

1 **Observational constraint on cloud feedbacks suggests moderate** 2 **climate sensitivity**

3
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10 To submit to *Nature Climate Change*

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12 Proposed editorial summary:

13 The response of low clouds to warming is uncertain among climate models and dominates
14 spread in their projections. Satellite estimates of tropical cumulus and stratocumulus cloud
15 feedbacks, derived using surface warming trends, suggest a more moderate climate sensitivity than
16 many models predict.

17
18 **Global climate models (GCMs) predict warming in response to increasing greenhouse**
19 **gases, partly due to decreased tropical low-level cloud cover and reflectance. We use satellite**
20 **observations that discriminate stratocumulus (Sc) from shallow cumulus (Cu) clouds to**
21 **separately evaluate their sensitivity to warming and constrain the tropical contribution to**
22 **low-cloud feedback. We find an observationally inferred low-level feedback two times**
23 **smaller than a previous estimate. Cu are insensitive to warming whereas GCMs exhibit a**
24 **large positive cloud feedback in Cu regions. In contrast, Sc show sensitivity to warming and**
25 **the tropical inversion layer strength, controlled by the tropical Pacific SST gradient. Models**
26 **fail to reproduce the historical SST gradient trends and therefore changes in inversion**
27 **strength, generating an overestimate of the positive Sc cloud feedback. Continued weak east-**
28 **Pacific warming would therefore produce a weaker low-cloud feedback and imply a more**
29 **moderate climate sensitivity (3.47 ± 0.33 K) than many models predict.**

30

31 When subjected to "external" forcings, such as anthropogenic changes in atmospheric
32 greenhouse gases (GHGs), the atmosphere and surface warm at a rate determined not only by the
33 forcing itself, but also by feedbacks, i.e., changes in other parts of the climate in response to the
34 forcing, that either strengthen (positive feedback) or weaken (negative feedback) the warming.
35 The most uncertain feedbacks are those due to changes in clouds, particularly low-altitude
36 stratocumulus (Sc) and shallow cumulus (Cu) clouds over the oceans^{1,2}. In response to surface
37 warming, GCMs predict that low clouds primarily dissipate and amplify the warming by reflecting
38 less solar radiation¹. However, the range of low-cloud feedbacks simulated by individual climate
39 models is diverse, varying from a small negative feedback to a large positive feedback¹. In
40 particular, the spread in tropical low-cloud feedback is the single biggest uncertainty in model's
41 estimates of climate sensitivity²⁻⁴, which explains the high correlation between the two quantities
42 (Fig. 1f). Ultimately, this uncertainty limits our ability to project the magnitude of future climate
43 change impacts.

44

45 Sc and Cu are driven by different cloud processes: cloud-top radiative cooling for Sc as
46 opposed to surface convection for Cu⁵. In the tropics, Sc typically produce nearly overcast
47 conditions off the west coasts of continents (Fig. 1a-c) and strongly reflect shortwave (SW)
48 radiation back to space (Fig. 1b). Cu are more scattered and therefore have a smaller radiative
49 effect (Fig. 1b). They are located in the extensive open ocean trade wind regions further west (Fig.
50 1a-c), Thus, there is no *a priori* reason to expect Sc and Cu to exhibit the same feedback in response
51 to increasing GHGs. In GCMs, cloud feedback from regions dominated by Sc is comparable in
52 strength to that in regions expected to be dominated by Cu or at the border between the two regimes
53 (Fig. 1d)^{1,3}. As a result, both regions contribute significantly to the difference in equilibrium
54 climate sensitivity (ECS) between high-ECS and low-ECS models (Figs. 1e,f). A few multi-model
55 studies have attempted to determine Sc or Cu cloud feedbacks, using fixed geographic areas⁶ or
56 large-scale conditions⁷ as proxies to indirectly infer the presence of each cloud type, and found
57 that the feedbacks are highly variable among models for both cloud types and roughly equally
58 uncertain^{8,9}. These studies, while intriguing, are limited because they do not robustly distinguish
59 Cu and Sc clouds in GCM output and thus are not able to determine their respective feedbacks.
60 Different feedbacks for Sc and Cu clouds are supported by idealized large-eddy simulation (LES)

61 studies, yet understanding of the underlying reasons remains incomplete, particularly for trade-
62 wind Cu¹⁰, which may even produce negative feedbacks¹¹.

63 We use a new active remote sensing satellite product, the Cumulus and Stratocumulus
64 CloudSat-Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations (CALIPSO) Dataset
65 (CASCCAD)¹², to explicitly identify Cu and Sc based on cloud morphology and altitude over
66 2007-2016. Simultaneous observations of the two primary local “cloud-controlling”
67 environmental factors for Cu and Sc, i.e., sea surface temperature (SST) and estimated inversion
68 strength (EIS)¹³, are then used to estimate the change in low-cloud fraction^{6,8} (LCC) for each cloud
69 type in response to a change in global mean surface temperature (T).

70

$$71 \quad \frac{dLCC}{dT} = \frac{\partial LCC}{\partial SST} \frac{dSST}{dT} + \frac{\partial LCC}{\partial EIS} \frac{dEIS}{dT} \quad (1)$$

72

73 Although other controlling factors⁸ may affect low-cloud feedbacks¹⁴, we do not consider them
74 in the present study because their collective contribution to the low-cloud feedback is very small
75 (see Supplementary Text 2 and Supplementary Fig. 4), consistent with previous findings^{8,14}.

76 The partial derivatives $\partial LCC/\partial SST$ and $\partial LCC/\partial EIS$ can be calculated directly for Cu and Sc
77 from CASCCAD over the decadal time span of the dataset and from a blend of observations and
78 reanalysis products for SST and EIS (Supplementary Table 2). They are assumed to reflect
79 fundamental local small-scale processes that regulate Cu and Sc and are thus invariant over
80 different time scales^{6,8}. The derivatives $dSST/dT$ and $dEIS/dT$, on the other hand, indicate how
81 the cloud-controlling environmental factors change as global mean surface temperature changes.
82 These may be determined by large-scale processes associated with the tropical general circulation
83 and may not be the same for different types of climate changes. In particular EIS should depend
84 on changes in the large-scale tropical Walker circulation: a climate change that strengthens the
85 SST gradient across the tropical Pacific Ocean should strengthen the Walker cell and increase EIS
86 in the east Pacific Sc regions, while a change that weakens the gradient would weaken EIS instead⁴.
87 Over the decadal period covered by CASCCAD, SST gradient changes are primarily due to El
88 Niño and to a lesser extent the Pacific Decadal Oscillation, rather than anthropogenic climate
89 change^{15,16}.

