



# Evaluating Simulated Climate Patterns from the CMIP Archives Using Satellite and Reanalysis Datasets

John T. Fasullo<sup>1</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup>National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO, 80302, USA

*Correspondence to:* John T. Fasullo (fasullo@ucar.edu)

## Abstract.

10 An objective approach is presented for scoring coupled climate simulations through an evaluation against satellite and reanalysis datasets during the satellite era (i.e. since 1979). Here, the approach is described and applied to available Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) archives and the Community Earth System Model Version 1 Large Ensemble archives, with the goal of benchmarking model performance and its evolution across CMIP generations. The approach adopted is designed to minimize the sensitivity of scores to internal variability, external forcings, and model tuning. Toward this end, models are scored based on pattern correlations of their simulated mean state, seasonal contrasts, and ENSO  
15 teleconnections. A broad range of feedback-relevant fields is considered and summarized on various timescales (climatology, seasonal, interannual) and physical realms (energy budget, water cycle, dynamics). Fields are also generally chosen for which observational uncertainty is small compared to model structural differences and error.

20 Highest mean variable scores across models are reported for well-observed fields such as sea level pressure, precipitable water, and outgoing longwave radiation while the lowest scores are reported for 500 hPa vertical velocity, net surface energy flux, and precipitation minus evaporation. The fidelity of CMIP models is found to vary widely both within and across CMIP generations. Systematic increases in model fidelity across CMIP generations are identified with the greatest improvements in dynamic and energetic fields. Examples include 500 hPa eddy geopotential height and relative humidity, and shortwave cloud forcing. Improvements for ENSO scores are substantially greater than for the annual mean or seasonal contrasts.

25 Analysis output data generated by this approach is made freely available online for a broad range of model ensembles, including the CMIP archives and various single-model large ensembles. These multi-model archives allow for an exploration of relationships between metrics across a range of simulations while the single-model large ensemble archives enable an estimation of the influence of internal variability on reported scores. The entire output archive, updated regularly, can be  
30 accessed at: <http://webext.cgd.ucar.edu/Multi-Case/CMAT/index.html>.



## 1 Introduction

Global climate models were first developed over half a century ago (Hunt et al. 1968, Manabe et al. 1975) and have provided insight into the climate system on a range of issues including the roles of various physical processes in the climate system and the attribution of climate events. They also are key tools for near-term initialized prediction and long-term boundary forced projections. Given their relevance for addressing issues of considerable socioeconomic importance, climate models are increasing being looked to for guiding policy-relevant decisions on long timescales and on regional levels. Many barriers exist however, chief amongst which are the biases in climate model representation of the physical system.

Adequate evaluation of climate models is nontrivial however. A key obstacle is that the longest observational records tend to monitor temperature and sea level pressure and therefore are not directly related to many of the fields thought to govern climate variability and change, such as for example cloud radiative forcing and rainfall (Burrows et al. 2018). Global direct observations of more physically relevant fields exist but are available exclusively from satellite and thus are limited in duration, with some of the most important data records beginning in recent decades. Over longer timescales, uncertainties in forcing external to the climate system further complicate model evaluation. Benchmarks of model performance must therefore be designed to deal with associated uncertainty by minimizing their influence.

### 1.1 Motivations

Climate modeling centers continually refine their codes with the goal of improving their models. The Climate Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) is an effort to systematically coordinate and release targeted climate model experiments of high interest in the science community and has thus far provided three major releases, including CMIP3 (Meehl et al. 2007), CMIP5 (Taylor et al. 2012), and CMIP6 versions (Eyring et al. 2016). Major advances have also recently been made in key observationally-based climate datasets (as discussed herein). An opportunity has therefore arisen to take stock of these simulation archives and conduct a retrospective assessment of progress that has been made and challenges that remain.

While individual models are widely scrutinized, systematic surveys of model performance are relatively rare. It is the goal of this study to provide an initial benchmarking of models across CMIP generations using newly available and process-relevant observations that contextualizes model-observation differences with respect to internal variability and observational uncertainty. An additional goal is to provide related diagnostic outputs directly to the community. Both the graphical and data outputs generated may potentially be incorporated into broader community packages such as ESMValTool (Eyring et al. 2020), thus providing a unique evaluation of fully-coupled physical climate states that includes both climatological means and variability, that accounts for key uncertainties, and that benchmarks models across CMIP generations.

### 1.2 Challenges

A number of challenges exist for efforts aimed at comprehensively assessing climate model fidelity. Observations of many fields that are central to climate variability and change (e.g. cloud microphysics, entrainment rates, aerosol-cloud



interactions) are not observed on the global, multi-decadal timescales required to comprehensively evaluate models. Fields for which observations do exist often contain observational uncertainties that are large, particularly at times when the spatial sampling of observing networks is poor (e.g. SST datasets) or for fields that contain significant uncertainty in satellite-based estimation (e.g. surface turbulent and radiative fluxes). For instances in which extended data records are unavailable, associated sensitivity to internal variability and externally imposed forcing, which also contains major uncertainties, must be considered, and evaluation of trends are particularly susceptible. In addition, model tuning approaches vary widely across centers (e.g. Schmidt et al. 2017), and in instances where climate fields are explicitly tuned, direct comparison against observations is unwarranted.

### 70 1.3 Approach

In light of these challenges and opportunities, an effort is made here to evaluate models with best-estimates of feedback relevant fields. The effort is further motivated by reported shifts in model behavior, such as for example the apparent increase in climate sensitivity to carbon dioxide in some models (Gettelman et al. 2019, Golaz et al. 2019, Neubauer et al. 2019). Do such shifts accompany systematic improvements in models and if so, in what fields? It is also of a more general interest to quantify canonical biases in models, their changes in successive model generations, and persistent biases affecting the most recent generations of climate models. The specific questions addressed here therefore include: what improvements have occurred across model generations and what persistent bias remain? What process-relevant well-observed fields are models most skillful in reproducing? To what extent are apparent improvements and persisting biases robustly detectible in the presence of internal climate variability, particularly as they relate to satellite records?

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### 2.0 Methods

The analysis approach consists of computing a range of scores based on pattern correlations encompassing three climatic timescales: the climatological annual mean (annual), seasonal mean contrasts (JJA-DJF), and ENSO teleconnection patterns-computed from the 12-month July through June mean regressions against Niño3.4 sea surface temperatures (SST). Variables are classified according to three variable types (or realms) corresponding to the energy budget, water cycle, and dynamics. To reduce the influence of internal variability, the time period over which these fields are computed is at least 20 years, though the availability of some datasets allows for the use of longer period, further reducing susceptibility to internal variability. Contemporaneous time intervals are also selected as allowed for maximum overlap between available observations and simulated fields. The variables selected for consideration are chosen based on availability and judgement of their importance in simulating climate variability and change. In part this judgement is based on a recent community solicitation (Burrows et al. 2018) and many of the fields included are deemed by experts to be of highest relevance.

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## 2.1 Observational Datasets

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### *The Energy Budget Realm*

Energy budget fields considered consist broadly of TOA radiative fluxes and cloud forcing, vertically integrated atmospheric energy divergence and tendency, and surface heat fluxes. Radiative fluxes at top of atmosphere (TOA) are taken from the  
100 Clouds and Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) Energy Balance and Filled Version 4.1 dataset (EBAFv4.1, Loeb et al. 2018). The dataset offers a number of improvements over earlier versions and datasets, with improved angular distribution models and scene identification, but is perhaps most notable for its recently updated derivation of cloud radiative forcing (CF). Historically CF has been estimated from differencing cloudy and neighboring clear regions, with the effect of aliasing meteorological contrasts between the regions (whereas models merely remove clouds from their radiative transfer scheme  
105 using collocated meteorology). In the EBAFv4.1, fields from NASA's GEOS-5 reanalysis are used to estimate fluxes and CF for collocated atmospheric conditions. From CERES, the TOA net shortwave (ASR), outgoing longwave (OLR), and net ( $R_T$ ) radiative fluxes are used. In addition, estimates of shortwave CF ( $SW_{CF}$ ) and longwave CF ( $LW_{CF}$ ) are used.

Derived from the ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al. 2011), vertical integrals of atmospheric energy are used to both assess  
110 the total energy divergence within the atmosphere ( $\nabla \cdot A_E$ ) and its tendency ( $\partial A_E / \partial t$ ). This provides important insight into the regional generation of atmospheric transports and their cumulative influence on the global energy budget (e.g. Fasullo and Trenberth 2008). They are also an intrinsic component necessary for computing the net surface energy fluxes (as the residual of  $R_T$ ,  $\nabla \cdot A_E$ , and  $\partial A_E / \partial t$ ). Given the challenges of directly observing the net surface flux, a residual method is likely the best available for large-scale evaluation of the budget. The method has been demonstrated to achieve an accuracy  
115 on par with direct observations on regional scales and have proven superior on large scales, where the atmospheric divergences on which they rely become small, converging to zero by definition in the global mean (Trenberth and Fasullo, 2017). Uncertainty estimation of CERES fluxes is well documented (Loeb et al. 2018).

