

1 **Assessing Biases and Climate Implications of the**
2 **Diurnal Precipitation Cycle in Climate Models**

3 **Costa Christopoulos¹, Tapio Schneider¹**

4 ¹California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA, USA

5 **Key Points:**

- 6 • CMIP6 models still struggle to properly capture the diurnal cycle of precipitation,
7 primarily over land.
- 8 • The amplitude of the diurnal cycle is reasonably well simulated over land, albeit
9 with a large spread among models.
- 10 • CMIP6 models exhibit a correlation between the phase of the diurnal cycle over
11 oceans and the equilibrium climate sensitivity.

Corresponding author: Costa Christopoulos, cchristo@caltech.edu

Abstract

The diurnal cycle is a common benchmark for evaluating the performance of weather and climate models on short timescales. For decades, capturing the timing of peak precipitation during the day has remained a challenge for climate models. In this study, the phase and amplitude of the diurnal precipitation cycle in Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) models are compared to satellite data. While some improvements align CMIP6 models closer to satellite observations, significant biases in the timing of peak precipitation remain, especially over land. Notably, precipitation over land in CMIP6 models still occurs ~ 5.4 hours too early; the diurnal cycle amplitude is ~ 0.81 mm day⁻¹ too small over the oceans. Further, the diurnal phase of oceanic precipitation correlates weakly with the equilibrium climate sensitivity in CMIP6 models: models with a later precipitation peak over oceans tend to exhibit a higher climate sensitivity. However, it is unclear whether this relationship is robust.

Plain Language Summary

Rainfall on Earth is not uniform in time and occurs preferentially at certain times of the day. Surface- and space-based observations have been extensively used in previous research to characterize the diurnal cycle of precipitation, which peaks in the late afternoon and early evening over land and in early morning over oceans. Atmospheric simulations tend to produce precipitation too early in the day even when mean fields are in line with observations, indicating fundamental physical aspects of the atmosphere are improperly represented. In this work, outstanding diurnal cycle biases in the latest generation of CMIP models (CMIP5 and CMIP6) are documented and quantified. While marginal improvements are made, CMIP6 models still precipitate too early over both land and ocean.

1 Introduction

The diurnal cycle of precipitation is among the fastest modes of variability in the climate system. Simulating diurnal variations of fundamental variables such as cloud cover and precipitation has been a long-standing issue for weather and climate models (Dai & Trenberth, 2004). Disagreements at short timescales indicate fundamental processes are misrepresented, even when seasonal and longer model averages agree with observa-

42 tions. Simulating the diurnal cycle of precipitation with fidelity requires correct account-
43 ing of surface-atmosphere interactions, cloud-radiative feedbacks, boundary layer dynam-
44 ics, and cloud microphysics (Bechtold et al., 2004). Diurnal precipitation variability is
45 multifaceted, and many mechanisms operate across a range of scales to control its be-
46 havior, making it an important benchmark for atmospheric models.

47 The diurnal cycle of precipitation has been characterized extensively in surface ob-
48 servations (Dai et al., 1999), satellite observations (Yang & Slingo, 2001; Bowman et al.,
49 2005; Dai et al., 2007; Kikuchi & Wang, 2008; Tan et al., 2019) and in weather and cli-
50 mate models (Bechtold et al., 2004; Dai, 2006; DeMott et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2008; Pritchard
51 & Somerville, 2009; Covey et al., 2016). The physical mechanisms governing the diur-
52 nal cycle over land and ocean are distinct (Dai, 2001; Ruppert & Hohenegger, 2018), lead-
53 ing to fundamentally different characteristics between these regions. Oceanic precipita-
54 tion tends to peak in the early morning hours (Sorooshian et al., 2002; Bowman et al.,
55 2005). Warm-season precipitation often peaks in the late afternoon to early evening over
56 land areas, with the central U.S. and a few other regions peaking around midnight to
57 early morning (Dai et al., 1999, 2007; Lin et al., 2000; Dai, 2001). The diurnal charac-
58 teristics of precipitation in climate models differ from observations, most notably in terms
59 of diurnal timing. Simulated precipitation tends to peak too early over land (Collier &
60 Bowman, 2004; Covey et al., 2016; Dai, 2006). Over oceans, the diurnal precipitation
61 amplitude has been noted to be weak in some climate models, possibly as a result of weak
62 temperature variations in the ocean boundary layer and low atmosphere-ocean coupling
63 frequency (Dai & Trenberth, 2004; Randall et al., 1991).

