

# Hemispheric Asymmetry of Phase Partition in Mixed-Phase Clouds Based on Near Global-Scale Airborne Observations

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## Key Points

- Southern Hemisphere has higher occurrence frequency and higher mass fraction of supercooled liquid water than Northern Hemisphere
- E3SMv1/EAMv1 model misses the hemispheric asymmetry of phase partition listed above
- LWC is consistently too high in EAMv1 in all phases, but IWC biases depend on cloud phase

## Abstract

Mixed-phase clouds contribute to substantial uncertainties in global climate models due to their complex microphysical properties. Former model evaluations almost exclusively rely on satellite observations to assess cloud phase distributions globally. This study investigated mixed-phase cloud properties using near global-scale *in situ* observation datasets from 14 flight campaigns in combination with collocated output from a global climate model. The Southern Hemisphere (SH) shows significantly higher occurrence frequencies and higher mass fractions of supercooled liquid water than Northern Hemisphere (NH) based on observations at 0.2 and 100 km horizontal scales. Such hemispheric asymmetry is not captured by the model. The model also consistently overestimates liquid water content (LWC) in all cloud phases but shows ice water content (IWC) biases that vary with phase. Key processes contributing to model biases in phase partition can be identified through the combination of evaluation of phase frequency, liquid mass fraction, LWC and IWC.

## Plain Language Summary

The partition between supercooled liquid water and ice in clouds affects how clouds interact with solar and terrestrial radiation. Mixed-phase clouds, which may contain both supercooled liquid droplets and ice crystals, are especially challenging for climate models to represent. This study compares the occurrence frequencies and microphysical properties of these clouds between the Northern and Southern Hemispheres using data from multiple aircraft-based field campaigns and simulations from a global climate model. The Southern Hemisphere shows higher probabilities of liquid clouds and higher mass fractions of supercooled liquid water than the Northern Hemisphere.

47 These hemispheric differences are not captured by the model. The results indicate that mixed-  
48 phase clouds may have different responses to a changing global climate in the two hemispheres.  
49

## 50 **1. Introduction**

51 Clouds represent a crucial component of the Earth system due to their modulations of  
52 energy transfer and radiative balance (e.g. Hartmann et al., 1992; Matus and L'Ecuyer, 2017). In  
53 the temperature range of  $-35^{\circ} - 0^{\circ}\text{C}$  (hereafter defined as the mixed phase cloud regime), ice  
54 crystals and supercooled liquid droplets can potentially co-exist. These clouds demonstrate large  
55 spatial heterogeneities in their macrophysical properties (e.g., genuinely mixed or conditionally  
56 mixed ice and liquid segments, Korelev et al., 2017; Korolev and Milbrandt, 2022) and  
57 microphysical properties (e.g., partition between ice crystals and supercooled liquid droplets,  
58 Maciel et al., 2024). These spatial heterogeneities impose a challenge to various types of  
59 observational techniques (D'Alessandro et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024) as well as the  
60 parameterizations at sub-grid scales in global climate models (GCMs) (Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang  
61 et al., 2024).

62 Traditionally, satellite observations have been the gold standard for quantifying the  
63 frequency distributions of three cloud thermodynamic phases – liquid, ice, and mixed phases – at  
64 a near global scale (e.g., Hu et al., 2010; Cesana & Chepfer, 2012; Sokol & Storelvmo, 2024).  
65 Satellite observations have also been proven highly valuable for the evaluation of mixed-phase  
66 clouds in GCM simulations (Kay et al., 2016; Tan & Storelvmo, 2016; Cesana et al., 2022; Hofer  
67 et al., 2024). Phase partition between ice and supercooled liquid water has been found to play an  
68 important role in the estimations of climate feedback and climate sensitivity (e.g., Tan et al., 2016;  
69 Frey & Kay, 2017; McCoy et al., 2017; Zelinka et al., 2020). However, inherent issues still exist  
70 in the spaceborne retrievals of mixed-phase cloud regime, such as the attenuation of lidar signals  
71 when penetrating through supercooled liquid-topped cloud layers (e.g., Silber et al., 2018; Desai  
72 et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024) and the large uncertainties in the derivations of hydrometeor  
73 concentrations (e.g., Hogan et al., 2005). When comparing three satellite-derived cloud phase  
74 products with *in situ* airborne observations, statistically significant discrepancies were seen at  
75 various latitudes and pressure levels (Wang et al., 2024). These remaining challenges in  
76 spaceborne observations demonstrate the need of conducting an alternate type of analysis of cloud  
77 phases at global scales to complement the conventional satellite-based analysis.