90

91 Cu-dominated regions cover a larger area of the tropics than Sc-dominated regions, but this is
92 compensated by the greater cloud fraction in the Sc-dominated regions than in the Cu-dominated
93 regions so that each type contributes a comparable amount to the total low cloud fraction (Figs.
94 1a,c, 2a). While the locations of Sc- and Cu-dominated regions can be roughly reproduced using
95 a threshold on EIS –identified as a better Sc predictor than other environmental variables¹³– to
96 discriminate Sc and Cu (Supplementary Fig. 2), it does not allow us to compute the correct total
97 and partial derivatives of Sc and Cu cloud fractions as a function of the cloud-controlling variables
98 SST and EIS (Supplementary Fig. 3), as well as their associated feedbacks (Supplementary Text
99 1). Despite the similar Sc and Cu cloud fractions, the observed response of low clouds to
100 interannual local SST changes (i.e., the total derivative of LCC with respect to SST, $dLCC/dSST$,
101 Eq. 2) is mainly controlled by Sc clouds in subsidence regimes over the tropical oceans (Fig. 2b).

$$\frac{dLCC}{dSST} = \frac{\partial LCC}{\partial SST} + \frac{\partial LCC}{\partial EIS} \frac{dEIS}{dSST} \quad (2)$$

102
103
104
105 Sc cloud fraction largely decreases with local surface warming on interannual time scales (Fig.
106 2b), the result of a large decrease and increase of Sc cloud fraction with respect to SST and EIS
107 (i.e., $\partial Sc/\partial SST$ and $\partial Sc/\partial EIS$, see Methods), respectively (Fig. 2c-d). On the contrary, in response
108 to local surface warming, the Cu amount slightly increases (Fig. 2b), driven by its EIS component
109 (Fig. 2d). Transition and other cloud types contribute relatively little to the total change
110 (Supplementary Fig. 5).

111
112 These results provide an excellent test for GCMs, since they represent observed responses of
113 specific cloud types to known SST changes that are routinely used to evaluate Coupled Model
114 Intercomparison Project (CMIP) models. They do not reveal the long-term anthropogenic low-
115 cloud feedback by themselves because interannual and interdecadal EIS changes may differ from
116 long-term EIS changes¹⁷. Figures 2c-d do indicate, however, that the long-term low-cloud
117 feedback is likely to be restricted primarily to the Sc regions, since $\partial Cu/\partial SST$ and $\partial Cu/\partial EIS$ are
118 quite small. This conflicts with GCM projections that indicate a mostly large positive low-cloud
119 feedback in the Cu regions^{1,3} (Fig. 1d). One possible explanation for this model-observation
120 discrepancy is the tendency for GCMs to create Sc-like artifact clouds at the base of Cu clouds,

121 which are overly sensitive to changes in environmental conditions¹⁸. Another explanation is
122 incorrect parameterized responses of Sc-Cu clouds to surface temperature and EIS changes¹⁹.

123
124 Whether GCMs simulate the long-term anthropogenic low-cloud feedback correctly depends
125 not only on their fidelity in parameterizing cloud processes, i.e., where Sc and Cu form and how
126 they respond to cloud-controlling environmental factors, but also whether they correctly simulate
127 the long-term evolution of the cross-Pacific SST gradient, which determines the evolution of EIS
128 in the Sc regions¹⁷. For the past 20 to 30 years, the SST and EIS pattern trends have generated
129 unusually small low-cloud feedbacks in the tropics^{20,21} compared to that predicted by GCMs for
130 long-term future climate. Recent studies argue that these pattern trends, which GCMs do not
131 reproduce^{15,22}, are a manifestation of the natural variability and will not last in the coming decades.
132 Instead, it has been argued that a weakening cross-Pacific SST gradient will emerge, leading to a
133 strong positive low-cloud feedback^{20,21,23}. However, we find that even on longer time scales (over
134 the past 40 to 60 years), a time interval that should begin to incorporate some effects of
135 anthropogenic GHG forcing, both the observed SST –in agreement with these previous studies^{5–}
136 and EIS patterns changes remain consistently different from the long-term changes predicted by
137 the models (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. 6). Such a finding raises the question of how much
138 weakening of the cross-Pacific SST gradient will actually occur in the future climate and what its
139 ramification is for tropical low-cloud feedbacks.

140
141 Here we further quantify what could be the future SW low-cloud feedback should these past
142 40 to 60-year trends in SST and EIS (Fig. 3a-b-c-d) continue in the future. Previous studies have
143 shown that the change in SW CRE is primarily driven by the change in LCC^{6,8,14,19}. Consequently,
144 the low-cloud feedback can be inferred by multiplying the change in LCC by the sensitivity of SW
145 CRE to LCC^{6,8,14} (i.e., $dCRE/dT = dCRE/dLCC \cdot dLCC/dT$), where the change in LCC is estimated
146 from the sum of the partial derivatives of LCC with respect to controlling factors multiplied by the
147 change in controlling factors (Eq. 1). Given the different responses of Sc and Cu to warming (Fig.
148 2), we further refine this method by computing separately the contributions from Sc and Cu clouds
149 from the CASCCAD data ($dCRE_{Sc}/dT$ and $dCRE_{Cu}/dT$), weighting them as a function of their
150 relative presence in a given location (i.e., $Sc/(Sc+Cu)$ or $Cu/(Sc+Cu)$) and summing them to get
151 the SW low-cloud feedback inferred from observations ($dCRE/dT$; see Eq. 4 in Methods).

152 Similarly, we also use the CASCCAD results to infer what would be the future SW low-cloud
153 feedbacks should the SST and EIS patterns estimated from two future climate scenarios predicted
154 by GCMs (Fig. 3e-f-g-h; abrupt-4xCO₂ and uniform +4K; see Methods) really occur in the future.
155

156 These resulting estimated tropical low-cloud feedback, referred to as “observationally
157 inferred” feedbacks, are shown in Fig. 4. If the SST and EIS pattern trends observed over the past
158 40 to 60 years continue in the coming decades, they will generate an observationally inferred SW
159 low-cloud feedback up to two times smaller (Fig. 4a) than it would be if the future pattern trend
160 resembles the pattern trend predicted by the CMIP6 models for an abrupt-4xCO₂ climate warming
161 scenario (Fig. 4g), and three times smaller than that of a hypothetical uniform +4K surface
162 warming (Fig. 4j). By using the satellite dataset that is the most accurate for cloud-type
163 discrimination and the most sensitive to Cu clouds, as well as by accounting for the spatial-
164 dependence of the Sc and Cu partial derivatives as determined by the Sc/(Sc+Cu) fraction
165 (Supplementary Fig. 8 and 9), our observationally inferred feedback estimate for an abrupt-4xCO₂
166 SST and EIS pattern change scenario is $0.56 \pm 0.15 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$ in subsidence regimes over the
167 tropical oceans. Our result is two times smaller and with a five times narrower range than a
168 previous multi-observational analysis estimate⁸, which does not account for the different responses
169 of Sc and Cu to warming and their relative presence in a given location (i.e., Sc/(Sc+Cu) fraction;
170 Supplementary Fig. 10). The majority of this feedback is driven by Sc clouds in Sc-dominated
171 regions regardless of the climate warming scenario (Fig. 4c-f-i-l and Supplementary Fig. 7c-f),
172 contrary to previous belief^{3,9,24,25}, because (1) these Sc clouds are very sensitive to both surface
173 warming and inversion strength, (2) Cu clouds are only weakly sensitive to inversion strength
174 variations and are insensitive to surface warming (Supplementary Fig. 9), and (3) Sc clouds are
175 less frequent in Cu-dominated regions than many GCMs simulate¹⁸ (Fig. 1c).
176

177 Although a variety of cloud feedbacks exist (e.g., high-cloud and cloud phase-related optical-
178 depth feedbacks), the SW low-cloud feedback is a large contributor to the net total cloud feedback
179 and its multimodel variability in modern GCMs¹. As a result, it greatly influences the magnitude
180 of model climate sensitivity²⁻⁴ (Fig. 1f). Given the evidence presented here, we assess the
181 implications of possible smaller tropical low-cloud feedbacks for the ECS of Earth’s climate to
182 increasing CO₂ emissions. Assuming for illustration purposes that the influence of low-cloud

