

Radiation, Clouds, and Self-Aggregation in RCEMIP Simulations

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Key Points:

- GCMs aggregate faster than CRMs on average due to an enhanced longwave feedback
- Feedbacks tend to decrease in magnitude as SST increases, although the rate of aggregation remains similar
- Aggregation rate in GCMs is correlated with diabatic feedbacks, while in CRMs it is more related to advection feedbacks

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12 Abstract

13 The responses of tropical anvil cloud and low-level cloud to a warming climate are
 14 among the largest sources of uncertainty in our estimates of climate sensitivity. How-
 15 ever, most research on cloud feedbacks relies on either global climate models with pa-
 16 rameterized convection, which do not explicitly represent small-scale convective processes,
 17 or small-domain models, which cannot directly simulate large-scale circulations. We in-
 18 vestigate how self-aggregation, the spontaneous clumping of convection in idealized nu-
 19 merical models, depends on cloud-radiative interactions with different cloud types, sea
 20 surface temperatures (SSTs), and stages of aggregation in simulations that form part of
 21 RCEMIP (the Radiative-Convective Equilibrium Model Intercomparison Project). Anal-
 22 ysis shows that the presence of anvil cloud, which tends to enhance aggregation when
 23 collocated with anomalously moist environments, is reduced in nearly all models when
 24 SSTs are increased, leading to a corresponding reduction in the aggregating influence of
 25 cloud-longwave interactions. We also find that cloud-longwave radiation interactions are
 26 stronger in the majority of General Circulation Models (GCMs), typically resulting in
 27 faster aggregation compared to Cloud-system Resolving Models (CRMs). GCMs that
 28 have stronger cloud-longwave interactions tend to aggregate faster, whereas the influ-
 29 ence of circulations is the main factor affecting the aggregation rate in CRMs.

30 Plain Language Summary

31 The spatial organization of tropical rainstorms has major effects on weather and
 32 climate. This organization influences the duration and intensity of these convective storms,
 33 and alters the amount of radiation absorbed and emitted by the atmosphere. There is
 34 great uncertainty in the response of organisation to a warming climate, and this results
 35 in one of the largest sources of uncertainty in climate predictions. Climate projections
 36 rely on either General Circulation Models (GCMs) that can represent the large-scale mo-
 37 tions, or smaller high-resolution models that represent small-scale features like cloud for-
 38 mations, but not the large motions. In this study, we compare convective organization
 39 in GCMs and Cloud-system Resolving Models (CRMs) across a range of sea surface tem-
 40 peratures (SSTs). We find that the cloud-radiation feedbacks that make the convective
 41 environment more favorable for further convection, and the non-convective environment
 42 less favorable for convection, are stronger in GCMs than CRMs on average. This is re-
 43 lated to larger cloud amounts in GCMs, leading GCMs to have typically faster organ-
 44 ization than CRMs. We find these feedbacks which drive aggregation decrease as SST
 45 increases, yet the aggregation rate is largely insensitive to SST because of the decrease
 46 in the effect of atmospheric motions that oppose aggregation.

47 1 Introduction

48 Convective self-aggregation is the process by which initially randomly distributed
 49 convection becomes spontaneously clustered despite homogeneous boundary conditions
 50 and forcing. It was first identified in numerical models of radiative-convective equilib-
 51 rium (RCE) and has major implications for weather and climate (e.g. Wing et al., 2017).
 52 Because of this, it has been the focus of many studies in recent years (e.g. Bretherton
 53 et al., 2005; Coppin & Bony, 2015) and continues to be an active area of research. Pro-
 54 cesses that drive and maintain self-aggregation have been shown to be relevant to ob-
 55 served convection (Holloway et al., 2017), aiding the development of tropical cyclones
 56 (Nolan et al., 2007) and the Madden–Julian oscillation (Raymond & Fuchs, 2009; Arnold
 57 & Randall, 2015). However, there remains much debate as to the mechanisms and feed-
 58 backs responsible for controlling aggregation, which is in part due to the inter-model vari-
 59 ability in the structures and dynamics of convection within these models (Wing et al.,
 60 2017).

61 Aggregation of tropical convection has significant impacts on the climate, tending
 62 to decrease the total high-cloud fraction and free-troposphere humidity (e.g. Tobin et
 63 al., 2013; Wing & Cronin, 2016), affecting the amount of shortwave radiation being ab-
 64 sorbed by the atmosphere and surface, as well as affecting the amount of longwave ra-
 65 diation escaping to space. The uncertainty in the response of aggregation to a warming
 66 climate is a major source of uncertainty in our estimates for the global climate sensitiv-
 67 ity (Sherwood et al., 2020), with models that increase in aggregation with warming tend-
 68 ing to have a lower climate feedback parameter due to increased longwave cooling (Wing
 69 et al., 2020).

70 Various metrics have been proposed to characterize aggregation, many of which di-
 71 vide the domain into regions where convection occurs and regions of subsidence. Wing
 72 and Emanuel (2014) designed a framework to study aggregation using a variance of frozen
 73 moist static energy (FMSE) budget. FMSE, or h , is given by

$$h = c_p T + gz + L_v q_v - L_f q_i \quad (1)$$

74 where c_p is the specific heat capacity of dry air at constant pressure, T is temperature,
 75 g is the gravitational acceleration, z is the height above the surface, L_v is the latent heat
 76 of vaporization, q_v is the water vapor mixing ratio, L_f is the latent heat of fusion and
 77 q_i is the condensed ice mixing ratio. As aggregation increases, the spatial variance of column-
 78 integrated FMSE increases. In RCE experiments over a fixed sea surface temperature
 79 (SST), variations in humidity contribute the most to the spatial variability in FMSE as
 80 as horizontal temperature gradients are weak, and the gravitational potential term is ap-
 81 proximately uniform throughout the domain. Therefore the variance of column-integrated
 82 FMSE correlates most strongly with the variance of column relative humidity. Wing and
 83 Emanuel (2014) derive a budget equation for the rate of change of vertically-integrated
 84 FMSE variance, allowing for the quantification of the contributions of different FMSE
 85 feedbacks to the rate of change of aggregation:

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \hat{h}'^2}{\partial t} = \hat{h}' LW' + \hat{h}' SW' + \hat{h}' SEF' - \hat{h}' \nabla_h \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}} \hat{h} \quad (2)$$

86 where hats ($\hat{\cdot}$) denote a density-weighted vertical integral, LW and SW are the net at-
 87 mospheric column longwave and shortwave heating rates, SEF is the surface enthalpy
 88 flux, made up of the surface latent heat and sensible heat fluxes, $\nabla_h \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}} \hat{h}$ is the horizon-
 89 tal divergence of the \hat{h} flux, and primes ($'$) indicate local anomalies from the instanta-
 90 neous domain-mean. Each term on the right hand side is a covariance between the \hat{h} anomaly
 91 and the anomaly of a source/sink of \hat{h} . If the term is positive, there is either an anomalous
 92 source of \hat{h} in a region of already high \hat{h} , or an anomalous sink of \hat{h} in a region of
 93 low \hat{h} , representing a positive feedback on self-aggregation. Wing and Emanuel (2014)
 94 find each of the terms are important for aggregation, with the longwave and surface flux
 95 feedback being crucial drivers of aggregation, but later decreasing and becoming neg-
 96 ative as the convection becomes aggregated. They find the shortwave feedback to be a
 97 key maintainer of aggregation highlighting that the processes that drive aggregation are
 98 separate to the processes that maintain it.

99 Most research on cloud feedbacks relies on either general circulation models (GCMs)
 100 that use parameterized convection, or limited-area cloud-system resolving models (CRMs)
 101 with explicit convection that are too small to represent global-scale circulations. The cli-
 102 mate feedback and sensitivity of aggregation are different for GCMs and CRMs in the
 103 Radiative-Convective Equilibrium Model Intercomparison Project (RCEMIP; Wing et
 104 al., 2018), with GCMs typically having a lower climate sensitivity due to convection be-
 105 coming more aggregated on average at higher SSTs (Becker & Wing, 2020). This response
 106 is not seen on average in CRMs.

107 Despite there being debate as to the processes driving and maintaining aggrega-
 108 tion, the majority of studies find that interactions between convection and longwave ra-
 109 diation are key drivers and maintainers of aggregation (Wing et al., 2017). Pope et al.
 110 (2021) quantified the contribution of radiative interactions with different cloud types to
 111 aggregation using a set of simulations from the UK Met Office Unified Model which are
 112 submitted to RCEMIP as UKMOi-vn11.0-RA1-T (referred as UKMO-RA1-T hereafter).
 113 They used a similar FMSE variance budget framework to Wing and Emanuel (2014) but
 114 normalize \hat{h} in such a way so that its SST dependence is eliminated, thus making the
 115 analysis framework insensitive to SST. They found the direct longwave interactions with
 116 high-topped cloud and clear regions to be the main drivers of aggregation. High-topped
 117 clouds typically occur in anomalously-high \hat{h} regions and drastically decrease atmospheric
 118 radiative cooling, leading to a positive longwave-FMSE feedback. Similarly, clear regions
 119 have anomalously high radiative cooling rates and tend to be found in anomalously-low
 120 \hat{h} regions, again leading to a positive longwave-FMSE feedback and driving aggregation.

121 Pope et al. (2021) found the main maintainers of aggregation were longwave inter-
 122 actions with high-topped cloud, and shortwave interactions with water vapour. Anoma-
 123 lously humid environments occur in positive \hat{h}' regions and are able to absorb more so-
 124 lar radiation leading to a positive feedback. The difference in humidity between the moist
 125 and dry regions increases with aggregation, hence the shortwave-moisture feedback has
 126 a higher impact during mature aggregation. The extents of the contributions of these
 127 feedbacks to aggregation are sensitive to SST. In their simulations, the longwave con-
 128 tribution to aggregation is insensitive to SST during the growth phase of aggregation,
 129 but there is a smaller longwave contribution to aggregation maintenance as SST increases
 130 due to the reduction of high-topped cloud fraction. This decrease in high-topped cloud
 131 fraction is consistent with the stability iris mechanism described by Bony et al. (2016),
 132 who describe the reduction in anvil cloud as a consequence of increased anvil stability
 133 and decreased convective outflow with increasing SST. Shortwave interactions with mois-
 134 ture become less important to aggregation maintenance at warmer SSTs. This is because
 135 the variability in atmospheric solar heating between humid and dry regions contributes
 136 to a smaller fraction of the total \hat{h} variability as SST increases. Despite radiative inter-
 137 actions with cloud and moisture being the main drivers of aggregation, the rate of ag-
 138 gregation was most strongly moderated by circulations that generally oppose aggrega-
 139 tion, resulting in faster aggregation at warmer SSTs.

