

1 **Comparison of Cloud-Type Properties and Radiative Effect Decomposition in Tropical**
2 **Convectively Active Regions Using CERES High-Resolution Data**

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47 **Abstract**

48 Land and oceanic convection exhibit significant contrasts in intensity and entrainment, but
49 their effects on the properties of other cloud types remain unclear. This study examines a 19-year
50 mean of cloud properties and top-of-the-atmosphere (TOA) cloud radiative effects (CREs) by
51 cloud type, with a focus on regional variations across convectively active tropical regions. Forty-
52 two cloud types are classified based on effective cloud-top pressure and cloud optical depth. The
53 analysis reveals distinct regional differences in cloud occurrence and properties, with oceanic
54 regions dominated by convective anvils and boundary-layer clouds, which have higher water
55 contents, while land regions feature higher fractions of mid-level clouds with lower liquid water
56 contents. The study further explores shortwave (SW), longwave (LW) and net CREs, decomposing
57 the contributions of individual cloud types to overall CRE differences from tropical means into
58 three components: CRE deviations within a cloud type, cloud fraction (CF) deviations, and their
59 combined effect. Results show that CF deviations have the largest impact, enhancing LW warming
60 and SW cooling for mid- and high-level clouds while reducing SW and net cooling for low-level
61 clouds. Although the effects of CRE deviations are smaller than those of CF deviations for
62 individual cloud types, its collective contribution to overall regional CRE differences, particularly
63 for net CRE, is more comparable, because the former exhibits consistent regional differences
64 across all cloud types while the latter is influenced by opposing effects between low- and high-
65 level clouds. The decomposition analysis also highlights significant regional variations driven by
66 land-ocean contrasts and meteorological forcings.

67 **Key points:**

- 68 1. This study decomposes regional cloud radiative effect (CRE) differences into three
69 components to assess each cloud type's contribution
- 70 2. The cloud fraction (CF) deviation component contributes more to regional CRE differences
71 than the CRE deviation within each cloud type
- 72 3. Regional CRE differences from CRE deviation for all cloud types combined are similar to
73 those from CF deviation, especially for net CRE

74 **Plain language summary**

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76 This study examines how clouds and their effects on Earth's radiation differ between

77 tropical ocean and land areas. Using 19 years of data, the researchers explore how clouds behave

78 in stormy regions and how each cloud type affects the planet's radiation. They categorized clouds

79 into 42 types based on their height and optical thickness. This study found that ocean areas mostly

80 have more clouds in the lower and upper portions of the atmosphere that hold more water, while

81 land areas have more mid-level clouds with less water. The study also investigates how changes

82 in cloud amounts and types affect regional differences in cloud radiative effects (CRE). It shows

83 that cloud cover amount is the biggest factor in these differences, enhancing the infrared warming

84 and solar cooling effects of high clouds, while reducing the solar cooling effects of low clouds.

85 Even though the effects of CRE changes for a specific cloud type are smaller than those of cloud

86 amount changes, they still matter when effects are summed across all cloud types, especially for

87 net cloud cooling effect. The study concludes that land-ocean differences, along with local weather

88 conditions, are important in shaping cloud patterns and their effects on radiation.

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91 1. Introduction

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Clouds play a critical role in regulating the Earth's energy balance through their radiative effects (CREs), which influence the global radiation budget (e.g., Ramanathan et al., 1989; Wielicki et al., 1995, 1996). In the Tropics, regions of intense convection, such as the intertropical convergence zones (ITCZs), are central to energy export to midlatitudes via the Hadley circulation. These areas are often associated with severe weather systems, such as tropical cyclones and mesoscale convective systems (e.g., Mapes, 1993). While deep convective clouds, or “hot towers,” are a significant source of latent heat release (Pilewskie et al., 2024; Riehl & Malkus, 1958; Riehl & Simpson, 1979) and drive the Hadley circulation, they occupy only a small portion of the convective system. In fact, the radiative effects of these systems are often dominated by other cloud types, such as expansive convective anvils and low-level clouds (e.g., Feng et al., 2011).

The properties and radiative interactions of clouds—including deep convective clouds—vary considerably across tropical regions (e.g., Kubar et al., 2007; Lin et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2008). These variations are influenced by factors such as surface type (land vs. ocean), sea surface temperature (SST), atmospheric moisture, aerosols, and dynamic processes. Obviously, regional differences in cloud characteristics are closely linked to the intensity of convective activity, resulting in varying magnitudes of CREs across different cloud types. Understanding these regional differences in cloud properties and their associated CREs is essential for improving climate predictions and addressing uncertainties in cloud feedback (e.g., Luo et al., 2023; Randall et al., 2007; Stephens, 2005; Vial et al., 2013).

It is well-established that convection is generally more intense over land than over ocean, with land convection having broader cores that are less affected by entrainment (e.g., LeMone & Zipser, 1980; Lucas et al., 1994; Takahashi et al., 2023; Xu & Randall, 2001). This difference is

115 due to the deeper boundary layer over land, which allows larger eddies to be lifted into the free
116 atmosphere, forming broader convective cores. These broader cores are better shielded from the
117 dilution by entrainment, leading to stronger updrafts (e.g., Takahashi et al., 2023). Warmer surface
118 temperatures over land also generate more convective available potential energy (CAPE), although
119 moisture availability over the ocean can moderate land-ocean contrasts. However, moisture has
120 greater effect on other cloud types, particularly low-level clouds, in ways that that may be more
121 significant than its impact on deep convective clouds, as these clouds are less influenced by CAPE.
122 Despite these known differences in convective intensity, entrainment and environmental
123 conditions including aerosols, it remains unclear how these factors influence the regional
124 differences in properties and radiative effects of other cloud types.

125 To better understand the regional differences in CRE, this study relates them to variations
126 in cloud properties and the environmental conditions that shape different cloud types. Bony et al.
127 (2004) proposed a method to decompose CREs using large-scale pressure vertical velocity at 500
128 hPa (ω) to separate the dynamic and thermodynamic components of cloud changes in the Tropics.
129 This dynamic regime decomposition isolated changes in CRE resulting from alterations in the
130 large-scale atmospheric circulation from changes in CRE within a regime. This approach has been
131 useful to understand cloud feedback, particularly for low-level clouds (Bony & Dufresne, 2005;
132 Vial et al., 2013). Xu & Cheng (2016) extended this approach to include joint dynamic and stability
133 regimes. In this study, we propose a method to decompose CRE difference between two regions
134 into three components for individual cloud types: CRE deviations within a cloud type (analogous
135 to the thermodynamic component), cloud fraction deviations (analogous to the dynamic
136 component) and their combined effects. An advantage of this approach is that it directly uses cloud
137 types instead of relying on proxies. In previous methods, the subsidence (stable) regime was used

138 as a proxy for low-level clouds, while the ascending (unstable) regime was associated with deep
139 convective clouds. Weakly ascending or descending (nearly neutral) regimes encompassed a mix
140 of cloud types. It is important to note that cloud types have been defined differently in previous
141 studies, depending on the datasets used (e.g., Burleyson et al., 2015; Hang et al., 2019; Hartmann
142 et al., 1992; Hill et al., 2018; L’Ecuyar et al., 2019; Luo et al., 2023; Najarian & Sakaeda, 2023;
143 Ockert-Bell & Hartmann, 1992; Zhao, 2024).

144 This study uses the Clouds and the Earth’s Radiant Energy System (CERES; Wielicki et
145 al., 1996) FluxByCldTyp (FBCT) dataset (Sun et al., 2022), which provides daily, global, gridded
146 observations of cloud properties and radiative fluxes according to cloud type. The dataset includes
147 42 distinct cloud types, categorized by effective cloud-top pressure and cloud optical depth. We
148 focus on five tropical regions—the Tropical Western Pacific (TWP), East Pacific and Atlantic
149 ITCZs, equatorial Africa, and the Amazon—collectively known as the “chimney zones” due to
150 their high convective activity (Pilewskie et al., 2024; Riehl & Malkus, 1958; Riehl & Simpson,
151 1979; Takahashi et al., 2017; William & Stanfill, 2002). These regions represent diverse tropical
152 environments with varying surfaces, atmospheric stability, moisture availability, aerosols, and
153 dynamic processes, leading to significant differences in the frequency of occurrence (“cloud
154 fraction”) and properties of cloud types and associated radiative effects.

155 The primary aim of this study is to compare regional cloud fraction and properties and
156 CREs across these five chimney regions, as well as tropical ocean and land areas. We further
157 analyze how individual cloud types contribute to overall CRE differences from the tropical mean
158 using the decomposition method for assessing the relative importance of deviations in CRE within
159 a cloud type and those in cloud fraction (CF). By doing so, we aim to provide a more detailed
160 understanding of regional variations in CREs and their relationships to cloud properties and

161 environmental conditions. The findings will enhance our understanding of how regional cloud
162 characteristics contribute to the Earth's radiative balance (e.g., Ceppi & Nowack, 2021; Kubar et
163 al., 2007; Ockert-Bell & Hartmann, 1992; Yuan et al., 2008), with important implications for both
164 regional and global climate modeling.

165 The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the FBCT dataset and
166 the CRE decomposition method; Section 3 presents the results; and Section 4 provides summary
167 and discussion.

168 **2. Dataset and methodology**

169 **2.1 FluxByCldTyp (FBCT) dataset**

170 The CERES FluxByCldTyp (FBCT) data product provides daily daytime averages of cloud
171 properties and radiative fluxes, either combined or separated for Terra and Aqua satellites
172 (Wielicki et al., 1995), over a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid (Eitzen et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2022). We use the CERES
173 Aqua FBCT data from July 2002 to June 2021 (19 years) in this study. These data are stratified by
174 effective cloud (“radiating” top) pressure (p_c) and cloud optical depth (τ) (Rossow & Schiffer,
175 1999). A cloud type is represented by a $p_c - \tau$ pair, that is, the joint distribution of p_c and τ . p_c
176 and τ information is derived from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MODIS) pixel
177 data with a size of 2×2 km². A total of 42 discrete cloud types are defined, using seven p_c bins
178 and six τ bins, along with a cloud-free bin. The cloud-free areal fraction is calculated as one minus
179 the sum of cloud fractions across the 42 cloud types.

180 The microphysical and macrophysical properties of cloud types, such as cloud fraction,
181 cloud liquid water path (LWP), total cloud water path (TCWP; sum of LWP and cloud ice water
182 path, IWP), and effective cloud-top height, are derived from the CERES cloud retrievals of
183 MODIS pixel data (Minnis et al., 2011, 2021). It is important to note that CERES footprints have

184 a nominal size of $20 \times 20 \text{ km}^2$ at nadir, which increases with distance from nadir. To calculate the
185 mean properties for each CERES footprint, each MODIS imager pixel within a CERES footprint
186 is assigned a weight based upon the point spread function of the footprint. The weights are then
187 used to compute cloud fraction and all other cloud parameter values of the footprint.

