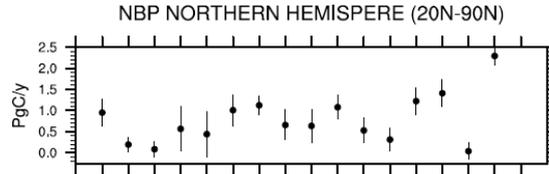
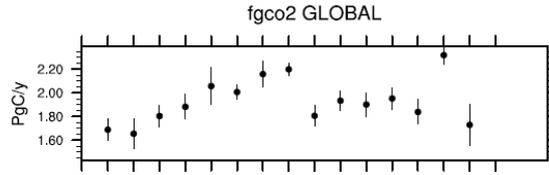
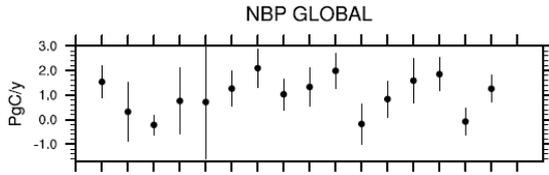


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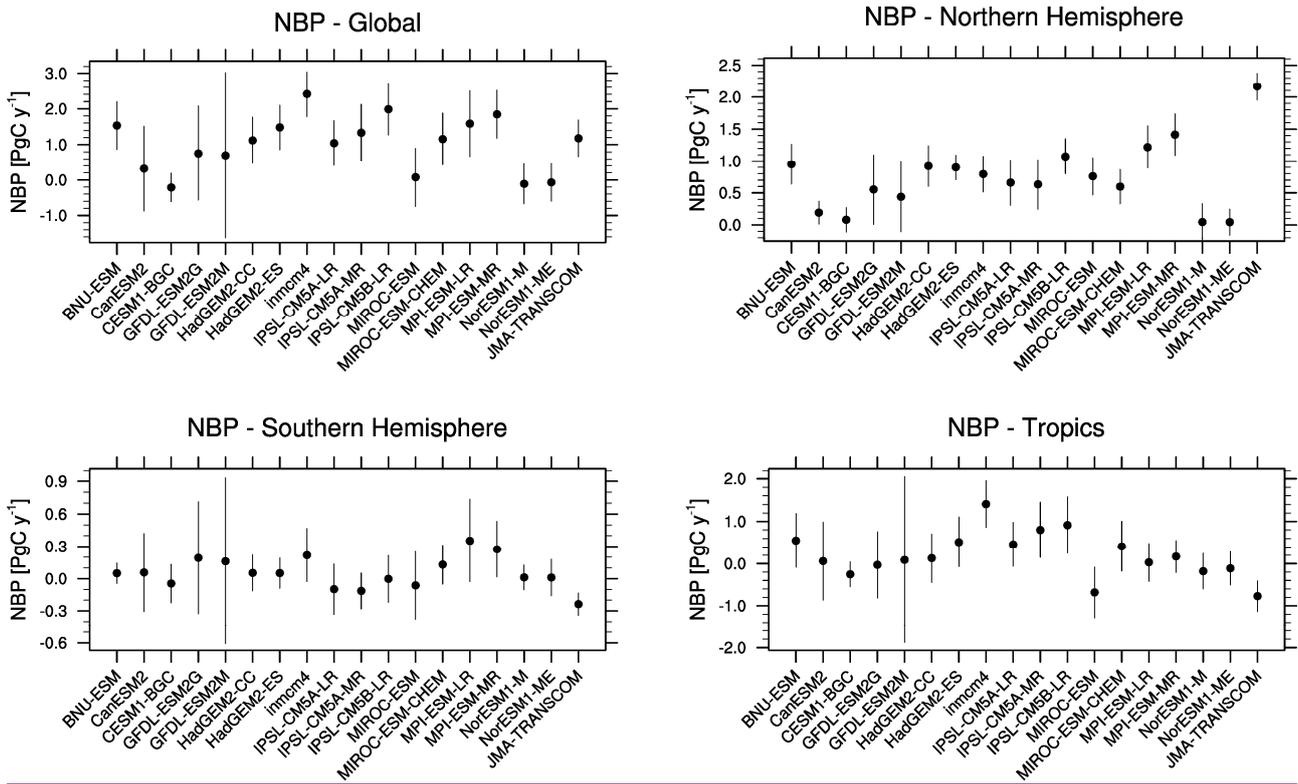
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3 Figure 20. Relative space-time RMSE calculated from the 1986–2005 climatological seasonal cycle
 4 of the CMIP5 historical simulations over different sub-domains for NBP, LAI, GPP, precipitation,
 5 and near-surface air temperature. The RMSE has been normalized with the maximum RMSE in
 6 order to have a skill score ranging between 0 and 1. A score of 0 indicates poor performance of
 7 models reproducing the phase and amplitude of the reference mean annual cycle, while a perfect
 8 score is equal to 1. The comparison suggests that there is no clearly superior model for all variables.