140 In this study, we test the robustness of the conclusions from Pope et al. (2021) by
 141 applying their analysis framework to the CRM and GCM simulations in RCEMIP. We
 142 quantify the contributions of cloud-radiation interactions to self-aggregation at differ-
 143 ent stages of organisation and study their SST dependence. We investigate whether the
 144 differences in cloud-radiation interactions between models and model types can explain
 145 the differences in the behaviour of self-aggregation.

146 2 Methods

147 The CRMs and GCMs of RCEMIP are configured using a strict protocol which is
 148 described in Wing et al. (2018). CRMs perform ~ 100 -day, non-rotating, long channel
 149 simulations on a domain of $\sim 6,000$ km \times 400 km with a 3 km horizontal grid spacing,
 150 doubly periodic boundary conditions, and explicit convection. GCMs perform $\sim 1,000$ -
 151 day, non-rotating, global-scale aquaplanet simulations with parameterized convection.
 152 They have a mean grid spacing of $\mathcal{O}(1^\circ)$ varying between ~ 100 km and ~ 170 km, with
 153 the average of all GCMs being ~ 120 km. Every model in RCEMIP has constant solar
 154 forcing and performs simulations with three fixed SSTs of 295 K, 300 K and 305 K to
 155 compare how convection in RCE may be affected by a warming climate.

156 We study aggregation using the variance of normalized frozen moist static energy
 157 budget framework that is described by Pope et al. (2021) (referenced as P21 hereafter).

158 The framework is based on that used in Wing and Emanuel (2014), however vertically-
 159 integrated FMSE is normalized between hypothetical upper and lower limits based on
 160 SST in an attempt to eliminate the strong temperature dependence of FMSE. This ap-
 161 proach uses the variance of normalized FMSE ($\text{var}(\widehat{h}_n)$) as the aggregation metric be-
 162 cause it is approximately insensitive to SST. The budget equation for the rate of change
 163 of $\text{var}(\widehat{h}_n)$ is:

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \widehat{h}_n'^2}{\partial t} = \widehat{h}_n' LW_n' + \widehat{h}_n' SW_n' + \widehat{h}_n' SEF_n' - \widehat{h}_n' \nabla_h \cdot \mathbf{u} \widehat{h}_n \quad (3)$$

164 Here, \widehat{h}_n' and each of the three normalized flux anomalies on the RHS (LW_n' , SW_n' , and
 165 SEF_n') is equal to the original flux anomaly in equation (2) divided by the difference be-
 166 tween the upper and lower limits of \widehat{h} (\widehat{h}_{\max} and \widehat{h}_{\min}). \widehat{h}_{\max} is defined as the vertically-
 167 integrated FMSE of a fully saturated moist pseudoadiabatic profile from the surface to
 168 the tropopause, plus the integrated FMSE of the initial profile above the tropopause. For
 169 \widehat{h}_{\min} , the vertically-integrated FMSE of a dry adiabatic profile with zero moisture is used
 170 within the troposphere, and integrated FMSE above the tropopause from the initial pro-
 171 file is added. The SST is used as the temperature at sea-level pressure to initiate both
 172 adiabatic profiles. The tropopause is defined as the lowest level in the initial profile at
 173 which the lapse rate decreases to $2^\circ\text{C}/\text{km}$ or less, which has some variability in height
 174 between model simulations.

175 $\text{Var}(\widehat{h}_n)$ is not only dependent on spatial aggregation, but it is also sensitive to grid
 176 spacing, particularly while convection is well-scattered. This is because small-scale fea-
 177 tures, e.g. convective updrafts and downdrafts that tend to have strong positive and nega-
 178 tive \widehat{h}_n' respectively, are not resolved at coarser resolutions. This leads to a smaller $\text{var}(\widehat{h}_n)$
 179 for coarser horizontal resolutions. As the size of the convective clusters increase and \widehat{h}_n
 180 anomalies are strong over large areas, $\text{var}(\widehat{h}_n)$ becomes less sensitive to grid spacing (anal-
 181 ysis not shown). To make the comparison between CRMs and the $40\times$ coarser GCMs
 182 as fair as possible, we horizontally smooth the raw output fields of the CRMs so that ev-
 183 ery grid box is the mean of the 40×40 grid boxes surrounding it (accounting for the
 184 periodic boundary conditions). When using this smoothing technique in the analysis, we
 185 refer to the CRMs as Smoothed CRMs.

186 In a similar way to P21, we define Growth and Mature phases of aggregation by
 187 two ranges of $\text{var}(\widehat{h}_n)$ for which convection, in the majority of models, is randomly scat-
 188 tered or well clustered, respectively. The Growth phase is identified as any time after
 189 day 2 (to neglect spin-up effects) when $\text{var}(\widehat{h}_n)$ for GCMs and Smoothed CRMs is be-
 190 tween 0.8×10^{-4} and 2.4×10^{-4} . The Mature phase is identified as any time when $\text{var}(\widehat{h}_n)$
 191 for GCMs and Smoothed CRMs is between 0.8×10^{-3} and 2.4×10^{-3} . Given our previ-
 192 ous notion that $\text{var}(\widehat{h}_n)$ is sensitive to grid spacing, we use the times of the Growth and
 193 Mature phases identified from the Smoothed CRMs to also analyse the (non-Smoothed)
 194 CRMs.

195 Since \widehat{h}_n' is a factor of every term in Equation 3, one might expect the magnitude
 196 of the terms to increase with aggregation. By dividing each term by the instantaneous
 197 horizontal standard deviation of \widehat{h}_n , we can eliminate the dependence of the terms on
 198 the magnitude of \widehat{h}_n' . After dividing by this standard deviation, the sensitivity of the terms
 199 to aggregation will depend on the sensitivity of the other variable in the term and its
 200 correlation with \widehat{h}_n' .

201 A drawback of the $\text{var}(\widehat{h}_n)$ budget framework is that it is a vertically-integrated
 202 framework that is not able to quantify the effects of processes occurring at specific ver-
 203 tical levels. Studies have shown that there are many low-level processes that are impor-
 204 tant for aggregation. For example, Muller and Held (2012) highlight the importance of
 205 shallow, radiatively-driven circulations caused by cooling atop shallow clouds in dry re-

206 regions, yielding an upgradient transport of FMSE, inducing a positive aggregation feed-
 207 back. Jeevanjee and Romps (2013) describe how cold pools are responsible for the do-
 208 main size dependence of self-aggregation. Boundary layer processes are key for the pro-
 209 duction of available potential energy that is associated with the development of self-aggregation
 210 (Yang, 2018a), and are theorized to determine the length scale of aggregation (Yang, 2018b).
 211 The use of our vertically-integrated framework means the effects of these processes are
 212 not directly studied. Circulations that are induced by diabatic forcing are included in
 213 the vertically-integrated advection term in the $\text{var}(\tilde{h}_n)$ budget framework. So the radi-
 214 ation and surface flux terms only account for the *direct* diabatic feedbacks.

215 2.1 Cloud Classification Scheme

216 We use a cloud classification scheme to define a cloud type at each grid point in
 217 the simulations. The contribution of radiative interactions with these cloud types to ag-
 218 gregation are calculated by multiplying each cloud type’s fraction by the mean covari-
 219 ance between its radiative and FMSE anomalies. This analysis technique is based on that
 220 used by P21, however the cloud type definitions in this study are different. In RCEMIP,
 221 3D data are only available for the final 25 days of CRMs and GCMs, so we are not able
 222 to define cloud based on the vertical profile of condensed water for the full simulation
 223 as in P21. Instead, we define clouds using top of atmosphere (TOA) fluxes, using the same
 224 method as Becker and Wing (2020) (referenced as BW20 hereafter). This method pro-
 225 duces four different cloud types: Clear, Shallow, Deep, and Other. The outgoing short-
 226 wave radiation (OSR) and outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) thresholds used to de-
 227 fine the four cloud types are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. OSR and OLR thresholds used to define the cloud types.

Cloud type	OSR (W m^{-2})	OLR (W m^{-2})
Clear	< 100	N/A
Shallow	≥ 100	> 250
Other	≥ 100	173 - 250
Deep	≥ 100	< 173

228 A comparison of the cloud type classification schemes between that used in P21
 229 and this study is shown in Figure 1(a-d). These figures show the P21 cloud distributions
 230 for each of the BW20 cloud types across all of the CRMs. Approximately 80% of this
 231 study’s Clear category is made up of the Clear type defined in P21, meaning the con-
 232 densed water content is less than $10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ everywhere in the column. The remain-
 233 der of the BW20 Clear category is mostly made up of optically-thin High and Low cloud.
 234 The Shallow cloud type is mostly made up of Low cloud, and the Deep cloud is almost
 235 entirely made up of the high-topped cloud (High, High & Mid, High & Low, and Deep).
 236 The Other cloud type is made up of approximately two thirds high-topped cloud that
 237 is perhaps too optically thin or having too small a vertical extent to lead to an OLR less
 238 than 173 W m^{-2} and be classed as Deep.

239 Cloud types are redefined using the Smoothed radiative fluxes in order to make a
 240 fairer comparison to GCMs. The distribution of non-Smoothed clouds for each Smoothed
 241 cloud type is shown in Figure 1(e-h). The Smoothed Clear and Deep categories are mainly
 242 made up of the non-Smoothed Clear and Deep categories respectively. The Smoothed
 243 Shallow cloud is only about one quarter made up of non-Smoothed Shallow cloud, and
 244 mostly made up of Clear. The Smoothed Other cloud type is mostly a combination of
 245 Clear, Other and Deep regions.