183 feedback on overall ECS in state-of-the-art GCMs participating in the 6th Coupled Model
184 Intercomparison Project (CMIP6) (Fig. 1f) is representative of the real-world relationship between
185 the two, we estimate a plausible real-world ECS as a function of the observationally inferred low-
186 cloud feedbacks from different hypothetical scenarios of SST and EIS pattern change in a climate
187 warming (Supplementary Fig. 11), i.e., historical 40- and 60-year trends, GCM-simulated abrupt-
188 4xCO₂, and GCM-simulated +4K. Should the historical SST and EIS pattern trends (for either
189 1979-2018 or 1959-2018) persist, our observational constraint would suggest an ECS of $3.47 \pm$
190 0.33 K and 3.73 ± 0.36 K as opposed to 3.82 ± 0.38 K for a warming pattern similar to the CMIP6
191 mean abrupt-4xCO₂ climate change. These estimates do not represent the true ECS but rather
192 provide an estimate of the possible change in ECS related to the SST/EIS pattern effect on low-
193 cloud feedback. Additionally, we address the possible effect of a biased tropical low-cloud
194 feedback on ECS below.

195

196 The 1.5-4.5 K spread in model ECS has remained fairly constant since the first multi-model
197 assessment²⁶. However, the new GCM generation includes a number of models with even larger
198 ECS²⁷, which is largely attributed to contributions from low-cloud feedbacks, mostly at middle
199 latitudes and partly in the tropics. A simple comparison of the relationship between low-cloud
200 feedbacks and ECS of the previous and current GCM generations suggests that an increase in
201 tropical low-cloud feedbacks explains up to a third of the ECS increase (Supplementary Fig. 11),
202 consistent with a more detailed analysis²⁷. Furthermore, our observationally inferred estimate of
203 low-cloud feedback for an abrupt-4xCO₂ climate scenario indicates that both high-ECS and low-
204 ECS CMIP6 models simulate unrealistic tropical low-cloud feedback, suggesting an intermediate
205 ECS as more plausible (Fig. 5). The high-ECS models produce low-cloud feedback two times
206 larger than the observationally constrained inference (0.56 ± 0.15 Wm⁻²K⁻¹, Fig. 5a). We
207 hypothesize that this occurs because high-ECS models simulate too many Sc-like clouds in regions
208 dominated by Cu¹⁸, therefore generating a stronger response of low clouds to short-term surface
209 warming, and these clouds might also be too sensitive to climate warming¹⁹. On the contrary, low-
210 ECS models predict a near-zero feedback on average, resulting from large compensating areas of
211 negative and positive feedbacks (Fig. 5b), because they likely wrongly predict only a small
212 decrease or an increase of low-cloud amount in response to global warming¹⁹ (which are
213 manifested in partial derivative errors), besides possibly underestimating the amount of Sc

214 clouds¹⁹, therefore generating a smaller response of low clouds to surface warming. Unfortunately,
215 evaluating the separate GCM Sc and Cu cloud feedbacks is impossible since their respective cloud
216 fractions are not reported in the CMIP archive.

217
218 Using our new method in conjunction with an abrupt-4xCO₂ SST and EIS pattern change
219 scenario in subsidence regimes over the tropical oceans from CMIP models, we find an
220 observationally inferred tropical low-cloud feedback ($0.56 \pm 0.15 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$) that is two times
221 smaller and with a five times narrower range than a previous multi-observational analysis
222 estimate⁸. However, if the historical 40-year SST and EIS pattern trends persist in the future, our
223 observational constraint suggests a 2.33 times smaller tropical low-cloud feedback in subsidence
224 regimes ($0.24 \pm 0.12 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$) associated with a moderate ECS ($3.47 \pm 0.33 \text{ K}$), contrary to that
225 in many GCMs (half of which have an ECS larger than 3.89 K). The magnitude of the ECS will
226 be partly determined by whether the tropical Pacific Ocean begins to warm more rapidly in the
227 east than in the west in the coming decades, as models predict, contrary to what it has been doing
228 over the past 60 years^{15,16} (Fig. 3), which models cannot replicate⁵. Additional important
229 contributors to the strength of the tropical low-cloud feedback, and therefore the ECS, include the
230 Sc-Cu relative presence in a given location and their sensitivity to controlling factors.
231 Consequently, we argue that to improve predictions of future climate warming, model
232 development should focus on how to correctly simulate the observed historical SST pattern trend
233 and on improving the separate response of Cu and Sc clouds to SST and EIS variations along with
234 their geographical distributions. To this end, the Cu and Sc cloud fractions should be added to the
235 list of mandatory CMIP variables to further understand and evaluate GCM low-cloud feedbacks
236 using the observations and method presented here.

237

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304 **Methods**

305 **Interannual low cloud response to surface warming forcings**

306 We calculate the interannual relationship between SST, EIS and low cloud fraction following
307 the method used in Cesana et al.¹⁹. We focus on low clouds over the tropical oceans (between 35°S
308 and 35°N) in subsidence regimes defined as having a large-scale pressure vertical velocity at 500
309 hPa (ω_{500}) greater than 10 hPa/day (LCC_{sub}), based on the monthly mean of three reanalysis
310 products (Supplementary Table 2). This filtering captures most of the stratocumulus,
311 stratocumulus-to-shallow-cumulus transition, and cumulus regions. The 10 hPa/d threshold
312 ensures that we select subsidence regimes only and almost perfectly encompasses areas where the
313 height at which the CALIPSO lidar attenuates is less than 2 km (see Supplementary Fig. 2 of
314 Cesana et al.¹⁹). Thus the lidar is able to detect virtually all low clouds (cloud top below ~ 3 km)
315 in these regions with little obscuration from higher clouds. As a result, these interannual
316 relationships take into account the geographical variability of LCC over subsiding tropical ocean
317 regions with the climatological seasonal cycle removed.

318 After removing all grid boxes where ω_{500} is lower than 10 hPa/d, we use the monthly means
319 of LCC and monthly anomalies of SST and EIS based on 10 years (120 months between January
320 2007 and December 2016) of three SST datasets and three reanalysis-based EIS products
321 (Supplementary Table 2) as well as CALIPSO-CASCCAD observations for LCC_{sub} and each cloud
322 type, all interpolated to a 2.5°x2.5° grid. We then compute a multilinear regression between LCC_{sub}
323 and the $SST_{sub,anom}$ and $EIS_{sub,anom}$ quantities to obtain the change in LCC per K of SST or EIS
324 change, represented as the partial derivatives with respect to SST and EIS, i.e., $\frac{\partial LCC}{\partial SST}$ and $\frac{\partial LCC}{\partial EIS}$.
325 This process is repeated for each of the nine possible combinations of the three EIS and three SST
326 datasets, resulting in nine different estimates of the partial derivatives.