### *The Water Cycle Realm*

120 Water cycle fields considered include precipitation (P), evaporation minus precipitation (EP), precipitable water (PRW), evaporation (LH), and near-surface relative humidity (RHs). As global evaporation fields from direct observations and estimated from satellite also contain substantial uncertainty, precipitation minus evaporation is estimated instead from the vertically integrated divergence of moisture simulated in ERA-Interim, which is also arguably the most accurate means of evaluating large scale patterns and variability (Trenberth and Fasullo 2013). Precipitation is estimated from the Global  
125 Precipitation Climatology Project (Huffman et al. 2013) Climate Data Record (Adler et al. 2016). The improved version takes advantage of improvements in the gauge records used for calibration and indirect precipitation estimation from



130 longwave radiances provided by NOAA leo-IR data. For other water cycle fields, output from the European Centre for  
Medium Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Reanalysis Version 5 (ERA5, Hersbach et al. 2019) is used. ERA5 is the  
successor to ERAI, increasing the resolution of reported fields, the range of assimilated fields from recent satellite  
instruments, and accuracy as compared against a broad range of observations for various measures. For example, a  
comparison using the metrics described above applied to satellite data (CERES, GPCP) demonstrate reduced mean state  
annual and seasonal biases as compared to ERAI (not shown).

### *The Dynamical Realm*

135 Dynamical fields considered include sea level pressure (SLP), wind speed ( $U_s$ ), and 500 hPa eddy geopotential height ( $Z_{500}$ ),  
vertical velocity ( $W_{500}$ ), and relative humidity ( $RH_{500}$ ). ERA5, discussed above, is used for estimation of dynamical fields, as  
such fields are generally not provided from satellite (excepting  $RH_{500}$ ). Motivating its use, and among its notable  
improvements relative to earlier reanalyses, is ERA5's improved representation of the tropospheric circulation that is core to  
the dynamical evaluation.

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### *2.2 Generation of Variable, Realm, and Overall Scores*

Scores for annual mean, seasonal mean, and ENSO timescale metrics are generated from the area-weighted pattern  
correlations ( $R_s$ ) between each simulated variable and the corresponding observational dataset. Weighted averages of these  
 $R_s$  are then used to generate a Variable Score and for each simulation. Averages across the relevant Variable Scores are then  
used to generate Realm Scores, and the Realm Scores are averaged to generate an Overall Score. Timescale Scores are also  
145 generated by averaging  $R_s$  across variables for each timescale metric. The inclusion of both Realm and Timescale scores is  
motivated in part by the need to interpret the origin of changes in Overall Scores, which include a large number of  $R_s$  that  
may otherwise obscure an obvious physical interpretation for the Overall Score.

150 The use of weights in generating Variable Scores is motivated by the desire to promote interpretation of differences in the  
Overall Score relative to the influence of internal variability. Using the Community Earth System Version 1 Large Ensemble  
(CESM1-LE, Kay et al. 2015), weights for ENSO scores are reduced to 0.978 (while for annual and seasonal means they are  
1.00) such that the standard deviation range in Overall Scores for the 40 members of the CESM1-LE is 0.01. This therefore  
can be used to interpret generally the approximate contribution of internal variability to inter-model Overall Scores in  
analysis of the CMIP archives, suggesting that differences between individual simulations of less than approximately 0.04  
155 are insignificant. Where available, multiple-simulation analyses provide an opportunity for further narrowing the accuracy of  
statements regarding inter-model comparisons of fidelity that can be made, and as will be seen, Overall Score ranges within  
and across the CMIP ensembles generally exceed the obscuring effects of internal variability.



### 160 2.3 CMIP Simulations

As the goal of this work is to characterize the evolution of agreement between climate models generally across the CMIP archives, and observations, all available model submissions for which sufficient data fields are provided are included in the analysis (as summarized in Table 1). A major exception to the data availability requirement relates to near surface wind speed ( $U_s$ ), which was not included as part of the CMIP3 variable list specification. Scores for the dynamical realm in  
165 CMIP3 therefore omit  $U_s$  as a scored variable and instead compute the dynamic Realm score from the remaining dynamic variable scores. While multiple ensemble members are provided in the CMIP archives for many models, and have been assessed, only a single member of each model is incorporated into the analysis here to avoid overweighting the influence of any single mode.

### 170 3.0 Assessing CMIP Scores

To illustrate the analysis approach and provide context for the magnitude of biases relative to internal variability and observational uncertainty, Figure 1 shows both observed and simulated  $SW_{CF}$  fields across the timescales considered (Fig. 1a, annual, 1b) seasonal, and 1c) ENSO) in the CESM Version 2 submission to CMIP6, CERES estimates (Fig. 1d-f), and  
175 their differences (Fig. 1g-i). Significant spatial structure characterizes all fields, with a strong  $SW_{CF}$  cooling influence in the mean across much of the globe (Fig. 1a), seasonal contrasts (Fig. 1b) that vary between land and ocean and latitudinal zone, and ENSO teleconnections (Fig. 1c) that extend from the tropical Pacific Ocean to remote ocean basins and the extratropics. While (as will be seen), CESM2 scores among the best available climate models in CMIP6, large model-observation differences nonetheless exist. Regions where model-observation differences are larger than internal variability in the annual  
180 and seasonal means (stippled) are widespread and remain extensive where the uncertainty range is expanded to incorporate estimated observational uncertainty (hatched) from Loeb et al. 2018. Of particular note is the fact that it is the large-scale patterns of robust bias, where model-observational disagreement exceeds uncertainty bounds, that are the primary drivers of pattern correlations used in scoring. These are then combined into various aggregate measures, which include Variable, Realm, and Overall Scores.

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The color table summary of scores for CMIP3 (Figure 2) provides a visual summary of simulation performance across the models in the archive (abscissa), including Variable, Realm, Timescale, and Overall Scores (i.e. aggregate scores, ordinate). Simulations are sorted by Overall Scores (top row, descending scores toward right). Realm and Timescale Scores (rows 2 through 7) also provide broad summaries of model performance. Mean Overall Scores ( $69 \pm 7$ , 1 sigma) are modest generally  
190 in CMIP3 and generally uniform across realms. CMIP3 simulations score particularly poorly for ENSO, where scores average to 47, are generally less than 60, and approach 0 in some models. Variable scores are highest for SLP, and PRW and OLR which are strongly tied to surface temperature, and less for other variables, with the lowest scores reported for  $R_s$  and W500. Spread across models for  $R_s$  is particularly large relative to other variables. Average scores are also poor for  $SW_{CF}$



(68),  $LW_{CF}$  (71), and P (69), which are among the more important simulated fields according to expert consensus (Burrows  
195 et al. 2018).

The color table summary of scores for CMIP5 (Figure 3) reveals scores that are considerably higher than most CMIP3  
simulations, with improvements in the average Overall Score of  $(75\pm 5)$  and most notable improvements on the ENSO  
timescale, with an average of 57, though with considerable inter-model range ( $\sigma=10$ ). A broad increase in scores in the  
200 highest performing models is apparent with numerous variable scores exceeding 85 (orange/red). As for CMIP3 the highest  
scoring variables are PRW, SLP, and OLR with RHS and W500 being the lowest scoring variables. Scores remain relatively  
low for  $SW_{CF}$  (71),  $LW_{CF}$  (75), and P (73).

The color table summary of scores for CMIP6 (Figure 4) illustrates scores that are considerably higher than both CMIP3 and  
205 CMIP5 simulations, with improvements in the average Overall Score of  $(79\pm 4)$  and most continued improvements on the  
ENSO timescale, though again with considerable inter-model range. A continued increase in scores in the highest performing  
models is again apparent, with scores reaching the mid- to upper 70s and numerous variable scores exceeding 90 (red). The  
highest scoring variables again include PRW, SLP, and OLR though scores are also high for  $RH_{500}$ , one of the more  
important simulated fields according to expert consensus (Burrows et al., 2018). Scores also increase for  $SW_{CF}$  (78),  $LW_{CF}$   
210 (80), and P (77).

To highlight connections between variables, and the main variables driving variance in aggregate scores across the CMIP  
archives, cross correlations are shown in Figure 5. Correlations between variables and realms reveal variables that exhibit  
strong connections to other variables and aggregate scores. For Overall Scores, these include strong connections to P, E-P  
215 and OLR, fields strongly connected to atmospheric heating, dynamics, and deep convection and therefore broadly relevant to  
all realms considered. Strong connections also exist for  $SW_{CF}$ ,  $LW_{CF}$ , and  $RH_{500}$ , consistent with the expert consensus in  
highlighting these fields are being particularly important (Burrows et al. 2018). An approximately equal correlation exists  
across Realms with the Overall Score, while for timescales, ENSO exhibits the strongest overall correlation as it contains the  
greatest inter-model variance and thus explains a greater portion of the Overall Score variance. Notable as well is that some  
220 variables for which scores are high in the mean, such as SLP and PRW, exhibit little correlation with the Overall Score as the  
uniformly high scores across models impart relatively little variance to the spread in Overall Scores across models.