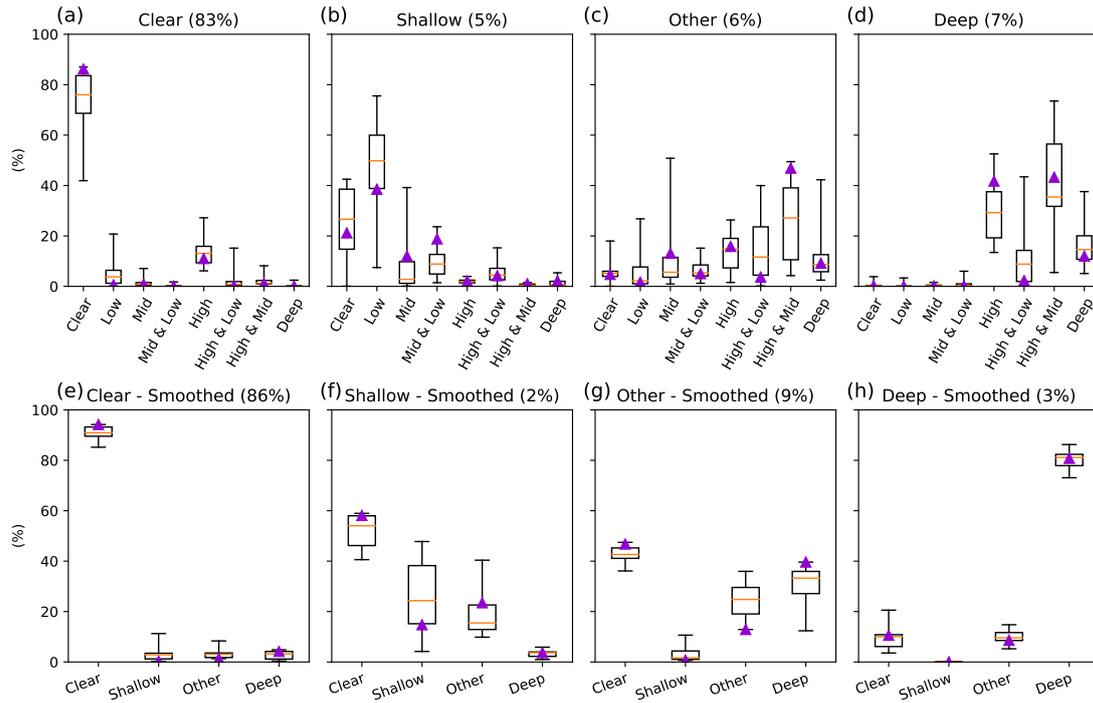


Figure 1. (a-d) Distributions of the cloud categories used in P21 for each of the four cloud types used in this study. Data is averaged over the final 25 days of the CRMs for all SSTs. (e-h) Distributions of this study’s cloud types for each of the Smoothed cloud types. Data is averaged over the full duration of the CRMs (neglecting the 2-day spin-up period) for all SSTs. Orange lines represent the median, boxes represent the interquartile range, and whiskers represent the full range of the models. The UKMO-RA1-T model is shown in purple triangles. Average domain fraction is shown in the subplot titles.

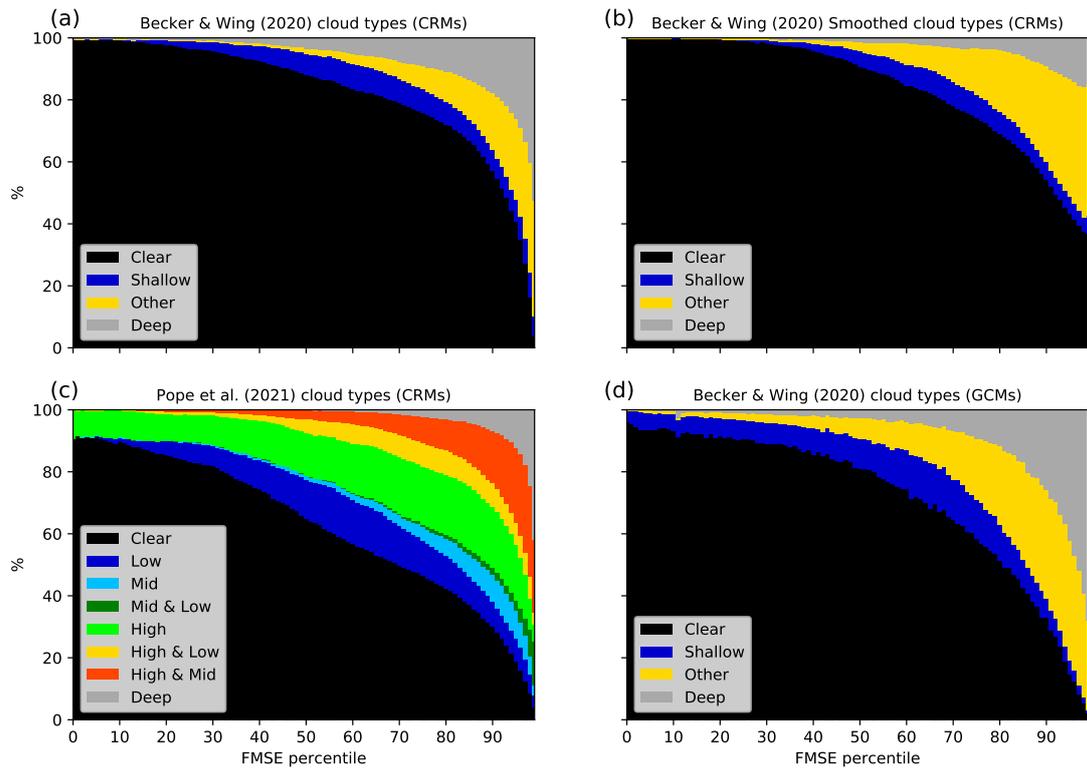


Figure 2. Cloud type fraction vs FMSE percentile for the (a) BW20 cloud types for all CRMs, (b) Smoothed BW20 cloud types for all CRMs, (c) P21 cloud types for all CRMs, and (d) BW20 cloud types for the GCMs during the final 24 hours of the simulations.

Figure 2 shows the fraction of different cloud types as a function of FMSE percentile during the final 24 hours of the simulations. Differences in the BW20 and P21 cloud classification schemes within the CRMs can be seen by comparing Figures 2a and 2c. Cloud fraction increases with FMSE percentile regardless of the cloud classification scheme used. There is a lower cloud fraction in the BW20 cloud types compared to the P21 cloud types at all FMSE percentiles except for the extremely moist environments in which the cloud fraction is close to 100%. There is greater high-topped cloud in the P21 classification scheme compared to the BW20 Deep cloud which may be due to the presence of optically-thin High cloud that has $OSR < 100 \text{ W m}^{-2}$. There is also a greater fraction of P21 Low cloud compared to BW20 Shallow cloud at all FMSE percentiles, again due to the presence of optically thin Low cloud with $OSR < 100 \text{ W m}^{-2}$.

The effect of Smoothing is shown by comparing Figures 2a with 2b. Smoothing reduces the total cloud fraction in the lower 40% and upper 10% of FMSE values. The fraction of Deep cloud is reduced and the fraction of Other cloud is increased at all FMSE percentiles. The difference between Smoothed CRMs and GCMs can be seen by comparing Figures 2b and 2d. There is a greater cloud fraction in GCMs at all FMSE percentiles, which is largely due to the increase in Deep cloud fraction. There is also a greater Shallow cloud fraction particularly at lower FMSE values, and a lower Other cloud fraction at higher FMSE values. The effects of Smoothing, and comparisons between CRMs and GCMs are discussed further in section 4. The cloud type fractions of the non-Smoothed CRMs are most similar to the fractions of the GCMs, suggesting GCMs may be tuned to have a more accurate cloud fraction in a discrete grid box sense rather than on sub-grid scales. Yet GCMs still have a greater average cloud fraction particularly at higher \hat{h}'_n regions.

Radiative interactions with high-topped cloud and Clear regions are shown to have the largest role in aggregation in P21. With the majority of BW20 Clear and Deep clouds being collocated with P21 Clear and high-topped cloud respectively, results from P21 can be fairly compared to results from this study.

3 Variance of Normalized FMSE

The RCEMIP CRMs simulate a wide range of convective characteristics (Wing et al., 2020). All models display aggregation to some degree except for the UKMO-CASIM model at 305 K, whose convection remains scattered throughout the entire simulation. Figure 3 shows 24-hour running averages of $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ for each Smoothed CRM and SST. Also shown are the $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ limits for the Growth and Mature phase of aggregation (introduced in section 2), which will be discussed later. There is much variability in the rate of aggregation amongst the CRMs as well as the maximum degree of aggregation, with no consistent SST dependence. The inconsistent SST dependence of aggregation is seen regardless of aggregation metric used (Wing et al., 2020). Not all models reach both the Growth and Mature stages of aggregation at all three SSTs. These models are marked with an asterisk in Figure 3 and do not contribute to model-mean calculations to prevent skewing the results.

Figure 4 shows 24-hour running averages of $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ for each GCM and SST. Also shown are the $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ limits for the Growth and Mature phase of aggregation. All of the GCMs aggregate, again displaying a wide range of characteristics (Wing et al., 2020). Unlike the CRMs, aggregation increases with SST in the majority of GCMs. GCMs that reach a more aggregated state at warmer SSTs do not usually aggregate faster as SST increases, but they tend to continue aggregating for a longer duration. As with the CRMs, we do not include all GCMs in the model-mean calculations as not all models have data in both the Growth and Mature phases of aggregation for each of the SSTs. These models are marked with an asterisk. Note CAM5 and CAM6 have FMSE data only for the final 25 days of the 1095-day simulation. ICON-GCM at 300 K already has a variance

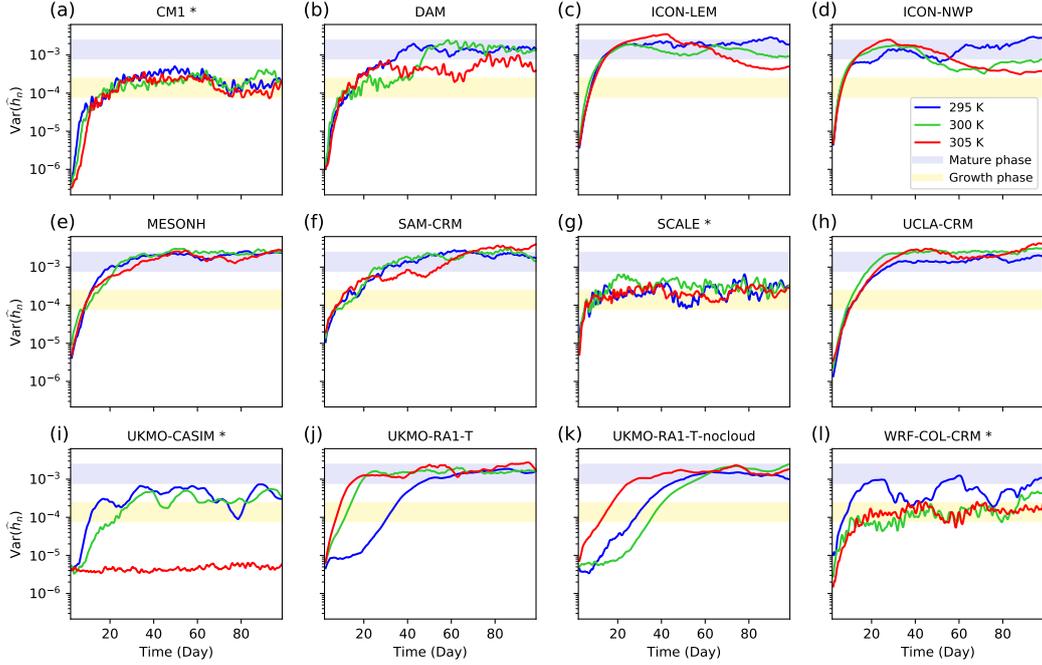


Figure 3. Time series of $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ for each Smoothed CRM and SST neglecting the first two days accounting for model spin-up (24-hour running averages). The Growth and Mature phases are indicated by the yellow and blue shaded regions respectively. Models marked with an asterisk (*) are excluded in future model-mean calculations as not all of their simulations reach the Growth and Mature phase for all SSTs.