327 We can then compute the LCC partial derivatives for each CASCCAD cloud-type category:
328 Sc, broken Sc, Cu under Sc, Cu with stratiform outflow, and Cu (Supplementary Fig. 5). For the
329 purpose of this study, we define LCC_{type} (and CRE_{type}), where type is either Sc or Cu, as the cloud
330 fraction (and CRE) in a gridbox dominated by the Sc or Cu type. To this end, we mask out (set to
331 0) the CASCCAD LCCs and CERES-EBAF CREs in regions where other cloud types dominate
332 for each month, using a ratio between the cloud type fraction and the total low-cloud fraction,
333 $\frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC}$, referred to as the Sc/(Sc+Cu) ratio (see Fig. 1c). The Cu type consists only of the Cu

334 category of CASCCAD while the Sc type includes all clouds with a stratiform component, i.e.,
335 Sc, broken Sc, Cu under Sc, Cu with stratiform outflow and other clouds (see Cesana et al.¹² for
336 details about cloud types).

337 To obtain the total derivative of LCC with respect to SST for a given low cloud type, we simply
338 compute a linear regression instead of a multilinear regression, which we express as in Eq. 2.

339

340 **SST and EIS pattern changes and trends**

341 We make an observationally based inference of low-cloud feedback $dCRE/dT$ as the sum of
342 changes due to EIS and SST pattern changes of possible future climate scenarios multiplied by the
343 partial derivatives of the cloud fraction of each low-cloud type (i.e., Sc and Cu) with respect to
344 EIS and SST derived from the CASCCAD dataset ($\frac{\partial LCC}{\partial SST}$ and $\frac{\partial LCC}{\partial EIS}$). In this study, we use four
345 possible future climate scenarios: two based on common GCM future climate experiments, an
346 abrupt quadrupling of CO₂ (abrupt-4xCO₂) and a uniform 4 K SST increase (amip-p4K, referred
347 to as uniform +4K), and two based on observed historical changes (the past 40 and 60 years). For
348 the abrupt-4xCO₂ and uniform +4K GCM scenarios, as in Eq. 3 below, we compute the SST and
349 EIS changes as the difference between the mean of years 121-150 of the climate change
350 experiments (abrupt-4xCO₂ and uniform +4K) minus that of the control (piControl and amip
351 experiments, respectively) in subsidence regimes (as defined in the previous section) divided by
352 the difference of the global mean surface temperature between the two experiments. For the abrupt
353 4xCO₂ experiment, we use 40 CMIP6 models while we use 10 CMIP6 models for the uniform
354 +4K GCM experiment, based on data availability (see Supplementary Table 1). For the historical
355 climate scenarios, we compute yearly trends of SST and EIS from observations and reanalyses
356 (see list in Supplementary Table 2) normalized by the trend of change in global mean surface
357 temperature over the same time period using the observed past 40 or 60 years. These trends
358 illustrate what the low-cloud feedback would be if the historical SST and EIS pattern trends were
359 to continue over the next few decades. To determine the yearly trends, we compute annual means
360 of SST and EIS and subtract the global annual mean over the whole period of time (either 1979-
361 2018 or 1959-2018) from each individual year to get the yearly anomaly and then normalize by
362 the anomaly of the global mean surface temperature to obtain a trend of SST and EIS by degree of
363 global mean surface temperature change. The patterns presented in Fig. 3 represent the average of

364 all the models, observations and reanalyses available. Note that for the EIS trend over the 60-year
 365 period, we only use two reanalysis.

366

367 **Observationally inferred SW low-cloud feedback**

368 To compute observationally inferred SW low-cloud feedback, we first assume that the change
 369 in SW CRE in subsidence regimes over the tropical oceans is primarily driven by the change in
 370 LCC^{6,8,14,19}. We can therefore re-construct the low-cloud feedback using Eq. 1 and the sensitivity
 371 of SW CRE to LCC to convert the LCC change into a cloud feedback as:

372

$$373 \quad \frac{dCRE}{dT} = \frac{dCRE}{dLCC} \left(\frac{\partial LCC}{\partial SST} \frac{dSST}{dT} + \frac{\partial LCC}{\partial EIS} \frac{dEIS}{dT} \right) \quad (3)$$

374

375 where the dCRE/dLCC coefficient is the interannual CRE change with respect to LCC obtained
 376 by linearly regressing monthly CREs from CERES with LCCs from CASCCAD in subsidence
 377 regimes –to ensure that the effect of high clouds is negligible– over the tropical oceans following
 378 the method described above (see also Cesana et al.¹⁹).

379

380 Since the partial derivatives of Sc and Cu cloud types with respect to SST and EIS are different
 381 (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 5), we must further estimate the contribution of each cloud type
 382 separately in Eq. 4 and add them up. However, this method assumes that the partial derivatives of
 383 Sc and Cu are constant in space across the tropics and therefore neglects the effect of the relative
 384 presence of Sc and Cu in a given location. In reality, the partial derivatives of LCC with respect to
 385 SST and EIS actually vary depending on how many Sc or Cu clouds are present in specific regions.
 386 In regions dominated by Cu clouds, the partial derivative of Sc clouds is very small, having
 387 therefore a relatively small impact on the cloud change compared to its Cu counterpart, and vice-
 388 versa in regions dominated by Sc (see Figs. S8 and S9). To represent the radiative effect of each
 389 type of cloud depending on its relative presence in a given grid box, we weigh the partial
 390 derivatives of Sc and Cu clouds by the Sc/(Sc+Cu) ratio in each 2.5x2.5 grid box as:

391

$$392 \quad \frac{dCRE}{dT} = \sum_{type=1}^2 \frac{dCRE_{type}}{dLCC_{type}} \left(\frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial SST} \frac{dSST}{dT} + \frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial EIS} \frac{dEIS}{dT} \right) \frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC} \quad (4)$$

393

394 Using a linear weight between the partial derivative values in their dominating and non-
 395 dominating regions (Supplementary Fig. 1) as defined by the Sc/(Sc+Cu) ratio (i.e., where $\frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC}$
 396 is either greater or smaller than 50%), as presented in Eq. 7, gives almost identical results (not
 397 shown):

$$399 \quad \frac{dCRE}{dT} = \sum \frac{dCRE_{type}}{dLCC_{type}} \left(\frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial SST} X_{sst} \frac{dSST}{dT} + \frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial EIS} X_{EIS} \frac{dEIS}{dT} \right) \frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC} \quad (5)$$

$$401 \quad \text{where } X_Y = \frac{\frac{\partial LCC_{type,type}}{\partial Y} - \frac{\partial LCC_{type,other}}{\partial Y}}{100} \frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC}, \quad (6)$$

402
 403 Y is either SST or EIS, and $\frac{\partial LCC_{type,type}}{\partial Y}$ and $\frac{\partial LCC_{type,other}}{\partial Y}$ are the partial derivatives computed for
 404 each type of cloud in their dominating region (i.e., where $\frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC}$ is greater than 50%) and non-
 405 dominating regions (i.e., where $\frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC}$ is smaller than 50%), respectively.

406
 407 Ignoring the effect of the relative presence of Sc and Cu clouds⁸ may result in an overestimate
 408 of the inferred low-cloud feedback by more than a factor two (left vs. right panels of
 409 Supplementary Fig. 10), especially in the trade-wind regions where the sensitivity of low clouds
 410 to surface warming is relatively small. This is because almost no Sc clouds form in the trade-wind
 411 regions in the real world (Fig. 1c), despite the tendency of many models to make significant Sc
 412 there. In summary, errors in the spatial patterns of SST trend, Sc coverage, and Cu coverage all
 413 have the potential to cause errors in model-predicted ECS.