64 Overall, the diurnal phase and amplitude of convection remain a challenge to prop-
65 erly simulate in CMIP6 climate models. We find that only marginal improvements in
66 diurnal precipitation phase and amplitude have been made since CMIP5, and, by some
67 metrics, CMIP6 models on the whole perform worse. We further uncover a tenuous re-
68 lationship between diurnal cycle metrics and the equilibrium climate sensitivity (ECS),
69 reinforcing the need to correctly capture the diurnal cycle in global climate models. The
70 relationship is found to be strongest over oceans in CMIP6 models, with a negligible re-
71 lationship over land. Physical hypotheses are laid out for why such a relationship may
72 emerge in the models, but the relationship should be further explored in future research.
73 Studies aimed at constraining climate sensitivity typically rely on indices and variabil-
74 ity computed on seasonal, annual, and decadal timescales. Because the diurnal cycle oc-

75 curs on sub-daily timescales, statistics can be generated over a relatively short time pe-
76 riod relative to other emergent constraints.

77 While numerous studies have documented and quantified the diurnal precipitation
78 cycle and its biases in global climate models, as outlined above, less research has been
79 devoted to investigating its broader relationship to aggregate measures of climate change
80 such as ECS and TCR. Diurnal variability may affect the mean climate through timescale
81 feedbacks, as demonstrated by idealized cloud-resolving modelling of cumulus clouds (Ruppert,
82 2015). Literature surrounding diurnal cycle biases in CMIP6 is still sparse. A recent study
83 looked at the diurnal cycle in 3 CMIP6 models (Watters et al., 2021), but the present
84 study considers 21 CMIP5 and 26 CMIP6 models. The present paper complements ex-
85 isting studies of diurnal cycle biases in climate models while also exploring the relation-
86 ship between the diurnal precipitation cycle and climate sensitivity.

87 2 Methods

88 To determine the phase and amplitude of the 24-hour precipitation composite, we
89 perform a 2-mode cosine transform fit to the precipitation rate for a given gridcell, sea-
90 son, and CMIP model. More specifically, a function containing a diurnal (24 hour) and
91 semi-diurnal (12 hour) component is fit after Universal Coordinated Time is transformed
92 to local solar time [LST] in each gridcell, and precipitation rate means for each time bin
93 are computed over the analysis period. The daily mean is subtracted such that the am-
94 plitude represents a deviation from the daily mean. The periods of the cosine functions
95 are fixed, and the resulting phase [hours] and amplitude [mm day^{-1}] of the 24-hour mode
96 are used for the analysis laid out in later sections. The Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm
97 is employed for performing the non-linear cosine fit. To perform comparisons between
98 model output and satellite observations at different grid resolutions, calculations of di-
99 urnal phase and amplitude are performed on the native CMIP model grid before regrid-
100 ding diurnal parameters to a common analysis grid. A common analysis grid is needed
101 to appropriately account for differing grid resolutions, both among models in CMIP and
102 between models and satellite observations. The analysis grid resolution is chosen as an
103 intermediate resolution between CMIP output and IMERG observations. Nearest-neighbor
104 regridding is employed to interpolate the derived parameters to a $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ analysis
105 grid, which avoids issues with the cyclic discontinuity at midnight for phase. Otherwise,

106 circular statistics are used when aggregating phase in space or time. Polar regions are
107 excluded by only including latitudes in the range $[60^{\circ}\text{S}, 60^{\circ}\text{N}]$.

108 A standard practice in the diurnal cycle literature is to mask out grid cells where
109 the diurnal cycle is weak and ill-defined, which reduces noise and improves the validity
110 of satellite-model comparisons. The masking is often performed by removing cells with
111 either low precipitation or low diurnal cycle amplitude ratio, as determined by the ra-
112 tio of diurnal amplitude to mean precipitation (Covey et al., 2016). A more objective
113 approach, employed here, is to find a parameter distribution of diurnal amplitude and
114 exclude grid cells that contain 0 mm day^{-1} within 3 standard deviations of the estimated
115 amplitude (i.e., cells that include 0 in the 99.7% confidence interval when the number
116 of degrees of freedom in the estimate is large and statistics are normal). The remaining
117 cells thus have a robustly detectable diurnal cycle amplitude. To build the parameter
118 distribution, we use stationary bootstrapping (Politis & Romano, 1994). Briefly, the method
119 entails continually sampling, with replacement, blocks of variable length from the full
120 timeseries to build an ensemble of bootstrap samples, each representing a resampled ver-
121 sion of the full dataset. Diurnal analysis is performed separately on each bootstrap sam-
122 ple, and the set of derived diurnal amplitudes forms a parameter distribution that quan-
123 tifies uncertainty. For this analysis, 200 bootstrap samples with a size of 3 years are gen-
124 erated from the full IMERG timeseries. Block sizes are an integer number of days in length
125 and follow a geometric distribution with a mean length of 10 days. The mask obtained
126 by excluding cells outside 3 standard deviations is then applied to model output, such
127 that only regions with a robust diurnal cycle in observations are analyzed. However, our
128 results are insensitive to whether and how precisely this masking is carried out.