297 greater than the upper limit for the Growth phase after two days (which we consider the
 298 spin-up period) so is not included in model-mean calculations. SP-CAM and SPX-CAM
 299 are also excluded from all further analysis because of abnormally-large longwave cool-
 300 ing rates across the entire domain. Domain-mean longwave cooling within the 300 K sim-
 301 ulations of both the GCMs and CRMs range between 150 and 230 W m^{-2} , whereas the
 302 cooling rates for SP-CAM and SPX-CAM are around 325 W m^{-2} . This has knock-on
 303 effects, affecting the longwave heating anomalies of clouds, their longwave-FMSE anomaly
 304 covariance and their contribution to aggregation (analysis not shown). ECHAM6 and
 305 GEOS are included in the model-mean calculations because the 295 K simulations reach
 306 the Mature stage after the 100 days shown in Figure 4.

307 Figure 5 shows the spatiotemporal mean of the budget terms during the Growth
 308 phase and Mature phase of aggregation for Smoothed CRMs and GCMs and for each
 309 SST. From this figure, we can see which FMSE covariances are enhancing or opposing
 310 aggregation at these different stages. The $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ tendency is calculated using a second-
 311 order finite difference approximation from 6-hourly calculated $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$. The diabatic terms
 312 are explicitly calculated, and the advection term is calculated as a residual of the other
 313 terms. By comparing GCMs to the Smoothed CRMs, we remove biases that may be a
 314 result of the small-scale features that cannot be resolved in the larger grid spacing in GCMs.

315 Figure 5 shows that for all model types, and at all SSTs, FMSE feedbacks with long-
 316 wave radiation and surface fluxes are typically the main drivers of aggregation in the Growth
 317 phase, however the magnitude of each feedback is highly variable from model to model.
 318 The shortwave term is consistently small and positive and has little inter-model variabil-

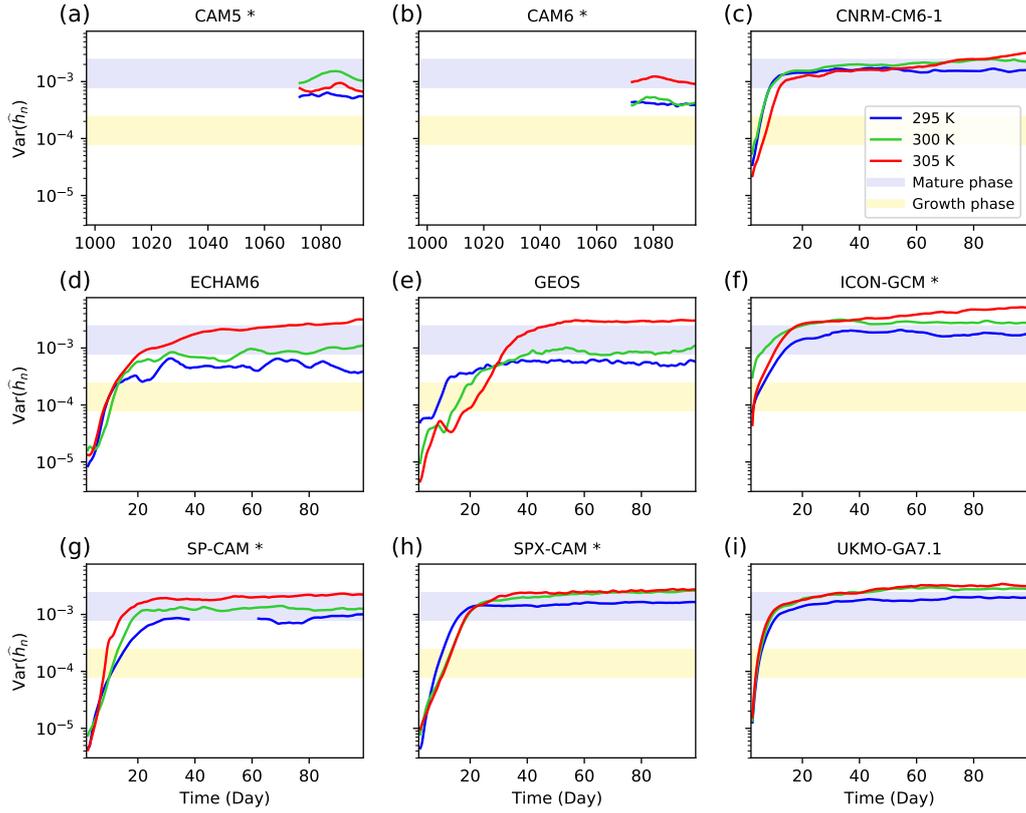


Figure 4. Time series of $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ for each GCM and SST for the first 100 days, neglecting the first two days accounting for model spin-up (24-hour running averages). Note CAM5 and CAM6 output FMSE for the final 25 days only and so we only show that time period for those models. The Growth and Mature phases are indicated by the yellow and blue shaded regions respectively. Models marked with an asterisk (*) are excluded in future model-mean calculations.

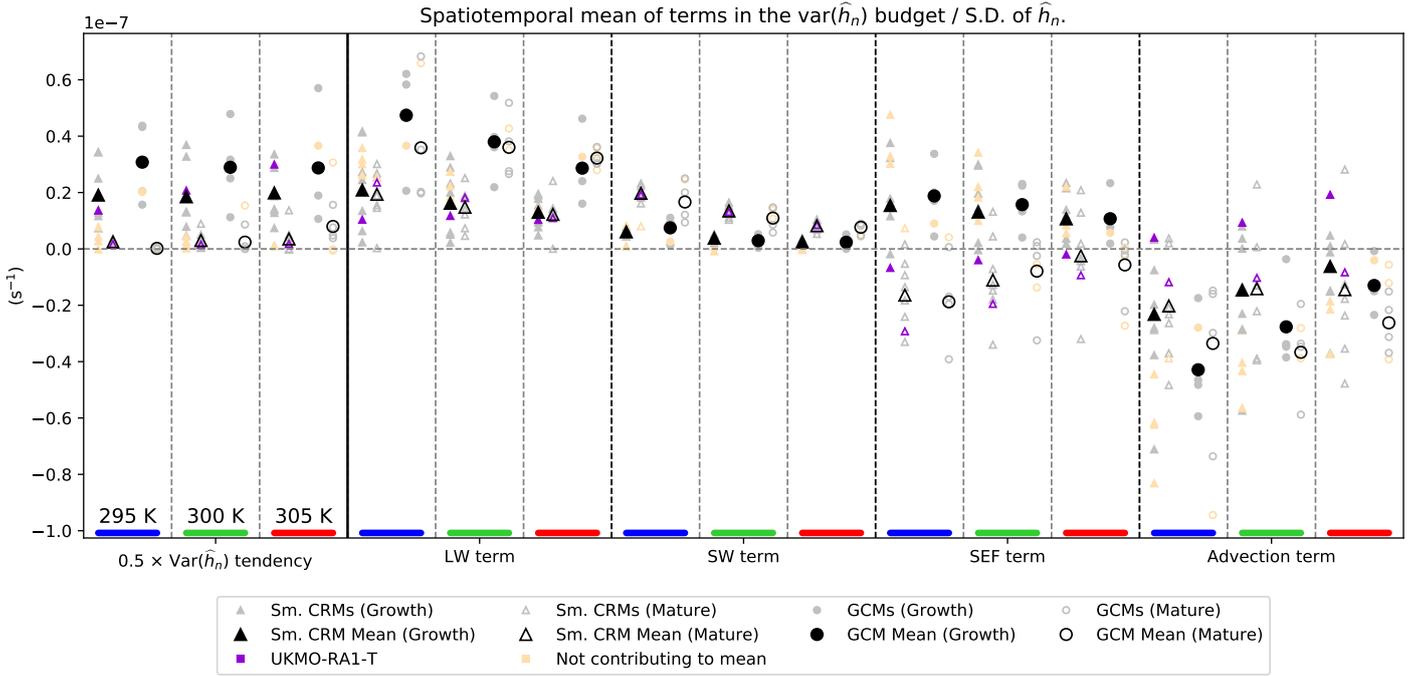


Figure 5. Spatiotemporal mean of terms in the $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ budget equation divided by the instantaneous standard deviation of \hat{h}_n for Smoothed CRMs (triangles) and GCMs (circles) at each SST during the Growth phase (filled markers) and Mature phase (open markers) of aggregation. For each term, SST increases to the right. The mean for the Smoothed CRMs and GCMs for each SST are shown in black markers. Models that do not reach both the Growth and Mature phase at all three SSTs are shown with orange markers and do not contribute to the mean. SP-CAM and SPX-CAM are excluded from the figure. UKMO-RA1-T is shown in purple.

ity. The advection term typically opposes aggregation and is the greatest source of variability for the rate of aggregation across the models.

During the Mature phase of aggregation, both the longwave and shortwave feedbacks maintain aggregation, and are balanced by the typically-negative surface flux and advection feedbacks. On average, the magnitude of the longwave feedback has little dependence on the degree of aggregation, whereas the shortwave feedback increases with aggregation as moist and dry regions amplify, leading to larger differences in shortwave absorption between positive and negative \hat{h}'_n regions. The surface flux feedback is usually positive during the Growth phase as higher surface wind speeds in moist convective regions leads to a positive feedback. During the mature phase, the wind speed-surface flux feedback becomes overcompensated by the negative air-sea disequilibrium feedback, whereby surface evaporation rates are enhanced in drier environments (Wing & Emanuel, 2014). The surface flux feedback during the Mature phase at higher SSTs may be less negative due to the wind-evaporation feedback being relatively stronger (Coppin & Bony, 2015).