78 This study presents an alternative approach for investigations of cloud phase distributions  
79 and microphysical properties at a near global scale based on *in situ* airborne observations from  
80 multiple flight campaigns. As far as the authors are aware, a hemispheric comparison for cloud  
81 phase partition has not been conducted previously based on *in situ* airborne observations, nor has  
82 an evaluation study of GCM simulations been conducted against *in situ* observations at a near pole-  
83 to-pole scale (i.e.,  $75^{\circ}\text{S}$  to  $87^{\circ}\text{N}$ ). By leveraging the compiled *in situ* observation dataset, this study  
84 is uniquely poised to examine mixed-phase cloud properties that could be challenging to derive  
85 from remote sensing retrievals, including the frequency distributions of three thermodynamic  
86 phases at various temperatures (Section 3.1), the partition between liquid and ice at various  
87 latitudes (Section 3.2), and cloud microphysical properties, i.e., ice water content (IWC) and liquid  
88 water content (LWC), for each cloud phase (Section 3.3).

## 89 **2. Methodology**

### 90 **2.1 *In situ* datasets and instrumentation**

93 This study compiled observation datasets of eleven U.S. National Science Foundation  
94 (NSF) and three U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) airborne campaigns, including NSF START08  
95 (Pan et al., 2010), HIPPO (Wofsy, 2011), PREDICT (Montgomery et al., 2012), TORERO  
96 (Volkamer et al., 2015), DC3 (Barth et al., 2015), CONTRAST (Pan et al., 2017), WINTER (Lee  
97 et al., 2018), CSET (Albrecht et al., 2019), ORCAS (Stephens et al., 2018), SOCRATES  
98 (McFarquhar et al., 2021), and OTREC (Fuchs-Stone et al., 2020) campaigns, as well as DOE M-  
99 PACE (Verlinde et al., 2007), ISDAC (McFarquhar et al., 2011), and ACME-V (Maahn et al.,  
100 2017) campaigns. Supplementary Table S1 provides detailed information about these campaigns,  
101 including name, number of research flights, time, location, and flight hours at all temperatures as  
102 well as at mixed-phase range. A total of 576 hours were flown at -35°C to 0°C, with 463 and 113  
103 hours of clear-sky and in-cloud conditions, respectively. Collectively, the 14 airborne campaigns  
104 conducted between April 2008 and September 2019 covered a spatial range from 75°S to 87°N  
105 and from 38°W to 128°E (Figure 1 a). A similar but smaller *in situ* observation dataset was  
106 previously used in Wang et al. (2024) as described in their Table 1 to validate three satellite-based  
107 cloud phase products.

108 For most campaigns (except M-PACE and ISDAC), we applied a phase identification  
109 method that involves (i) the identification of ice or supercooled liquid for each second of a cloud  
110 probe and (ii) IWC and LWC calculations (D’Alessandro et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2021; Maciel et  
111 al., 2024). Several key parameters were used, including the mass–number concentration (M–N)  
112 relationship, maximum particle diameters, the standard deviations of particle size distributions,  
113 and temperature. For most campaigns, these parameters were derived from the Cloud Droplet  
114 Probe (CDP) (2–50  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and the Fast-Two Dimensional Cloud probe (Fast-2DC) (62.5–3200  $\mu\text{m}$ ).  
115 The 2-Dimensional Stereo (2DS) cloud probe (40 – 5000  $\mu\text{m}$ ) was used instead of the Fast-2DC  
116 probe in SOCRATES and ACME-V. The 1-Hz CDP observations were categorized as large  
117 aerosols ( $N \leq 10^{-1.5} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  or  $M \leq 10^{-3.4} \text{ g m}^{-3}$ ), ice crystals (both  $10^{-1.5} < N < 10^{-0.5} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $M >$   
118  $10^{-3.4} \text{ g m}^{-3}$ ), or liquid droplets (both  $N \geq 10^{-0.5} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $M > 10^{-3.4} \text{ g m}^{-3}$ ). A more complex  
119 decision tree was applied for Fast-2DC and 2DS following D’Alessandro et al. (2019).

120 To calculate LWC or IWC, spherical shape was assumed for supercooled liquid droplets,  
121 while the mass-dimension (M-D) relationships from Brown and Francis (1995) were used for small  
122 and large ice particles, separated by maximum dimensions  $\leq$  and  $> 75 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively. M-PACE  
123 (McFarquhar et al., 2007) and ISDAC (Jackson et al., 2012) derived IWC and LWC from two  
124 different suites of instruments. M-PACE used Forward Scattering Spectrometer Probe (FSSP), 1-  
125 Dimensional Cloud probe (1DC), 2DC, and High Volume Precipitation Spectrometer (HVPS),  
126 while ISDAC used FSSP, CDP, 2DC, 2DS, Cloud Imaging Probe 2 (CIP2), and 2-D Precipitation  
127 (2DP) probe.

128 A consistent definition of three cloud phases was applied to all observations and  
129 simulations. That is, if supercooled liquid fraction (SLF)  $< 0.1$ , between  $0.1 – 0.9$ , or  $> 0.9$ , then  
130 this sample is defined as ice, mixed, or liquid phase, respectively. Here  $\text{SLF} = \text{LWC} / (\text{LWC} +$   
131  $\text{IWC})$ , which represents the mass fraction of supercooled liquid water.