129 **3 Data**

130 **3.1 Observational data**

131 To assess the fidelity of simulated diurnal precipitation cycles, parameters estimated
132 using an identical methodology are computed for NASA’s Integrated Multi-satellite Re-
133 trievals for GPM (IMERG) V06B data product (Huffman et al., 2019). Briefly, the IMERG
134 dataset combines estimates of precipitation from several passive microwave sounders aboard
135 satellites in the GPM constellation. The “final” satellite product is inter-calibrated and
136 regridded to a 0.1° grid before undergoing a series of advanced interpolation, re-calibration,

137 assimilation, and correction procedures. The aforementioned processing steps are per-
138 formed by NASA to produce the IMERG data product. Satellite-based rainfall products
139 infer surface precipitation indirectly from emitted cloud top infrared radiation or the de-
140 tection of hydrometers with microwave sounders, leading to diurnal phase biases of 2–
141 4 hours with respect to rain gauge observations (Dai et al., 2007). However, IMERG V06
142 has been shown to reliably capture details of the diurnal phase with a smaller bias of around
143 +0.6 hours compared to surface-based estimates, albeit the validation was only done for
144 the Southeast U.S. (Tan et al., 2019). Estimates of precipitation rate are provided at 30-
145 minute time intervals for the IMERG product. The IMERG V06 satellite product is re-
146 liably available starting June 2000. For this study, diurnal parameters are computed us-
147 ing data in the 15-year period spanning June 2000 to May 2015 for latitudes between
148 60°S and 60°N.

149 **3.2 Climate Simulations**

150 The analysis includes all historical CMIP runs with 3-hourly precipitation flux out-
151 put available on the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) data server (<https://esgf->
152 node.llnl.gov/), including 26 models for CMIP6 and 21 models for CMIP5 (Eyring et al.,
153 2016; Taylor et al., 2012). Because model realization and initialization are not expected
154 to affect the fundamental representation of the diurnal cycle, a single ensemble member
155 is used for each model. The latest 30-year period for each CMIP iteration is used. The
156 analysis period spans 1976–2005 for CMIP5 and 1985–2014 for CMIP6. Estimates of the
157 transient climate response (TCR) and equilibrium climate sensitivity come from Meehl
158 et al. (2020), which uses the Gregory method to compute climate sensitivity. It is noted
159 the Gregory method has been recently shown to underestimate the true ECS by 10% on
160 average, and up to 25% for models with an ECS over 3 K (Dai et al., 2020). Not all mod-
161 els from ESGF with 3-hourly precipitation output have a reported climate sensitivity by
162 Meehl and colleagues, so comparisons between diurnal parameters and climate sensitiv-
163 ity are made using the 21 overlapping CMIP6 models and 17 CMIP5 models.