As noted by Wing et al. (2020), GCMs tend to reach a higher degree of aggregation at higher SSTs. With little SST dependence of the rate of aggregation in our defined Growth phase, aggregation rates increase with SST for $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ greater than the upper limit of the Growth phase. This can be seen in many of the models in Figure 4 and to some extent in Figure 5 by looking at the $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ tendency of GCMs during the Mature phase which increases slightly with SST. However, the greatest SST dependence of the rate of change of $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ is during the times in between the Growth and Mature phase (not shown). For GCMs during the Growth phase, the sum of the diabatic terms decrease in magnitude with SST, yet the advection term becomes more positive with SST, resulting in little SST dependence in the rate of aggregation in the Growth phase. After the Growth phase however, the sum of the diabatic feedbacks becomes less SST dependent, while the advection term remains more positive with SST. This results in a greater rate of aggregation after our defined Growth phase. In CRMs, the sum of the diabatic terms also becomes less sensitive to SST after the Growth phase, though they still have a more negative SST dependence than the average of the GCMs. The main difference between GCMs and CRMs is the SST sensitivity of the longwave term after the Growth phase, which remains more constant on average with SST in GCMs. This will be explored further in the following section.

The longwave feedback is on average a factor 2 greater in GCMs compared to CRMs for all stages of aggregation. The larger longwave feedback in GCMs is the main difference in terms of the diabatic feedbacks between CRMs and GCMs. This results in GCMs having an overall larger diabatic feedback, corresponding to a more negative advection feedback and/or a higher rate of aggregation in the Growth phase. There is, however, a large spread in the models' advection term and aggregation rate. The difference between the mean advection term between GCMs and Smoothed CRMs is not statistically significant at the 95% confidence level for a given SST, even when including the models that are neglected from the model-mean comparisons. The increase in mean aggregation rate from the Smoothed CRMs to the GCMs is only significant at each SST when we include the models neglected from the model-mean comparisons. The difference in the longwave feedbacks in CRMs and GCMs is significant and will be discussed further in the next section.

There is little difference in the budget terms between the non-Smoothed and Smoothed CRMs (not shown). After dividing the terms by the standard deviation of \hat{h}_n , the rate of aggregation, longwave term, and shortwave term remain similar on average. The most significant change is the surface flux term during the Growth phase, which decreases by about 40% after smoothing. With the surface flux term decreasing in the Growth phase, and the other diabatic terms and $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ tendency term remaining similar, the advective

371 tion term becomes more positive after smoothing as it is calculated as a residual of the
 372 other terms.

373 If FMSE feedbacks in CRMs and GCMs are represented similarly despite the dif-
 374 ferent grid spacings, the budget terms in GCMs should be similar to the budget terms
 375 in the Smoothed CRMs. For both CRMs and GCMs, each of the diabatic terms are typ-
 376 ically positive during the Growth phase but on average decrease in magnitude as SST
 377 increases (Figure 5). P21 studied the UKMO-RA1-T model simulations which are rep-
 378 resented by the purple, triangular data points in Figures 5, 7 & 8. They analysed this
 379 SST dependence of the UKMO-RA1-T CRM and found the longwave feedback decreases
 380 with SST due to the reduction of high-cloud fraction at higher SSTs. However in their
 381 study, this SST dependence was only found in the Mature phase. We explore how high-
 382 cloud fraction affects the longwave feedback in the RCEMIP CRMs and GCMs in the
 383 following section. P21 found the decrease in the shortwave feedback to be inversely pro-
 384 portional to the difference between \hat{h}_{\max} and \hat{h}_{\min} . Physically, this means that the short-
 385 wave heating anomalies contribute similar amounts to increasing the non-normalized FMSE
 386 variance at different SSTs. However, since FMSE anomalies are higher at warmer SSTs,
 387 the shortwave heating anomalies contribute to a smaller fraction of FMSE variance. For
 388 both CRMs and GCMs in RCEMIP, the advection term becomes less negative with SST
 389 on average and is inversely proportional to the sum of the diabatic terms. The result is
 390 that the rate of aggregation during the Growth phase for both CRMs and GCMs does
 391 not depend strongly on SST.

392 Some of the results from the mean of the models are in contrast to the results found
 393 in P21. According to the model means, the surface flux feedback is almost as important
 394 as the longwave feedback in driving aggregation, which is in stark contrast to the UKMO-
 395 RA1-T model that shows the surface flux feedback to be slightly negative even during
 396 the Growth phase. This suggests the air-sea disequilibrium feedback in the UKMO-RA1-
 397 T model dominates over the wind speed-surface flux feedback to a larger degree than in
 398 the majority of models. The sum of the diabatic terms decreases with SST for the model
 399 means, yet it is more constant with SST in the UKMO-RA1-T simulations and is also
 400 more negative. Despite the more negative diabatic feedback in UKMO-RA1-T, the rate
 401 of aggregation is faster than the model means at 300 K and 305 K. This is because the
 402 UKMO-RA1-T model has the most positive advection feedback of all models. This feed-
 403 back increases with SST despite the diabatic terms remaining similar, resulting in faster
 404 aggregation at higher SSTs in UKMO-RA1-T, but there is little change in aggregation
 405 rate with SST for the model mean.

406 Previous literature has shown the diabatic terms to be essential drivers of aggrega-
 407 tion, so we would expect that a greater diabatic-FMSE feedback would lead to an in-
 408 creased rate of aggregation. Despite the diabatic terms driving aggregation in the Growth
 409 phase of the RCEMIP simulations (Figure 5), we cannot conclude that the magnitude
 410 of the sum of the diabatic terms is correlated to the rate of aggregation. Figure 6a shows
 411 the correlation between the longwave term and the $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ tendency term in Equation
 412 3 during the Growth phase for Smoothed CRMs and GCMs. We find there is a signif-
 413 icant correlation between the longwave term and rate of aggregation in the GCMs, but
 414 there is no significant correlation between the longwave term and rate of aggregation in
 415 the CRMs (regardless of Smoothing). Figure 6b shows the correlation between the sum
 416 of the diabatic terms and the $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ tendency term. Again there is a significant pos-
 417 itive correlation between the diabatic feedbacks and rate of aggregation in the GCMs,
 418 but not for the CRMs. A greater diabatic feedback is associated with a more negative
 419 advection feedback (Figure 6c). In the CRMs, the sum of the diabatic terms is, on av-
 420 erage, proportional to the magnitude of the advection feedback, hence there is no sig-
 421 nificant relationship between the diabatic feedbacks and aggregation rate. There is a less
 422 negative relationship between the sum of the diabatic terms and the advection term in
 423 the GCMs, allowing GCMs with a higher diabatic feedback to aggregate faster. The rate

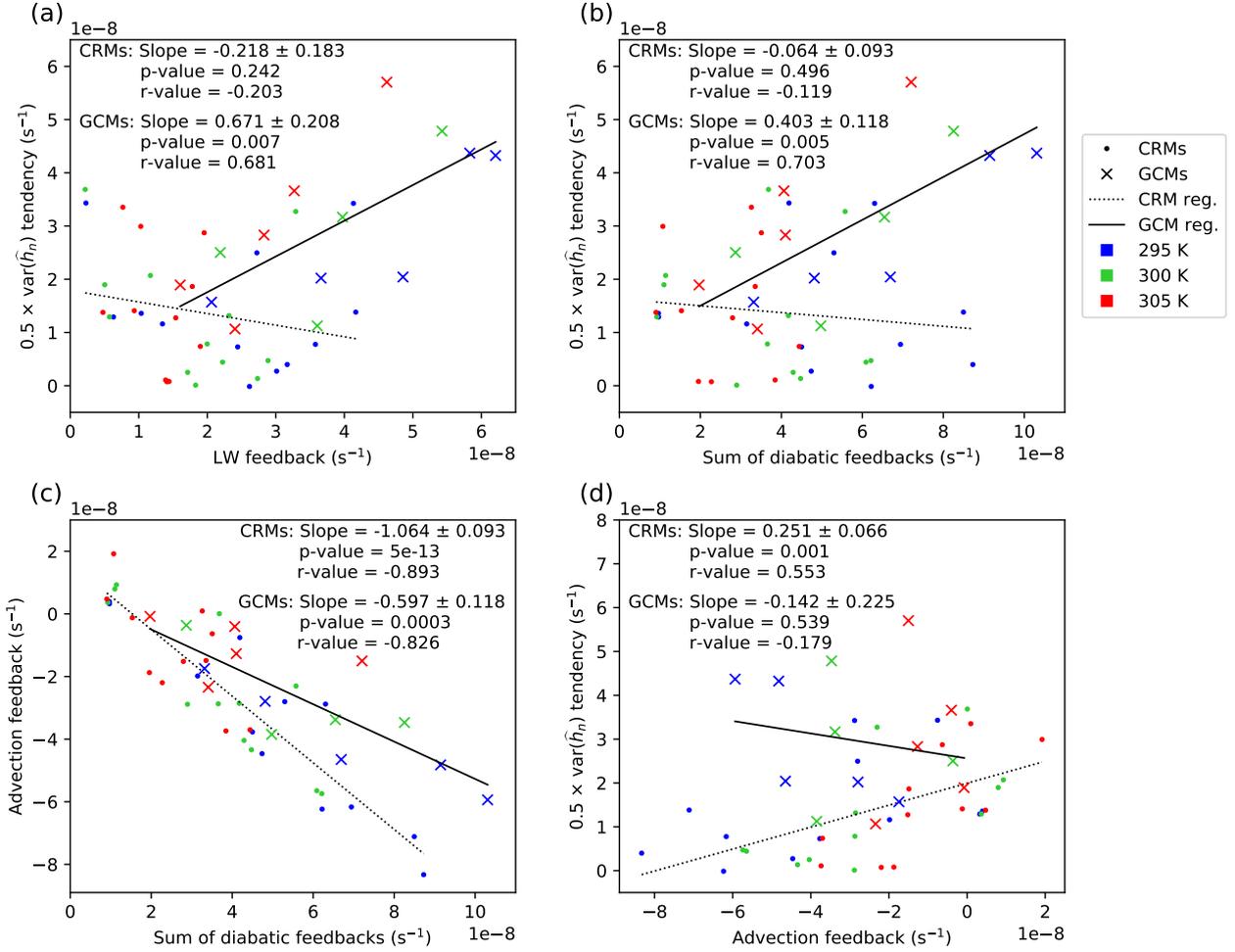


Figure 6. (a) Average of the $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ tendency term vs the longwave term in Equation 3, (b) average of the $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ tendency term vs the sum of the three diabatic terms (longwave, short-wave & surface flux), (c) average of the advection term vs the sum of the diabatic terms, and (d) average $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ tendency term vs the advection term, for each Smoothed CRM (points) and GCM (crosses) averaged over the Growth phase. Also shown is the regression line for CRMs (dotted) and GCMs (solid line), as well as their slope, p-value and r-value.

of aggregation in CRMs is most strongly correlated with the advection feedback (Figure 6d), with no significant correlation between the advection feedback and aggregation rate in the GCMs.