188 The algorithm for deriving cloud type-sorted radiative fluxes and clear sky fluxes employs
189 empirically derived narrowband-to-broadband coefficients, converts mean broadband radiances to
190 subfootprint fluxes using CERES angular distribution models (Loeb et al., 2005; Su et al., 2015),
191 and normalizes results against “observed” footprint fluxes (Loeb et al., 2018). The fluxes for each
192 single-scene footprints and subfootprint cloud layers are assigned to their respective $p_c - \tau$ cloud
193 types, and the areal extents of single-scene footprints and subfootprint layers are used to calculate
194 cloud-type averaged fluxes for $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid. Here “single scene” refers to an entire footprint with
195 either a single cloud layer or totally clear skies, while subfootprints are smaller areas of a footprint
196 with either one or two cloud layers (Minnis et al., 2011). Instantaneous shortwave fluxes, including
197 clear sky fluxes, are converted to equivalent daily mean fluxes as detailed in Sun et al. (2022).

198 The data are averaged over different regions for the 19-year period. Following Takahashi
199 et al. (2017), the five tropical regions are defined as: Africa ($0\text{--}35^\circ\text{E}$, $12^\circ\text{S}\text{--}24^\circ\text{N}$), Amazon (280--
200 325°E , $15^\circ\text{S}\text{--}10^\circ\text{N}$), TWP ($90\text{--}170^\circ\text{E}$, $15^\circ\text{S}\text{--}15^\circ\text{N}$), East Pacific ITCZ ($180\text{--}280^\circ\text{E}$, $0\text{--}12^\circ\text{N}$), and
201 Atlantic ITCZ ($310\text{--}345^\circ\text{E}$, $0\text{--}12^\circ\text{N}$). Please refer to Supplementary Information (SI) Figure A1
202 for the locations of these regions. The entire tropical region is defined as the latitudinal band of
203 $25^\circ\text{S}\text{--}25^\circ\text{N}$, which is further subdivided into land and ocean regions based on the land mask.

204 **2.2 Methodology for decomposition of cloud radiative effects**

205 Recently, Xu et al. (2024) derived an expression for the regionally averaged CRE that
206 accounts for the influence of the immediate environment of a specific cloud type. The derivation

207 of this expression is summarized below. The overall CRE over a region or grid box is traditionally
 208 defined as the difference in radiative flux—positive for upward flux—between clear and all skies,
 209 with the assumption that clouds are horizontally uniform (Ramanathan et al., 1989). The term
 210 “overall CRE” refers to the combined effects of all cloud types within a given region or grid box.
 211 Mathematically, CRE is expressed as:

$$212 \quad \quad \quad CRE = F_{clr} - F_{all} \quad (1),$$

213 where F is the TOA flux and subscripts clr and all denote clear skies and all skies, respectively.
 214 Eq. (1) can be simplified to the difference between the clear and cloudy fluxes, weighted by cloud
 215 fraction, a , as follows:

$$216 \quad \quad \quad CRE = F_{clr} - [aF_{cld} + (1 - a) F_{clr}] = a(F_{clr} - F_{cld}) \quad (2),$$

217 where subscript cld refers to cloudy skies. If clouds are not horizontally uniform, the overall CRE
 218 over a region or grid box is the sum of cloud-type mean CREs multiplied by cloud fraction (CF)
 219 across all cloud types. For a specific cloud type j , denoted as $CRE_{cld,j}$, the cloud-type mean CRE
 220 is given by the same expression as in (2), but assuming that $a = 1$:

$$221 \quad \quad \quad CRE_{cld,j} = F_{clr} - F_{cld,j} \quad (3).$$

222 In Xu et al. (2024), F_{clr} refers to the flux in the environment of cloud type j within a specific
 223 $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid of the FBCT data. For regional averages, the regionally averaged cloud-type mean
 224 CRE excludes the clear-sky flux from any $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid within the region where the specific cloud
 225 type is not present; that is, the regionally averaged F_{clr} is calculated from CF-weighted clear-sky
 226 fluxes across all grids. In other word, the simple regional average of all clear sky fluxes weighted
 227 by clear-sky area over all grids, which is independent of cloud type, is not used.

228 The regionally averaged CF-weighted cloud-type mean CREs are summed to obtain the
 229 overall CRE across all cloud types, as shown in the following equation:

230
$$CRE = \sum_{j=1}^{42} \bar{a}_j \overline{CRE}_{cld,j} \quad (4),$$

231 where the overbar denotes the regional average. In the following, we focus on the deviation in the
 232 product term on the right-hand side (RHS) of Equation (4) for a specific region compared to the
 233 entire tropical region. The product term is called contribution to overall CRE from a cloud type.
 234 This term is determined by both regionally averaged cloud-type mean CRE and its CF. By omitting
 235 the subscript j (for cloud type) and using f to represent the regionally averaged CF and CRE to
 236 represent the regionally averaged cloud-type mean CRE, respectively, the difference in the product
 237 term on the RHS of Equation (4) between two regions can be expressed as:

238
$$\begin{aligned} f_1 CRE_1 - f_0 CRE_0 &= (f_0 + \Delta f) \times (CRE_0 + \Delta CRE) - f_0 \times CRE_0 \\ &= f_0 \Delta CRE + \Delta f CRE_0 + \Delta f \Delta CRE \end{aligned} \quad (5),$$

239 where subscripts 0 and 1 refer to the entire tropical region and a specific region, respectively, and
 240 Δ represents the deviation of a specific region from the entire tropical region. The three terms on
 241 the RHS of Equation (5) represent the contributions to regional differences in overall CRE from a
 242 given cloud type, arising from: (1) the deviation in CRE within a cloud type, (2) the deviation in
 243 CF, and (3) the deviations in both CF and CRE. The last term is typically small.

244 Similar to Bony et al. (2004), Eq. (5) separates changes in overall CRE into two
 245 components: those due to CF deviations from those due to CRE deviations within a cloud type.
 246 This approach distinguishes the contributions from changes in cloud occurrence and cloud
 247 microphysical properties. This decomposition allows for an assessment of the relative importance
 248 of CF and CRE deviations in contributing to regional differences in the overall CREs from each
 249 cloud type and all types combined. The latter is obtained by summing each individual term on the
 250 RHS of Eq. (5) across all 42 cloud types. The results will be shown in Section 3.2.

251 **3. Results**

252 **3.1 Tropical mean cloud and radiative properties by cloud type**

253 In this section, we present the tropical-mean cloud fraction and properties and CREs by
254 cloud type, as defined by the joint $p_c - \tau$ distribution. These mean properties serve as a reference
255 for comparing regional differences. For the discussion of results related solely to cloud heights,
256 we use effective cloud-top pressure intervals to classify conventional cloud types: $1000 \geq p_c >$
257 800 hPa for boundary-layer clouds, $1000 \geq p_c > 680$ hPa for low-level clouds, $680 \geq p_c > 440$
258 hPa for mid-level clouds, and $p_c \leq 440$ hPa for high-level clouds. Thin anvils are high-level clouds
259 with $\tau \leq 3.6$ while thick anvils are those with $3.6 < \tau \leq 23$. Note that the definition of boundary-
260 layer clouds is somewhat imprecise, as the heights of the atmospheric boundary layer can vary
261 greatly from ocean to land areas. The deep convective types are defined as the four types in the
262 top-right corner of the $p_c - \tau$ diagrams ($p_c \leq 310$ hPa and $\tau > 23$). Note that cloud types with less
263 than 0.1% area fractions are represented in white to minimize the impact of weak statistics.

264 For the entire tropical region (Figure 1h), CFs for the 42 cloud types range from less than
265 1% (accounting for 24 types) to 7.5%, while the clear-sky area fraction is 40.2%. Low- and high-
266 level cloud types with thin-to-moderate optical depths ($\tau \leq 9.4$) are the most abundant, with the
267 largest CF (7.5%) found in one of the boundary-layer cloud types ($1.3 < \tau \leq 3.6$). The CF
268 maximum in the boundary layer is contributed by shallow cumulus and stratocumulus clouds,
269 while the secondary maximum in the upper troposphere (4%) is associated with convective anvils
270 generated by deep convection. The four deep convective types together contribute 2.6%, compared
271 to less than 0.8% from the ten cloud types with lower effective cloud tops but in the same τ range.

272 Figures 1a-g show the deviations of cloud-type mean CF from the tropical mean (Figure
273 1h) for both tropical ocean and land regions, as well as the five chimney regions. The contrast

274 between lands and oceans is pronounced (Figures 1a and 1e); land areas exhibit more mid-level
275 clouds with optical depths of $1.3 < \tau \leq 23$, while oceans have abundance of boundary-layer clouds
276 (1.7%) and slightly more thin anvil clouds ($> 0.3\%$). The deeper planetary boundary layer (PBL)
277 over land (e.g., McGrath-Spangler & Denning, 2013), which is linked to stronger surface heating,
278 explains the absence of low-level cloud types over land (with a maximum deviation of -3.8%)
279 while the abundance of oceanic boundary-layer clouds is attributed to those clouds in the
280 subsidence regions. In contrast, the drier environment over land leads to the evaporation of
281 optically very thin cloud types ($\tau \leq 1.3$). The higher abundance of mid-level clouds over land
282 (maximum deviation of 2.2%) is likely a result of moisture transport from surface, combined with
283 a more unstable atmospheric environment, compared to the concentration of moisture in the lower
284 troposphere over ocean.

285 The five chimney regions (Figures 1b, c, d, f, g) are overly cloudier than the tropical mean,
286 except for Africa, when summing the CFs across all cloud types. This observation aligns with the
287 findings of Xu et al. (2024), which showed that the magnitudes of the overall SW and LW CREs
288 are greater than the tropical mean. Higher cloud fractions typically lead to more significant SW
289 and LW radiative effects (e.g., Hartmann et al., 1992; Ockert-Bell & Hartmann, 1992), although
290 the precise relationship depends on the cloud type, thickness, altitude, and optical depth. In the
291 following, we will discuss the significant differences in CFs and cloud water paths for individual
292 cloud types among the chimney regions.

293 The TWP stands out with the highest CFs, with CF deviations peaking at +4.4% for anvil
294 clouds, particularly optically thin ($\tau \leq 3.6$) ones, but it also shows the lowest CFs for boundary-
295 layer clouds, with a maximum deviation of -3.8% (Figure 1b). The absence of low-level clouds in
296 this region can be attributed to high SSTs and the lack of large-scale subsidence. In contrast, the

297 East Pacific ITCZ region displays a different CF distribution compared to the TWP, with an
298 abundance of low-level clouds (maximum deviation of +1.5%) and optically moderate-to-thick
299 ($3.6 < \tau \leq 60$) mid- and high-level clouds at around +1%. It also has slightly fewer (-0.8%) optically
300 thin clouds ($\tau < 3.6$) compared to the tropical mean (Figure 1c). These differences are consistent
301 with the findings of Kubar et al. (2007), which used a τ -cloud-top temperature joint distribution
302 with MODIS data. The lower SSTs and large-scale subsidence in parts of the East Pacific ITCZ
303 region contribute to the abundance of low-level clouds, while the shorter longevity of mesoscale
304 convective systems relative to those in the TWP helps explain the lack of optically thin clouds.

305 The Atlantic ITCZ region (Figure 1d) has a CF distribution similar to that of the East
306 Pacific ITCZ region including fewer thin anvil clouds compared to the tropical mean. However,
307 CF deviations for low-level clouds in the Atlantic ITCZ are negative for most cloud types, which
308 are similar to those in the TWP but with smaller amplitudes (-1.6%). Two cloud types with $1.3 <$
309 $\tau \leq 3.6$ show large positive deviations (+2.2%), associated with the prevalence of cumulus clouds.
310 The absence of stratocumulus clouds ($\tau > 3.6$) in the Atlantic ITCZ compared to the East Pacific
311 ITCZ is likely due to higher SSTs and the lack of large-scale subsidence.