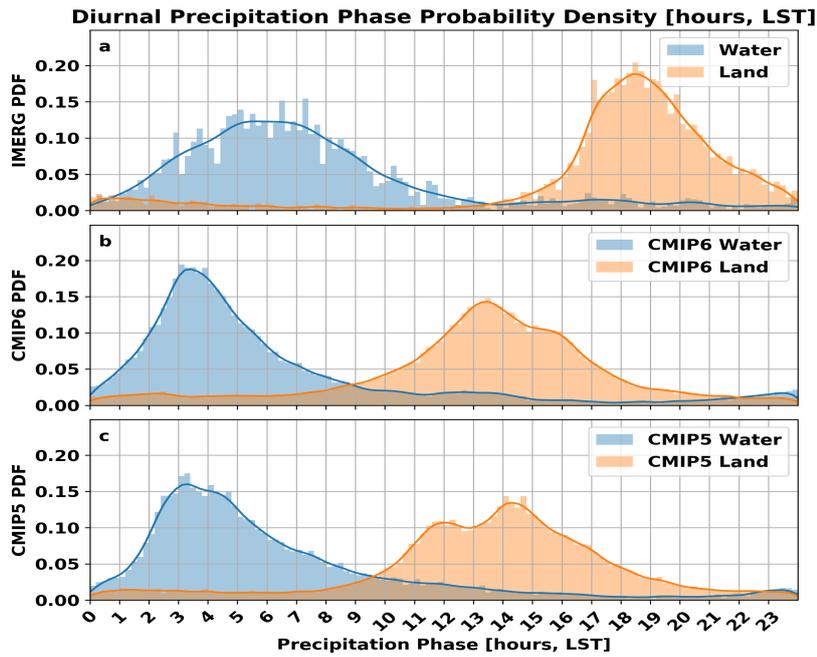


Figure 1. Probability density functions of diurnal precipitation phase (local solar time in hours of maximum) in IMERG observations (top, for 6/2000–5/2015 mean) and all-forcing historical simulations from 26 CMIP6 (middle, for 1985–2014 mean) and 21 CMIP5 (bottom, for 1976–2005 mean) models for land (orange) and water (blue) grid boxes between 60°S and 60°N on a common analysis grid. The diurnal phase is estimated using the diurnal component of a sinusoidal fit with diurnal (24 hour) and semi-diurnal (12 hour) modes. Grid cells for which 0 mm day^{-1} lies within 3 standard deviations of the diurnal amplitude are masked out.

4 Results

4.1 Diurnal Precipitation Cycle Biases

We compare models to satellite observations using probability density functions (PDF), spatial maps of phase and amplitude, and radial plots. PDFs highlight how characteristics of the phase distribution across space, time, and models differ from the phase distribution across space and time in satellite estimates. Figure 1 shows annual-mean PDFs of the diurnal precipitation phase. The GLDAS land mask, which includes large inland lakes, is used to identify grid cells over land and water. The spatial variance of precipitation phase over water is much larger in IMERG observations relative to both iterations of CMIP, although the model phase distribution includes variations across models. While spatial variance of the precipitation phase over land is comparable to satellite estimates, mean phase remains ~ 5.4 hours too early in CMIP6 and ~ 5.2 hours too early hours in CMIP5. The CMIP5 biases are largely in line with the 6-10 hour phases biases found in Covey et al. (2016) relative to TRMM satellite observations, although that study uses a different masking method and looks at warm-season diurnal cycles. Using the mode of the PDF instead of the mean, the land phase is ~ 5.1 hours too early in CMIP6 and ~ 4.5 hours too early in CMIP5. A notable outlier in land phase is FGOALS, which has a peak around 1.6 LST (FGOALS-g3 in CMIP6) and 0.8 LST (FGOALS-g2 in CMIP5).

The regional manifestations of the aforementioned biases over land and water become clearer in spatial plots of diurnal amplitude and phase. Figure 2 shows the annual-mean phase and amplitude, where the CMIP simulations are averaged across all models in each experiment after regridding to a common grid. Grid cells for which 0 mm day^{-1} lies within 3 standard deviations of the diurnal amplitude in satellite observations are masked out. Using 2 standard deviations retains much of the noisy signals in the extratropics (Fig. S1). The most striking difference globally is the early triggering of precipitation over land in climate models, a well known problem that remains an issue in CMIP6. The diurnal phase over extratropical continents has shifted earlier from CMIP5 to CMIP6, further from observations, notably over northern Asia and North America. Previous studies have noted issues with simulating nocturnal precipitation peaks associated with eastward-propagating mesoscale convective systems during summer (Liang et al., 2004; Trenberth et al., 2003), especially over the central U.S. (Jiang et al., 2006). The characteristic sig-