1 All models have significant problems in representing some key biogeochemical variables such as
2 NBP and LAI, with largest errors in the tropics mainly because of a too weak seasonality. Similar to
3 Figure 18 of Anav et al. (2013) and ~~reproduced~~produced with
4 *namelist_performetrics_CMIP5anav13jclim.xml*.
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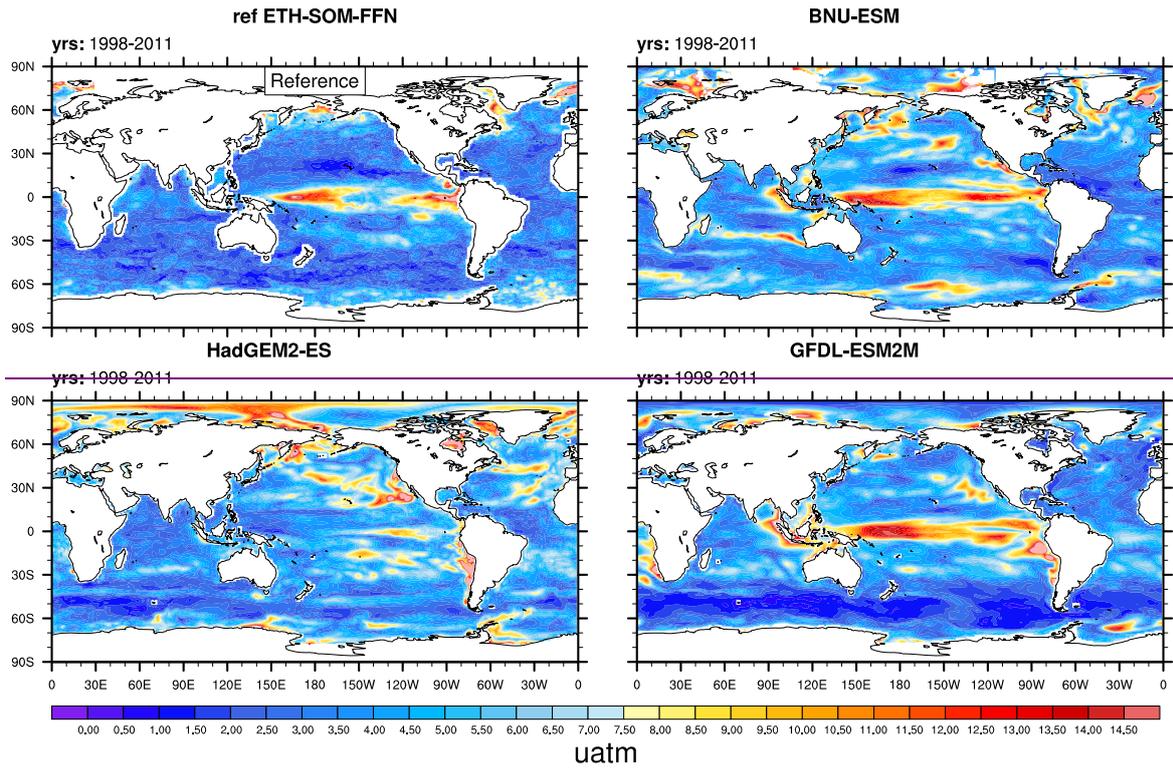
BNU_ESM
 CanESM2
 CESM1-BGC
 GFDL_ESM2G
 GFDL_ESM2M
 HadGEM2-CC
 HadGEM2-ES
 IPSL-CM5A-LR
 IPSL-CM5A-MR
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 MIROC-ESM-CHEM
 MPI-ESM-LR
 MPI-ESM-MR
 NorESM1-ME
 JMA