312 As with the tropical lands (Figure 1e), both the Amazon and Africa regions (Figures 1f,
313 1g) exhibit relatively abundant mid-level and deep convective clouds but lack boundary-layer
314 clouds (maximum deviations of -4.2% in Africa and -3.0% in the Amazon), attributed to higher
315 PBL heights (e.g., McGrath-Spangler & Denning, 2013). However, Africa has lower CFs for anvil
316 clouds compared to the tropical mean (Figure 1f), likely due to limited moisture availability in the
317 region. In addition, the Amazon exhibits the smallest fraction of optically thin clouds among the
318 five chimney regions, which may indicate shorter lifespans for anvil clouds in this region, possibly
319 resulting from strong diurnal cycles compared to oceanic regions. Another distinct feature of the

320 Amazon region is the abundance of low- and mid-level clouds (+3.7%) between 800-400 hPa,
321 which is likely attributed to relatively wet environments (e.g., Collow et al., 2016).

322 The mean cloud liquid, cloud ice and total water paths (LWP, IWP and TCWP) increase
323 monotonically with τ and decrease with p_c (Figures 2h and 3h). Deep convective cloud types
324 exhibit the highest TCWP, with a maximum of 1900 g m^{-2} . In contrast, the maximum LWP is only
325 390 g m^{-2} , which is associated with a mid-level cloud type. TCWP is presented instead of IWP
326 because deep clouds contain liquid water in the lower troposphere, which is not captured by the
327 passive retrieval algorithm. Specifically, the retrieval algorithm only retrieves IWP for these cloud
328 types due to the single-phase assumption, which is intended to represent the TCWP (Minnis et al.,
329 2011, 2021). Both LWP and IWP are calculated from direct retrievals of τ and droplet radius (r_e)
330 for each pixel from the MODIS radiances. Deviations from the tropical means can be expressed as
331 the sum of relative deviations in τ and r_e , if cloud particle extinction coefficients remain constant.
332 The relative deviation in r_e dominates that of τ because variations in τ within a cloud type are
333 somewhat constrained by the cloud type selection criteria.

334 Deviations in LWP from the tropical mean are generally positive for most oceanic cloud
335 types, with the East Pacific ITCZ region showing the largest positive deviation of 58 g m^{-2} (Figures
336 2a-d). In contrast, land regions tend to have lower LWPs, with deviations of -48 g m^{-2} for tropical
337 land areas (Figure 2e), -66 g m^{-2} for Africa (Figure 2f), and -15.8 g m^{-2} for the Amazon (Figure
338 2g). These lower values are primarily attributed to drier conditions and higher aerosol
339 concentrations. This land-ocean contrast is further explained by deviations in r_e (SI Figure A2),
340 which show negative deviations over land but positive ones over ocean. The smaller contrast
341 between the Amazon and oceanic regions is due to the moist rainforest environment in the
342 Amazon, which is why the Amazon region (Figure 3g) exhibits characteristics more similar to

343 oceanic regions than to Africa and tropical land areas, which is also reflected in the smaller r_e
344 deviations (SI Figure A2).

345 Tropical land areas also show higher TCWPs for a few deep convective cloud types
346 compared to tropical ocean areas (Figure 3a and 3e), except for the two thickest cloud types, which
347 exhibit TCWP deviations up to -109 g m^{-2} . This result may be explained by larger extinction
348 coefficients over lands, which are a part of the equation for calculating LWP and IWP (Minnis et
349 al., 2011, 2021). In the five chimney regions (Figures 3b, c, d, f, g), TCWP is generally higher
350 than the tropical mean, except for the TWP region (with a maximum deviation of -66 g m^{-2}), and
351 for the highest/thickest cloud type over Africa (-102 g m^{-2}) and the Amazon (-81 g m^{-2}). However,
352 these deviations are relatively small compared to the mean TCWPs for these cloud types (Figure
353 3h), meaning that they may have minimal impact to both SW and LW fluxes.

354 The tropical-mean shortwave (SW), longwave (LW) and net CREs by cloud type and their
355 regional differences are shown in SI Figures A3-A5, which were reproduced from figures shown
356 in Xu et al. (2024). As with LWP and TCWP, the magnitudes of tropical-mean SW CRE increase
357 with τ and decreases with p_c , ranging from slightly positive (1.5 W m^{-2}) for a thin cirrus cloud
358 type to -247.5 W m^{-2} for deep convective clouds (SI Figure A3h). The tropical-mean LW CRE
359 shows similar trends, but with weaker variations in τ and stronger dependencies on p_c , ranging
360 from 2.5 to 175.5 W m^{-2} (SI Figure A4h).

361 Due to opposing signs between SW and LW CREs, the net CREs are small for most cloud
362 types, except for optically thick low-level clouds ($\tau > 9.4$), which have relatively strong net cooling
363 (SI Figure A5h). Optically thin mid- and high-level clouds ($\tau \leq 9.4$) produce net warming effects,
364 which can offset the net cooling effects of thicker anvils, depending on the relative amounts of
365 CFs. Net CREs range from -120.8 to 50.9 W m^{-2} , with twice as many cloud types showing net

366 cooling compared to those with net warming, excluding seven cloud types with area fractions less
367 than 0.1%.

368 Deviations in SW CRE from the tropical mean are generally less than 3 W m^{-2} for most
369 cloud types over tropical oceanic and land areas (SI Figures A3a and A3e). However, the
370 magnitudes of these deviations are much larger in the chimney regions (SI Figures A3b, c, d, f, g).
371 In particular, low-level clouds exhibit weaker cooling effects in the five chimney regions (except
372 the East Pacific) and tropical land areas (SI Figure A3e). High-level and deep convective clouds
373 show stronger cooling over oceans but weaker cooling over land regions. The weaker cooling
374 effects for low-level clouds over land may result from a combination of (1) increased reflection
375 from clear skies and (2) lower LWP values (Figures 2e-g and SI Figures A3e-g). In the Atlantic
376 region, the lower LWPs are likely the primary cause (Figures 2d and SI Figure A3d).

377 Deviations in LW CRE from the tropical mean (SI Figures A4a-g) are mostly negative,
378 indicating reduced LW warming, except for a few optically thin cloud types over tropical lands
379 and Africa. The tropical ocean region shows weak enhancement in LW warming particularly for
380 mid- and high-level clouds. The overall reduction in LW warming for nearly all cloud types is
381 linked to more humid environments outside of clouds compared to the relatively drier conditions
382 over clear skies in less convectively active regions (Xu et al., 2024).

383 Deviations in net cloud cooling effects (SI Figures A5a-g) exhibit patterns similar to those
384 of SW cloud cooling (SI Figures A3a-g). However, net cloud cooling effects are greater than SW
385 cooling effects in all regions due to the weaker LW warming (SI Figure A4a-g). For instance,
386 while SW cloud cooling over the Amazon is smaller than the tropical mean, net cloud cooling
387 exceeds the tropical mean for most cloud types, except for a few low-level cloud types (SI Figures
388 A4g and A5g).

389 3.2 Decomposition of cloud radiative effects

390 Xu et al. (2024) showed that the overall LW warming and SW cooling in the chimney
391 regions, except for Africa, are stronger than the tropical mean. This result does not stem from the
392 deviations in cloud-type mean LW and SW CREs discussed earlier (SI Figures A3 and A4). In
393 fact, most cloud types exhibit weaker LW warming than the tropical mean, and SW cooling is only
394 stronger in the East Pacific and for a few cloud types in the TWP and Atlantic regions. This
395 apparent discrepancy can be explained by the decomposition components outlined in Section 2.2:
396 (1) deviations in CRE within a cloud type, (2) deviations in CF, and (3) the combined deviations.
397 In the following, we discuss the results for these three components. Plots for tropical ocean and
398 land areas are included for completeness, although these results are only briefly discussed below
399 due to their smaller magnitudes compared to those of the chimney regions.

400 Figures 4, 5 and 6 present the three components of LW CRE decomposition. The CRE
401 deviation component (Figure 4) closely mirrors the LW CRE deviation (see SI Figures A4a-g),
402 though with some noticeable differences. Specifically, the magnitudes for anvil clouds in the 310
403 $\geq p_c > 100$ hPa layer and for boundary-layer clouds are relatively larger compared to other cloud
404 types, due to the larger CF magnitudes in these two layers over the entire tropical region (Figure
405 1h). The maximum contribution of any individual cloud type to regional differences in overall LW
406 CRE ranges from a reduction of 0.2 W m^{-2} (TWP) to 0.5 W m^{-2} (Amazon). Despite the small
407 magnitudes for individual cloud types, the 42 cloud types collectively reduce the overall LW CRE
408 warming by just over 2 W m^{-2} across the five chimney regions, with slightly larger reductions in
409 the Atlantic (2.9 W m^{-2}) and Amazon (3.5 W m^{-2}).

410 The sign of the CF deviation (Figures 1a-g) determines the sign of the CF deviation
411 component, while its magnitude increases as p_c decreases (Figure 5). This trend is influenced by

412 the tropical-mean LW CRE (SI Figure A4h), which increases as p_c decreases. Except for a few
413 cloud types showing weak cooling due to negative CF deviations (Figures 1a-g), the CF deviation
414 component generally enhances LW cloud warming for most cloud types in chimney regions and
415 tropical land areas (Figures 5b-g), due to positive CF deviations (Figures 1b-g).

416 Compared to the CRE deviation component, the magnitudes in the CF deviation component
417 are roughly an order of magnitude larger. [Note that the color bar range in Figure 5 is five times
418 that of Figure 4.] For instance, the maximum contribution of any individual cloud type to regional
419 differences in overall LW CRE ranges from 0.6 W m^{-2} (Africa), 1.3 W m^{-2} (East Pacific), 1.5 W
420 m^{-2} (Atlantic), 2.3 W m^{-2} (Amazon), to 5.0 W m^{-2} (TWP). These maxima are associated with thick
421 anvil and deep convective cloud types in all regions (Figures 5b, c, d and g) except for Africa
422 (from mid-level clouds). In contrast, there are only a few cloud types in each region contributing
423 to a reduction in LW warming, with maximum magnitudes between -0.3 and -0.5 W m^{-2} .
424 Collectively, the 42 cloud types increase overall LW CRE warming by 20.4 W m^{-2} in the TWP,
425 11.7 W m^{-2} in the Amazon, 5.1 W m^{-2} in the East Pacific and Atlantic ITCZ regions and 2.7 W m^{-2}
426 in the tropical land areas, with no increase observed in Africa. The increase in the overall LW
427 CRE warming is primarily driven by high-level cloud types in these regions, with the largest
428 warming corresponding to the highest CF deviations in the TWP. The absence of an increase in
429 Africa is attributed to the cancellation of effects from mid-level clouds (positive) with boundary-
430 layer and upper-tropospheric clouds (negative).

431 The third component, which accounts for both CF and CRE deviations, exhibits smaller
432 magnitudes overall but is comparable to the CRE deviation component in the TWP and Amazonia
433 regions, where the maximum reduction in LW cloud warming is about 0.25 W m^{-2} . Overall, the
434 reduction in LW cloud warming is minimal across the five chimney regions, with the exceptions

435 of the TWP (-0.8 W m^{-2}) and Amazonia (-1.8 W m^{-2}). The larger reduction in the Amazonia region
436 compared to the TWP is attributed to the stronger cooling effects of optically moderate cloud types
437 associated with positive CF deviations (Figure 1g).