The longwave feedback is a key driver and maintainer of aggregation in the majority of models at each SST. It is typically a larger feedback in GCMs, resulting in largely faster aggregation rates compared to CRMs. The longwave feedback is a key factor in determining the model spread in the rate of aggregation, as well as the sensitivity of the degree of aggregation to SST in GCMs.

4 Contributions of Cloud-Radiation Interactions to Aggregation

In this section, we compare longwave-cloud interactions within the CRMs and GCMs. We first study these interactions in the CRMs to test the robustness of the conclusions in P21. We then compare CRMs to GCMs by first seeing how cloud-longwave interactions are affected by coarsened grid spacing using the Smoothed CRMs. Then we compare the Smoothed CRMs to GCMs to study why the longwave feedback tends to be stronger in GCMs.

4.1 Cloud-Radiation Interactions within CRMs

The contributions of longwave interactions for the different cloud types in the CRMs and Smoothed CRMs during the Growth and Mature phase of aggregation for each SST are shown in Figure 7a. Each model that contributes to the mean is shown in grey, the model mean shown in black, UKMO-RA1-T is shown in purple, and models that do not contribute to the mean are shown in light orange. We first focus on the (non-Smoothed) CRMs.

For the CRMs during the Growth phase of aggregation, longwave interactions with the Clear and Deep regions contribute most to the longwave feedback. The Clear regions have a large contribution mainly because of their large domain-fraction (Figure 7b) and positive $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance (Figure 7c), despite the covariance being on average the lowest in magnitude out of all cloud types. Deep clouds are the next most abundant cloud type on average and typically have the largest $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance of all cloud types. They have the largest LW'_n due to their cold cloud tops (Figure 7e) and have the second highest \hat{h}'_n of the cloud types (Figure 7d). A large portion of the Deep category comes from thin anvil cloud which often extend a great distance from the high-FMSE updraft that they originated from. This transport of high cloud to lower-FMSE regions lowers the average \hat{h}'_n of the Deep category. The Shallow and Other cloud types have an insignificant contribution to the longwave feedback in comparison because their $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance is small in magnitude (mostly due to a small-magnitude LW'_n) and they have a small fraction (although the fraction is highly variable between models).

The negative SST dependence of the longwave feedback, as seen in Figure 5, can be explained by the negative SST dependence of the longwave interactions with the Deep and Clear regions as follows, in agreement with P21. During both the Growth and the Mature phases, the $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance of the Deep regions remains similar with SST (Figure 7c) while the Deep cloud fraction steadily decreases (Figure 7b), so the SST dependence of the Deep cloud's longwave contribution to aggregation is primarily due to the decrease in Deep cloud fraction.

The contribution of the Clear regions decreases with SST due to the decrease in the Clear $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance. There are multiple factors that influence this SST dependence: the change in longwave heating rates of the different cloud types, the change in their fraction, the increase in the range of \hat{h}_{\max} and \hat{h}_{\min} , and the change in correlation between longwave and FMSE anomalies in the Clear regions. The correlation be-

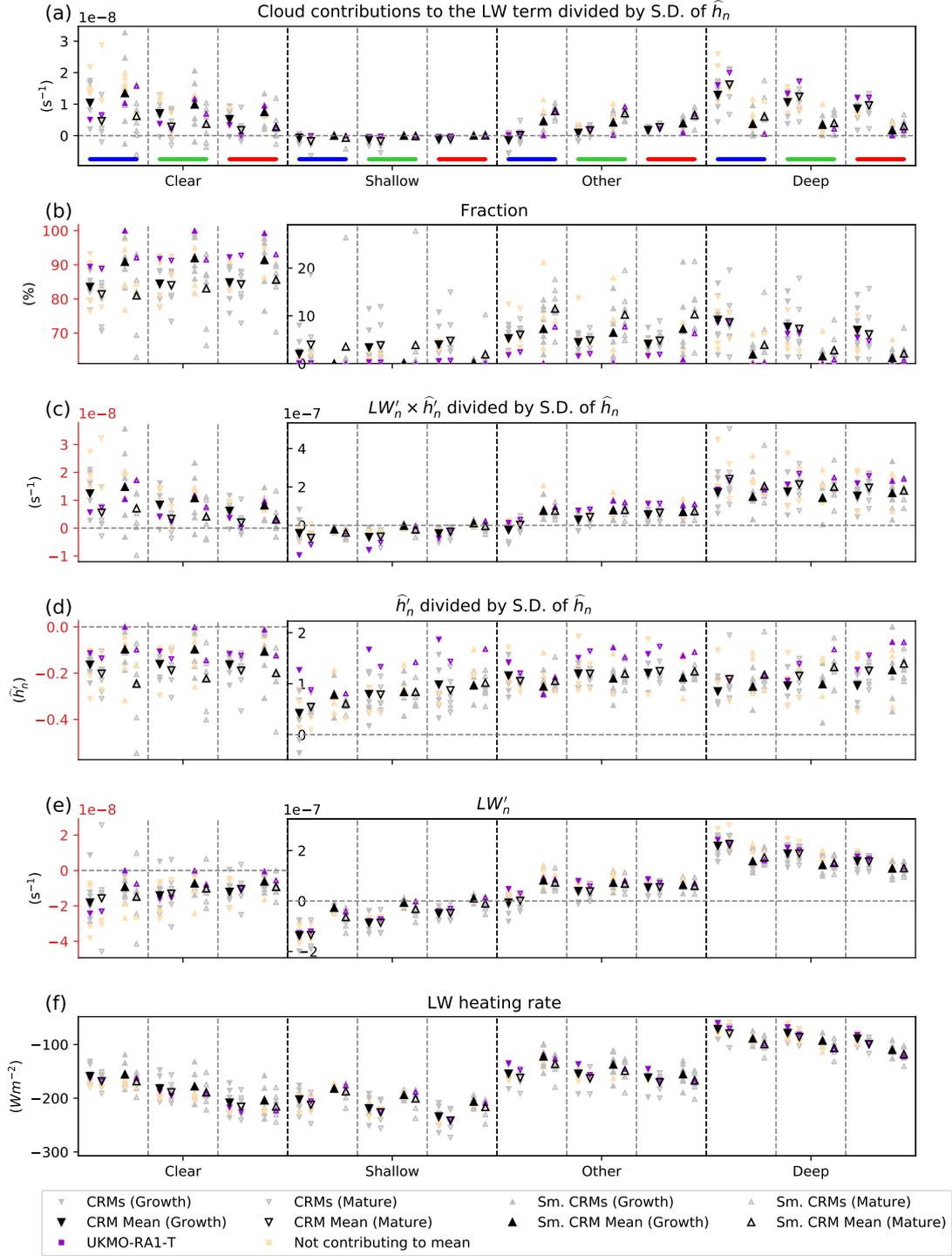


Figure 7. Non-Smoothed CRMs (downward triangles) vs Smoothed CRMs (upward triangles): (a) Contributions of longwave interactions for each cloud type to the longwave term in equation 3 divided by the standard deviation of \hat{h}_n , (b) Fraction of each cloud type, (c) $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance divided by the standard deviation of \hat{h}_n , (d) \hat{h}'_n divided by the standard deviation of \hat{h}_n , (e) LW'_n , and (f) absolute longwave heating. Data points and layout follow the same protocol as in Figure 5. Note different y -axis ranges for Clear in b, c, d & e.

472 tween LW'_n and \hat{h}'_n remains similar with SST (15% decrease in the correlation coefficient
 473 from 0.173 at 295 K to 0.147 at 305 K), as does the mean \hat{h}'_n (Figure 7d). The change
 474 in the Clear $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance is therefore mainly due to the change in LW'_n .

475 To isolate the effects of the changing longwave heating rates with SST on the Clear
 476 longwave feedback, we use the average cloud type fractions at 295 K with the average
 477 cloud type longwave heating rates at 305 K. From these, we calculate a hypothetical new
 478 domain-mean longwave cooling rate and cloud type LW' , and find that the average Clear
 479 LW' becomes 74% more negative compared to the values at 295 K. However, after nor-
 480 malising LW' to account for the changing SST, we find this hypothetical new Clear LW'_n
 481 is largely insensitive to SST. We next isolate the effect of the changing cloud fraction with
 482 SST by using the average cloud type longwave heating rates at 295 K with the average
 483 cloud type fractions at 305 K to calculate the cloud types' LW' . We find the domain-
 484 mean longwave cooling rate increases by approximately 3 W m^{-2} compared to the value
 485 at 295 K, and is mainly a result of the decreasing Deep cloud fraction allowing for en-
 486 hanced radiative cooling. The increased domain-mean cooling rate is closer to the mean
 487 cooling rate of the Clear regions, making their LW' 37% less anomalously negative. This
 488 is close to the actual 30% decrease in the mean LW'_n of the Clear regions. This shows
 489 that the SST sensitivity of the Clear LW'_n is primarily due to changes in cloud fraction
 490 with SST.

491 Next, we look at the effects of smoothing on cloud-longwave interactions in the CRMs
 492 to see how a coarser grid spacing affects cloud-longwave interactions. After smoothing
 493 the TOA radiative fluxes and reclassifying the cloud types using the smoothed radiation,
 494 there is a large difference in the fraction of the different cloud types (Figure 7b). Firstly,
 495 there is an almost complete elimination of Shallow cloud in the Smoothed CRMs dur-
 496 ing the Growth phase, with a large reduction in Deep cloud in the Growth and Mature
 497 phases. This is because the Shallow and Deep clouds are often small in area, particu-
 498 larly during the Growth phase, meaning that after averaging the TOA radiative fluxes
 499 across the surrounding $120 \text{ km} \times 120 \text{ km}$ area, these clouds are often reclassified as ei-
 500 ther Clear or Other clouds. This results in an increase in Other cloud, although there
 501 is an approximate halving of the total cloud fraction during the Growth phase. During
 502 the Mature phase, all cloud types increase in fraction in the Smoothed CRMs as a likely
 503 result from increased cloud clustering. The total cloud fraction in the Mature phase is
 504 similar to the non-Smoothed CRMs.