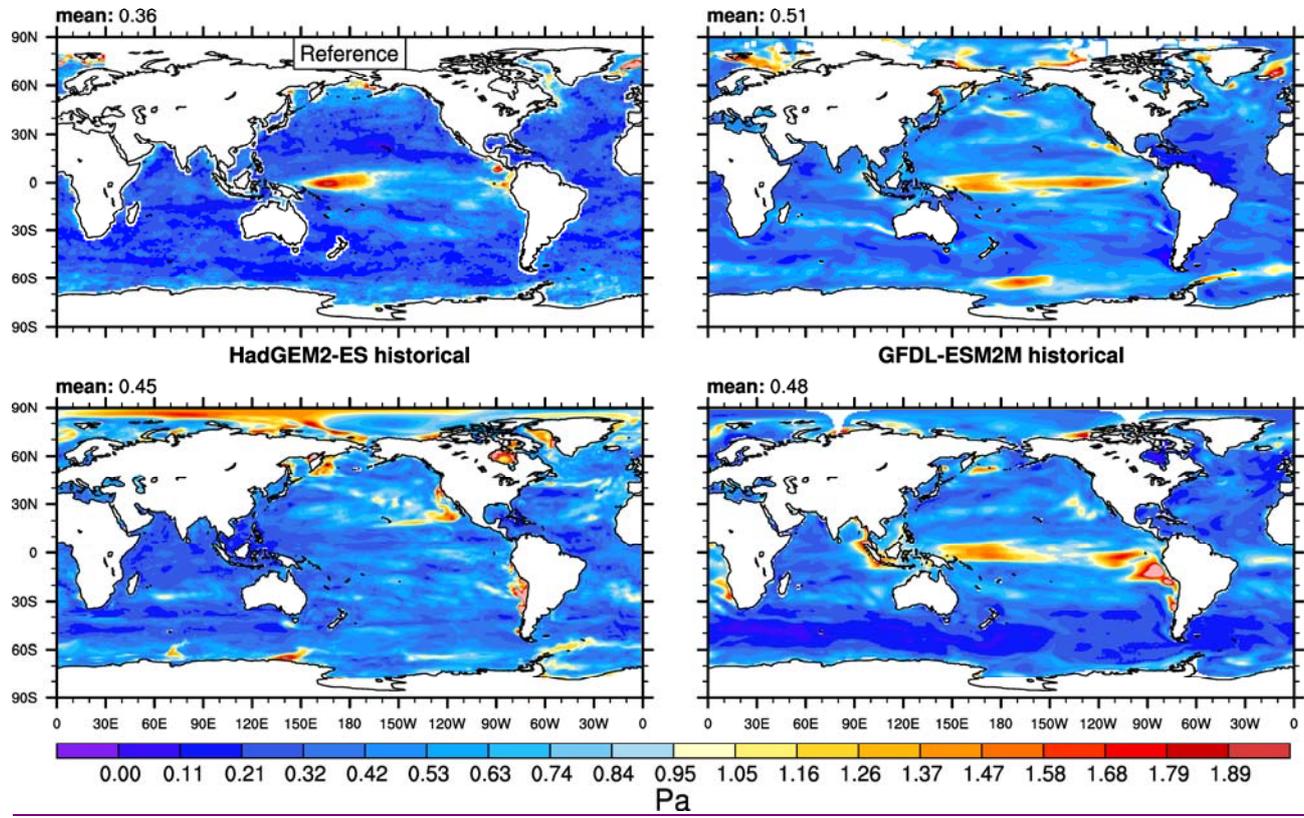
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Figure 21. Error-bar plot showing the 1986-2005 CMIP5 integrated NBP (left) and ocean atmosphere carbon fluxes (fgeo2, right) over the for different land and ocean subdomains, respectively. Positive values in of NBP and fgeo2 correspond to land and ocean uptake, respectively, and vertical bars are computed considering the interannual variation. The models are compared to JMA inversion estimates. The models' range is very large and results show that ESMs fail to accurately reproduce the global net land CO₂ flux (NBP, left). In general, ESMs simulate global ocean atmosphere CO₂ fluxes (fgeo2, right) that are comparable to the inversions and GCP estimates. At the hemispheric scale, there is no clear bias common in most ESMs, except in the tropics where models simulate a lower CO₂ source than that estimated by the inversion. Reproducing Figures Figure 6 and 14 of Anav et al. (2013) and produced with namelist_anav13jclim.xml.

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JFMAMJJASOND-mean of stddev of Surface ocean pCO2



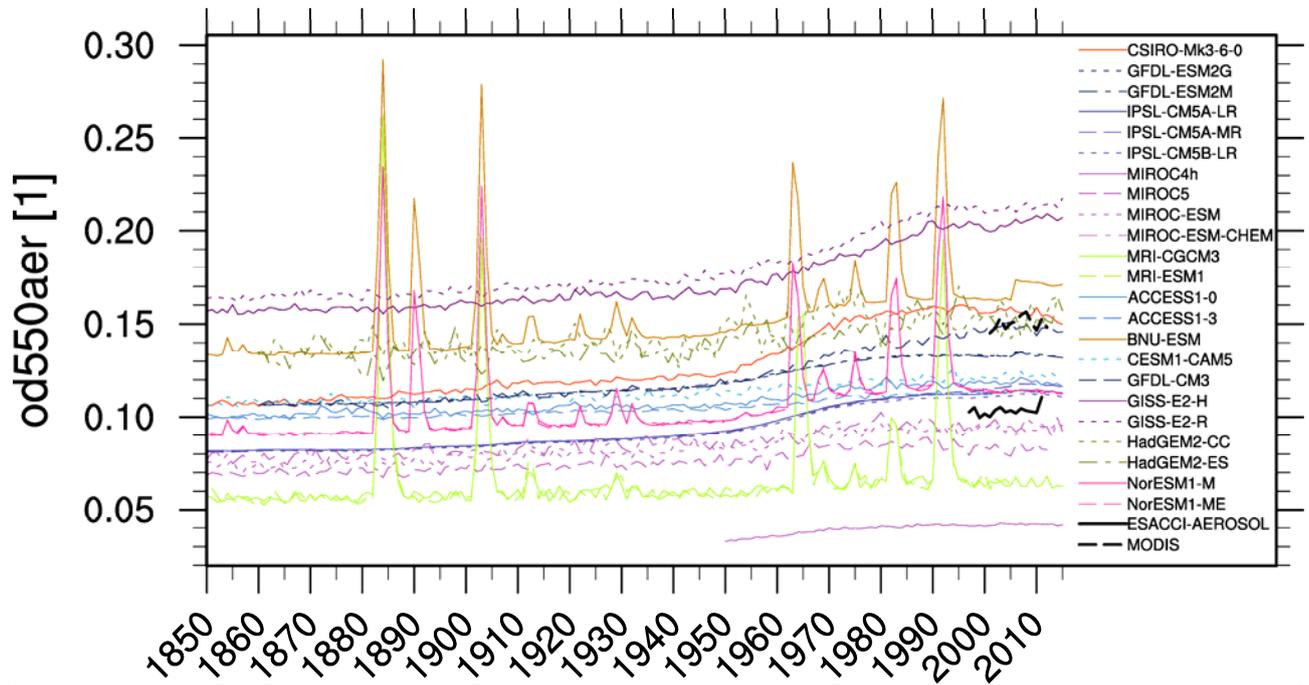
1 | Figure 22. Inter-annual variability in de-trended annual mean surface $p\text{CO}_2$ (μatmPa) for the period
2 | 1998—2011 from an observation-based reference product (ETH-SOM-FFN; upper left) and three
3 | CMIP5 models- (1992-2005). The spatial structure of inter-annual variability differs between
4 | individual CMIP5 ESMs, however both BNU-ESM and GFDL-ESM2M are able to reproduce
5 | pronounced ($>10 \mu\text{atm}$) variability in surface ocean $p\text{CO}_2$ within the Equatorial Pacific, primarily
6 | associated with ENSO variability (Rodenbeck et al., 2014). Produced with
7 | *namelist_GlobalOcean.xml*.