132

## 133 2.2 Model Simulations

134 The DOE Energy Exascale Earth System Models version 1 (E3SMv1), specifically its  
135 atmospheric component, the E3SM Atmosphere Model version 1 (EAMv1), was used in this work  
136 (Xie et al., 2018; Rasch et al., 2019). EAMv1 employs a Spectral Element (SE) dynamical core at  
137  $\sim$ 1-degree resolution with 72 vertical levels (Golaz et al., 2019). The SE dynamical core uses  
138 unstructured grids and has advantages of near-perfect scalability and GPU (Graphics Processing

139 Unit) acceleration (Dennis et al., 2012; Adbi et al., 2017). Cloud microphysics in EAMv1 are  
140 treated by version 2 of Morrison and Gettelman (MG2) with representations of cloud particle  
141 formation, growth, and precipitation processes (Gettelman et al., 2015). Cloud macrophysics,  
142 shallow convection, and boundary layer turbulence are simulated using the Cloud Layers Unified  
143 By Binormals (CLUBB) (Golaz et al., 2002; Larson & Golaz, 2005), deep convection processes  
144 are parameterized based on Zhang and McFarlane (1995), and the aerosol module used the Modal  
145 Aerosol Module (MAM4) (Liu et al., 2016).

146 For each flight campaign, one model simulation was set up to cover the same time period  
147 with ~6 months of spin-up time prior to the start date of the campaign. The model output was saved  
148 along the flight tracks at a 10-minute frequency. Simulations were nudged towards the Modern-  
149 Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2) reanalysis  
150 dataset (Gelaro et al., 2017) for temperature and horizontal wind fields, consistent with previous  
151 model evaluation studies (e.g., Yang et al., 2021; Yip et al., 2021; Patnaude et al., 2024; Desai et  
152 al., 2023, 2025). Several sensitivity tests were conducted to examine the impacts of vertical  
153 sampling and horizontal spatial averaging, similar to the method used in Yang et al. (2021) in their  
154 section 2.3, and consistent results were found among these tests.

### 155 3. Results

#### 156 3.1 Cloud phase frequency distributions and phase partition at a near global scale

157 One advantage of airborne observations is the ability to provide synchronized *in situ*  
158 measurements of cloud hydrometeors and environmental conditions (such as temperature). Hence,  
159 the mass partition between supercooled liquid and ice (indicated by SLF) is examined as a function  
160 of temperature in two hemispheres (Figure 1 b and 1 c), with the number of samples shown in  
161 Figure S1. As for seasonal distributions, most samples in the SH occurred during austral summer,  
162 while the NH has more similar sample sizes in all four seasons (Table S2 and Figure S2).

163 Based on high-resolution 1-s observations, a main hemispheric difference is the higher SLF  
164 in the SH compared with the NH, with SLF in the SH being 0.2 – 0.4 higher at -25 to 0°C. A  
165 moving average at 100-km resolution that included both clear-sky and in-cloud segments was used  
166 to compare with model grid-mean values, consistent with the method used in D’Alessandro et al.  
167 (2019) and Yang et al. (2021). After spatial averaging, SLF shows larger increases in the NH (by  
168 0.1 – 0.2) than the SH (by 0.05 – 0.1), because the 1-s observations are dominated by pure ice  
169 segments especially in the NH, while 100-km observations have more mixtures of ice and liquid.

170 Compared with the 100-km observations, the EAMv1 simulations show similar SLF values  
171 in the SH but show much higher SLF in the NH by 0.1 – 0.2. Consequently, the EAMv1  
172 simulations do not show a significant contrast of SLF between the two hemispheres. This result  
173 indicates that future improvement of the model parameterization should convert more liquid-  
174 containing clouds to the ice-containing clouds at temperatures between -35°C to 0°C in the NH.

#### 175 3.2 Latitudinal-temperature distributions of three cloud phases

176 The latitudinal-temperature distributions of three cloud phases are shown in Figure 2. The  
177 number of samples and in-cloud frequencies are shown in Figures S3 and S4, respectively. To  
178 reduce the noise in frequency distributions due to fluctuations of sampling sizes, we applied an  
179 averaging process to every 3×3 bins (i.e., a center bin and its 8 surrounding bins). Key features are  
180 consistently seen without the 3×3 grid smoothing (Figure S5) or using a larger model sample size  
181 (Figure S6). The cloud phase frequency is calculated as the number of a phase divided by the total

185 number of in-cloud samples in each bin. In addition, in-cloud frequency is calculated as the number  
186 of in-cloud samples divided by the total number of all-sky samples.

187 A hemispheric contrast is consistently seen in this latitudinal view based on *in situ*  
188 observations at both ~0.2-km and 100-km resolutions, showing higher liquid phase frequency in  
189 the SH compared with the NH (Figure 2 a and 2 b). The EAMv1 simulations show similar  
190 latitudinal gradient of in-cloud frequencies compared with 100-km observations, with the highest  
191 in-cloud frequencies located at the polar regions (Figure S4). However, the lack of hemispheric  
192 differences in frequency distributions of liquid and ice phases is seen in the simulations, consistent  
193 with the lack of hemispheric asymmetry in SLF (Figure 1).