505 Smoothing also has an effect on the average $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance of the cloud
 506 types (Figure 7c). The covariance remains similar for Deep cloud, but increases slightly
 507 for the Other cloud, perhaps a result of a significant proportion of the non-Smoothed Deep
 508 cloud regions becoming reclassified as Other after Smoothing, as can be inferred by com-
 509 paring Figures 2a & b. The combined effects of the change in cloud fraction and $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$
 510 covariance after Smoothing is a reduction in the contribution from Deep cloud with sub-
 511 sequent increases in the contributions from the Other and Clear cloud types during all
 512 stages of aggregation.

513 4.2 Comparison of Cloud-Radiation Interactions within CRMs and GCMs

514 In Figure 8 we compare the longwave-cloud interactions between the Smoothed CRMs
 515 and GCMs. Figure 8a shows that during the Growth phase, longwave interactions with
 516 the Clear regions and Deep regions are the main drivers of aggregation for GCMs, with
 517 interactions with Other clouds also having a significant contribution. Contributions of
 518 each of these cloud types to the total longwave feedback are higher in GCMs compared
 519 to the Smoothed CRMs. This is largely due to the increased fraction of the Other and
 520 Deep cloud types (Figure 8b), but also the increased $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance of the Deep
 521 and Clear cloud types (Figure 8c).

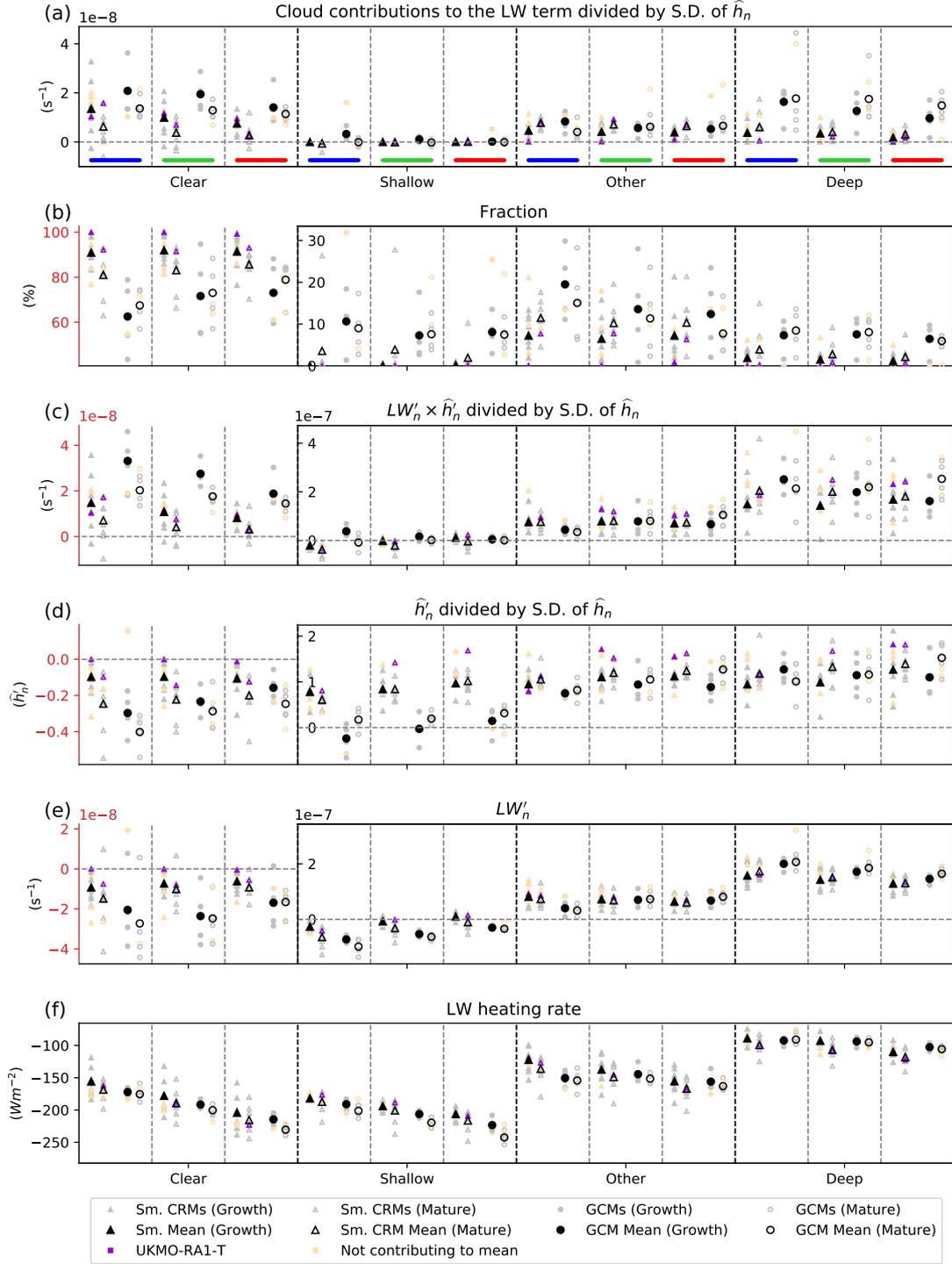


Figure 8. Smoothed CRMs (upward triangles) vs GCMs (circles): (a) Contributions of long-wave interactions for each cloud type to the longwave term in equation 3 divided by the standard deviation of \hat{h}_n , (b) Fraction of each cloud type, (c) $LW'_n \times \hat{h}_n$ covariance divided by the standard deviation of \hat{h}_n , (d) \hat{h}'_n divided by the standard deviation of \hat{h}_n , (e) LW'_n , and (f) absolute longwave heating. Data points and layout follow the same protocol as in Figure 5. Note different y-axis ranges for Clear in b, c, d & e.

522 The absolute longwave heating rate of Deep cloud is similar in the Smoothed CRMs
 523 and GCMs, but in the Clear regions, the longwave heating rate is more negative on av-
 524 erage for GCMs (Figure 8f). Clear regions occupy the majority of the domain, mean-
 525 ing the domain-mean longwave emission is closely linked to that of the Clear regions. This
 526 makes the Deep clouds in GCMs have a more positive LW'_n (Figure 8e), helping increase
 527 their $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance.

528 The $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance of the Clear regions is more than double that of the
 529 Smoothed CRMs. This is in part because Clear regions in GCMs typically occur in more
 530 negative \hat{h}'_n compared to Smoothed CRMs (Figure 8d), which is a likely consequence of
 531 the greater cloud fraction in GCMs, confining the Clear regions to drier environments.
 532 The LW'_n is also more negative in GCMs partially due to the mean absolute longwave
 533 heating rates being more negative on average, but mainly because of the difference in
 534 cloud fraction between the model types. To isolate the effect of the difference in cloud
 535 fraction between CRMs and GCMs on the Clear longwave feedback, we use the mean
 536 longwave heating rates of the cloud types in the Smoothed CRMs with the cloud frac-
 537 tions of the GCMs. We then calculate a hypothetical new domain-mean longwave cool-
 538 ing and cloud type LW' , and find that the LW'_n of the Clear regions becomes approx-
 539 imately 2.5 times more negative. This is thanks to the Deep clouds lowering the domain-
 540 mean longwave cooling rate in GCMs, hence making the Clear regions more anomalously
 541 negative. These effects suggest that the greater Deep cloud fraction in GCMs is a key
 542 factor in the enhanced total longwave-FMSE feedback, and therefore rate of aggregation
 543 in GCMs compared to CRMs. The non-Smoothed CRMs have a similar Deep cloud frac-
 544 tion and Deep $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance to the GCMs, yet the contributions from Other and
 545 Clear cloud types remain larger in GCMs thanks to the increase in the Other cloud frac-
 546 tion in GCMs. The increase in Other cloud fraction, with their positive LW' , helps fur-
 547 ther lower the (negative) LW' of the Clear regions in GCMs compared to non-Smoothed
 548 CRMs, helping increase these cloud types' contributions to the longwave feedback.

549 As the convection reaches the Mature phase, longwave interactions in the Clear,
 550 Other and Deep cloud types maintain aggregation in the Smoothed CRMs. For GCMs,
 551 longwave interactions with the Clear and Deep cloud types are the key maintainers of
 552 aggregation. Despite the GCMs having a larger Shallow fraction, these clouds have a sim-
 553 ilarly insignificant contribution to the longwave feedback as in the Smoothed CRMs. Their
 554 $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance is consistently close to 0 because both their LW'_n and \hat{h}'_n is small.

555 The SST sensitivity of the longwave feedback in GCMs is less straightforward than
 556 CRMs with multiple factors playing a role. During the Growth phase, the longwave feed-
 557 back decreases with SST, and this is due to the decrease in the contributions of the Clear
 558 and Deep cloud types. This in turn, is mainly due to their decreasing $LW'_n \times \hat{h}'_n$ co-
 559 variance since the fractions of these cloud types remain relatively insensitive to SST. The
 560 decrease in the Clear covariance with SST is mainly due to the Clear regions occurring
 561 in less anomalously-negative \hat{h}'_n regions. The main factor responsible for the decreasing
 562 contribution from Deep cloud is the increase in the range of \hat{h}'_{\max} and \hat{h}'_{\min} that is used
 563 to normalize the longwave heating anomalies. During the Mature phase of aggregation,
 564 the longwave feedback has little SST sensitivity for GCMs.

565 In GCMs, the change in the SST dependence of the longwave term from negative
 566 during the Growth phase to more neutral after the Growth phase is one of the main fac-
 567 tors causing GCMs to be more aggregated at higher SST, since the advection feedback
 568 remains less negative with SST throughout the majority of the simulations. For GCMs
 569 during the Growth phase, we find a negative SST dependence of the contribution of each
 570 cloud type to the longwave feedback. During the Mature phase, these SST dependen-
 571 cies are more positive. The contributions from the Deep and Other clouds have a more
 572 positive SST dependence after the Growth phase because their $LW' \times \hat{h}'_n$ covariance
 573 increases with SST (Figure 8c). This is because these clouds form in more anomalously
 574 positive \hat{h}'_n regions as SST increases (Figure 8d).