438 Figures 7, 8 and 9 show the three components of SW CRE decomposition. As in the LW
439 CRE decomposition, the magnitudes of the CF deviation component for each cloud type are
440 considerably larger than those of the CRE deviation component, which in turn are larger than the
441 combined component of both CF and CRE deviations. In terms of their contribution to
442 enhancement or reduction of overall SW cloud cooling, regional differences are much more
443 pronounced compared to the LW CRE decomposition, as will be discussed below.

444 The sign of the SW CRE deviation component (Figure 7) mirrors the SW CRE deviation
445 itself (SI Figures A3a-g). It reduces SW cloud cooling for nearly all cloud types in the Africa and
446 Amazonia regions, as well as for low-level cloud types in the TWP and Atlantic regions.
447 Conversely, it enhances SW cloud cooling for nearly all cloud types in the East Pacific region and
448 for high-level clouds in the TWP and Atlantic regions. The maximum contribution of any
449 individual cloud type to enhancing overall SW cloud cooling is less than -0.26 W m^{-2} across the
450 five chimney regions. Contributions to reducing overall SW cloud cooling, primarily from
451 boundary-layer clouds, are slightly larger: 0.34 W m^{-2} in the TWP, 0.81 W m^{-2} in the Atlantic, 0.58
452 W m^{-2} in Africa, 0.45 W m^{-2} in the Amazon and 0.61 W m^{-2} in tropical land areas. Collectively,
453 the 42 cloud types reduce overall SW cloud cooling in all chimney regions except the East Pacific,
454 where it enhances by -2.2 W m^{-2} . Specifically, reductions in overall SW cooling are less than 1 W
455 m^{-2} in the TWP and Atlantic, 2.0 W m^{-2} in the Amazon and 3.5 W m^{-2} in Africa.

456 The SW CF deviation component (Figure 8) generally enhances cloud cooling for most
457 cloud types, except for most low-level clouds in the TWP, Atlantic and Africa regions, as well as

458 boundary-layer clouds in the Amazon and tropical land regions. That is, positive (negative) CF
459 deviations enhance (diminish) SW cloud cooling (Figures 1a-g; 8a-g). The degree of enhancement
460 or reduction of any individual cloud type to overall SW cloud cooling varies significantly between
461 regions. The maximum contribution to enhancement of overall SW cloud cooling ranges from -
462 0.84 W m^{-2} in Africa, -1.7 W m^{-2} in tropical land areas, -1.8 W m^{-2} in the East Pacific, -2.1 W m^{-2}
463 in the Atlantic, -2.9 W m^{-2} in the Amazon, to -4.8 W m^{-2} in the TWP. The maximum contribution
464 to cooling reduction ranges from 0.2 W m^{-2} in the East Pacific to 2.4 W m^{-2} in the TWP. Unlike
465 its LW counterpart, there is no systematic dependence of the absolute magnitude on p_c within a
466 given region. In general, the 42 cloud types contribute to strengthening overall SW cloud cooling
467 across all regions, except for Africa, which experiences a reduction of 2.5 W m^{-2} . Enhancements
468 in overall SW cloud cooling in the chimney regions compared to the tropical mean range from -
469 6.1 W m^{-2} in the Atlantic, -10.9 W m^{-2} in the East Pacific, -13.9 W m^{-2} in the TWP, to -18.3 W m^{-2}
470 in the Amazon. Optically moderate-to-thick clouds (with various p_c) are the primary drivers of
471 these enhanced SW cooling effects, except in Africa.

472 The third SW CRE component (Figure 9) also show relatively small effect. Most of cloud
473 types, including anvil clouds and boundary-layer clouds, enhance cooling across all regions except
474 the Amazon. The collective contributions from the 42 cloud types range from -0.9 W m^{-2} in the
475 TWP to 0.6 W m^{-2} in the Amazon, which are even smaller than those of the CRE deviation
476 component discussed earlier.

477 Figures 10 and 11 present the CRE and CF deviation components of the net CRE
478 decomposition, respectively. The combined component, which is not shown but can be derived
479 from the summation of Figures 6 and 9, has a minimal effect. Exceptions to this are observed in
480 anvil clouds in the TWP, East Pacific and Atlantic regions.

481 The net CRE deviation component (Figure 10) closely resembles its counterpart in the SW
482 CRE decomposition (Figure 7) except for larger magnitudes of enhanced cooling due to the LW
483 component (Figure 4). It enhances net cloud cooling for nearly all cloud types in the TWP, East
484 Pacific, Atlantic and Amazon, except for boundary-layer clouds in the TWP and Amazon and
485 optically thin low-level clouds in the Atlantic. In Africa, this component produces weaker net
486 cloud warming compared to its SW counterpart (Figures 7f and 10f). The maximum contribution
487 to the enhancement or reduction of overall net cloud cooling from any individual cloud type range
488 from -0.5 to 0.6 W m^{-2} across all regions, which is smaller than the corresponding values in the
489 SW CRE decomposition. Collectively, the 42 cloud types contribute to a reduction in overall net
490 cloud cooling by 1.5 W m^{-2} in Africa, while enhancing net cloud cooling by -1.5 W m^{-2} in the
491 Amazon, -2.0 W m^{-2} in the Atlantic, -2.2 W m^{-2} in the TWP, and -4.4 W m^{-2} in the East Pacific.

492 The CF deviation component in the net CRE decomposition (Figure 11) differ significantly
493 from that in the SW CRE decomposition (Figure 8), as the enhanced cooling in the upper
494 troposphere seen in the SW CRE decomposition largely disappears due to the near cancellation
495 between LW and SW CREs. This results in relatively small tropical-mean net CREs (SI Figure
496 A5h). For other cloud types, the sign of this component depends on both the signs of CF deviations
497 (Figure 1) and tropical-mean net CRE (SI Figure A5h). The maximum contribution to the
498 enhancement of overall net cooling from any individual cloud type ranges from -0.35 W m^{-2} in
499 Africa, -0.67 W m^{-2} in the Atlantic, -0.85 W m^{-2} in the TWP and East Pacific, to -2.10 W m^{-2} in
500 the Amazon. These values are mostly associated with either optically thick high-level clouds (TWP
501 and Atlantic) or low-level clouds (East Pacific, Amazon, and tropical land areas). Boundary-layer
502 or low-level clouds, with values ranging from 0.90 W m^{-2} in the Amazon, 1.0 W m^{-2} in the Atlantic,
503 1.1 W m^{-2} in Africa, 1.8 W m^{-2} in tropical lands, to 2.1 W m^{-2} in the TWP, contribute to the

504 reduction of overall net cooling, except in the East Pacific. The East Pacific is unique in exhibiting
505 enhanced low-level CF and net cooling, in contrast to other regions (Figures 1a-g). In addition,
506 reductions in net cloud cooling from thin anvil clouds are observed in the TWP, linked to large
507 positive CF deviations in that region (Figure 1b).

508 Collectively, the 42 cloud types contribute to a reduction of overall net cloud cooling by
509 2.5 W m^{-2} in Africa and 6.5 W m^{-2} in the TWP, due to the lack of low-level clouds and/or an
510 abundance of thin anvil clouds (the TWP). In contrast, the overall net cloud cooling is enhanced
511 by -1.0 W m^{-2} in the Atlantic, -5.8 W m^{-2} in the East Pacific and -7.1 W m^{-2} in the Amazon, due to
512 the prevalence of optically thick clouds and/or an abundance of low- and mid-level clouds. It is
513 important to note that regional variations in overall net CREs from the CF deviation component,
514 ranging from -7.1 to 6.5 W m^{-2} , closely align with those observed in the net CRE deviation
515 component, which spans from -4.4 to 1.2 W m^{-2} . This underscores the nearly equal importance of
516 both deviation components in influencing regional differences in overall net CREs.

517 Figure 12 summarizes the overall CRE differences from the tropical mean based on the
518 decomposition analysis. Xu et al. (2024) showed that the magnitudes of regional-averaged LW
519 and SW CREs are generally larger than the tropical mean for all chimney regions, except for
520 Africa. From this analysis, these regional variations are primarily driven by the CF deviation
521 component, rather than the CRE deviation component, as the increased cloudiness, particularly
522 upper-tropospheric clouds, enhances the magnitudes of both SW and LW CRE (Figures 12a, b).
523 As shown in Figures 1a-g, these regions are much cloudier than the tropical mean, particularly for
524 the TWP and Amazon, which exceed the tropical mean LW and SW CREs by $10\text{-}20 \text{ W m}^{-2}$.

525 Another key finding from Xu et al. (2024) is that net cloud cooling (i.e., net CRE) varies
526 across regions: enhanced cooling of approximately 9 W m^{-2} in the East Pacific and Amazon, and

527 2.4 W m⁻² in the Atlantic, but less cooling of 0.6 W m⁻² in the TWP and 3.4 W m⁻² in Africa. This
528 analysis shows that these regional variations depend on those in the distribution of cloud types.
529 The large net cooling in the East Pacific and Amazon is attributed to an increase in optically thick
530 clouds, while the relatively small net warming in the TWP is due to the dominance of enhanced
531 thin anvil clouds. Other key findings of this study include that in the East Pacific, Atlantic and
532 Africa, both CF and CRE deviation components contribute nearly equally, while in the Amazon,
533 the CF component dominates, and in the TWP, the two components exhibit opposite signs with a
534 smaller contribution from the combined deviations (Figure 12c). These regional differences are
535 likely attributed to variations in cloud properties and environmental conditions that affect both CF
536 and CRE deviations across different cloud types.

537 **4 Summary and discussion**

538 This study examines a 19-year mean of cloud properties and their radiative effects (CREs)
539 by cloud type, focusing on regional variations across convectively active tropical regions. The
540 analysis utilizes the CERES FluxByCldTyp (FBCT) data product (Sun et al., 2022), which
541 provides daily daytime averages of cloud properties and radiative fluxes over a 1° × 1° grid for 42
542 cloud types, categorized based on effective cloud-top pressure and cloud optical depth. The
543 analysis covers the chimney regions of the Tropical Western Pacific (TWP), East Pacific and
544 Atlantic ITCZs, equatorial Africa, and the Amazon, along with broader tropical ocean and land
545 areas.

546 The study reveals significant regional differences in cloud fraction (CF) and microphysical
547 properties, which can impact the precise relationships between clouds and their radiative effects.
548 Oceanic regions are predominantly characterized by convective anvils and boundary-layer clouds,
549 which have higher liquid and ice water contents. In contrast, land regions show higher fractions of

550 mid-level clouds with lower liquid water contents, related to the scarcity of moisture and deeper
551 PBLs. In the five chimney regions, CFs are above the tropical mean, with the TWP having the
552 highest proportion of anvil clouds and the lowest of boundary-layer clouds. The East Pacific and
553 Atlantic ITCZs show different cloud distributions, with abundant boundary-layer (cumulus only
554 in Atlantic) clouds and fewer optically thin clouds. These differences across the oceanic regions
555 are linked to variations in SSTs and atmospheric stability driven by large-scale dynamics. On land,
556 the relative absence of boundary-layer clouds is due to higher PBL tops, which limit cloud
557 formation below 800 hPa, but mid- and high-level clouds are abundant in Africa and the Amazon
558 due to stronger atmospheric instability related to daytime surface heating. The Amazon, unlike
559 Africa, exhibits more mid- and high-level clouds with relatively higher cloud water, similar to
560 oceanic regions, which is attributed to its wetter environment.