#### 4.0 Derived Bias Patterns for Select Variables

225 The observational estimate for  $SW_{CF}$  from CERES is shown in Figure 6a along with mean bias patterns for CMIP3 (b) and  
CMIP6 (c). A principal component (PC) analysis of the bias across the CMIP archives is also shown with the leading



principal components and their tercile mean values within each CMIP version being shown (d) along with the characteristics of the two leading patterns of bias (Fig. 6d-f). In the PC analysis, the observational benchmark field is also included to gauge improvements or degradation of model PCs across CMIP generations. The mean observational field (Fig. 6a) is characterized by negative values in nearly all locations (except over ice) and the strongest cooling influence in the deep tropics, subtropical stratocumulus regions, and midlatitude oceans. Mean bias patterns demonstrate considerable improvement across the CMIP generations, with major reductions in negative biases in the subtropics and tropics over ocean. Variance across models is characterized by differing tropical-extratropical contrasts in  $SW_{CF}$  (EOF1), which explain 24% of the inter-model variance, and land-ocean contrasts (EOF2), which explain 16% of the variance. The expression of both patterns of biases is demonstrated to diminish across CMIP generations and terciles in their PC weights (Fig. 6d), with CMIP6 values lying closer to observational estimates than CMIP PC1/2 weights. Improvements are not in general monotonic across the CMIP generations, with improvements and degradations notable in some aspects of the PC1/2 transition from CMIP3 to CMIP5.

The observational estimate for  $LW_{CF}$  from CERES is shown in Figure 7a along with mean bias patterns for CMIP3 (b) and CMIP6 (c). A PC analysis of the bias across the CMIP archives is also shown with the leading PC weights and their tercile mean values within each CMIP version being shown (d) along with the two leading patterns of bias (Fig. 7e, f). Observational fields are characterized by a strong heating influence in regions of deep tropical convection and in the extratropical ocean regions in which  $SW_{CF}$  was also strong while weak heating is evident in the subtropics and polar regions. Significant changes characterize mean bias patterns between CMIP3 and CMIP6, with positive biases across most ocean regions in CMIP3 and negative biases in many of the same regions in CMIP6. On average however, the magnitude of biases are reduced across CMIP generations. This is evident for example in the PC analysis of bias (Fig. 7e-f), where the leading mode (EOF1, Fig. 7e) exhibits strong weightings over the warm pool, is negatively correlated with both the mean pattern and bias, and explains 37% of the inter-model variance. In contrast, EOF2 exhibits a strong tropical-extratropical contrast and explains only 13% of the bias variance. The PC1/2 tercile weights for these modes show a considerable reduction in EOF1 spread and lower tercile bias and generally improved agreement across model terciles from CMIP3 to CMIP6, though as with  $SW_{CF}$ , the improvement is not monotonic nor uniform across all terciles and PCs.

The observational estimate for precipitation from GPCP is shown in Figure 8a along with mean bias patterns for CMIP3 (b) and CMIP6 (c). The PC analysis of the bias across the CMIP archives is also shown with the leading PC tercile mean values for each CMIP version being shown (d) along with the two leading patterns of bias (Fig. 8e, f). The annual mean pattern resolves key features of the climate system, including strong precipitation in the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) and low precipitation in the subtropics and at high latitudes. Biases are large in both CMIP3 and CMIP6 on average and are characterized generally by excessive subtropical precipitation and deficient precipitation in the ITCZ, South America, and at high latitudes. Earlier work has generally characterized model bias in terms of its ITCZ structure (Oueslati et al. 2015), an



260 important aspect of the bias, though systematic bias is also apparent here outside of the tropical Pacific. In addition, the PC  
decomposition of CMIP precipitation biases (Fig. 8d-f) suggests that the bias is comprised to two distinct leading patterns  
that together explain 15% and 11% of the variance across models (i.e. a separable single leading pattern is not starkly  
evident). The first pattern is characterized by weakness in precipitation across the equatorial oceans, with elevated rates in  
the Maritime continent and in the Pacific Ocean near 15N/S. The second mode of precipitation bias is characterized by  
265 loadings over Africa and South America, and just south of the climatological Pacific ITCZ location (Fig. 8a), with negative  
values in the subtropical ocean basins. Based on the evolution of weights in PC terciles, slight improvement across CMIP  
generations is evident, as tercile values lie closer to observations for all terciles of PC1/2 in CMIP6 versus CMIP3, with the  
exception of the upper terciles of PC2 and the lower terciles of PC1.

270 The observational estimate for RH<sub>500</sub> from ERA5 is shown in Figure 9a along with mean bias patterns for CMIP3 (b) and  
CMIP6 (c). A principal component analysis of the bias across the CMIP archives is also shown with the leading principal  
components and their tercile mean values within each CMIP version being shown (d) along with the two leading patterns of  
bias (Fig. 9e, f). The observed RH<sub>500</sub> field is characterized by very dry conditions in the subtropics, with values generally  
below 30% across broad regions that were largely unresolved in CMIP3 (e.g. Fasullo and Trenberth 2012), and positive  
275 humidity biases in regions of frequency deep convection (i.e. Maritime Continent, Amazon) and at high latitudes. The  
CMIP3 mean bias field is negatively correlated with the mean state, with patterns that lack sufficient spatial variability, are  
too moist in the subtropics, and too dry in the Maritime continent, the Amazon, and at high latitudes. The magnitude of mean  
RH<sub>500</sub> biases in CMIP6 are substantially smaller (roughly 50%) than CMIP3, though a similar overall pattern exists. The PC  
analysis of bias reveals a leading pattern of bias that explains 50% of the intermodal variance and is positively correlated  
280 with both the CMIP-mean bias and observed mean field (0.45). The second leading pattern (Fig. 9f) explains considerably  
less variance (14%) and exhibits a zonally uniform structure characterized by tropical-extratropical contrast. The weights for  
PC1/2 reveal systematic bias in PC1 across models, and considerable improvement across CMIP generations as CMIP6  
weights lie significantly closer to observations than CMIP3 weights for all terciles. Very slight corresponding improvement  
in PC2, while suggested for the upper terciles, is not however evident in the lower tercile of models, though this comprises a  
285 small fraction of variance in CMIP bias.

In the effort to summarize the evolution of the full distributions of scores across the CMIP archives, whisker plots  
encompassing the median, interquartile, and 10<sup>th</sup>-90<sup>th</sup> percentile ranges are shown for various aggregate metrics and key  
fields in Figure 10. Also shown are the equivalent ranges for scores computed from the CESM1-LE to provide context for  
290 the uncertainty in scores associated with internal variability for each distribution. A steady progression in the Overall Scores  
is evident across CMIP versions. The improvements are also evident across Realm Scores and particularly for the poorest  
scoring models in the Dynamics Realm. Scores for Annual and Seasonal timescales are generally high across archives,



though internal variability is also small and is substantially less than the median improvements across archives. The range of scores for ENSO is significantly greater than other timescales, as is the range of internal variability, and substantial improvements have been realized for the lowest scoring models across successive CMIP generations. Noteworthy are the substantial improvements in  $SW_{CF}$ ,  $LW_{CF}$ , and P, with the best CMIP3 simulations scoring near the median value for CMIP6 and changes in median values exceeding uncertainty arising from internal variability. Scores for  $RH_{500}$  have also improved, although the spread within the CMIP3 archives is substantial and uncertainty arising from internal variability is somewhat greater than for other variables, and  $RH_{500}$  scores are generally higher than for cloud forcing and P. For SLP, median scores are uniformly high across the CMIP generations, with small but steady improvement in median and interquartile scores, with the main exception being the low scoring 10-25% range of CMIP3 simulations.

## 5.0 Discussion

An objective model evaluation tool has been developed that uses feedback-relevant fields and takes advantage of recent advances in satellite and reanalysis observations. In its application to the CMIP archives, the tool is shown to be useful for computing model scores across variables, realms, and timescales, using the best available satellite and observational estimates of present-day climate. The tool also provides visual summaries of model performance across the CMIP archives, which readily allow for the survey of a broad suite of climate performance scores.

Based on the pattern correlation approach adopted, a number of statements can be made regarding the overall performance of climate models across CMIP generations. Also noteworthy is that, as gauged by analysis of the CESM1-LE, and consistent with the motivations and design of the approach used here, these statements are robust to the obscuring influence of internal climate variability. In general, computed scores have increased steadily across CMIP generations, with improvements exceeding the uncertainty associated with internal variability. Associated with these improvements, the leading patterns of bias across models are shown to have been reduced. Improvements are large and particularly noteworthy for ENSO teleconnection patterns, as the poorest scoring models in each CMIP generation have improved substantially. The overall range of model performance has also decreased in conjunction with increases in median scores, as improvements in the worst models has outpaced that of the median. Reductions in systematic patterns of bias (e.g. Figs. 6-9) across the CMIP archives have been particularly pronounced for fields deemed in expert solicitations to have disproportionate importance, including  $SW_{CF}$ ,  $LW_{CF}$ , and  $RH_{500}$ .

Also relevant for climate feedbacks, Variable Scores for  $SW_{CF}$ ,  $LW_{CF}$ ,  $RH_{500}$ , and precipitation have increased steadily across the CMIP generations (e.g. Fig. 10), with magnitudes exceeding the uncertainty associated with internal variability. Scores are particularly high for CMIP6 models for which high climate sensitivities have been reported, including CESM2,



SAM0-UNICON, GFDL-CM4, CNRM-CM6-1, E3SM, and EC-Earth3-Veg (though exceptions also exist such as in the case of MIRCO6). These findings therefore echo the concerns voiced in Gettelman et al. 2019: “What scares us is not that the CESM2 ECS is wrong (all models are wrong, (Box, 1976)) but that it might be right.” Further work examining the ties between metrics of performance in simulating the present-day climate, such as those provided here, and longer-term climate  
330 model behavior is warranted to bolster confidence in model projections of climate change.