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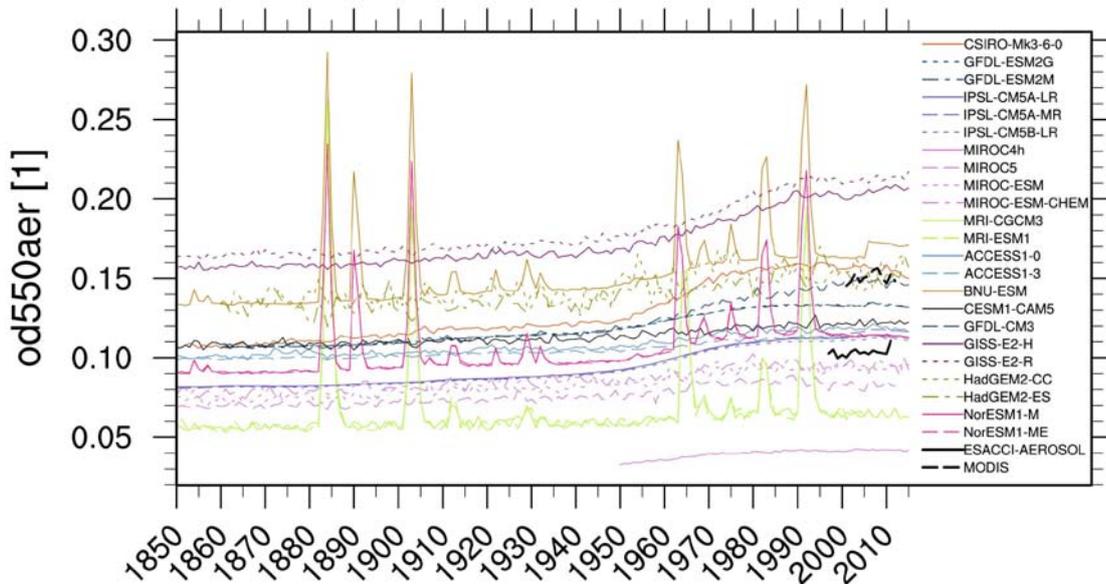
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Ambient Aerosol Optical Thickness at 550 nm



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Ambient Aerosol Optical Thickness at 550 nm



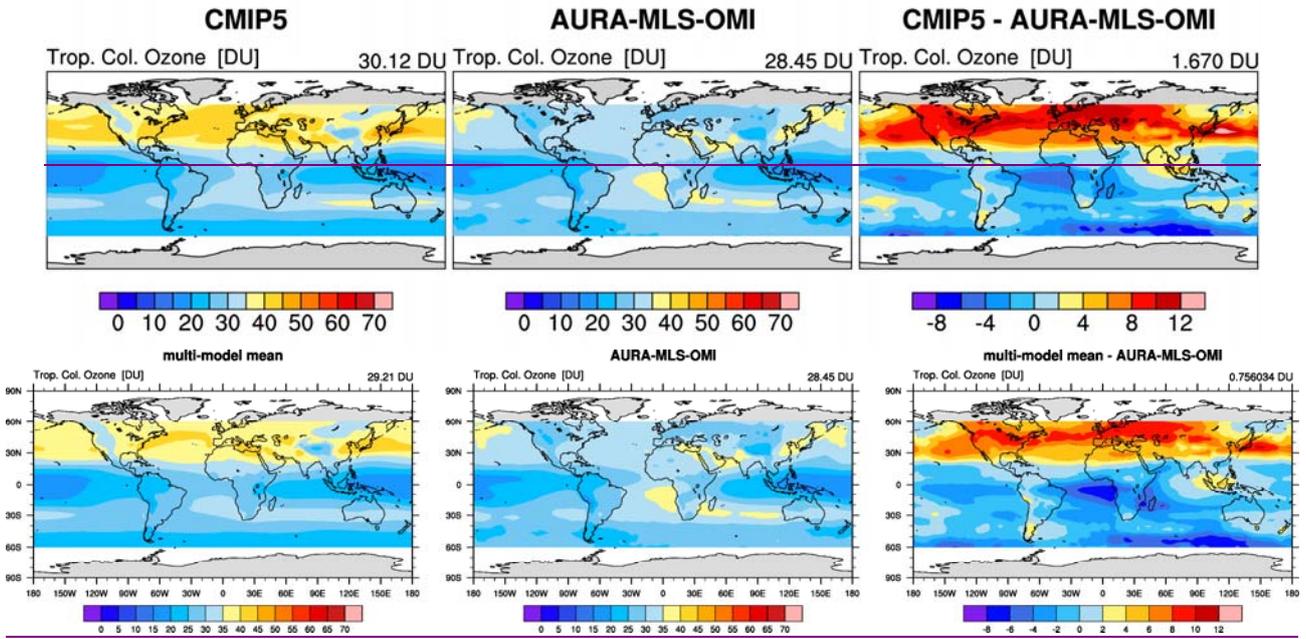
1 | Figure 23. Timeseries of global oceanic mean aerosol optical depth (AOD) from individual CMIP5
 2 | models' historical (1850–2005) and RCP 4.5 (2006–2010) simulations, compared with MODIS and
 3 | ESACCI-AEROSOL satellite data. All models simulate a positive trend in AOD starting around
 4 | 1950. Some models also show distinct AOD peaks in response to major volcanic eruptions, e.g. El
 5 | Chichon (1882) and Pinatubo (1991). The models simulate quite a wide range of AODs, between
 6 | 0.05 and 0.20 in 2010, which largely deviates from the observed values from MODIS and ESACCI-
 7 | AEROSOL. A significant difference, however, existexists also between the two satellite data setsets
 8 | (about 0.05), indicating an observational uncertainty. Similar to Figure 9.29 of (Flato et al. (2013))
 9 | and produced with `namelist_aerosol_CMIP5.xml`.