561 The study explores how cloud distribution and properties influence shortwave (SW),
562 longwave (LW) and net CREs, breaking down the contributions to regional differences in overall
563 CRE from individual cloud types into three components: deviations in CRE within a cloud type,
564 CF, and both combined, relative to the tropical means. The “overall” CRE refers to the combined
565 effects of all cloud types within a given region. The key finding is that the magnitudes of CF
566 deviation-driven effects, which either enhance or reduce LW, SW and net CREs depending on
567 cloud type, are considerably larger than the contributions from CRE deviations within a cloud type
568 and combined CF and CRE deviations. This suggests that CF deviations alone largely account for
569 the regional variations in CRE for most cloud types. As a result, cloud distribution, in terms of
570 departures from the tropical mean, becomes a crucial factor in determining the overall CREs,
571 particularly net CRE, due to the stark differences in LW, SW and net CREs between low- and
572 high-level clouds, as well as between optically thin and moderate/thick clouds. This helps explain

573 why the overall net cloud cooling in the East Pacific and Amazon are much stronger than the TWP
574 even though the TWP is overly cloudier than both regions. The abundance of thin anvils in the
575 TWP leads to net cloud radiative warming, contributing to a nearly zero net CRE for all cloud
576 types combined (Hartmann & Berry, 2017; Hartmann et al., 1992; Kiehl, 1994).

577 Another key finding is that, although the CRE deviation component is smaller than the CF
578 deviation component for individual cloud types, it has a more significant impact on regional CRE
579 differences when all types are considered together, particularly for net CRE. This is because the
580 CF deviation component exhibits opposing effects between low- and high-level clouds, while the
581 CRE deviation component shows more consistent regional differences across all cloud types. The
582 CRE deviation component consistently reduces LW warming across all chimney regions, although
583 its effects on SW and net CREs vary regionally. This component has often been overlooked in
584 previous studies (e.g., Hartmann and Berry 2017; Hartmann et al., 1992; Hill et al., 2018; Kubar
585 et al., 2007; Lin et al., 2010; Ockert-Bell & Hartmann, 1992; Xu et al., 2023), which could have
586 important implications for cloud feedback analysis (e.g., Ceppi & Nowack, 2021; Raghuraman et
587 al., 2023, 2024; Randall et al., 2007; Stephens, 2005; Vial et al., 2013).

588 Significant regional differences in cloud-type mean properties and CREs, as revealed from
589 this study, can arise from land-ocean contrasts and local meteorological conditions. Boundary-
590 layer clouds are influenced by atmospheric stability, which is driven by large-scale dynamics, as
591 well as the PBL thickness, both of which directly impact the strength of convective clouds. In
592 contrast, mid- and high-level clouds over lands, particularly in Africa, are likely influenced by
593 higher atmospheric instability driven by elevated surface heating, though moisture availability
594 limits their extent. The Amazon region, with its relatively high cloud liquid water and stronger net
595 cooling effects, suggest more robust convective systems, sustained by higher aerosol

596 concentrations from both natural and anthropogenic sources in a moist environment, though the
597 strong diurnal cycle limits the lifespans of convective anvils in this region. However, it is beyond
598 the scope of this study to fully explore the relationships of these factors and their influence on
599 regional differences in cloud properties and CREs.

600 In conclusion, this study provides valuable insights into the 19-year mean of tropical cloud
601 properties and their radiative effects among different cloud types. These findings have important
602 implications for understanding cloud-climate feedback in the tropics and highlight the need for
603 future research on temporal variability of cloud types and their interactions with atmospheric
604 circulations to better predict the impacts of climate change on tropical clouds.

605

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608

609 **Data Availability Statement.** The CERES FluxByCldTyp (FBCT) Level 3 data product is
610 publicly available and can be accessed via CERES data portal (<https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/>).
611 The regionally averaged daily FBCT data are in the Zenodo database (Sun & Xu, 2024).

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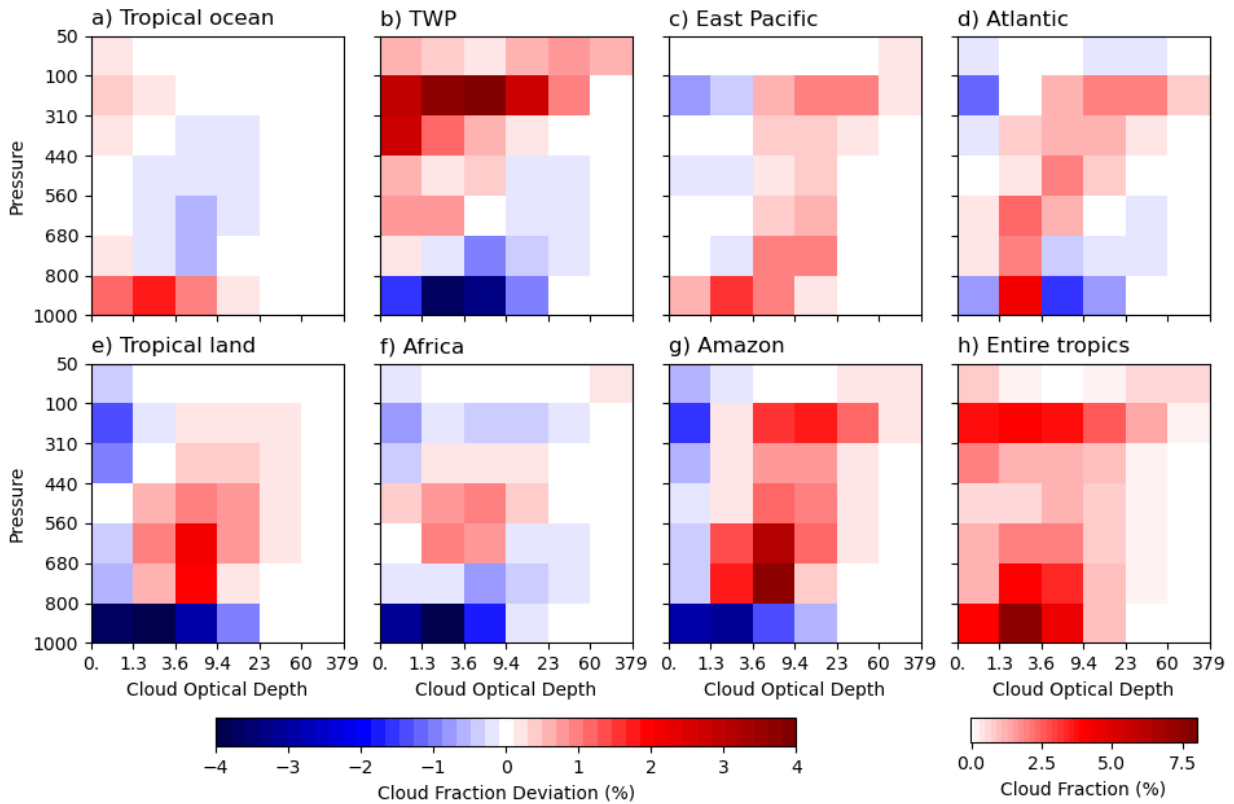


Figure 1. The cloud-type ($p_c - \tau$) mean cloud fraction (g) and the deviation in cloud-type ($p_c - \tau$) mean cloud fraction from the entire tropical region ($25^\circ\text{N} - 25^\circ\text{S}$) for (a) the entire tropical ocean, (b) the Tropical Western Pacific (TWP), (c) the East Pacific and (d) Atlantic intertropical convergence zones (ITCZs), (e) the entire tropical land, (f) Africa and (g) Amazonia regions. Cloud type is classified based on the joint distribution of effective cloud-top pressure (p_c) and cloud optical depth (τ). See texts for the latitudinal and longitudinal bounds of these regions. Unit is %.

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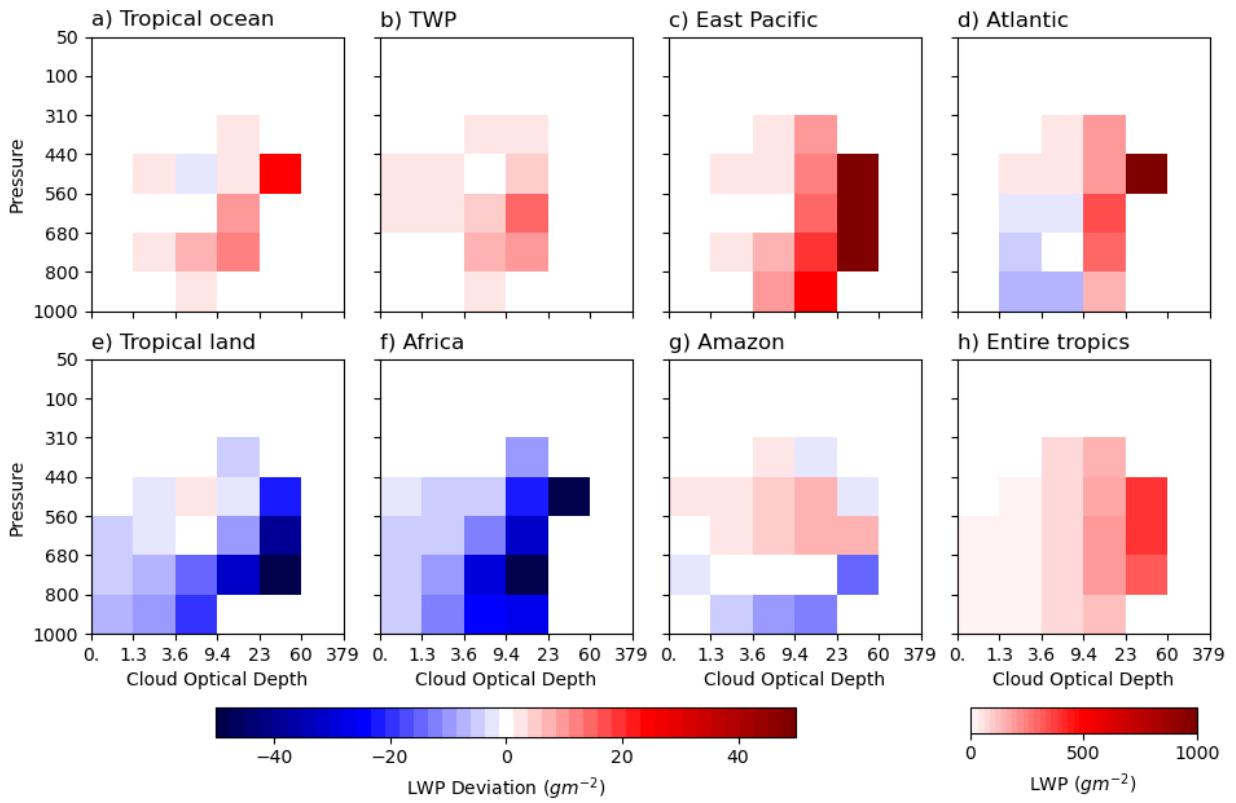


Figure 2. As in Figure 1, except for cloud liquid water path (LWP). Unit is gm^{-2} .