### Data Availability

Data used in this study are available freely from the Earth System Grid at: <https://www.earthsystemgrid.org>  
NetCDF output for the fields generated herein is freely available at: <http://webext.cgd.ucar.edu/Multi-Case/CMAT/index.html>

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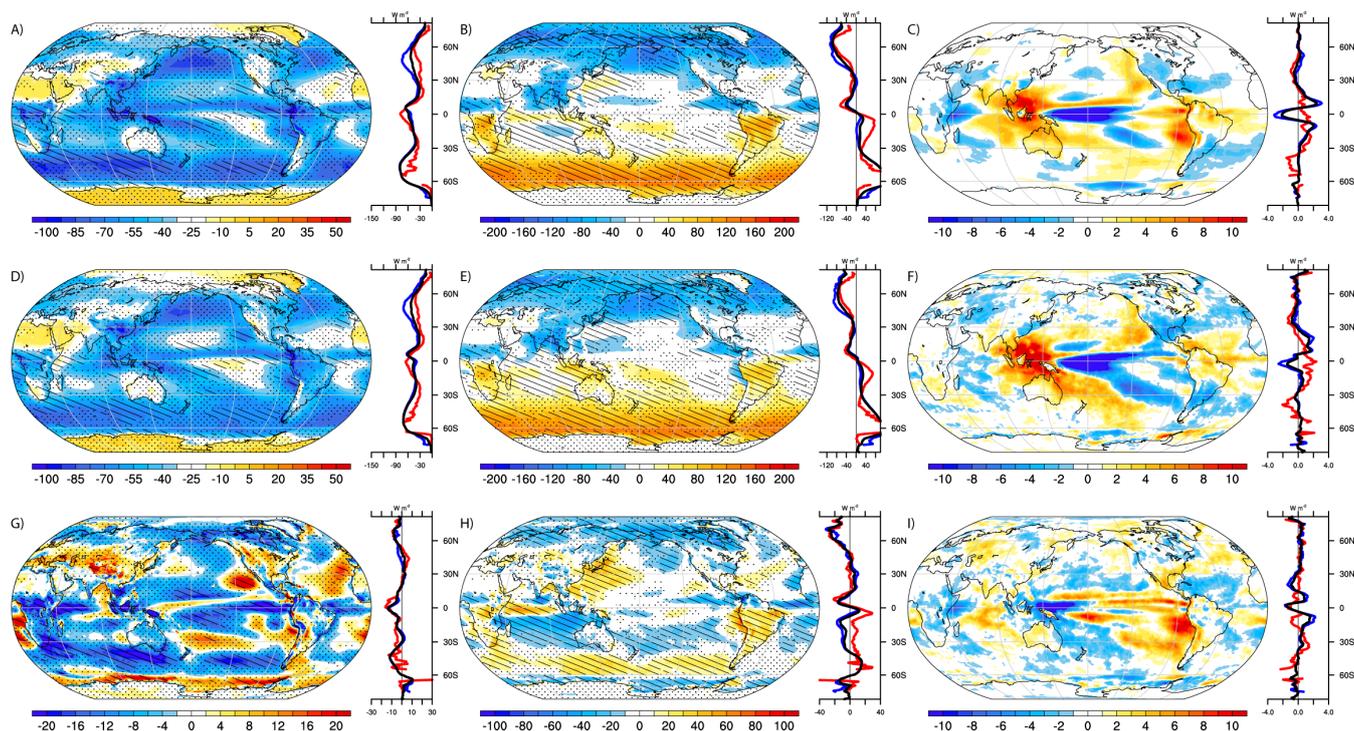
## Tables

Table 1: Sorted summary of CMIP models considered in this work, sorted by Overall Scores.

405



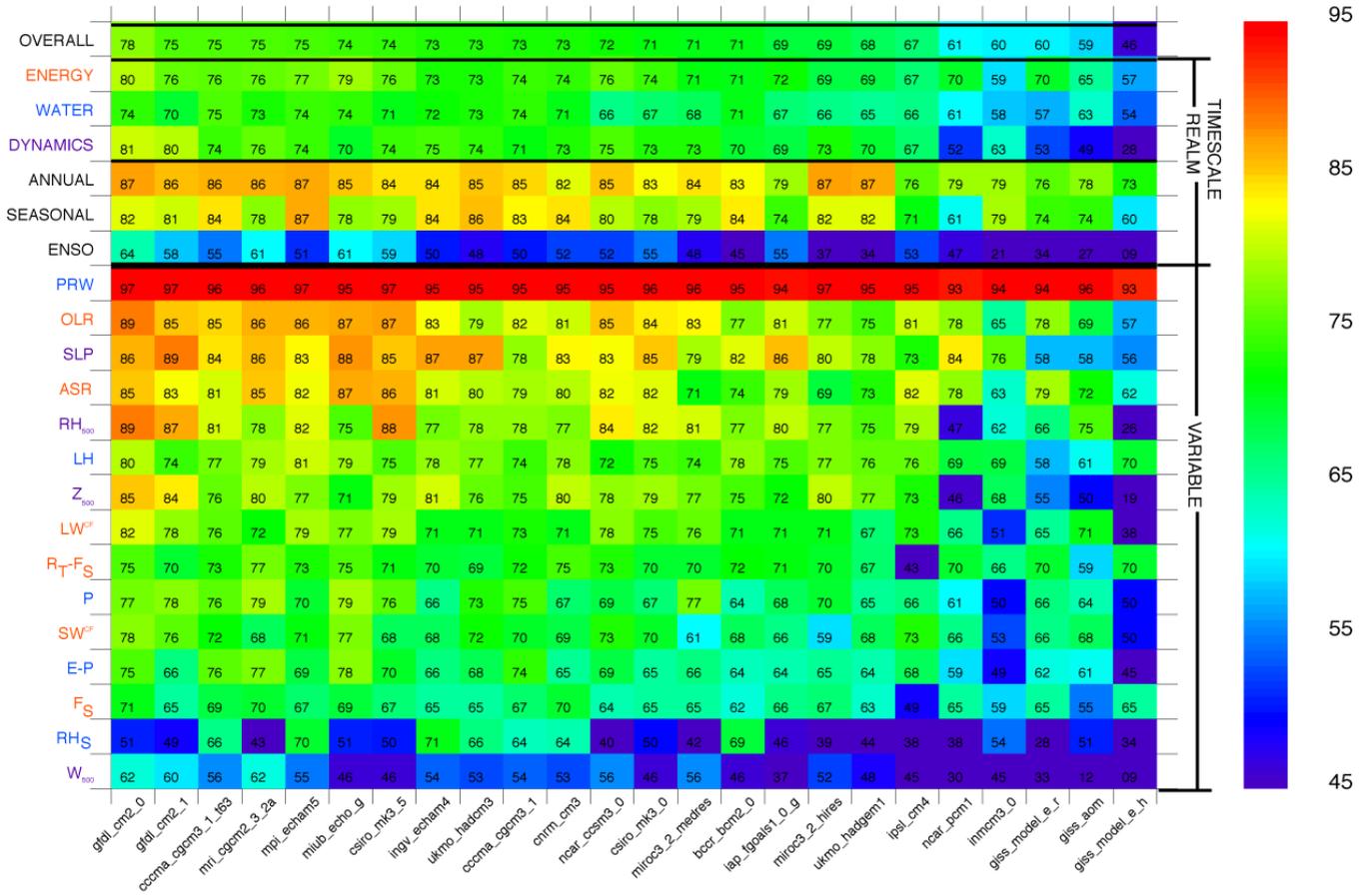
CMIP3	CMIP5	CMIP6
gfdl_cm2_0 (0.78)	CESM1-BGC (0.81)	CESM2 (0.86)
gfdl_cm2_1 (0.75)	CNRM-CM5-2 (0.81)	MIROC6 (0.85)
ccma_cgcm3_1_t63 (0.75)	CESM1-FASTCHEM (0.81)	CESM2-WACCM (0.85)
mri_cgcm2_3_2a (0.75)	CESM1-CAM5 (0.81)	GISS-E2-1-H (0.85)
mpi_echam5 (0.75)	ACCESS1-0 (0.81)	SAM0-UNICON (0.84)
miub_echo_g (0.74)	NorESM1-ME (0.80)	GFDL-CM4 (0.84)
csiro_mk3_5 (0.74)	CESM1-WACCM (0.80)	EC-Earth3-Veg (0.84)
ingv_echam4 (0.73)	CESM1-CAM5-1-FV2 (0.80)	EC-Earth3 (0.83)
ukmo_hadcm3 (0.73)	MIROC5 (0.80)	UKESM1-0-LL (0.82)
ccma_cgcm3_1 (0.73)	CMCC-CMS (0.80)	MRI-ESM2-0 (0.82)
cnrm_cm3 (0.73)	HadGEM2-ES (0.80)	E3SM-1-0 (0.81)
ncar_ccsm3_0 (0.72)	NorESM1-M (0.79)	CNRM-CM6-1 (0.81)
csiro_mk3_0 (0.71)	BNU-ESM (0.79)	CNRM-ESM2-1 (0.81)
miroc3_2_medres (0.71)	ACCESS1-3 (0.78)	MIROC-ES2L (0.81)
bccr_bcm2_0 (0.71)	HadGEM2-AO (0.78)	FGOALS-g3 (0.79)
iap_fgoals1_0_g (0.69)	bcc-csm1-1-m (0.77)	CAMS-CSM1-0 (0.79)
miroc3_2_hires (0.69)	GFDL-CM2p1 (0.76)	BCC-CSM2-MR (0.77)
ukmo_hadgem1 (0.68)	CanESM2 (0.76)	BCC-ESM1 (0.77)
ipsl_cm4 (0.67)	CMCC-CESM (0.75)	CanESM5 (0.77)
ncar_pcm1 (0.61)	IPSL-CM5B-LR (0.75)	IPSL-CM6A-LR (0.74)
inmcm3_0 (0.60)	MRI-ESM1 (0.75)	GISS-E2-1-G (0.74)
giss_model_e_r (0.60)	MPI-ESM-LR (0.75)	NorESM2-LM (0.74)
giss_aom (0.59)	MPI-ESM-MR (0.74)	
giss_model_e_h (0.46)	MPI-ESM-P (0.74)	
	MRI-CGCM3 (0.74)	
	FGOALS-g2 (0.74)	
	GFDL-ESM2G (0.72)	
	GISS-E2-R-CC (0.72)	
	IPSL-CM5A-MR (0.71)	
	MIROC-ESM (0.70)	
	GISS-E2-H-CC (0.69)	
	IPSL-CM5A-LR (0.68)	
	CSIRO-Mk3-6-0 (0.68)	
	MIROC-ESM-CHEM (0.68)	
	inmcm4 (0.68)	
	GISS-E2-H (0.67)	
	CESM1-BGC (0.81)	
	CNRM-CM5-2 (0.81)	
	CESM1-FASTCHEM (0.81)	
	CESM1-CAM5 (0.81)	
	ACCESS1-0 (0.81)	
	NorESM1-ME (0.80)	
	CESM1-WACCM (0.80)	
	CESM1-CAM5-1-FV2 (0.80)	
	MIROC5 (0.80)	
	CMCC-CMS (0.80)	
	HadGEM2-ES (0.80)	
	NorESM1-M (0.79)	
	BNU-ESM (0.79)	
	ACCESS1-3 (0.78)	
	HadGEM2-AO (0.78)	
	bcc-csm1-1-m (0.77)	
	GFDL-CM2p1 (0.76)	
	CanESM2 (0.76)	
	CMCC-CESM (0.75)	
	IPSL-CM5B-LR (0.75)	
	MRI-ESM1 (0.75)	
	MPI-ESM-LR (0.75)	
	MPI-ESM-MR (0.74)	
	MPI-ESM-P (0.74)	
	MRI-CGCM3 (0.74)	
	FGOALS-g2 (0.74)	
	GFDL-ESM2G (0.72)	
	GISS-E2-R-CC (0.72)	
	IPSL-CM5A-MR (0.71)	
	MIROC-ESM (0.70)	
	GISS-E2-H-CC (0.69)	
	IPSL-CM5A-LR (0.68)	
	CSIRO-Mk3-6-0 (0.68)	
	MIROC-ESM-CHEM (0.68)	
	inmcm4 (0.68)	
	GISS-E2-H (0.67)	