194 The hemispheric differences for observations and simulations are more evidently  
195 represented in Figure 3, including the differences between each pair of latitudinal-temperature bins  
196 symmetrically distributed between the NH and SH (columns 1 – 4) and the phase occurrence  
197 frequencies in each 5°C temperature bin (column 4). The number of samples are shown in Figure  
198 S7. Both 1-s and 100-km observations show higher liquid phase frequency in the SH by 0.2 to 0.4  
199 than the NH at -25 to 0°C (Figure 3 d). Such observed hemispheric differences are even larger at  
200 higher temperatures than lower temperatures. In addition, both observations show significantly  
201 higher ice phase frequencies in the extratropical regions in the NH (> 30°N) compared with the  
202 extratropics in the SH (< 30°S) (Figure 3 i and 3 j).

203 The model simulations show lack of hemispheric differences in both liquid and ice phase  
204 frequencies (Figure 3 d and 3 l). These lack of hemispheric differences in the simulations can be  
205 attributed to the different magnitudes of model biases between the two hemispheres for liquid and  
206 ice frequencies. That is, simulations in the SH show similar liquid and ice phase frequencies  
207 compared with 100-km observations (Figure 3 h and l). However, in the NH, the model  
208 underestimates ice phase frequency and overestimates liquid phase frequencies from -30 to 0°C.

209 Smaller model biases are seen for mixed phase frequencies when compared with the 100-  
210 km observations, especially for the SH (Figure 3 h). However, the model still overestimates mixed  
211 phase frequency at -30 to -15°C and underestimates it at -15 to 0°C in the NH. In addition, the  
212 model misses the trend of increasing mixed phase frequencies at higher temperatures as shown by  
213 the observations. The results from Figures 2 and 3 indicate that the model biases in terms of phase  
214 occurrence frequency are more severe in the NH, consistent with the SLF biases in Figure 1.

### 216 **3.3 Hemispheric comparisons of cloud microphysical properties in respective cloud phases**

217 Cloud microphysical properties, i.e., LWC and IWC, are examined for individual cloud  
218 phase or all phases at various temperatures (Figure 4 a – h) alongside their hemispheric differences  
219 (i.e., NH minus SH) in Figure 4 i – p. The number of the samples is shown in Figure S8. Due to  
220 the definitions of three cloud phases, each phase may contain a certain amount of IWC, LWC, or  
221 both.

222 Focusing on the dominate type of hydrometeor in the liquid and ice phases, both  
223 observations show higher LWC of the liquid phase in the SH than NH (Figure 4 a) and relatively  
224 similar IWC of ice phase between the two hemispheres (Figure 4 g). Spatial averaging leads to  
225 higher decreases of LWC in liquid phase (Figure 4 a) and smaller decreases of IWC in ice phase  
226 (Figure 4 g) because most of the liquid segments are shorter than ice segments (not shown). More  
227 significant decreases of LWC are seen in the NH than SH after averaging, consistent with the more  
228 extensive coverage of supercooled liquid clouds over the SH as reported by previous studies (e.g.,  
229 Hu et al., 2010; Desai et al., 2023, 2025; Barone et al., 2024).

230       Compared with 100-km observations, EAMv1 significantly overestimates the LWC in the  
231 liquid phase (Figure 4 a) and mixed phase (Figure 4 b), as well as overestimating the total LWC  
232 of all phases (Figure 4 d) by 1 – 2 orders of magnitude. In fact, the simulated LWC is closer to the  
233 1-s observations than the 100-km observations. The overestimations of simulated LWC in both  
234 hemispheres lead to small hemispheric differences of LWC at -25 to -10°C, similar to the 100-km  
235 observations at that temperature range (Figure 4 l). At temperatures above -10°C, both  
236 observations show higher total LWC in the SH than NH, but the model shows the opposite  
237 hemispheric difference.

238       Differing from the consistent overestimation of LWC in all phases, the model biases in  
239 IWC vary with phase. The simulated total IWC of all phases is more similar to the 100-km  
240 observations except for the large negative biases in the NH around -20 to -5°C (Figure 4 h).  
241 However, the simulations overestimate IWC for mixed phase in two hemispheres (Figure 4 f) and  
242 underestimate IWC for ice phase in the SH (Figure 4 g). Despite these IWC biases for individual  
243 phase, the hemispheric differences in the total IWC (Figure 4 p) show similar results between  
244 EAMv1 and 100-km observations at -30 to -20°C with higher total IWC in the NH. However,  
245 EAMv1 misses the higher total IWC in the NH at -20 to 0°C due to its underestimation of the total  
246 IWC in the NH at that temperature range (Figure 4 h).