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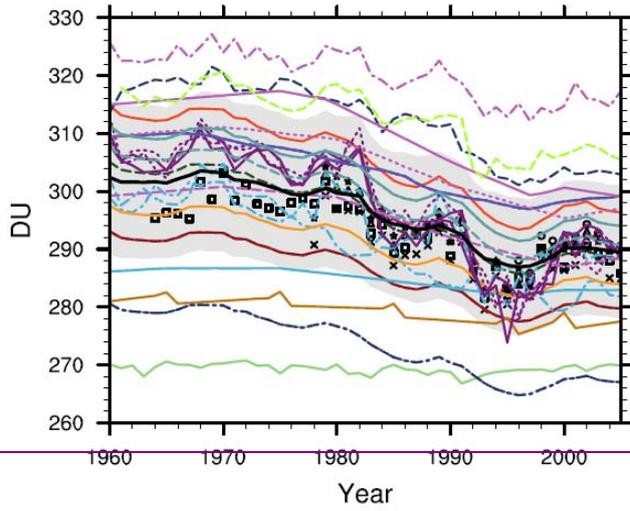
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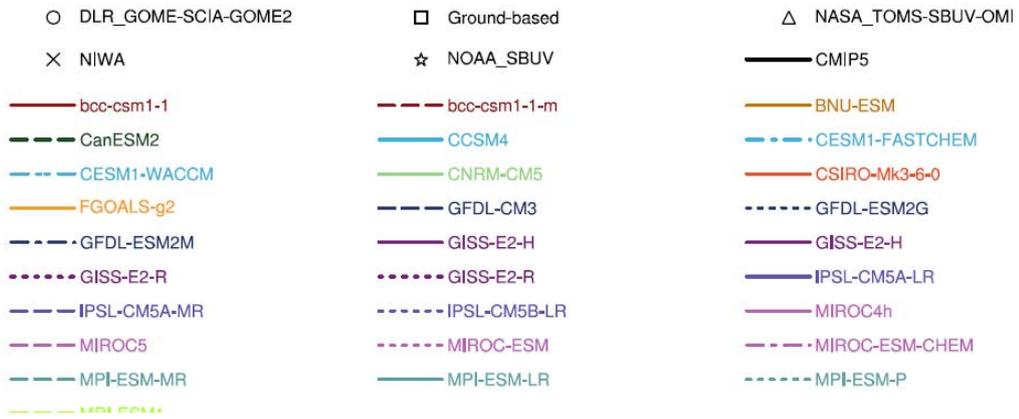
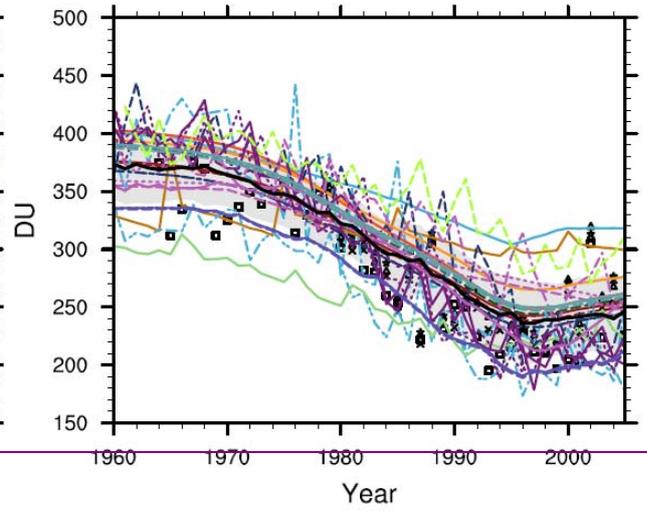
3 Figure 24. Climatological mean annual mean tropospheric column ozone averaged between 2000
 4 and 2005 from the CMIP5 historical simulations compared to MLS/OMI observations- (2005-
 5 2012). The values on top of each panel show the global (area-weighted) average, calculated after
 6 regridding the data to the horizontal grid of the model and ignoring the grid cells without available
 7 observational data. The comparison shows a high bias in tropospheric column ozone in the Northern
 8 Hemisphere and a low bias in the Southern Hemisphere in the CMIP5 multi-model mean. Similar to
 9 Figure 13 of Righi et al. (2015) and produced with *namelist_righi15gmd_tropo3.xml*.