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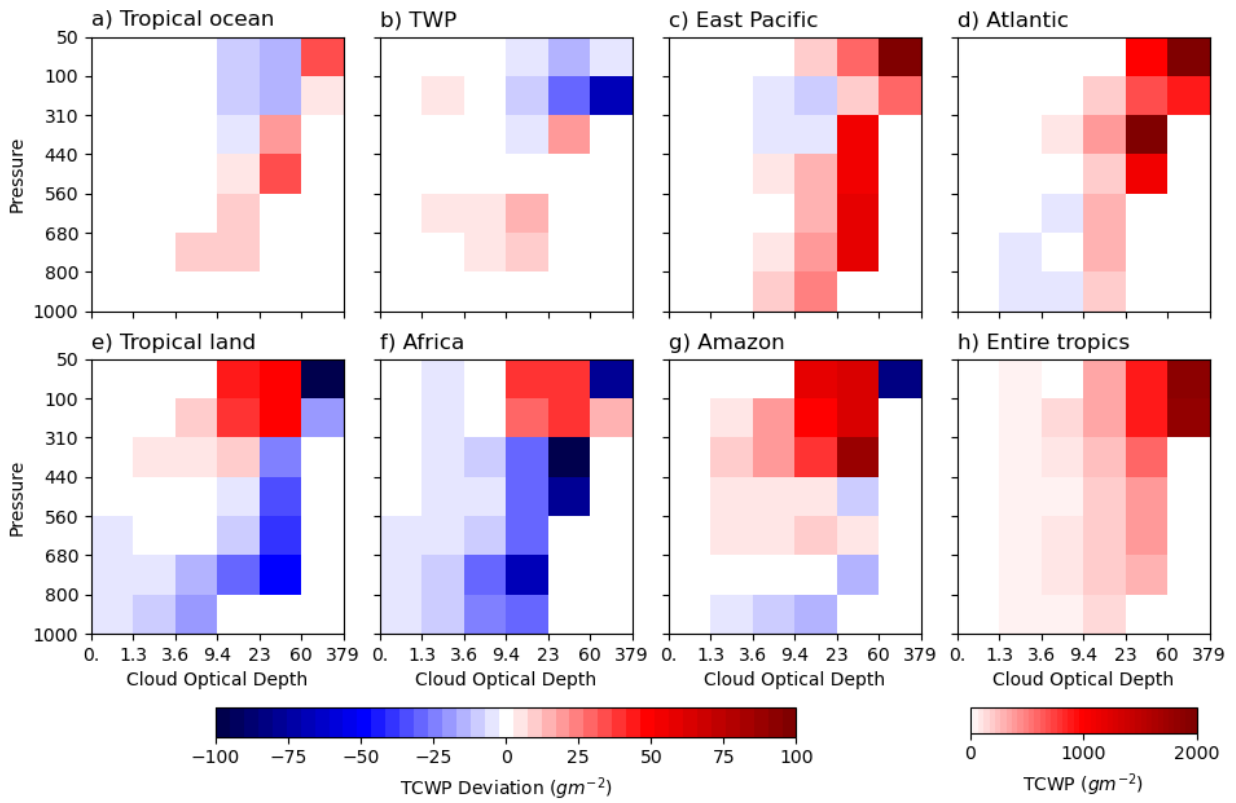
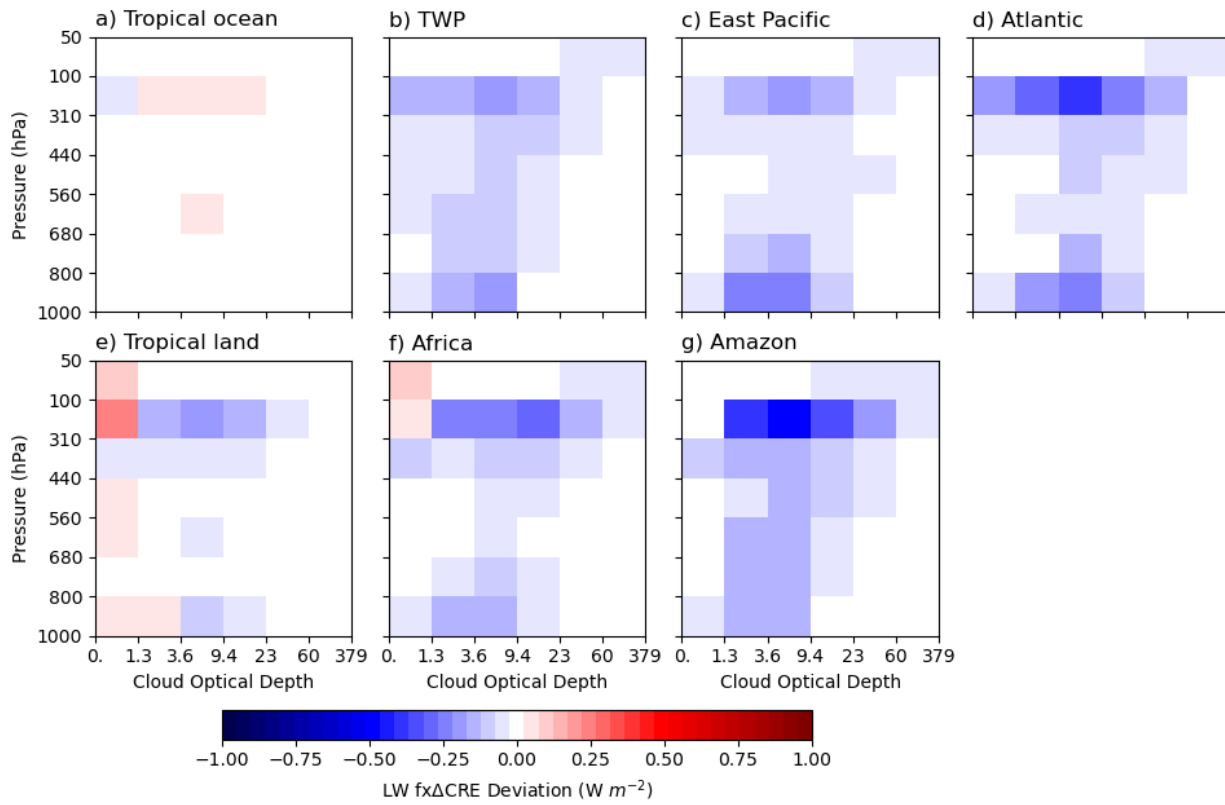


Figure 3. As in Figure 1, except for total cloud (liquid + ice) water path (TCWP). Unit is $g m^{-2}$.

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Figure 4. As in Figures 1a-g, except for the CRE deviation component of longwave CRE decomposition. Unit is $W m^{-2}$.

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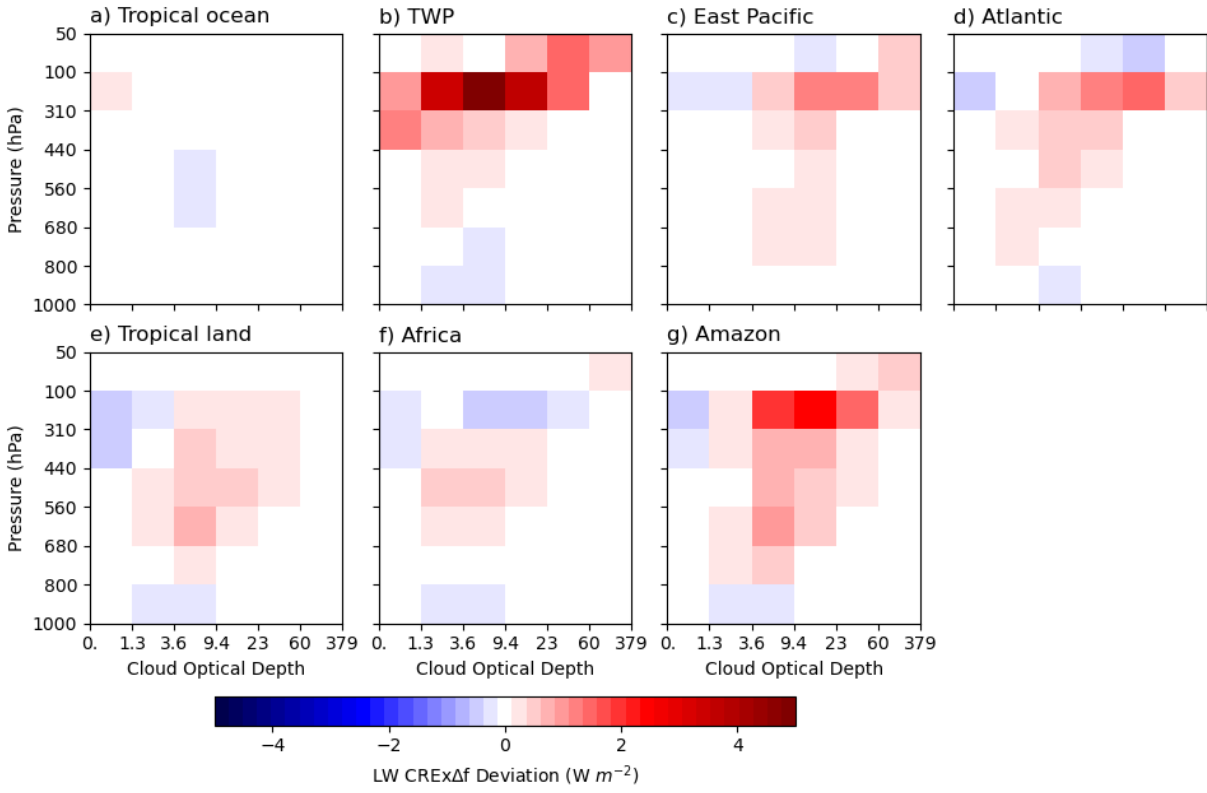


Figure 5. As in Figures 1a-g, except for the cloud fraction deviation component of longwave CRE decomposition. Unit is W m⁻².