575 5 Conclusions

576 In this study, we compare the effects of cloud-radiation interactions on convective
 577 self-aggregation within the CRMs and GCMs submitted to RCEMIP (Wing et al., 2018).
 578 We use the normalized vertically-integrated FMSE variance ($\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$) budget framework
 579 to study aggregation (Pope et al., 2021, referred to as P21.), and define “Growth” and
 580 “Mature” phases of aggregation to compare how FMSE feedbacks contribute to aggre-
 581 gation at similar stages of aggregation across the range of models. We define four dif-
 582 ferent cloud types based on the top of atmosphere radiative fluxes following the method
 583 from Becker and Wing (2020) and calculate the contribution of radiative interactions with
 584 these cloud types to aggregation. These cloud types are: Clear, Shallow, Deep and Other.
 585 GCMs have on average a 40 times larger grid spacing than CRMs. When comparing these
 586 two model types we account for biases in our analysis technique due to the resolution
 587 difference by horizontally smoothing the CRMs so that each grid point is an average of
 588 the 40×40 grid points surrounding it, referred to as Smoothed CRMs.

589 The goals of the study are to:

- 590 • Validate the robustness of the results in P21 who studied the effects of cloud-radiation
 591 interactions on self-aggregation within the Met Office Unified Model version 11.0
 592 CRM (submitted to RCEMIP and referred to as “UKMO-RA1-T”).
- 593 • Investigate to what extent differences in cloud-radiation interactions affect self-
 594 aggregation within CRMs and GCMs, and how these are sensitive to SST.

595 5.1 Robustness of P21 results

596 We consider the robustness of the following five conclusions from P21:

- 597 1. Key **drivers** of aggregation are longwave interactions with high-topped clouds and
 598 Clear regions. (*Robust*)

599 Most CRMs and GCMs are in agreement with this conclusion when considering
 600 that Deep cloud are mostly equivalent to high-topped clouds in P21. Deep clouds
 601 have strong longwave heating anomalies and occur in anomalously moist regions.
 602 Clear regions typically have negative longwave heating anomalies and tend to oc-
 603 cur in anomalously dry regions. Both of these radiative interactions result in a strongly
 604 positive longwave feedback.
 605

- 606 2. The main **maintainers** of aggregation are longwave interactions with high-topped
 607 clouds and shortwave interactions with water vapor. (*Robust*)

608 Most CRMs and GCMs are in agreement that these radiative interactions are key
 609 maintainers of aggregation. The shortwave feedback increases with aggregation
 610 as moist and dry regions amplify, leading to a greater contrast in shortwave ab-
 611 sorption by water vapor between the moist and dry regions, resulting in an en-
 612 hanced shortwave-FMSE feedback.
 613

- 614 3. The main **resistors** of aggregation are negative surface flux and advection feed-
 615 backs. (*Not Robust for surface flux in the Growth phase*)

616 In the majority of models, the surface flux feedback is actually a key *driver* of ag-
 617 gregation, with the UKMO-RA1-T model having the most negative surface flux
 618 contribution during the Growth phase. In most models, this is likely due to a strong
 619 wind speed-induced surface flux feedback outweighing the air-sea disequilibrium
 620 feedback during the Growth phase of aggregation (unlike in UKMO-RA1-T where
 621 the opposite is true). As aggregation matures, the models are in agreement that
 622
 623
 624

625 the surface flux feedback becomes increasingly negative and often opposes aggre-
 626 gation. The advection feedback is typically negative and highly variable between
 627 models.

- 628
 629 4. The **SST-dependence** of the longwave feedback is absent during the Growth phase,
 630 but is negative in the Mature phase. (*Not Robust for Growth phase*)

631
 632 For the RCEMIP models, the domain-mean longwave feedback decreases with SST
 633 at *all stages* of aggregation, which is primarily due to the decrease in Deep and/or
 634 Other cloud fraction at warmer SSTs. P21 also find the high-topped cloud frac-
 635 tion decreases with SST, however this is compensated by an increase in their mean
 636 longwave-FMSE covariance in the Growth phase. We do not find the longwave-
 637 FMSE covariance of the Deep and Other clouds increasing with SST in the ma-
 638 jority of RCEMIP models, hence their domain mean longwave feedback tends to
 639 decrease with SST.

640
 641 The RCEMIP CRMs and GCMs differ in the processes leading to the decrease in
 642 the longwave feedback with SST. For the CRMs, the average longwave-FMSE co-
 643 variance of these clouds remains similar with SST, so the decrease in their cloud
 644 fraction reduces their total aggregating influence. A secondary effect of the de-
 645 creased Deep cloud fraction is an increase in the magnitude of domain mean long-
 646 wave cooling. This makes the typically-negative longwave heating anomalies of the
 647 Clear regions less anomalous, also decreasing the Clear regions' aggregating in-
 648 fluence at warmer SSTs. In GCMs, the longwave feedback decreases with SST be-
 649 cause the normalized longwave heating anomalies of Deep clouds decreases, reduc-
 650 ing their aggregating influence. In addition, the Clear regions occur in less anoma-
 651 lously dry regions due to the reduced total cloud fraction, also reducing their av-
 652 erage aggregating influence as SST increases.

- 653
 654 5. The **SST-dependence** of the aggregation rate is positive because the advection
 655 feedback becomes increasingly positive with SST. (*Not Robust*)

656
 657 P21 find the sum of the diabatic feedbacks are insensitive to SST during the Growth
 658 phase, however for the RCEMIP CRMs and GCMs, each diabatic feedback tends
 659 to decrease with SST during the Growth phase. Despite the sum of these diabatic
 660 feedbacks decreasing with SST, the rate of aggregation remains similar on aver-
 661 age. The sum of the diabatic feedbacks tends to be proportional to the magnitude
 662 of the (negative) advection feedback, resulting in no significant change in aggre-
 663 gation rate with SST.

664 5.2 Differences between GCMs and CRMs

665 Using $\text{var}(\hat{h}_n)$ as our aggregation metric, we find there is much variability in the
 666 rate of aggregation and the maximum degree of aggregation within the CRMs, with no
 667 consistent SST dependence on the rate of aggregation and the maximum degree of ag-
 668 gregation. GCMs, on the other hand, aggregate faster than CRMs on average, and tend
 669 to be more aggregated at higher SSTs.

670 Both the contributions of shortwave-FMSE and surface flux-FMSE feedbacks to
 671 aggregation are similar in magnitude in Smoothed CRMs and GCMs. However, the longwave-
 672 FMSE feedback is, on average, approximately twice as strong in GCMs compared with
 673 CRMs. This results in typically faster rates of aggregation in GCMs. This is primarily
 674 due to GCMs having a larger cloud fraction than Smoothed CRMs, but more crucially
 675 a larger Deep cloud fraction. However, if GCMs are instead compared to the non-Smoothed
 676 CRMs, GCMs have a similar Deep fraction but a larger Other fraction, which still re-
 677 sults in a greater total longwave-FMSE feedback. The longwave-FMSE feedback is strongest

678 for Deep clouds because they typically occur in anomalously-high FMSE regions, and
679 have anomalously strong positive longwave heating rates. Like with the SST sensitiv-
680 ity of cloud fraction in CRMs, a secondary effect of the increased Deep cloud fraction
681 in GCMs is an increase in the longwave-FMSE feedback in the Clear regions. This is be-
682 cause an increased cloud fraction reduces the magnitude of domain-mean longwave cool-
683 ing. With Clear regions occupying the majority of the domain, their typically-negative
684 longwave heating anomalies become more negative, increasing their longwave-FMSE feed-
685 back. The increase in the contributions from Deep and Clear regions to the longwave-
686 FMSE feedback accounts for the doubling of the total feedback.

687 As previously mentioned, the sum of the diabatic feedbacks with FMSE tend to
688 decrease with SST during the Growth phase, yet the aggregation rate remains insensitiv-
689 e to SST thanks to the increasingly positive advection feedback. After the Growth phase
690 however, the sum of the diabatic feedbacks in GCMs becomes less SST dependent, yet
691 the advection feedback remains more positive at higher SSTs, resulting in GCMs being
692 more aggregated at higher SSTs. Their diabatic terms become less SST dependent af-
693 ter the Growth phase in part because the Deep and Other cloud types tend to occur in
694 more anomalously moist environments at higher SSTs, increasing their longwave-FMSE
695 feedback. This finding, and the point made above about differences in cloud amount be-
696 tween GCMs and CRMs, suggests that GCMs should be compared more systematically
697 to CRMs to investigate their total cloud amount, and their tendency to place high-topped
698 clouds in more anomalously moist environments as SSTs increase.

699 Despite the difference in the diabatic feedbacks between GCMs and CRMs account-
700 ing for the difference in the aggregation rate between these model types, there is no evi-
701 dence that the model spread in the magnitude of the diabatic feedbacks can explain the
702 model spread in the rate of aggregation in CRMs. For CRMs, the model spread in the
703 rate of aggregation is mostly determined by the magnitude of the advection term due
704 to it having the highest inter-model variability compared to the other diabatic terms.
705 The advection term may be largely influenced by circulations induced by strong radiat-
706 ive cooling from low cloud in dry regions that result in an upgradient transport of FMSE,
707 helping aid aggregation (Muller & Held, 2012; Muller & Bony, 2015). This effect is not
708 investigated in this study. Unlike in CRMs, the diabatic feedbacks are significantly cor-
709 related with aggregation rate in GCMs, and this may suggest that GCMs are not cap-
710 turing key circulations that would otherwise mediate aggregation.

711 We have shown that the production of cloud in CRMs and GCMs, in terms of quan-
712 tity and distribution, is very different. This in turn, results in largely different longwave-
713 FMSE feedbacks that alter the rate and degree of aggregation. Not only are the longwave-
714 FMSE interactions enhanced in GCMs, but there is a less negative correlation between
715 the diabatic and advection feedbacks in GCMs than CRMs. This suggests that GCMs
716 are not resolving circulations that may otherwise export FMSE away from moist regions,
717 mediating aggregation, as seen in CRMs. These factors highlight our limitations to ac-
718 curately represent the cloud response to warming in climate studies. CRMs are often used
719 to study the cloud response to warming, but are too small to capture the large-scale cir-
720 culations that affect the total cloud feedback. GCMs are used in climate modelling stud-
721 ies because they are complete representations of the climate system, and they can per-
722 form hundreds of years of global-scale simulations. However, there are discrepancies be-
723 tween cloud-radiation interactions and circulations between GCMs and CRMs.

724 We might expect that CRMs are better at representing smaller-scale convective pro-
725 cesses and circulations, but systematic comparisons of these attributes with observed cases
726 of organised convection, would help us understand the discrepancies between GCMs and
727 CRMs, and might lead to improvements in these simulations.

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740 ff53b6874c0e](http://hdl.handle.net/21.14101/d4beee8e-6996-453e-bbd1-ff53b6874c0e). All data used for plotting each figure, as well as the original python scripts
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