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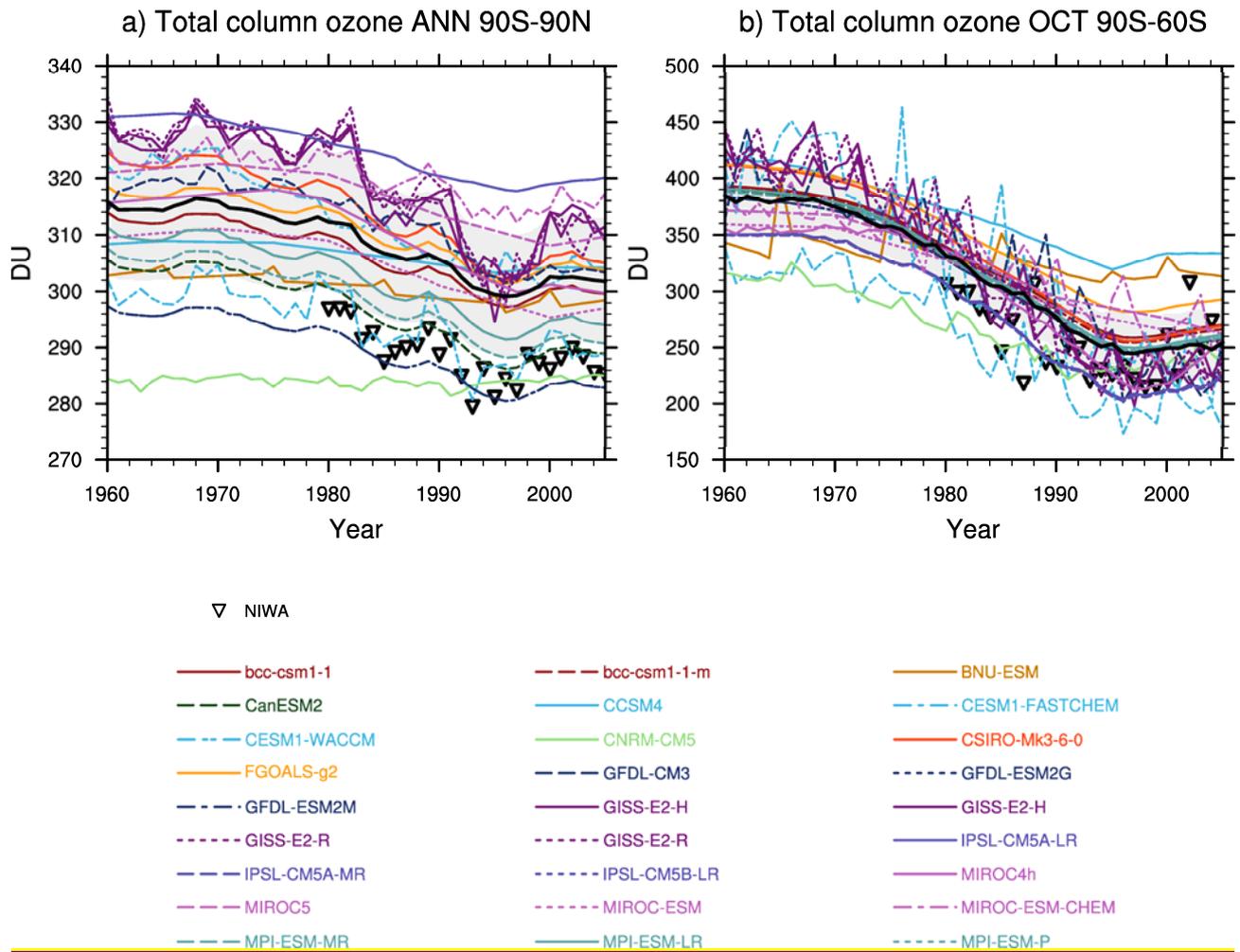
a) Total column ozone ANN 90S-90N