414 **GCM SW low-cloud feedbacks**

415
 416 Most of the tropical cloud feedback comes from the shortwave (SW) effect of low clouds^{1,27},
 417 thus we focus on the SW low-cloud feedbacks here. For the abrupt-4xCO2 GCM experiments, we
 418 compute the “actual” cloud feedback simulated by each of the 40 CMIP6 models (Supplementary
 419 Table 1) as the change in SW CRE per unit change in global mean surface temperature², where the
 420 CRE is the difference between clear-sky and all-sky top of the atmosphere flux. To do so, we first
 421 interpolate the model monthly outputs to a 2.5°x2.5° grid and we then compute the difference

422 between the mean SW CRE of years 121-150 of the climate change experiments minus that of the
 423 control in subsidence regimes (as defined in the method above) divided by the difference of the
 424 global mean surface temperature between the two experiments in subsidence regimes as shown in
 425 the following equation:

$$427 \frac{dCRE_{GCM}}{dT}$$

$$428 = \left(\frac{1}{n+1-i} \sum_i^n CRE_{warm} - \frac{1}{n+1-i} \sum_i^n CRE_{ctrl} \right) / \left(\frac{1}{n+1-i} \sum_i^n T_{warm} - \frac{1}{n+1-i} \sum_i^n T_{ctrl} \right) \quad (7)$$

429
 430 Where $i = 121$ and $n = 150$, CRE is the SW CRE averaged over the tropical oceans in regimes
 431 of subsidence, warm means the climate change experiments (abrupt-4xCO₂), and ctrl means the
 432 pre-industrial control run (piControl). Using the last 30 years of the simulation captures the essence
 433 of the long-term feedback²⁸ without having to perform the regression analysis of the entire 150-
 434 year period (not shown).

435 Using this approach to quantify the GCM low cloud feedback gives results that are almost
 436 identical to using a radiative kernel method^{1,29} and similar to a more labor-intensive method²⁸ (such
 437 as the partial radiative perturbation) in this case because for low clouds over the tropical oceans,
 438 non-cloud feedbacks and the LW component of cloud feedback are very small³⁰.

439

440 **Uncertainty analysis**

441 Since the low cloud feedback is the sum of the Sc and Cu cloud feedbacks, its uncertainty is
 442 the sum of the absolute errors of Sc and Cu cloud feedbacks in quadrature such as:

443

$$444 \delta \frac{dCRE}{dT} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dCRE_{Sc}}{dT} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dCRE_{Cu}}{dT} \right)^2} \quad (8)$$

445

446 Following Eq. 6, $dCRE_{Sc}/dT$ and $dCRE_{Cu}/dT$ can be expressed as:

447

$$448 \frac{dCRE_{type}}{dT} = \frac{dCRE_{type}}{dLCC_{type}} \frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC} \frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial SST} \frac{dSST}{dT} + \frac{dCRE_{type}}{dLCC_{type}} \frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC} \frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial EIS} \frac{dEIS}{dT} \quad (9)$$

449

450 where the uncertainty of $dCRE_{type}/dLCC_{type}$ is negligible and $dSST/dT$ and $dEIS/dT$ are
 451 constants.

452 Therefore, the uncertainty $\delta dCRE_{type}/dT$ only comes from $\partial LCC_{type}/\partial SST$, $\partial LCC_{type}/\partial EIS$ and
 453 LCC_{type}/LCC and can be added in quadrature such as:

454

455
$$\delta \frac{dCRE_{type}}{dT} =$$

456
$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{dCRE_{type}}{dLCC_{type}} \frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC} \frac{dSST}{dT} \delta \frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial SST}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dCRE_{type}}{dLCC_{type}} \frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC} \frac{dEIS}{dT} \delta \frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial EIS}\right)^2 + \left(\left[\frac{dSST}{dT} \frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial SST} + \frac{dEIS}{dT} \frac{\partial LCC_{type}}{\partial EIS}\right] \frac{dCRE_{type}}{dLCC_{type}} \delta \frac{LCC_{type}}{LCC}\right)^2}$$

457 (10)

458

459 We determine $\delta \partial LCC_{type}/\partial SST$ and $\delta \partial LCC_{type}/\partial EIS$ using the 10-90% confidence interval over
 460 the nine different observational estimates of the partial derivatives (i.e., combination of the three
 461 SST and three EIS datasets), which corresponds to 1.645 times one standard deviation. Note that
 462 using a 10-90% confidence interval from the bilinear regression of the partial derivatives does not
 463 change the results. For $\delta LCC_{type}/LCC$, we use the 10-90% confidence interval over the standard
 464 deviation of the annual mean (using 10 years).

465

466 **Equilibrium climate sensitivity estimates**

467 The GCM ECS values used in this study are computed using the Gregory et al.³¹ method from
 468 150 years of abrupt-4xCO₂ and piControl runs. The global annual mean anomalies of TOA net
 469 radiation are regressed against the annual mean anomalies of global mean surface air temperature.
 470 Then the x-intercept of the line is divided by two to provide an estimate of the ECS. All the ECS
 471 estimates come from an updated version of Supplementary Table 1 in Zelinka et al.²⁷ except for
 472 TaiEMS1 and KACE-1-0-G, which we computed ourselves using the same method.

473 Finally, we use the relationship between ECS and low-cloud feedback in CMIP6 models (Fig.
 474 1f and CMIP5 models in Supplementary Fig. 11) to derive an observationally constrained ECS
 475 from our observationally inferred low-cloud feedback. The uncertainty comes from the 10-90 %
 476 confidence interval of the best-fit regression between CMIP6 low-cloud feedbacks and ECS as
 477 well as the uncertainty estimates of the observationally inferred low-cloud feedback (see
 478 uncertainty analysis). However, it does not include uncertainty from other feedbacks not
 479 considered in our study.

480

481 **References**

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483 feedback on evolving patterns of surface temperature change in climate models. *J. Clim.*
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488 climate feedbacks in NCAR’s Community Atmospheric Model. *J. Clim.* **21**, 2269–2282
489 (2008).
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491 sensitivity. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **31**, 2–5 (2004).

492

493 **Data availability**

494 The CALIPSO-GOCCP CASCCAD statistical datasets (Cesana *et al.*²) can be downloaded
495 from the GISS website (<https://data.giss.nasa.gov/clouds/casccad/>). CERES-EBAF 4.0 SW TOA
496 fluxes were downloaded from the CERES website (<https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/>). The CMIP6
497 GCMs outputs were downloaded from both the ESGF (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>)
498 and climserv websites (<https://climserv.ipsl.polytechnique.fr/>). ERA5 files were downloaded from
499 climserv. HadISST1.1 files were downloaded from
500 <https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/hadisst/>. ERSSTv5 files were downloaded from the NOAA
501 national centers for environmental information website
502 (<https://www1.ncdc.noaa.gov/pub/data/cmb/ersst/v5/netcdf/>). NCEP/DOE reanalysis2, NCEP-
503 NCAR reanalysis1 and NOAA/CIRES/DOE 20th Century Reanalysis V3 were downloaded from
504 the NOAA ESRL Physical Sciences Division website (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/>).

505

506 **Code availability**

507 The codes used to produce the figures and to compute the different derivatives and feedbacks
508 can be made available by contacting the corresponding author.