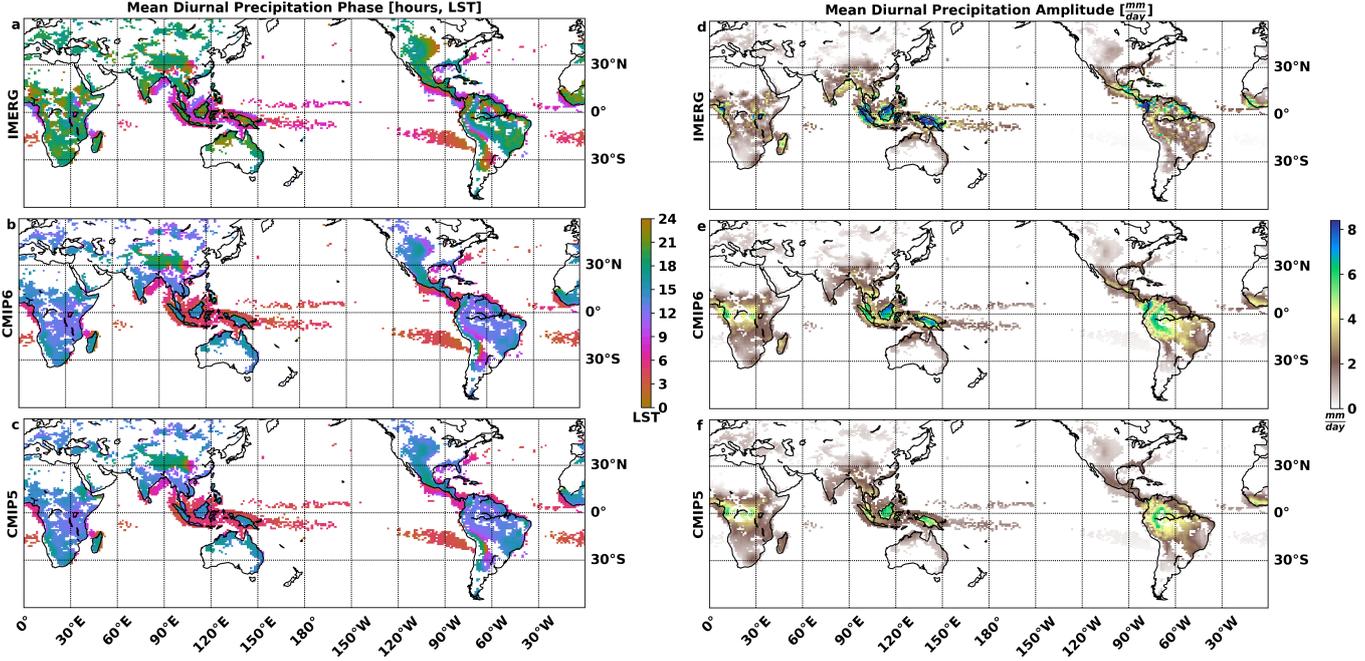


Figure 2. Annual-mean diurnal precipitation amplitude (deviation from daily mean in mm day^{-1} , right column) and phase (local solar time in hours of the maximum, left column) in IMERG observations (top row, for 6/2000–5/2015 mean) and averaged across 26 CMIP6 models (middle row, for 1985–2014 mean) and 21 CMIP5 models (bottom row, for 1976–2005 mean). The amplitude and phase are estimated using the diurnal component of a sinusoidal fit with diurnal (24 hour) and semi-diurnal (12 hour) modes. Grid cells for which 0 mm day^{-1} lies within 3 standard deviations of the diurnal amplitude are masked out.

196 nature of these systems is a convective phase that smoothly transitions from early morn-
 197 ing just east of the Rockies to late afternoon towards the southeastern U.S. CMIP6 mod-
 198 els that robustly demonstrate this signal in northern hemisphere summer include MRI-
 199 ESM2-0, EC-Earth3, and EC-Earth3-Veg-LR. Diurnal phase over the rainiest ocean re-
 200 gions in the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) is systematically a couple hours too
 201 early in both CMIP iterations.

202 While significant issues in phase remain, several improvements in the diurnal am-
 203 plitude are noted. A more realistic diurnal amplitude ($\sim 7 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$) is observed over
 204 land in the Maritime Continent and South America for CMIP6. This may result from
 205 higher-resolution outputs in CMIP6 models, which better capture the localized nature
 206 of convection instead of spreading out the signal across a larger gridcell. Studies employ-
 207 ing cloud-resolving models have revealed better agreement of diurnal amplitude and phase
 208 with satellite estimates with increases in horizontal resolution (Sato et al., 2009; Dirmeyer