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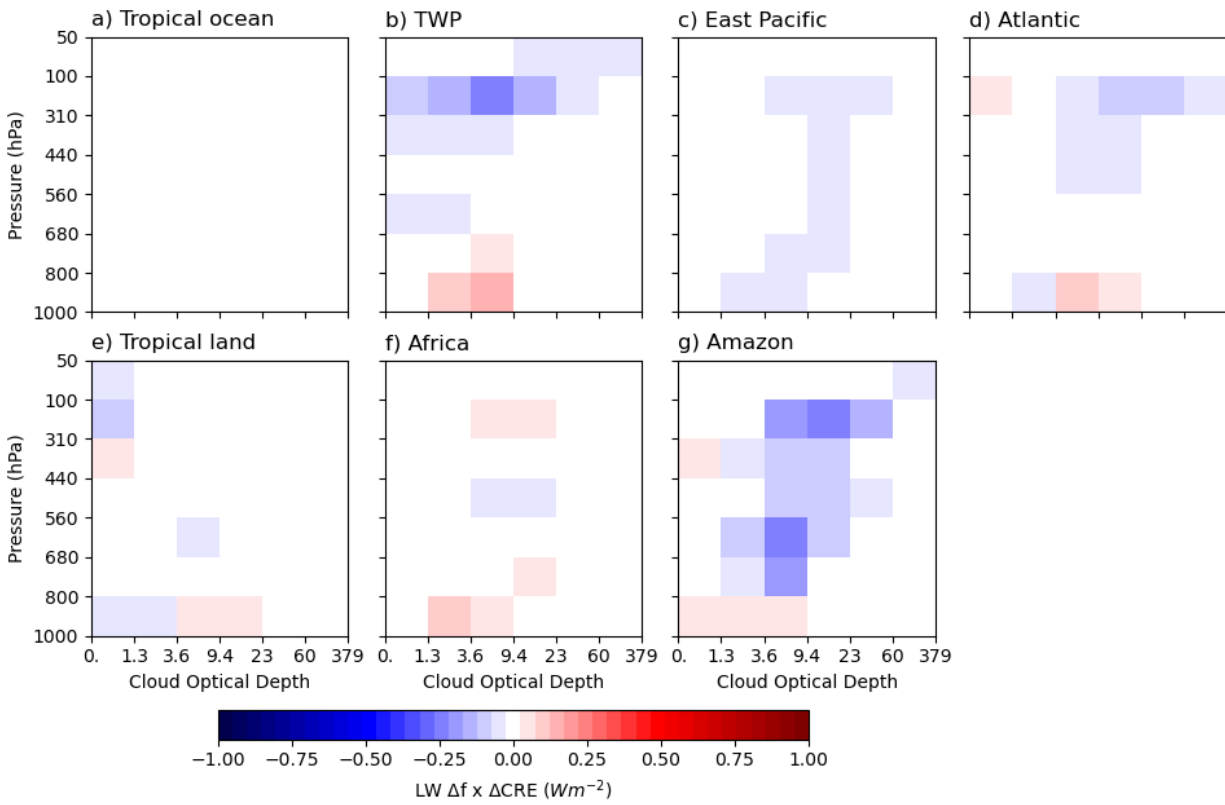


Figure 6. As in Figures 1a-g, except for the combined cloud fraction and CRE deviation component of longwave CRE decomposition. Unit is $W m^{-2}$.

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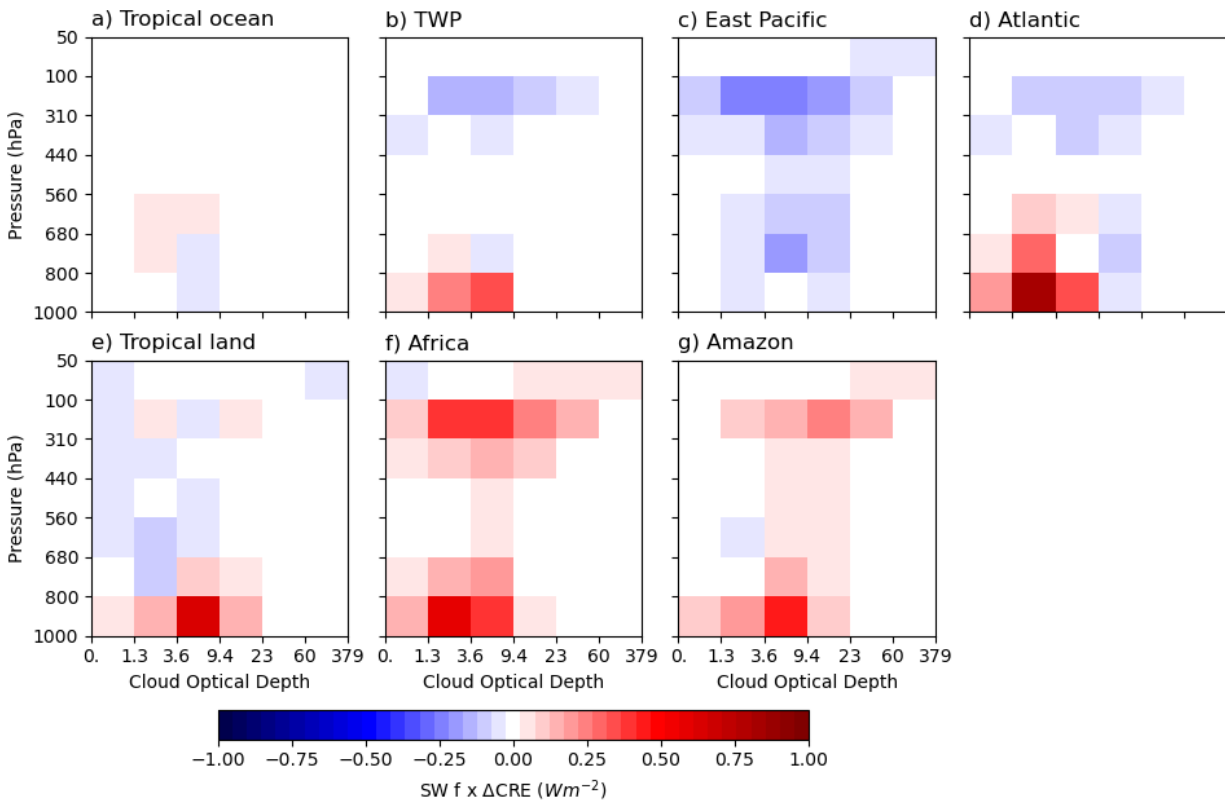


Figure 7. As in Figures 4, except for the CRE deviation component of shortwave CRE decomposition.

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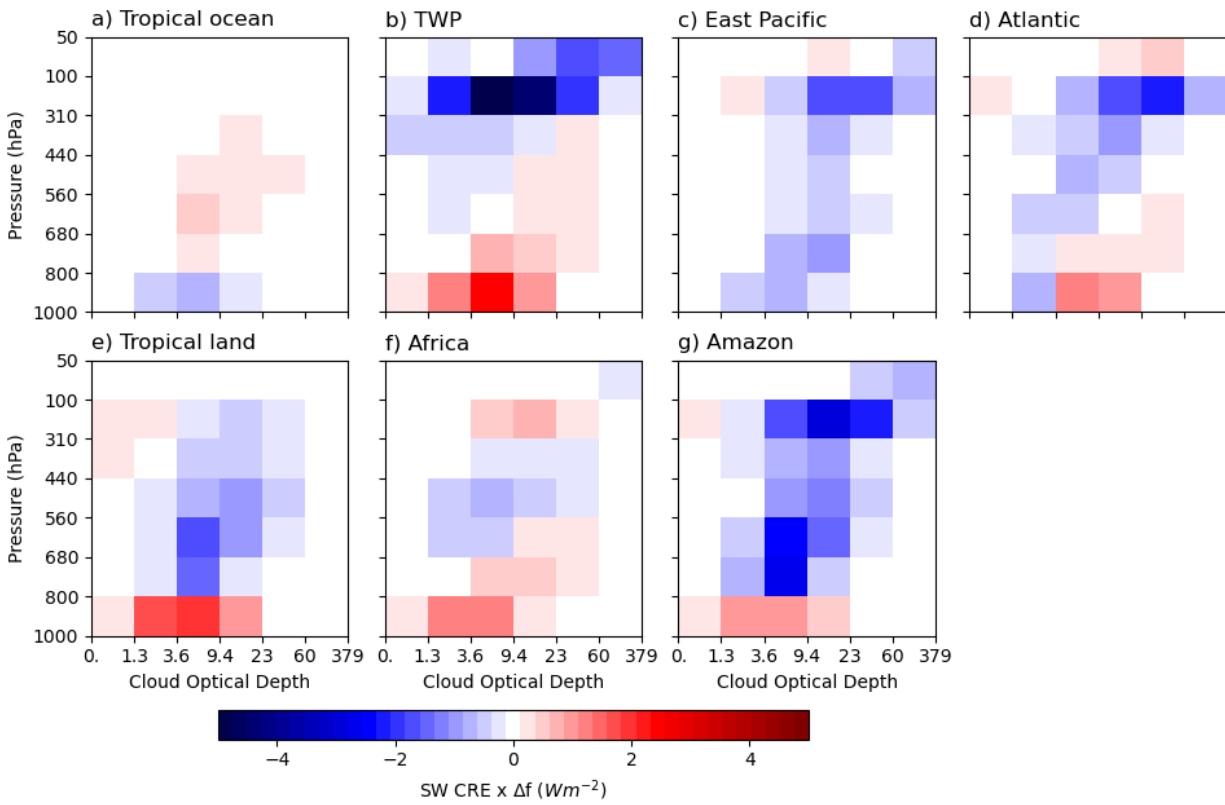


Figure 8. As in Figure 5, except for the cloud fraction deviation component of shortwave CRE decomposition.

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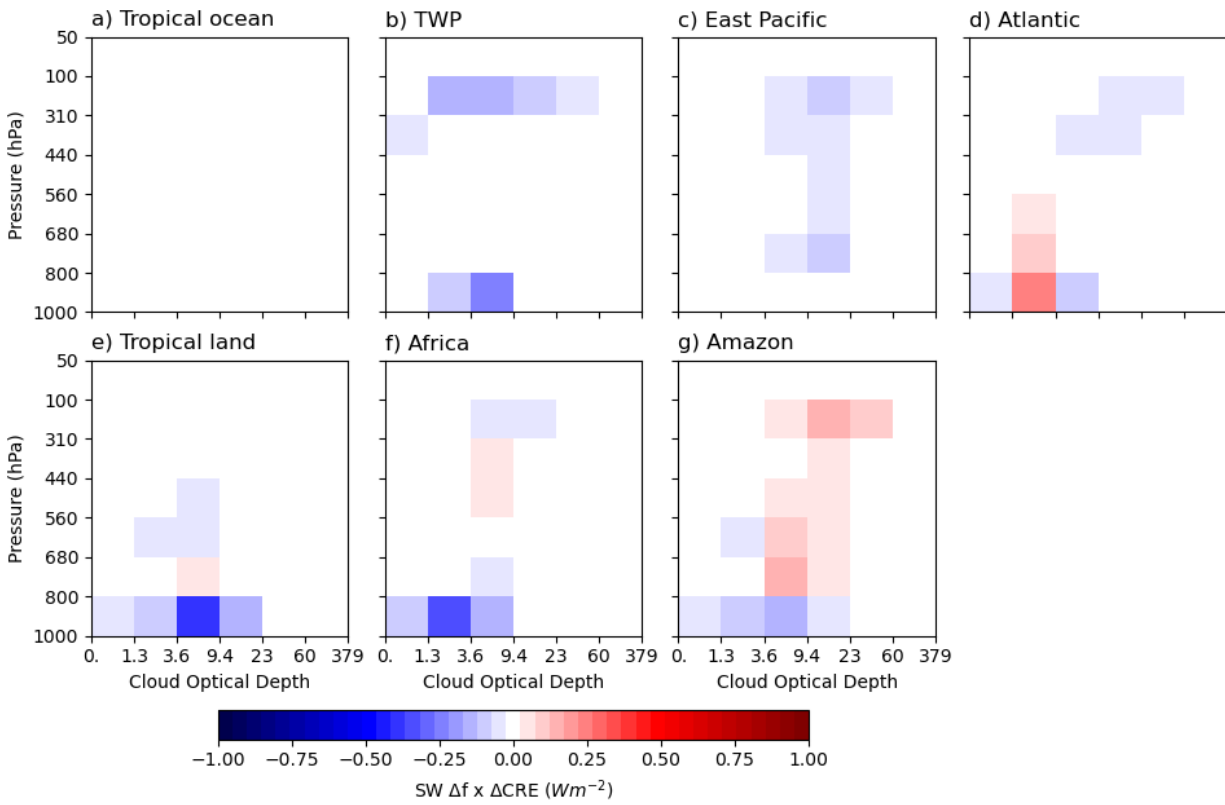


Figure 9. As in Figure 6, except for the combined cloud fraction and CRE deviation component of shortwave CRE decomposition.