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Figure 1: Mean simulated fields of  $SW_{CF}$  in CESM2 from 1995-2014 for A) the annual mean, B) seasonal contrasts, and C) regressed against Niño3.4 SST anomalies from July-June. Observed CERES EBAF4.1 estimated  $SW_{CF}$  for 2000-2018 for analogous metrics (D-F) where stippling indicates regions where CESM-CERES differences exceed twice the estimated internal spread from CESM-LE. Hatching indicates regions where these differences (G-I) exceed the same spread and observational uncertainty (added in quadrature, applied to all panels in each column). Units are  $W m^{-2}$  except for right column where units are  $W m^{-2} K^{-1}$ .

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420 **Figure 2: Overall, Realm, Timescale, and Variable scores (ordinate) for historical (20c3m) simulations submitted to the CMIP3 archives (abscissa) sorted by overall score (top row) based on methods employed (see text). Simulations and variables are ordered in descending score order from left to right using overall score and from top to bottom using average variable score, respectively.**

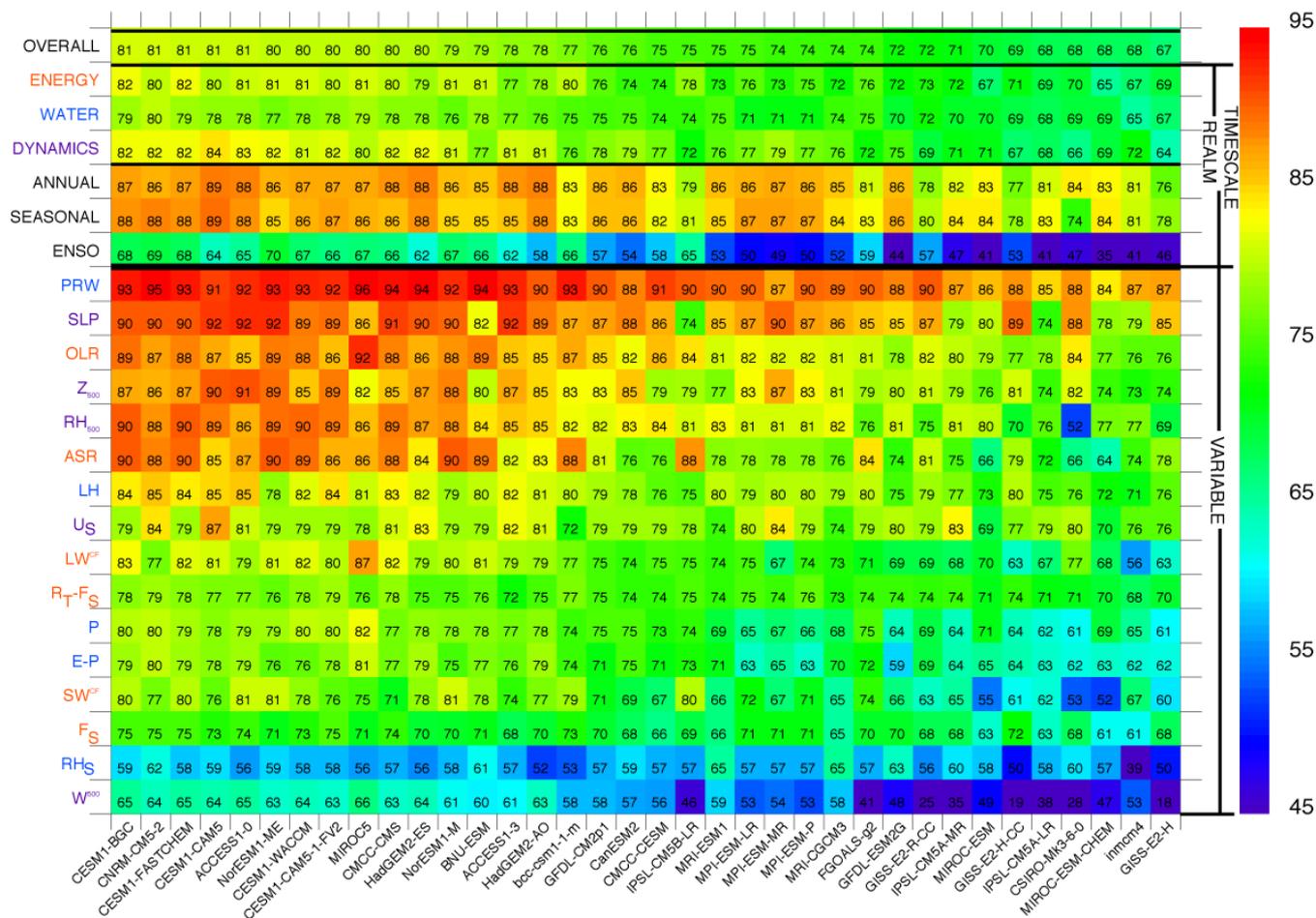
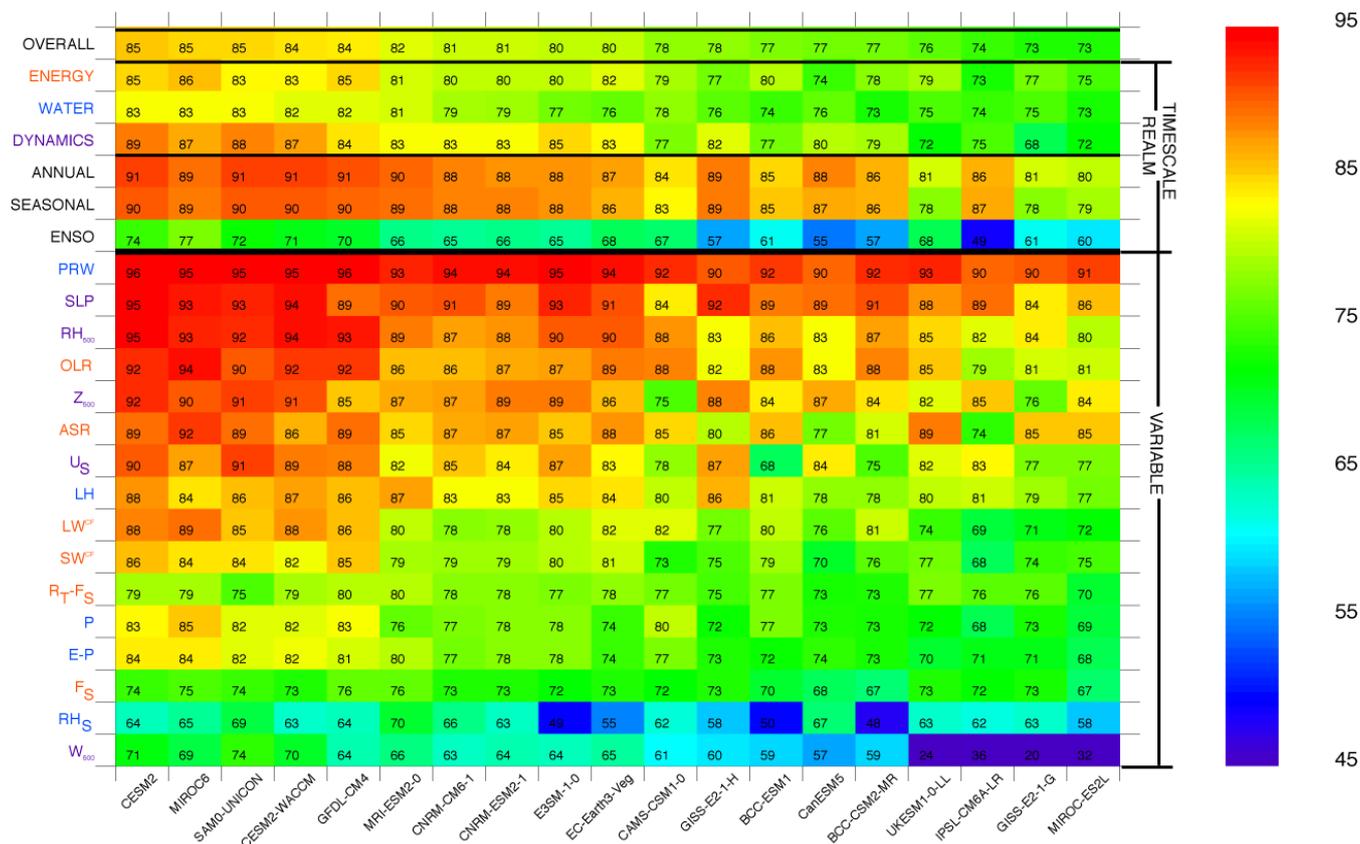
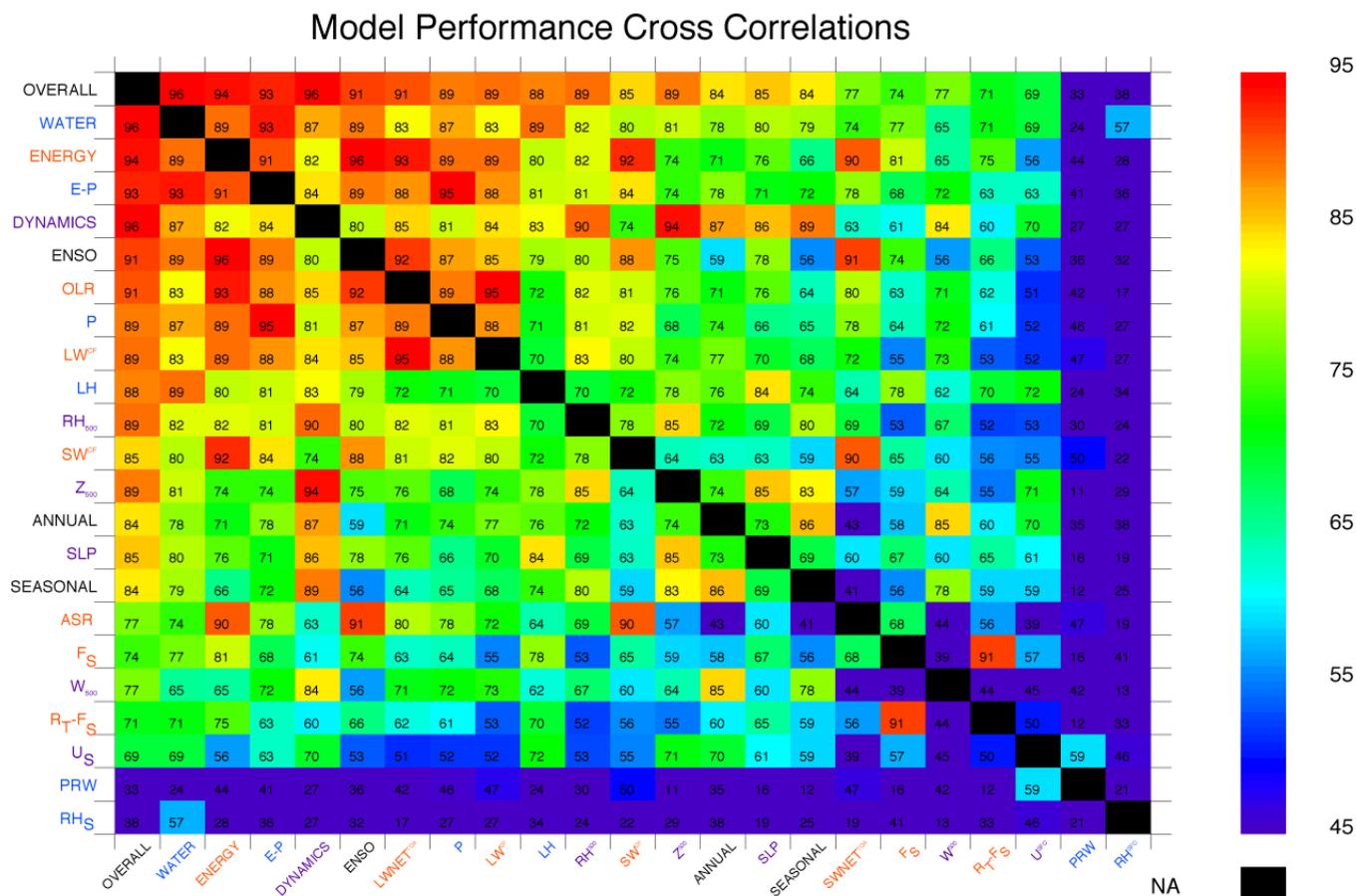


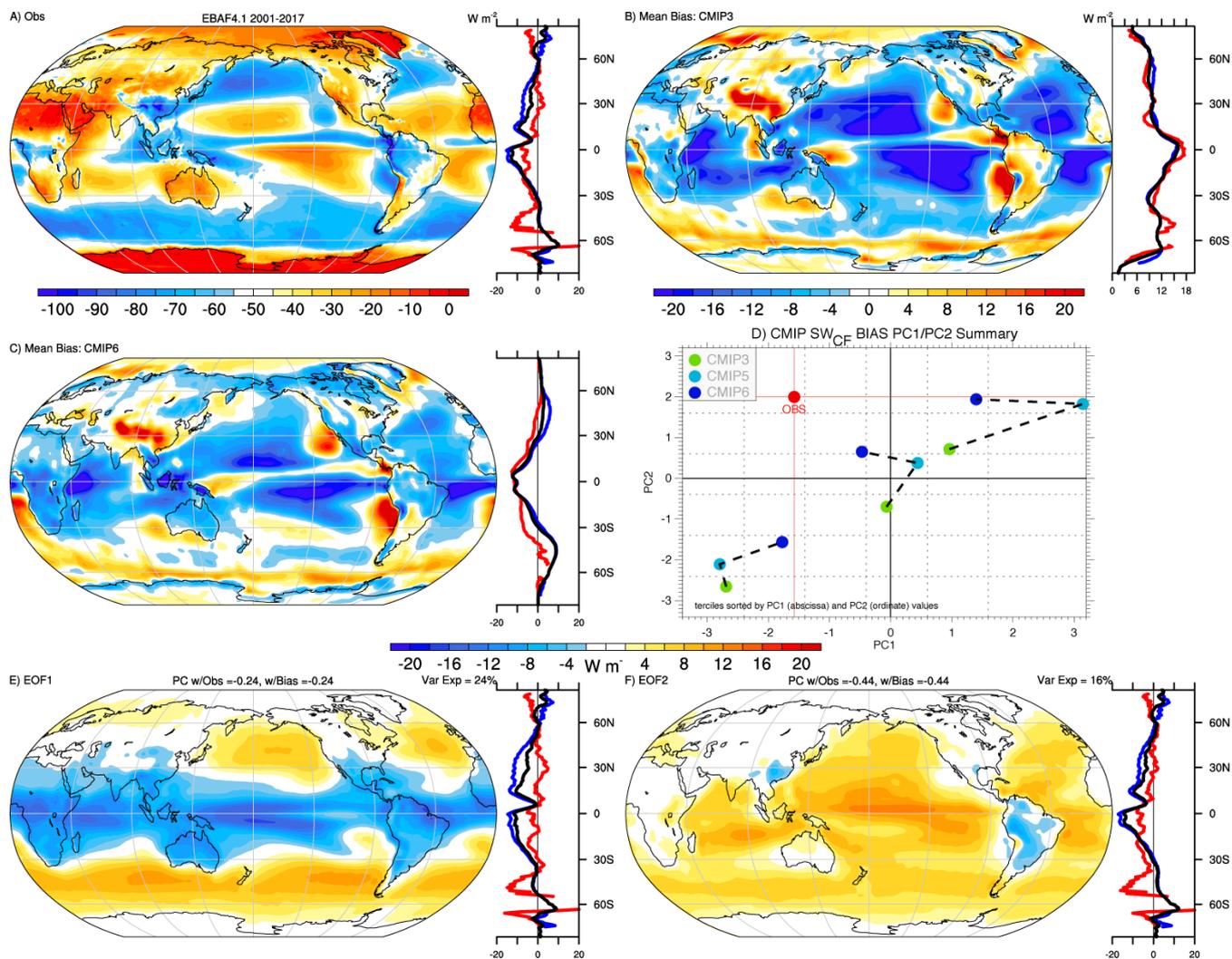
Figure 3: As in Fig. 2 except for historical simulations submitted to the CMIP5 archive.