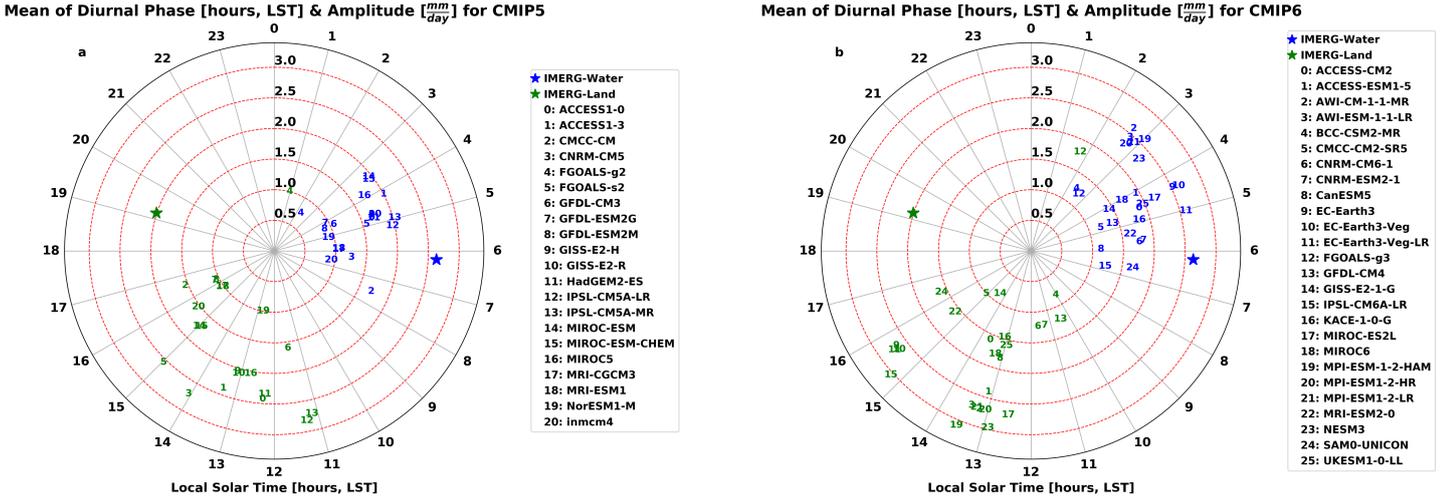


Figure 3. Mean diurnal phase and amplitude averaged over 60°S–60°N land (green) and water (blue) for 21 CMIP5 (left) and 26 CMIP6 (right) models and satellite-derived estimates (IMERG as stars). Grid cells for which 0 mm day⁻¹ lies within 3 standard deviations of the diurnal amplitude are masked out. The radius from the center represents the mean diurnal amplitude (deviation from daily mean) and the angular position represents the mean phase (LST in hours of the maximum). The dashed concentric circles (representing diurnal amplitude) are spaced at 0.5 mm day⁻¹.

209 et al., 2012). A slight improvement in the diurnal cycle amplitude over the South Pa-
 210 cific Convergence Zone (SPCZ) brings the models more in line with observations, but
 211 the double-ITCZ bias still exists in CMIP6 (Tian & Dong, 2020).

212 To quantify the ability of models to simulate the spatial structure of the phase, cor-
 213 relations between model and satellite parameters are computed for each model across
 214 gridcells and are averaged in space. The sine of phase is used because local solar time
 215 is a circular quantity. The phase correlation is slightly higher in CMIP6 over oceans (0.30
 216 and 0.35 for CMIP5 and CMIP6, respectively) and land (0.23 and 0.29). The slight, but
 217 insignificant, improvement in the spatial correlations over land from CMIP5 to CMIP6
 218 is largely attributable to regions influenced by topography, notably east of the Andes moun-
 219 tains in South America, the periphery of the Tibetan Plateau, and over the Central Plains
 220 of the U.S. In CMIP6, the phase in these regions shifts earlier by 1–2 hours. Over the
 221 oceans, no discernible regional pattern is noticeable outside the ITCZ; in the ITCZ, the
 222 phase of precipitation is shifted 0–1 hours earlier in CMIP6 models.

223 In addition to model-satellite correlations, spatially-averaged phase and amplitude
 224 over land and water are used as a summary metric to systematically and objectively as-

225 sess changes between CMIP iterations. Figure 3 demonstrates the spatially-averaged phase
226 and amplitude on a clock-like radial plot, where the distance from the center corresponds
227 to diurnal amplitude and the azimuth angle to diurnal phase. The spread in mean di-
228 urnal amplitude and phase among models is larger over land in both iterations of CMIP.
229 The spread over land, as measured by the standard deviation, decreases slightly from
230 2.4 in CMIP5 to 2.2 hours in CMIP6. The spread in amplitude increases from 0.64 to
231 0.76 mm day⁻¹, although there are more models in CMIP6. Over water, the standard
232 deviation of phase increases slightly from 1.2 in CMIP5 to 1.3 hours in CMIP6, and the
233 spread in amplitude increases from 0.44 to 0.51 mm day⁻¹. When spatially averaged,
234 CMIP6 models have a larger bias than CMIP5 over both land and water for diurnal phase
235 but a reduced bias for diurnal amplitude. The spread in diurnal parameters remains large
236 in both CMIP iterations.