509

510 **Acknowledgements**

511 GC and AD were supported by a CloudSat-CALIPSO RTOP at the NASA Goddard Institute
512 for Space Studies. The authors would like to thank NASA and CNES for giving access to
513 CALIPSO and CloudSat observations, and Climserv for giving access to CALIPSO-GOCCP
514 observations, CMIP6 model outputs and for providing computing resources. We acknowledge the
515 World Climate Research Programme's Working Group on Coupled Modeling, which is
516 responsible for CMIP, and we thank the climate modeling groups (listed in Supplementary Table
517 1 and 3) for producing and making available their model output. GC thanks Mark Richardson for
518 proofreading the first draft of the manuscript and providing useful comments and Mark Zelinka
519 for providing an updated version of Supplementary Table 1 of his study²⁷. Finally, the authors
520 thank the three anonymous reviewers and the editor for the helpful comments.

521 Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to GC.

522

523 **Author contributions**

524 GC designed the study and carried out the analysis with inputs from AD. GC wrote the
525 manuscript with contributions from AD.

526

527 **Competing interests statement**

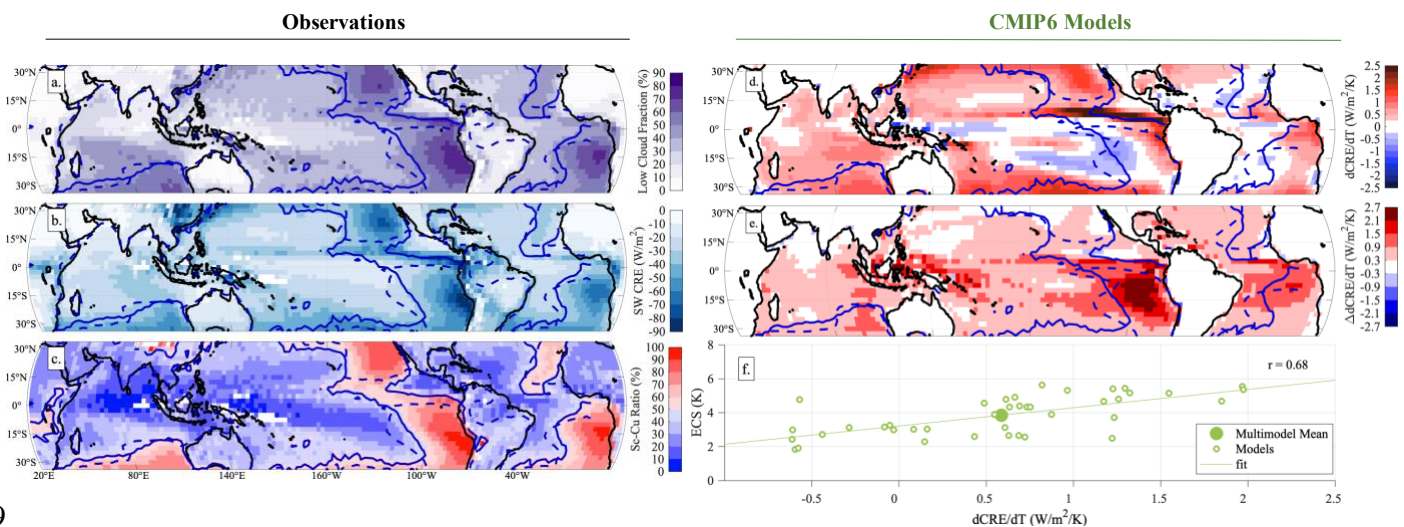
528 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

529

530

531 **Figures**

532 **Figure 1: Observed low-cloud climatology and simulated low-cloud feedback.** Maps of a) low-
 533 cloud frequency of occurrence, referred to as low-cloud fraction throughout the manuscript, as
 534 observed by the version of CASCCAD that uses only CALIPSO lidar observations (CALIPSO-
 535 CASCCAD) (% , cloud top below ~ 3 km), b) shortwave cloud radiative effect as observed by
 536 CERES-EBAF ed4.0 (W/m^2), c) ratio of Sc cloud fraction to total low cloud fraction as observed
 537 by CALIPSO-CASCCAD ($Sc/(Sc+Cu)$ ratio, %), d) “actual” low-cloud feedback in tropical ocean
 538 from 40 CMIP6 GCMs, calculated as the change in SW cloud radiative effect CRE with
 539 temperature ($W/m^2/K$), e) difference between low-cloud feedback of the 19 highest- and 21 lowest-
 540 ECS CMIP6 models with respect to the multimodel mean ECS (respectively high-ECS and low-
 541 ECS, see Supplementary Table 1) and f) relationship between the “actual” low-cloud feedback and
 542 ECS in CMIP6 models, all in subsidence regimes ($\omega_{500} > 10$ hPa/day, where ω_{500} is the 500 hPa
 543 pressure vertical velocity). The solid blue line represents the 50 % iso-contour of CALIPSO-
 544 CASCCAD $Sc/(Sc+Cu)$ ratio, which discriminates Sc- from Cu-dominated regions, while the
 545 dashed blue line is the 1 K iso-contour of the EIS from reanalysis in the left column (see
 546 Supplementary Table 2) and the CMIP6 model mean in the right column, which may be used as a
 547 proxy to delimit Sc and Cu cloud regimes when averaged over a long period of time (see
 548 Supplementary Text 1 and Supplementary Fig. 2).



549

550

551

552 **Figure 2: Observed sensitivity of low-cloud type to environmental factors (2007-2016).** (a)

553 Observed low-cloud fraction (%) in subsidence regimes over the tropical oceans ($\omega_{500} > 10$

554 hPa/day) (all clouds in black, stratocumulus dominated regions in red, shallow cumuli dominated

555 regions in blue); b) interannual low-cloud change per K of SST warming ($dLCC/dSST$, % K^{-1}),

556 c) interannual low-cloud change per K of SST warming with EIS held constant ($\partial LCC/\partial SST$, %

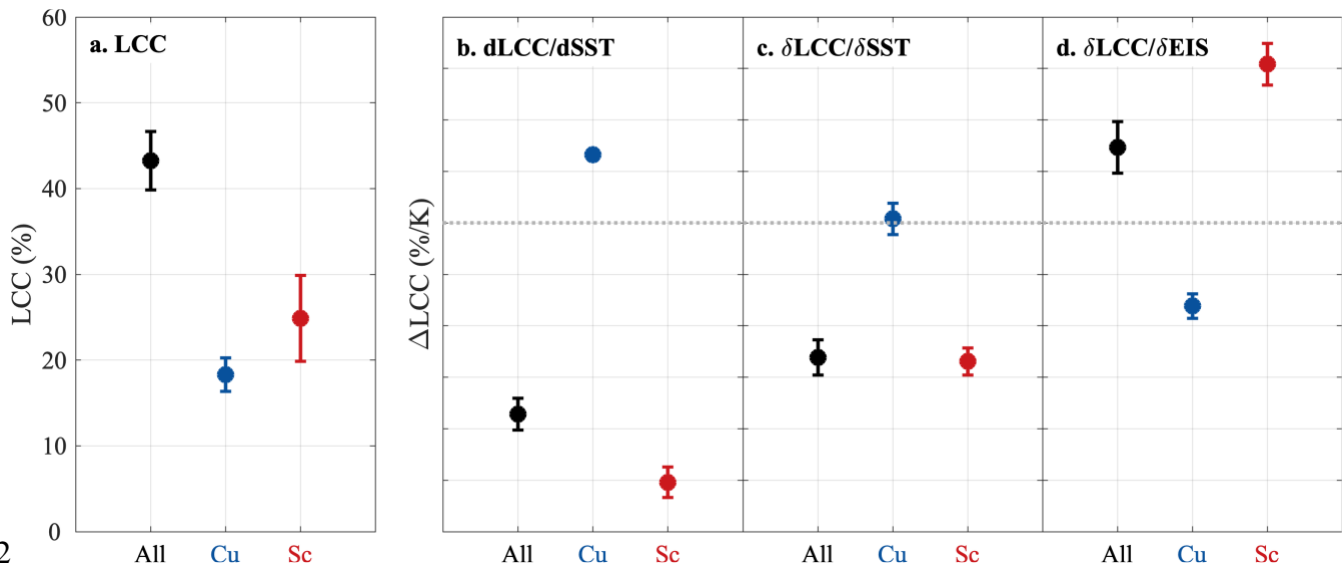
557 K^{-1}), d) interannual low-cloud change per K of EIS increase with SST held constant ($\partial LCC/\partial EIS$,