247  
248       **4. Discussions and Implications**  
249       A near global-scale dataset was compiled from 14 aircraft-based field campaigns, covering  
250 a wide latitudinal range from 75°S to 87°N. Distinct hemispheric differences were found based on  
251 *in situ* observations at various horizontal resolutions (i.e., 0.2 and 100 km), including higher SLF  
252 (Figure 1), higher liquid phase frequencies (Figures 2 and 3), and higher LWC in liquid phase  
253 (Figure 4) in the SH compared with the NH. All of these hemispheric differences are not  
254 represented in the EAMv1 simulations. Although previous studies also reported ubiquitous low-  
255 level marine boundary clouds with large spatial extent and significant amount of supercooled  
256 liquid water in the Southern Ocean region (e.g., Mace et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021; Desai et al.,  
257 2023; Wang et al., 2024; Barone et al., 2024), a hemispheric comparison has rarely been conducted  
258 using *in situ* airborne observations.

259       Phase partition was quantified by two parameters in this work – liquid phase frequency  
260 (related to spatial coverage) and SLF (related to mass concentrations). The fact that observations  
261 show higher values of both parameters in the SH suggests that the SH has more liquid-containing  
262 segments relative to ice-containing segments and also higher mass concentrations of supercooled  
263 liquid droplets relative to ice crystals. This is consistent with a previous study of Maciel et al.  
264 (2024), which shows that the increasing mass fraction of supercooled liquid water is positively  
265 correlated with the spatial expansion of liquid-containing segments. Airborne observations in this  
266 study have limited samples in high-latitude regions especially in the SH outside austral summer,  
267 which leads to a knowledge gap regarding seasonality of phase partition in these regions. Previous  
268 satellite observations showed that the probability of supercooled liquid clouds as a function of  
269 mid-layer cloud temperature is not significantly different among various seasons as long as  
270 temperature is considered in the analysis (Hu et al., 2010). Future work is recommended to further  
271 investigate seasonality by leveraging recent observations, e.g., NASA Plankton, Aerosol, Cloud,  
272 ocean Ecosystem (PACE) and EU Earth Cloud Aerosol and Radiation Explorer (EarthCARE)  
273 missions.

274       We further diagnose the potential reasons behind the lack of hemispheric differences in  
275 EAMv1 by comparing against 100-km observations. The simulated ice phase frequencies in the

NH are lower by 0.1–0.2, while the SH shows more comparable values (Figure 3 l). These biases become even larger at the NH high latitudes since the observed ice phase frequencies further increase in that region (Figure 3 i and 3 j). The simulated LWC shows positive biases in both hemispheres (Figure 4 a, b, and d), while the simulated IWC in ice phase shows negative biases in the SH and comparable values in NH (Figure 4 g). Overall, the model biases associated with ice processes are more complex, compared with the consistent positive biases in LWC across all phases in both hemispheres. The model biases are likely attributed to EAMv1 model's treatments of ice nucleation and secondary ice production (SIP). EAMv1 uses the classical nucleation theory for ice nucleation, which severely underestimates concentrations of ice nucleating particles (INPs) in the NH high latitudes compared with DeMott et al. (2015) at -20°C – 0°C. The model also does not include high-latitude dust and biological INPs, which likely leads to low ice phase frequency, high LWC, and high SLF biases in the NH high latitudes. The lack of treatment of SIP and the uncertainties in droplet autoconversion may also lead to overestimations of LWC (Zhao et al., 2023).

Overall, this study provides a unique approach to examine phase partition at near global scale by compiling a large dataset based on *in situ* airborne observations, benefiting from an increasing number of flight campaigns over the high latitudes. The results indicate that by quantifying different properties of clouds (i.e., occurrence frequencies, phase partition, LWC and IWC in each phase), a model evaluation framework can be developed to diagnose the key processes contributing to model biases. In addition, this study demonstrates the feasibility of using high-resolution *in situ* observations to evaluate coarser-scale model simulations through scale-aware comparisons, as well as the potential usage of multiple flight campaigns for a near global-scale analysis. Lastly, the results from this study suggest that asymmetric distributions of ice and supercooled liquid water in the two hemispheres may lead to asymmetric responses of cloud radiative effects to a changing climate, which may potentially be overlooked if such hemispheric asymmetry in phase partition is not captured by model simulations.

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### Open Research

Airborne observations are publicly accessible for 11 NSF campaigns (UCAR/NCAR, 2018a, b, 2019a–f, 2020, 2021a, b, 2022a–c) and 3 DOE campaigns (DOE ARM 2024 a, b, c). Key variables of the EAMv1 nudged simulations are stored in an open archive (Yang et al., 2024).