237 **4.2 ECS Relationship and Potential Physical Mechanisms**

238 To assess broader climate implications of the diurnal precipitation cycle, mean phase
239 and amplitude over both land and water are regressed against ECS and TCR. We also
240 broke down the regressions by season and hemisphere (Table S1); the robust relation-
241 ships that emerged are summarized in what follows. A weak but persistent relationship
242 between precipitation phase over oceans and ECS is found across hemispheres in the an-
243 nual mean and in individual seasons. The strongest relationship exists in northern hemi-
244 sphere winter over the oceans (Corr = 0.63), with a comparable correlation in south-
245 ern hemisphere winter (Corr = 0.62). In the global and annual mean, the ECS-phase
246 correlation over oceans in CMIP6 is 0.51, while the correlation is only -0.26 in CMIP5.
247 To illustrate the relationship, scatter plots of the ECS-phase relationships are shown in
248 Figure 4, together with the observed oceanic phase. Weighting the ocean phase by annual-
249 mean precipitation or subselecting regions by mean precipitation has a minor impact on
250 this relationship. Correlations between ECS/TCR and diurnal parameters over land are
251 negligible. The correlation between ECS and TCR for the available CMIP6 models is
252 0.7, which is comparable to the ECS-phase relationship over oceans in winter months.

253 Previous studies have pointed to the potential for using short-term variability such
254 as diurnal and seasonal cycles to characterize a climate model’s sensitivity (Williams et
255 al., 2020; Covey et al., 2000; Brient & Schneider, 2016). However, it is important to un-
256 derstand the physical mechanism that accounts for any such relationship. These are sev-

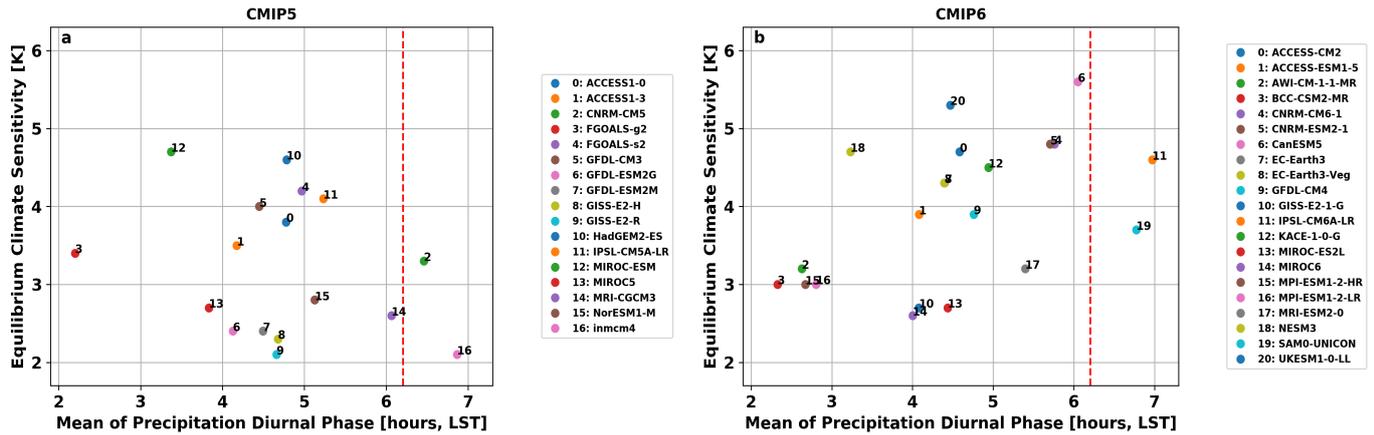


Figure 4. Scatter plot of ECS against mean diurnal cycle phase over global oceans between 60S and 60N for 26 CMIP6 (Corr = 0.51) and 21 CMIP5 (Corr = -0.26) models. Grid cells for which 0 mm day⁻¹ lies within 3 standard deviations of the diurnal amplitude are masked out. Satellite-based estimate of diurnal phase from IMERG shown as red dashed line.