558 % K^{-1}) from CALIPSO-CASCCAD and six observational and reanalysis products. The uncertainty

559 bars correspond to the interannual mean variability for (a), and the 10-90% confidence interval

560 using the three SST datasets for b), and three SST and EIS datasets for c) and d).

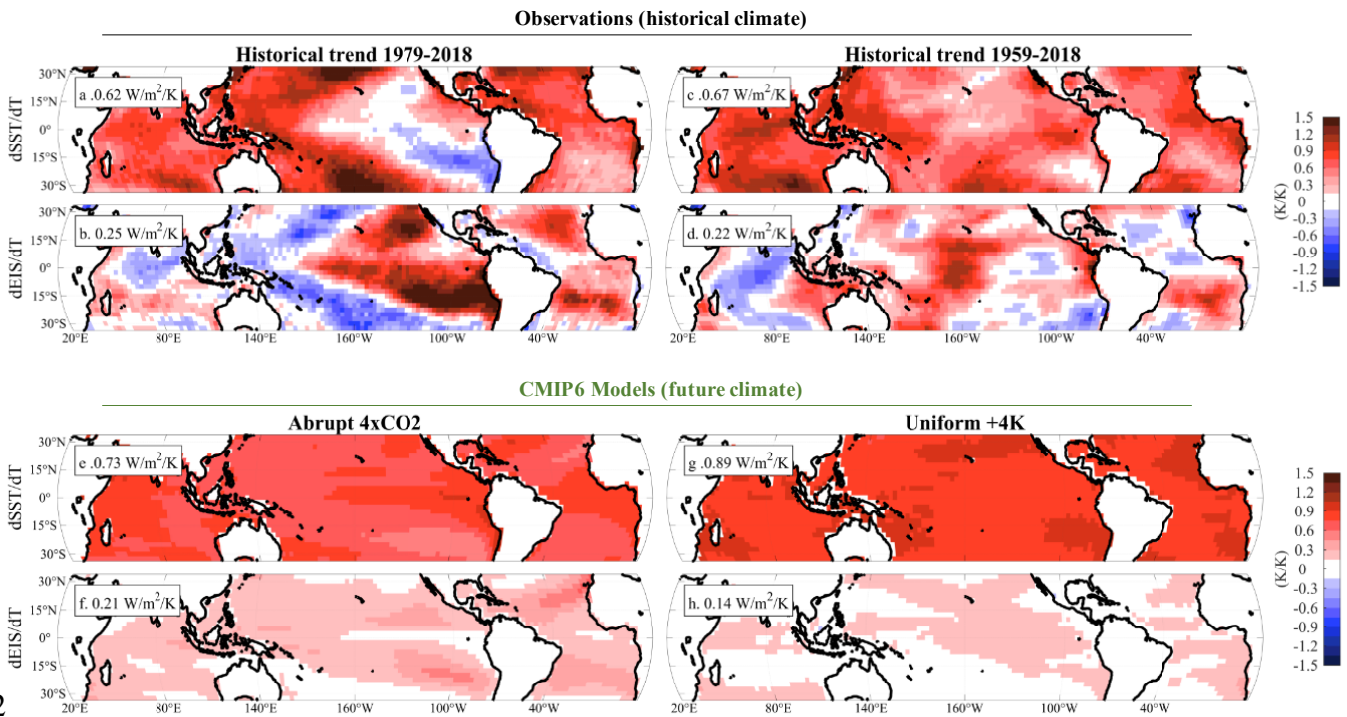
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562

563

564 **Figure 3: SST and EIS observed historical trends and simulated future changes.** Maps of SST
 565 (top) and EIS (bottom) change [K/K] for different climate warming scenarios in subsidence
 566 regimes (upper left to lower right): observed historical based on the past 40 and 60 years, simulated
 567 abrupt-4xCO2 and uniform +4K. The SST and EIS pattern differences in the abrupt-4xCO2 and
 568 uniform +4K scenarios are obtained from 40 and 14 CMIP6 models (Supplementary Table 1) while
 569 the historical trends are derived from a set of observational and reanalysis products depending on
 570 availability (Supplementary Table 2). See the Methods section for details on computation of the
 571 trends.