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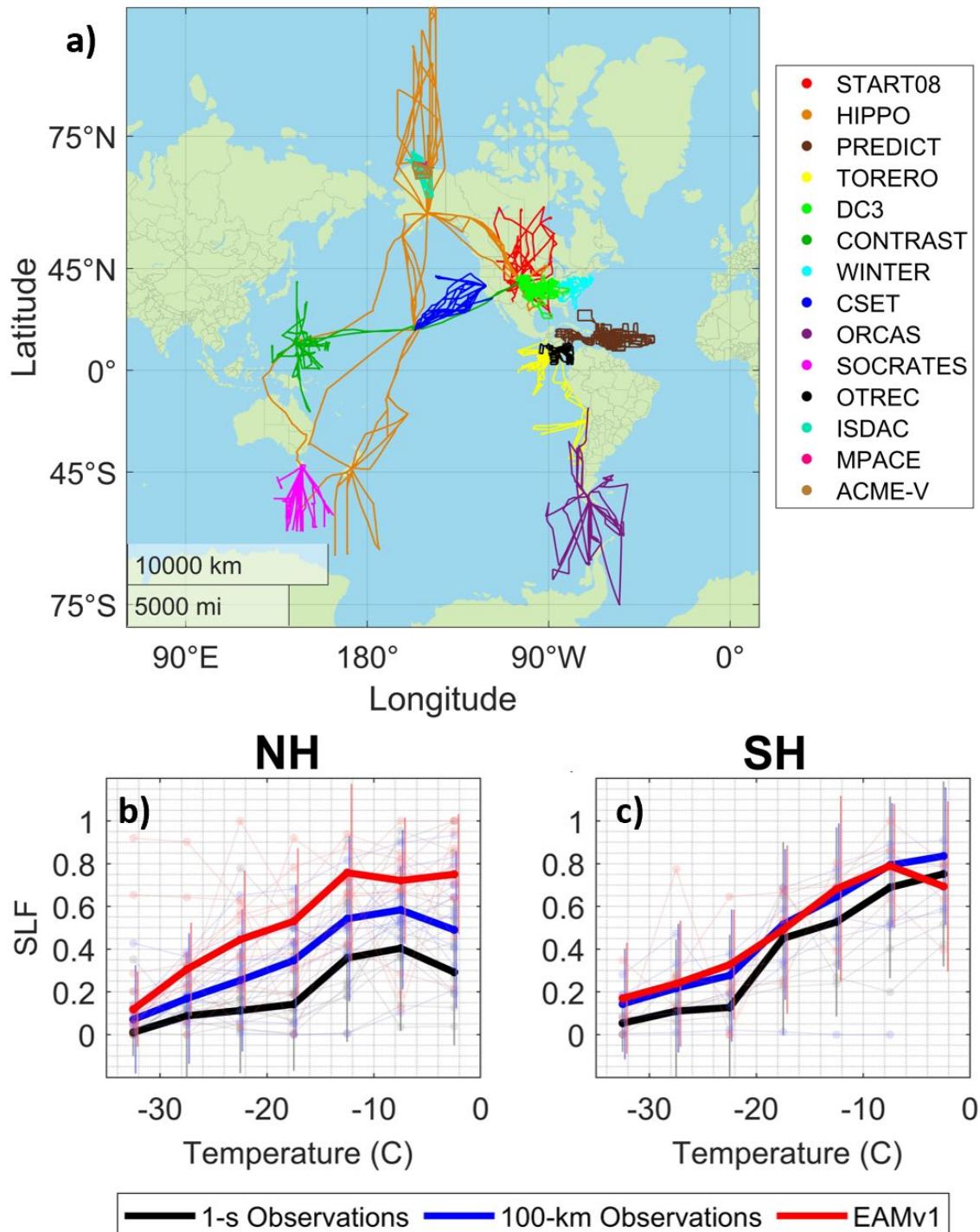
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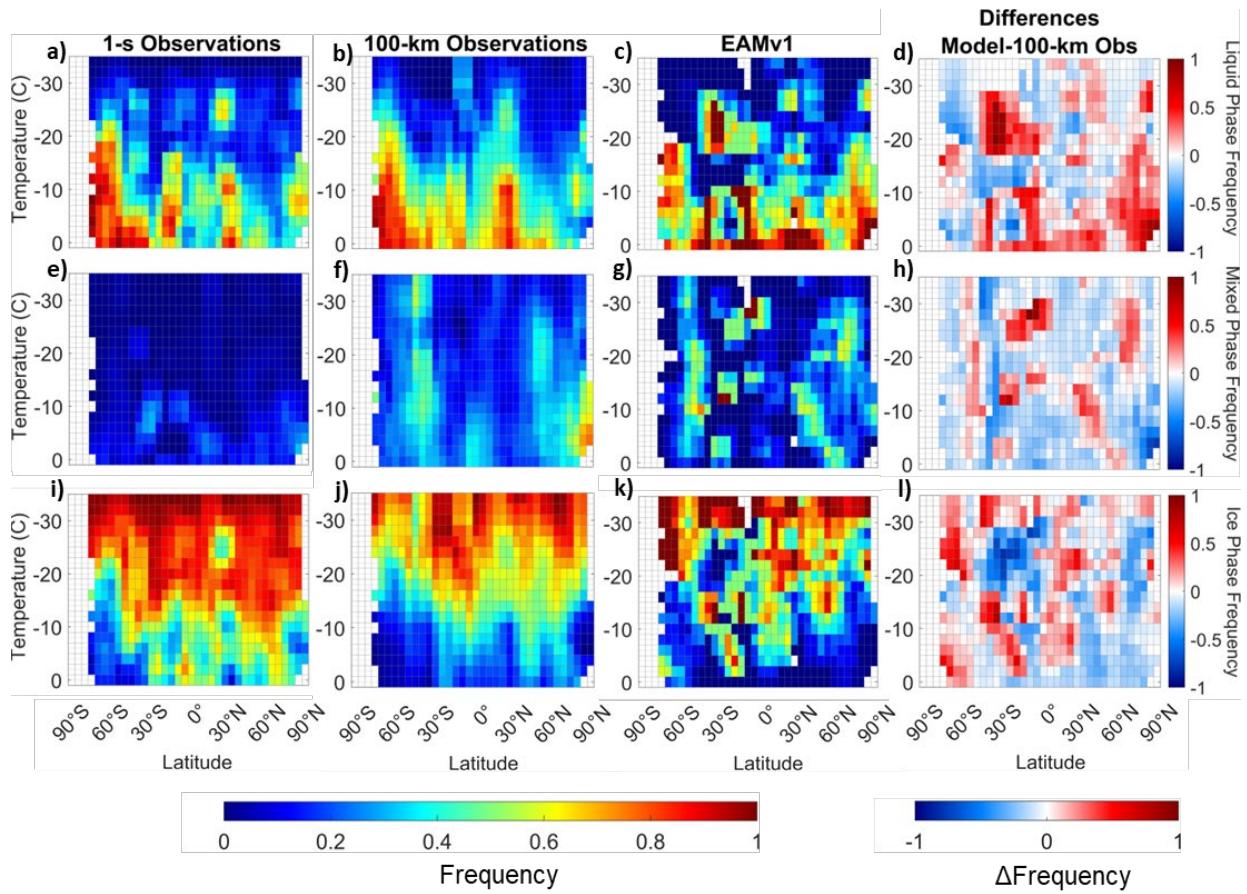
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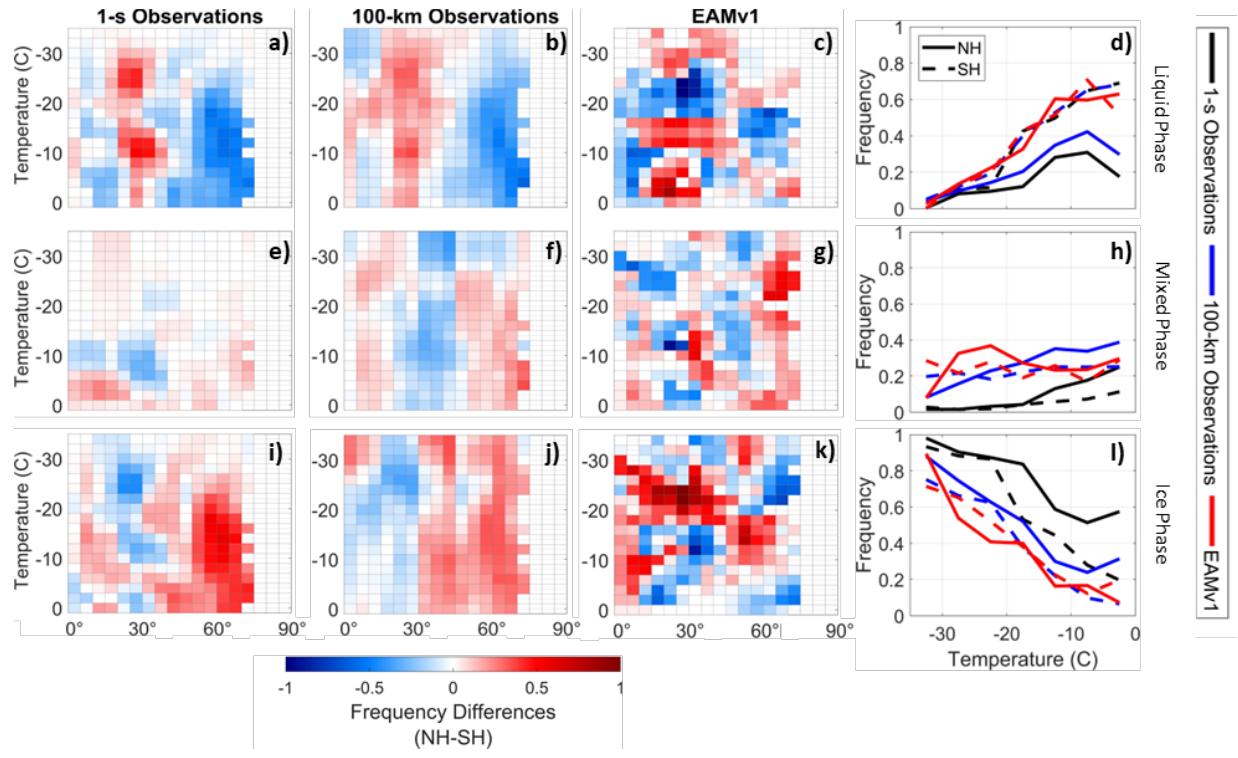
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**Figure 1.** (a) Flight tracks of 11 NSF and 3 DOE campaigns. Supercooled liquid fraction (SLF) averaged by  $5^{\circ}\text{C}$  bins in the (b) NH and (c) SH. The average SLF of individual campaigns is shown in light colored dots. Vertical bars represent standard deviations of all campaigns.