b) Total column ozone OCT 90S-60S



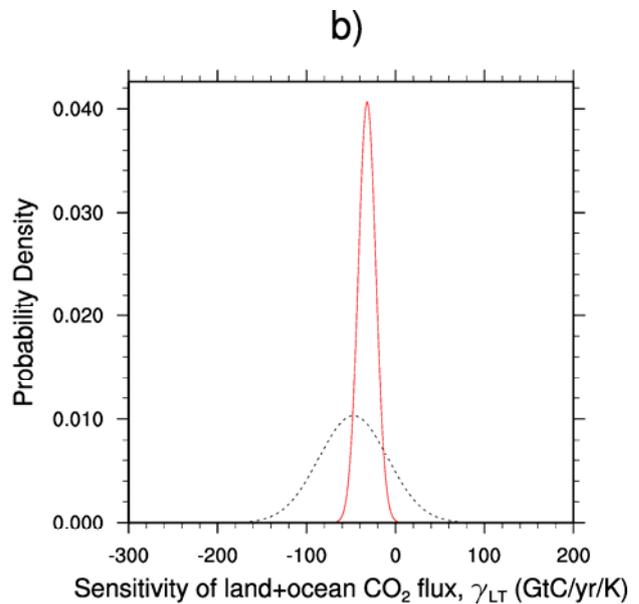
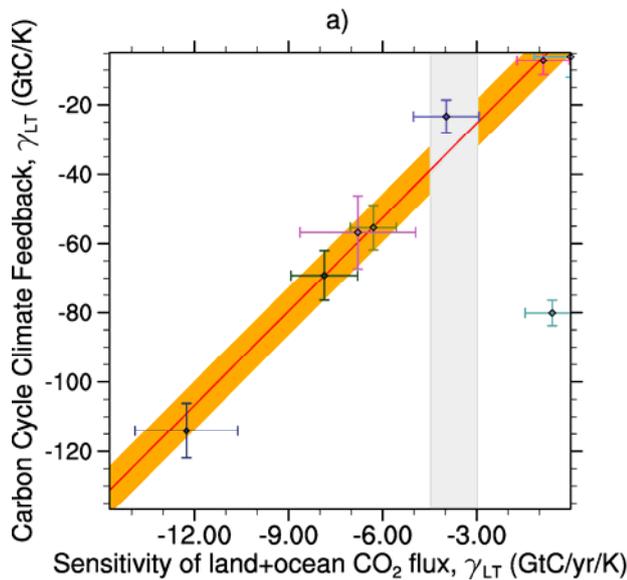
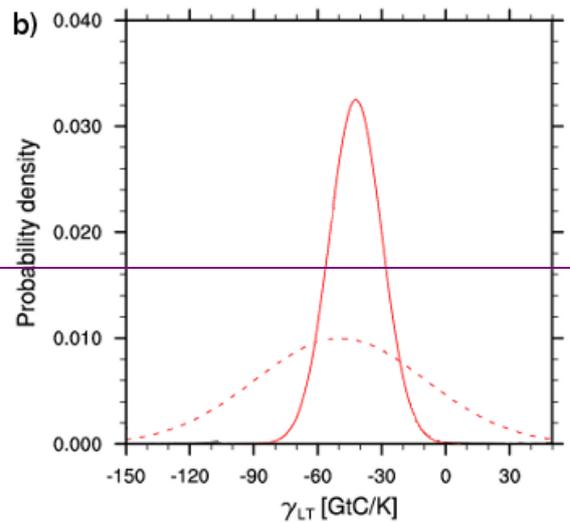
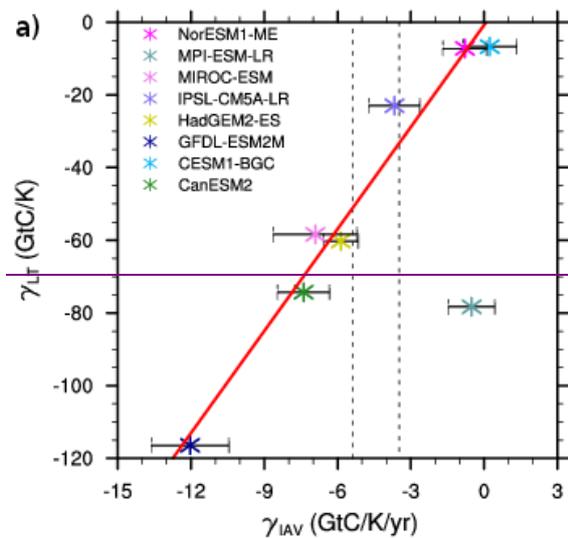
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Figure 25. Total column ozone time series for (a) annual global and (b) Antarctic October mean. CMIP5 models are shown in coloured lines and the multi-model mean in thick black, their standard deviation as grey shaded area, and observations from ~~five different sources~~NIWA (black ~~symbol~~triangles). The CMIP5 multi-model mean is in good agreement with observations, but significant deviations exist for individual models with interactive chemistry. ~~Based on Fig.2 of Eyring et al. (2013)~~Based on Figure 2 of Eyring et al. (2013) and reproducing Figure 9.10 of (Flato et al. (2013)), with *namelist_eyring13jgr.xml*.

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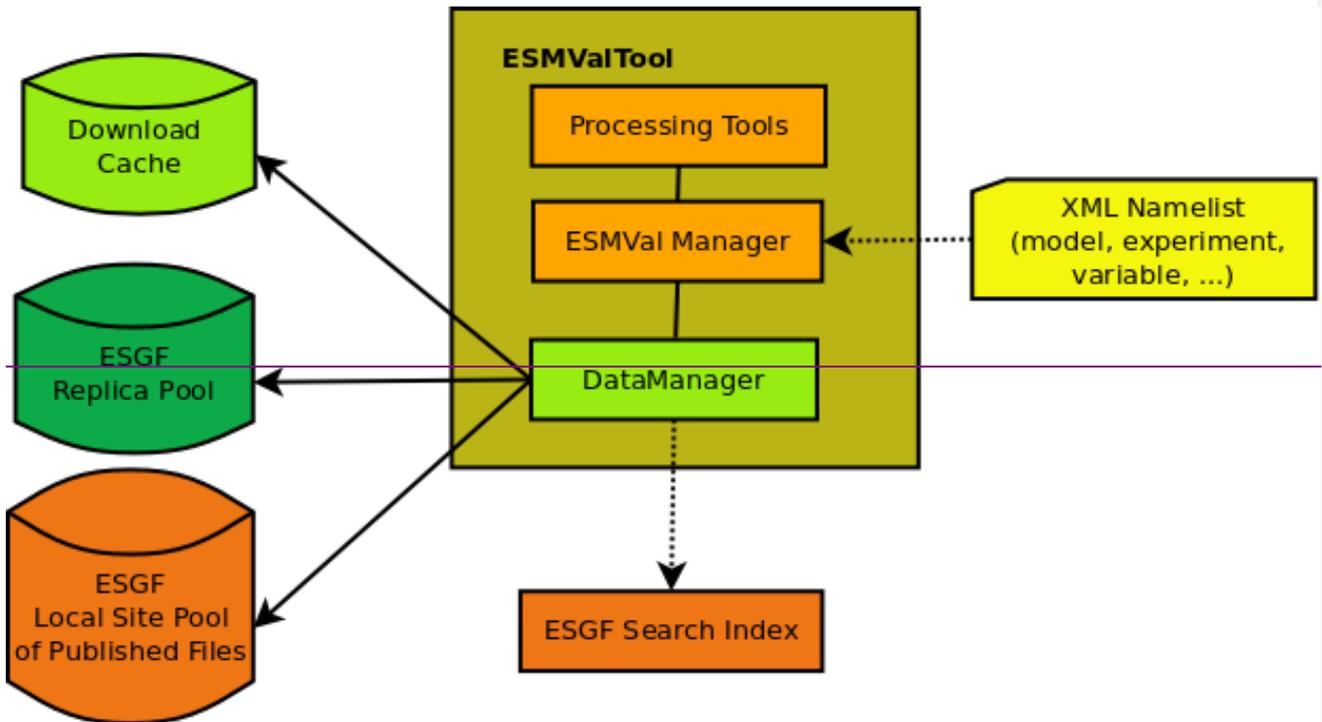