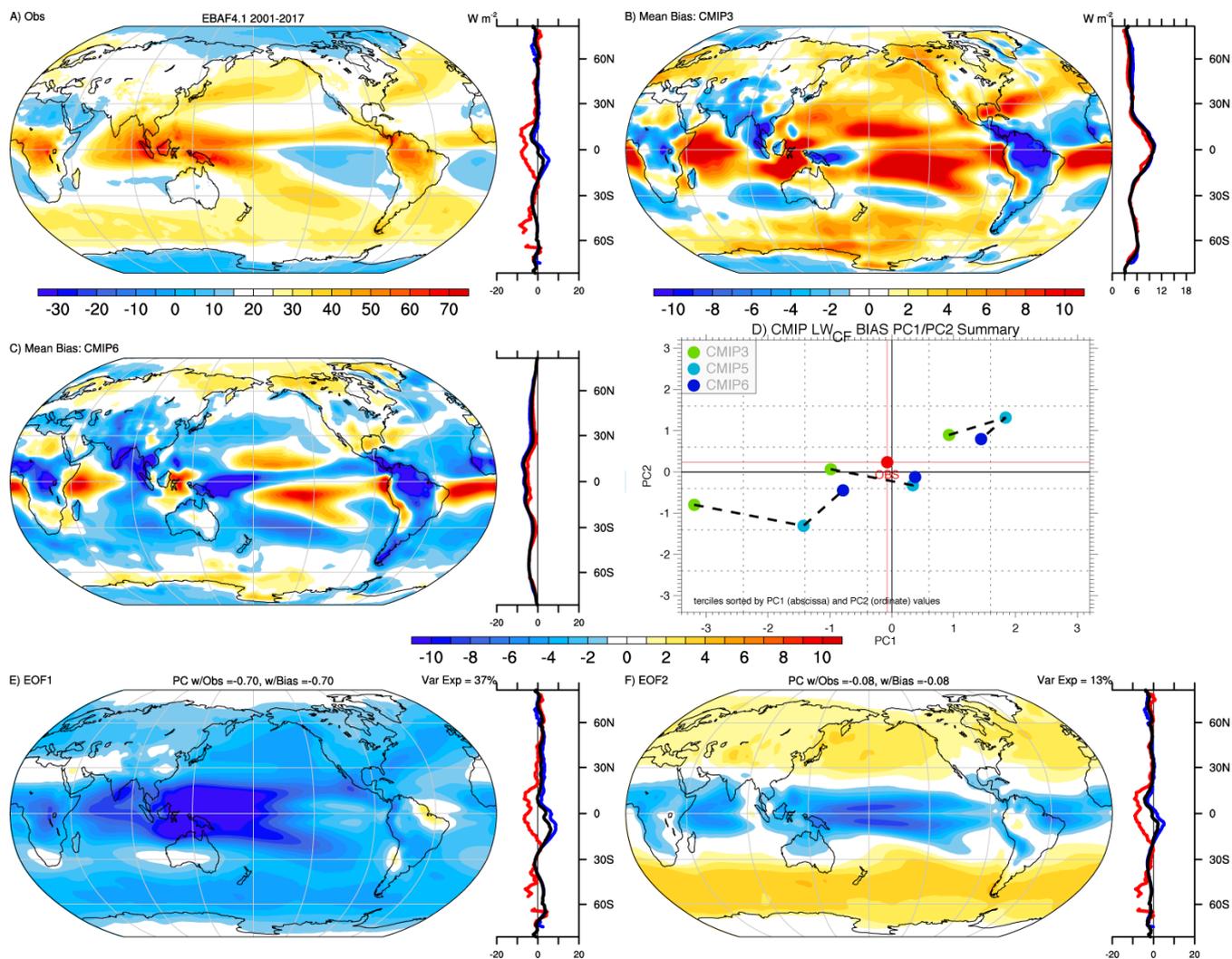
425 Figure 4: As in Fig. 2 except for historical simulations submitted to the CMIP6 archive.



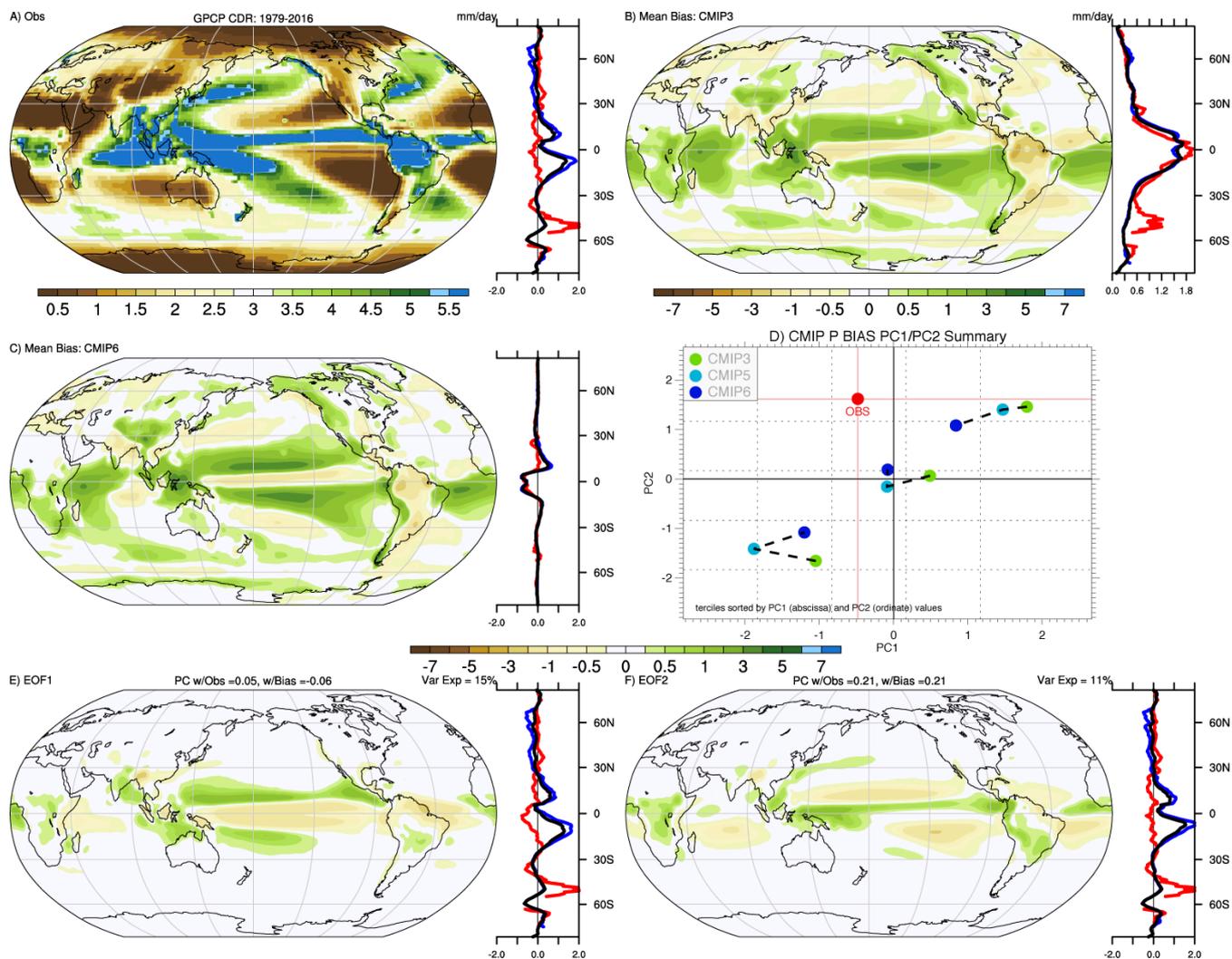
430 Figure 5: Cross correlations between variable and aggregate scores computed for the all CMIP archives sorted in order of decreasing correlations from left to right and top to bottom.