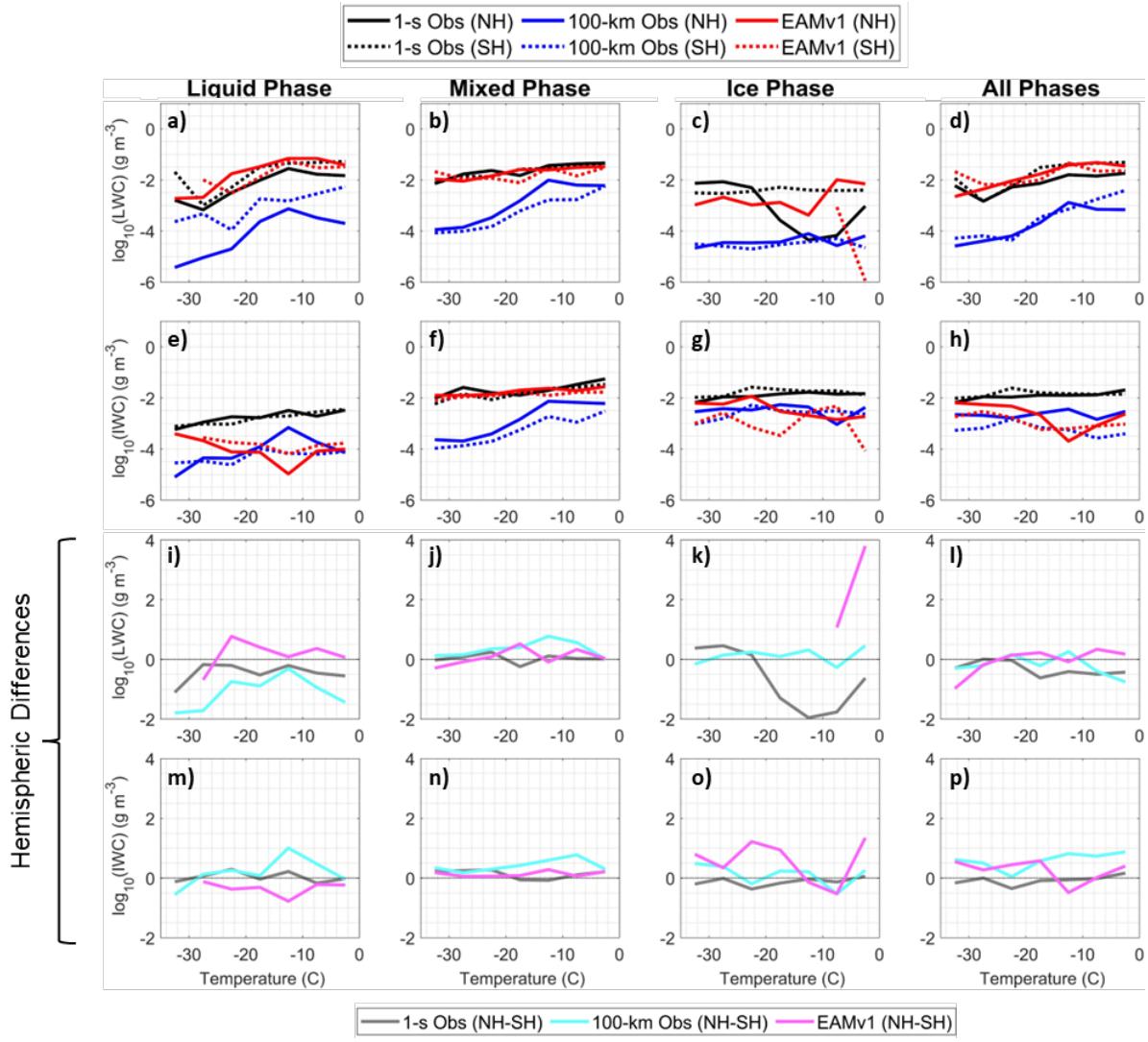
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**Figure 2.** Occurrence frequencies of (a–c) liquid, (e–g) mixed, and (i–k) ice phase in a latitude-temperature view. (d, h, l) Differences of model and 100-km observations.



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**Figure 3.** Hemispheric differences (NH minus SH) of occurrence frequencies for (a–c) liquid, (e–g) mixed, and (i–k) ice phase. The last column shows the average cloud phase frequencies in each 5°C bin.



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619 **Figure 4.** Average values of (a–d) LWC and (e–h) IWC for liquid, mixed, ice phase, and all phases  
620 (columns 1 to 4, respectively). Hemispheric differences for (i–l) LWC and (m–p) IWC.