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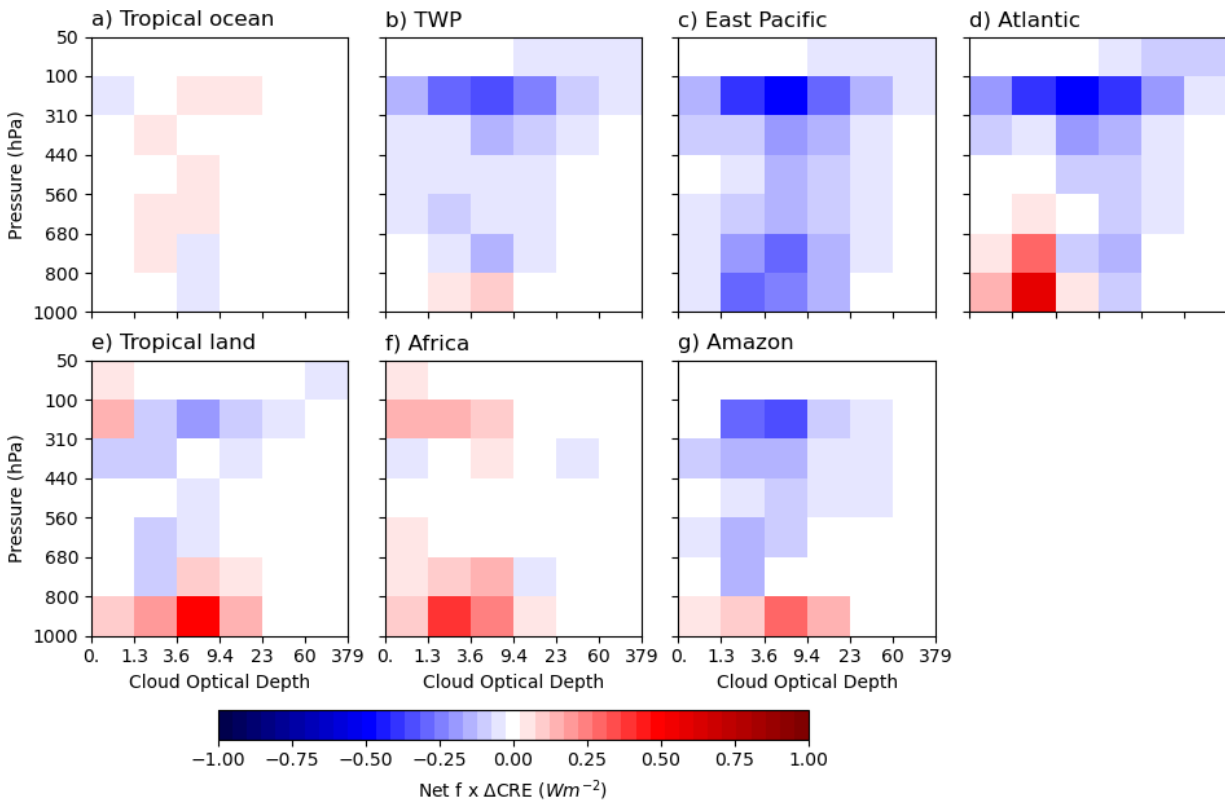


Figure 10. As in Figure 4, except for the CRE deviation component of net CRE decomposition.

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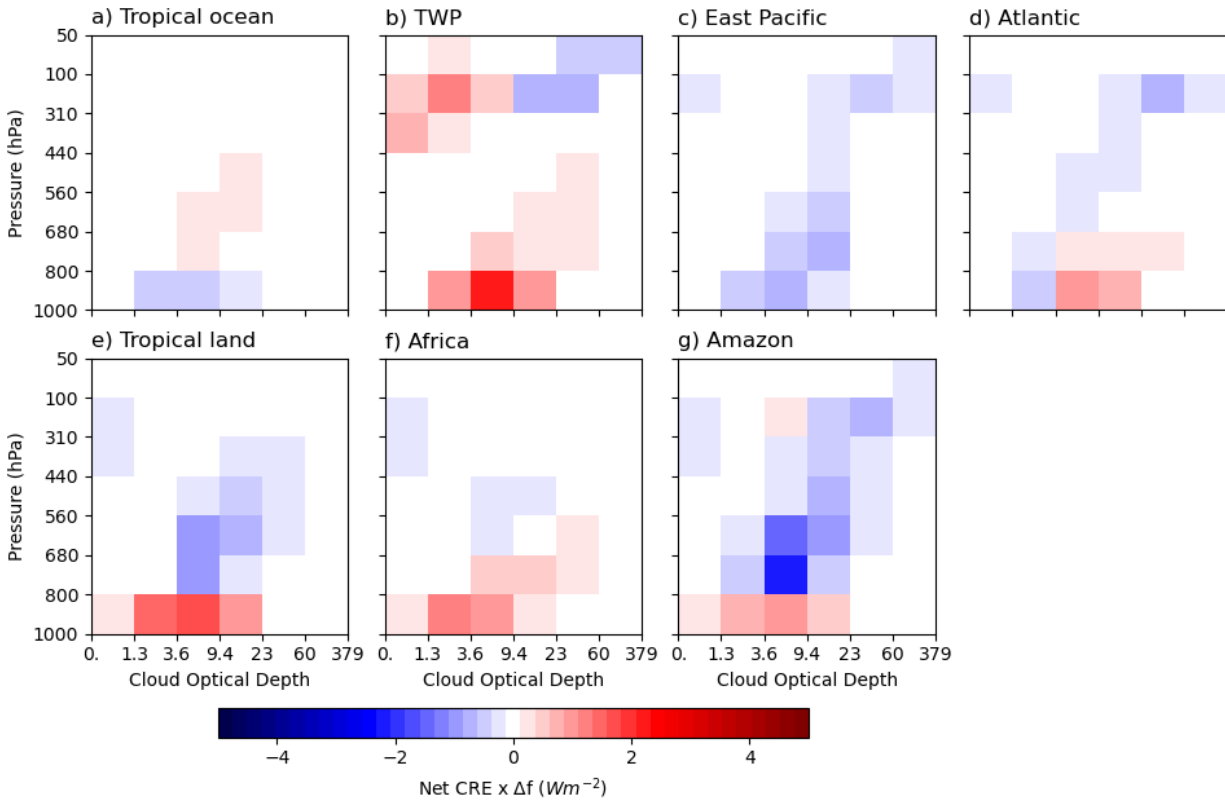


Figure 11. As in Figure 5, except for the cloud fraction deviation component of net CRE decomposition.

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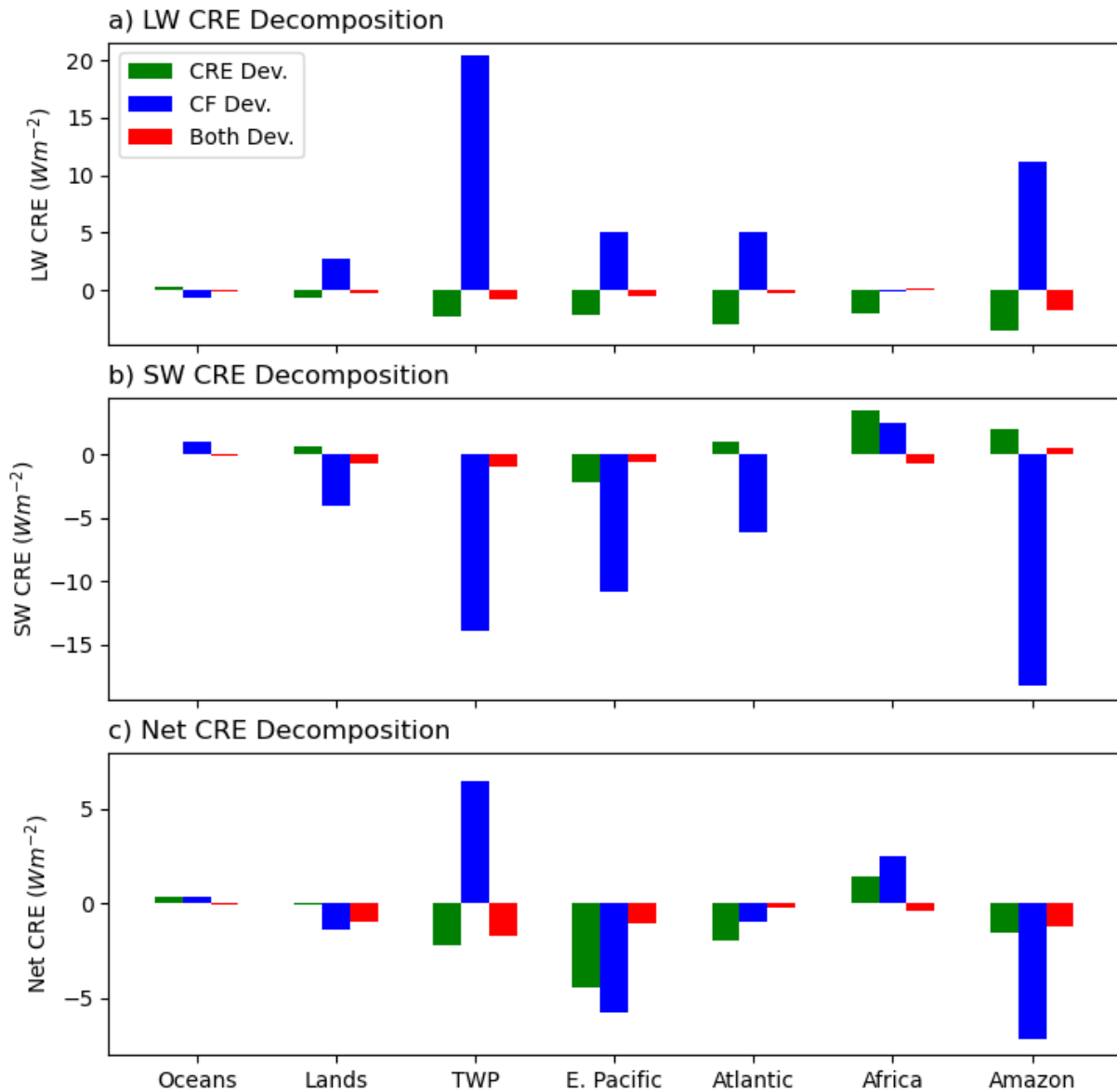


Figure 12. Differences in longwave (a), shortwave (b), and net (c) cloud radiative effects (CREs) from the tropical mean (LW: $23.4 W m^{-2}$, SW: $-39.6 W m^{-2}$ and net: $-16.3 W m^{-2}$), attributed to CRE deviation (green), cloud fraction (CF) deviation (blue) and the combined deviations (red), for tropical oceans, lands, the Tropical Western Pacific (TWP), East Pacific, Atlantic, Africa and the Amazon.