257 eral possible mechanisms for why such a relationship between diurnal phase and ECS
 258 may exist in CMIP6 models:

- 259 • **A reflection of entrainment** ECS is strongly sensitive to the selected cumu-
 260 lus parameterization, specifically to the bulk detrainment efficiency and details
 261 of how cumulus cloud droplets are converted to precipitation (Zhao et al., 2016).
 262 The diurnal cycle is also sensitive to cumulus parameterization, as noted by Liang
 263 et al. (2004). For instance, diurnal studies employing the Community Atmosphere
 264 Model (CAM) have revealed that the entrainment rate in the cumulus parame-
 265 terization affects both the diurnal timing and intensity of precipitation significantly
 266 (DeMott et al., 2007). Similarly, modifying cumulus mixing through entrainment/detrainment
 267 rates in GCMs has also been shown to influence the phase and amplitude of oceanic
 268 precipitation, with little impact on mean precipitation amounts (Hohenegger &
 269 Stevens, 2013). That is, subgrid-scale physics surrounding cloud microphysics and
 270 mixing that manifests itself locally and on daily timescales through the diurnal
 271 precipitation cycle may also impact the mean climate. In other words, the diur-
 272 nal cycle biases and ECS variations may have common causes, without the diur-
 273 nal cycle biases directly causing ECS variations.
- 274 • **A proxy for tropical low cloud amount or depth** The depth of tropical low
 275 clouds in subsidence regions has been identified as correlating with climate sen-

276 sitivity, owing to competing effects of how convective drying and turbulent moist-
277 ening are parameterized in models (Brient et al., 2016). The diurnal phase may
278 also depend on cloud depth or cloud amount and reflect the well-known uncertain-
279 ties associated with low clouds in GCMs. If we posit a relationship between cloud
280 depth and the diurnal precipitation cycle, models with deeper clouds may have
281 a more robust diurnal cycle.

282 • **A proxy for cloud radiative effects** Presuming a later precipitation peak in
283 the early morning hours corresponds to a later minimum of precipitation in the
284 afternoon, the observed relationship may reflect how clouds interact with short-
285 wave radiation during the day. We expect shortwave reflection to depend both on
286 cloud properties as well as on the solar zenith angle. For instance, maximum cloudi-
287 ness that occurs at midday (small solar zenith angle) would result in more short-
288 wave reflection than maximum cloudiness at night or early morning, even for the
289 same daily mean cloud cover. Nevertheless, such an effect does not fully explain
290 a relationship to ECS.

291 In an attempt to falsify some of the mechanisms suggested above, we assess whether
292 either deep convective or shallow cloud regions are contributing disproportionately to
293 the ECS-phase relationship. The analysis is repeated by correlating the mean diurnal
294 phase in both low precipitation ($< 1.5\text{mm day}^{-1}$) and high precipitation ($> 5\text{mm day}^{-1}$)
295 regions against ECS, in both cases without the observational mask (Table S2). Low pre-
296 cipitation regions are found to have a marginally higher correlation (Corr = 0.52) than
297 high precipitation regions (Corr = 0.47), meaning the source of the relationship may in-
298 volve mechanisms operating in both regions or involve a combination of the hypotheses
299 listed above. However, further work is needed to elucidate the mechanisms involved—
300 if the relation between diurnal cycle phase and ECS in CMIP6 in fact turns out to be
301 significant.

5 Conclusions

This study quantified diurnal precipitation biases in a consistent manner in CMIP5 and CMIP6 and highlights that biases in diurnal parameters improve marginally between these CMIP iterations. In particular, the mean diurnal precipitation phase remains ~ 5.4 hours too early over land, and the diurnal amplitude remains ~ 0.81 mm day $^{-1}$ too small over the oceans. While comparisons of aggregate statistics such as spatial means and correlations with satellite-based observations reveal no significant improvements, more realistic characteristics of the diurnal cycle are noted in CMIP6. Improvements include the more robust simulation in several CMIP6 models of diurnal cycle characteristics that appear to be shaped by nocturnal mesoscale convective systems, and a more realistic diurnal amplitude over the Maritime Continent.

A secondary aim of this study was to assess the broader importance of the diurnal precipitation cycle by regressing diurnal-cycle parameters against ECS. Climate models with a later precipitation phase over the oceans tend to have a higher climate sensitivity in CMIP6; however, this relationship is not evident in CMIP5, calling into question its robustness.

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Data Availability.

The CMIP5 and CMIP6 model output used for this study was made available by the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF). The CMIP5 model output is available at <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip5/> and CMIP6 at <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>. IMERG data for this study was downloaded from NASA's GES DISC FTP server

331 (https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/GPM_3IMERGHH_06/summary). The GLDAS land
332 mask is available at <https://ldas.gsfc.nasa.gov/gldas/vegetation-class-mask> .

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