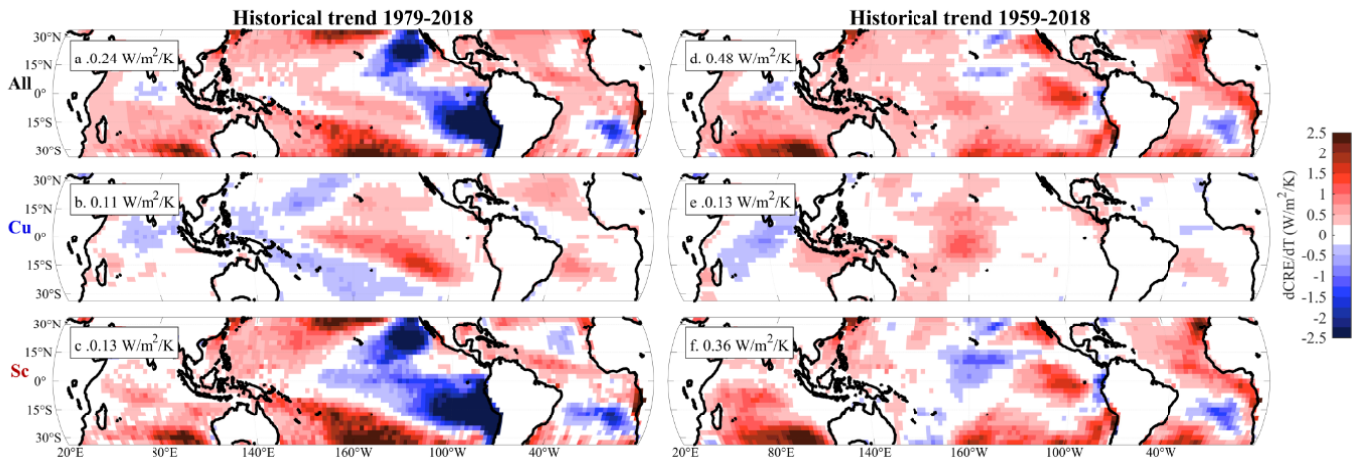
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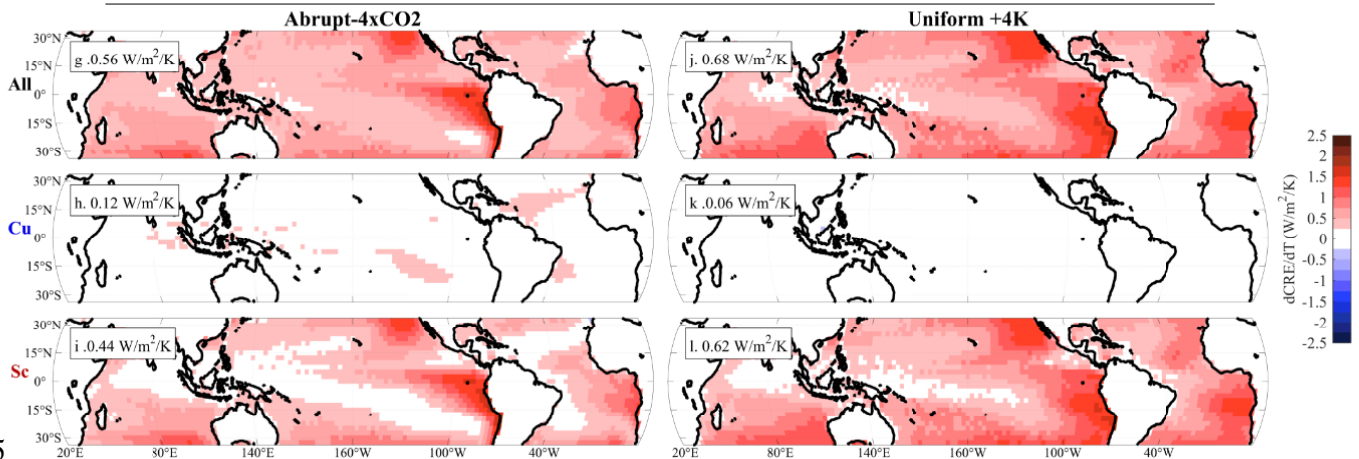
574 **Figure 4: Observationally inferred total, Sc and Cu cloud feedback for different potential**
 575 **future SST pattern trends.** Maps of observationally inferred (top row) total, (second row) Cu,
 576 and (third row) Sc cloud feedback ($\text{Wm}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$) inferred from the CALIPSO-CASCCAD-based
 577 partial derivatives and Sc/(Sc+Cu) fraction and potential future SST and EIS pattern changes from
 578 different climate warming scenarios (upper left to lower right): historical climate using the past 40
 579 and 60-year SST and EIS pattern trends based on observations and reanalyses, and future climate
 580 using abrupt-4xCO₂ and uniform +4K SST and EIS pattern changes based on CMIP6 models.
 581 Note that while the historical trends using the past 60 years produce a total feedback 15% smaller
 582 than that of an abrupt-4xCO₂, its pattern is substantially different and converges to that of the
 583 historical climate using the past 40 years (see also the historical 50-year feedback in
 584 Supplementary Fig. 7).

Observationally inferred cloud feedback

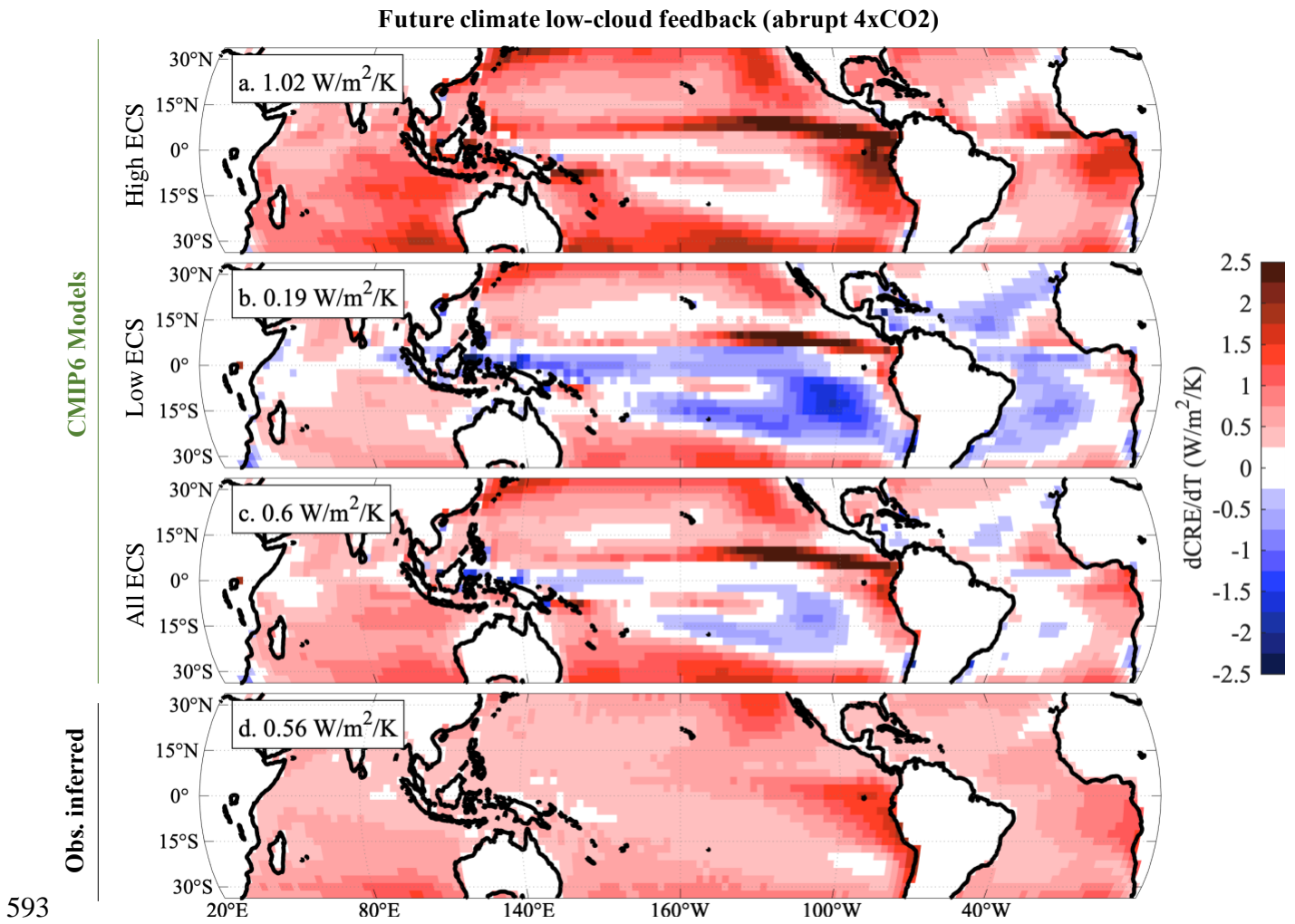
Historical climate



Future climate



586 **Figure 5: Simulated vs. observationally inferred low-cloud feedback.** Maps of “actual” low-
 587 cloud feedbacks derived from the abrupt-4xCO₂ experiments of (a) high-ECS models, (b) low-
 588 ECS models and (c) all CMIP6 models (see Supplementary Table 1), and (d) the observationally
 589 inferred feedback inferred from CALIPSO-CASCCAD-based partial derivatives and $S_c/(S_c+C_u)$
 590 fraction and potential future SST and EIS pattern changes from for the simulated abrupt-4xCO₂
 591 (as in Fig. 4g), in subsidence regimes.
 592



593