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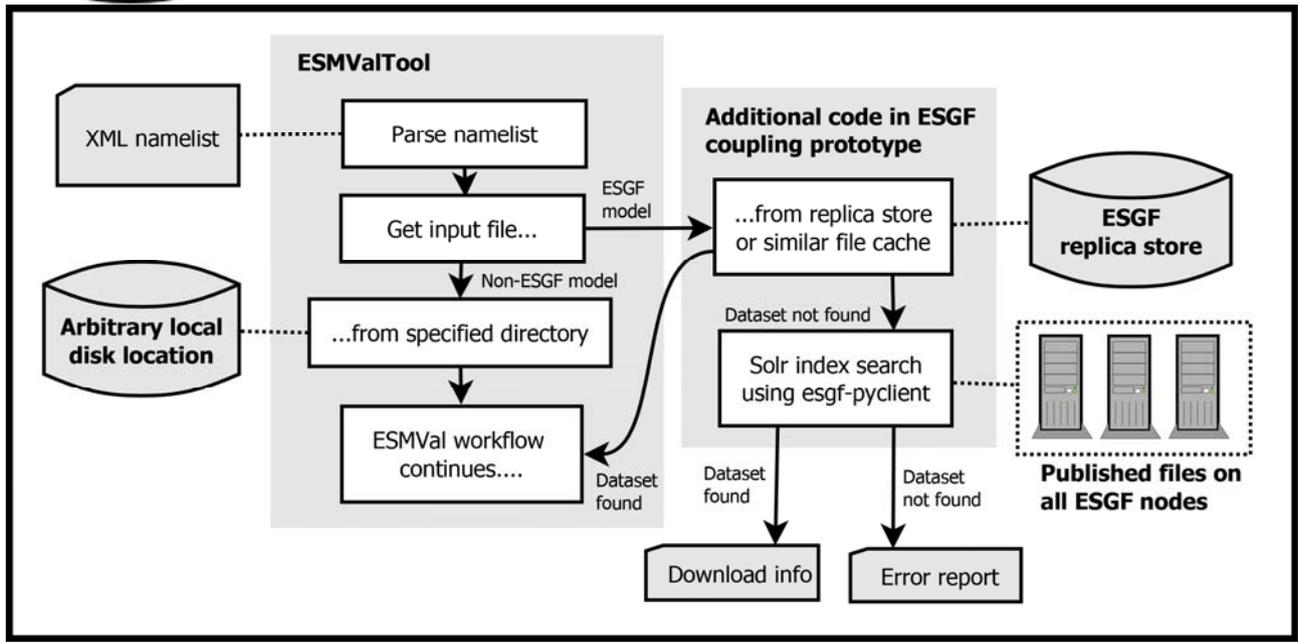
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3 Figure 26. (a) The carbon cycle-climate feedback (γ_{LT}) versus the short-term sensitivity of
 4 atmospheric CO_2 to interannual temperature variability (γ_{IAV}) in the tropics for CMIP5 models. The
 5 red line shows the best fit line across the CMIP5 simulations and the vertical dashed lines show the
 6 observed range of γ_{IAV} . (b) probability distribution function (PDF) for γ_{LT} . The solid line is derived
 7 after applying the interannual variability (IAV) constraint to the models while the dashed line is the
 8 prior PDF derived purely from the models before applying the IAV constraint. The results show a
 9 tight correlation between γ_{LT} and γ_{IAV} that enables the projections to be constrained with
 10 observations. The conditional PDF sharpens the range of γ_{LT} to -44 ± 14 GtC/K compared to the
 11 unconditional PDF which is $(-49 \pm 40$ GtC/K). [Similar to Figure 9.45 of Flato et al. \(2013\)](#)
 12 [Similar to Figure 9.45 of Flato et al. \(2013\)](#) and reproducing the CMIP5 model results from Figure 5 of
 13 (Wenzel et al. (2014)) with *namelist_wenzel14jgr.xml*.

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3 Figure 27. Schematic overview of the coupling of the ESMValTool to the ESGF.

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