435 **Figure 6:** Analysis of the annual mean  $SW_{CF}$  bias in the combined historical CMIP3/5/6 archive including A) the observed estimate from CERES EBAFv4.1, the bias in (B) CMIP3 and (C) CMIP6, and (D) the first two PCs of biases and their tercile averages across the CMIP archives, and the associated first (E) and second (F) EOFs of biases. All units are  $W m^{-2}$ , except for the PCs, which are unitless.



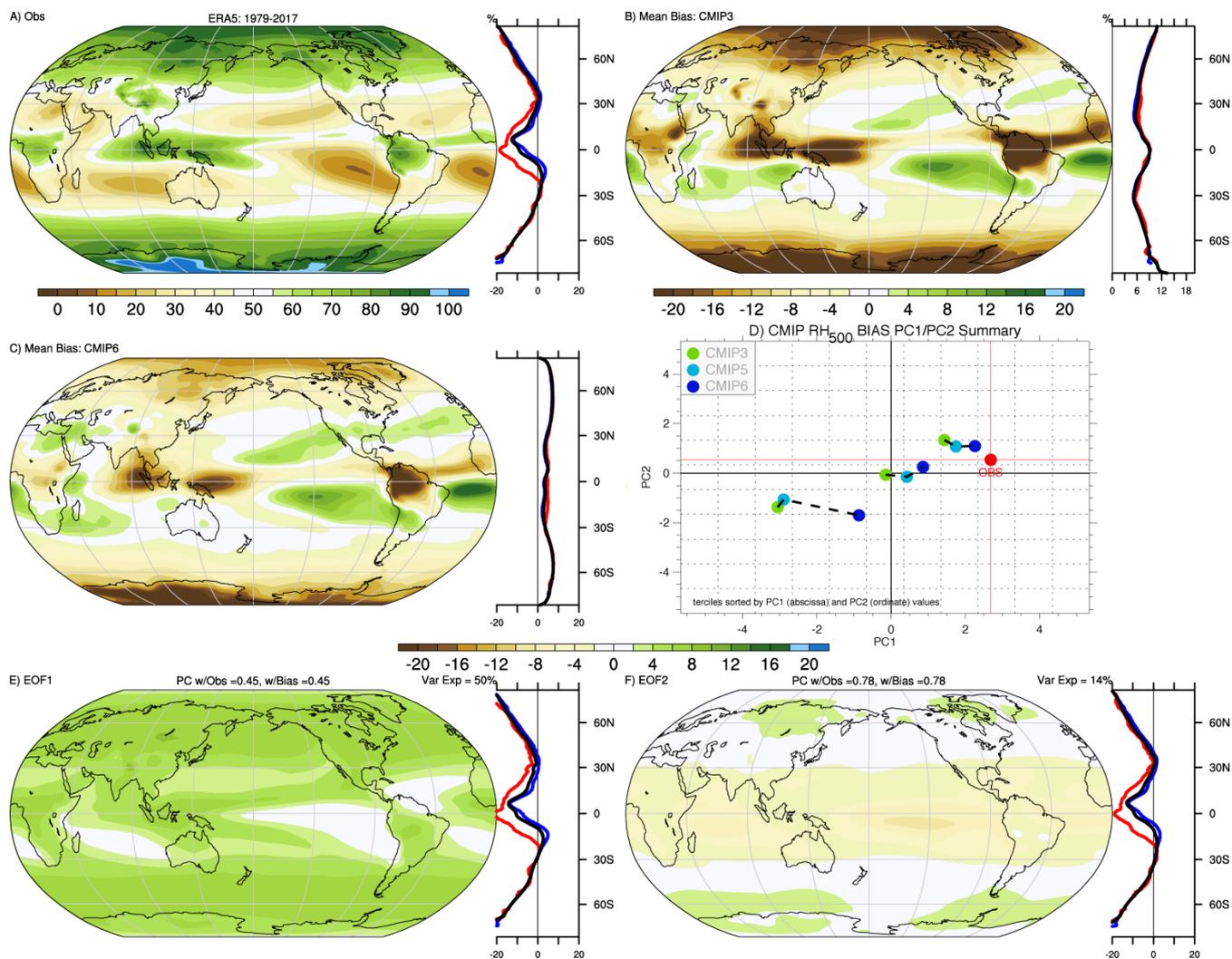
440 **Figure 7:** Analysis of the annual mean  $LW_{CF}$  bias in the combined historical CMIP3/5/6 archive including A) the observed estimate from CERES EBAFv4.1, the bias in (B) CMIP3 and (C) CMIP6, and (D) the first two PCs of biases and their tertile averages across the CMIP archives, and the associated first (E) and second (F) EOFs of biases. All units are  $W m^{-2}$ , except for the PCs, which are unitless.



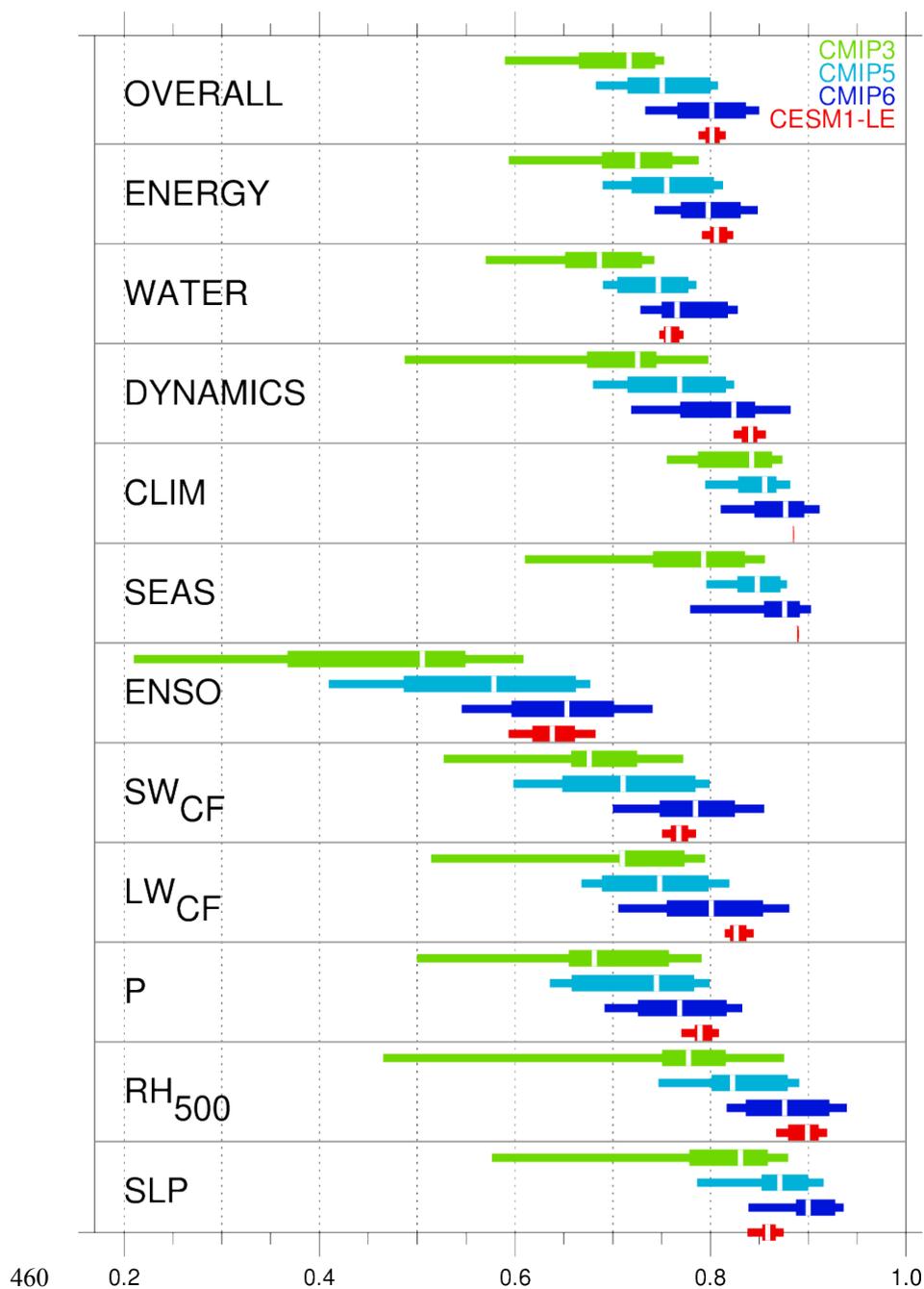
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**Figure 8:** Analysis of the annual mean precipitation bias in the combined historical CMIP3/5/6 archive including A) the observed estimate from GPCP CDR, the bias in (B) CMIP3 and (C) CMIP6, and (D) the first two PCs of biases and their tercile averages across the CMIP archives, and the associated first (E) and second (F) EOFs of biases. All units are mm day<sup>-1</sup>, except for the PCs, which are unitless.

450



**Figure 9:** Analysis of the annual mean  $RH_{500}$  bias in the combined historical CMIP3/5/6 archive including A) the observed estimate from ERA5, the bias in (B) CMIP3 and (C) CMIP6, and (D) the first two PCs of biases and their tercile averages across the CMIP archives, and the associated first (E) and second (F) EOFs of biases. All units are %, except for the PCs, which are unitless.



**Figure 10:** Evolution of the distribution of aggregate and selected variable scores across the CMIP archives and the CESM1-LE.