Point-by-point response to the reviews

Anonymous Referee #1

In this paper, which appears to be a follow-on from Guzman et al., 2017, the authors develop a simple approximation that allows them to estimate outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) using three parameters that are readily obtained from space-based lidar measurements: cloud top, cloud base (or, for opaque layers, apparent base) and cloud optical depths. Cloud altitudes are converted to temperatures using model data. The optical depths are used to compute emissivities. Since the current generation of space-based lidars cannot measure the optical depth of opaque layers, the emissivities for these clouds are assumed to be 1. For opaque clouds, OLR is approximated as a simple linear function of mid-layer temperature. The approximation for transparent clouds also uses mid-layer temperature, but is not as straightforward, as it also requires estimates of cloud emissivity and the OLR in clear sky conditions. Collocated CERES measurements are used to characterize the accuracy of both approximations.

The material presented in this paper is appropriate for AMT, and, after a few modifications are made, I believe the manuscript should eventually be published. The English language usage is, at times, somewhat (and occasionally very) awkward; however, the paper is well-organized, the figures are well-done and informative, the authors' derivation of their technique was clear and the steps taken to verify its performance were appropriate and straightforward. While the most interesting (and potentially useful) part of the manuscript was section 6, where the authors describe the limitations of their method, there are still a couple of issues that I believe deserve further investigation.

1. I had hoped to find a clear and convincing explanation for the rotation of the thin cloud data from the one-to-one line that is so evident in Figure 6b.

Response:

- The rotation of the thin cloud data from the one-to-one line does not affect the results of this study. Indeed, we did a sensitivity study to $CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus(LID)}$ (Sect. 6.3): instead of computing the lidar-derived $CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus(LID)}$ using the relationship used in Fig. 6b, we consider CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus} as the residual between CERES-derived total $CRE_{Total}^{\boxplus(CERES)}$ and lidar-derived $CRE_{Opaque}^{\boxplus(LID)}$: $CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus} = CRE_{Total}^{\boxplus(CERES)} - CRE_{Opaque}^{\boxplus(LID)}$. This leads to Opaque clouds contributing to 74 % to the total CRE instead of 73 % in global mean. It is then not sensitive.
- The rotation of the thin cloud data from the one-to-one line is the consequence of multiple effects. We
 examine hereafter the points raised by the reviewer. Thank you.

In particular,

- (a) I'd like to know if this rotation is diminished in the "single-cloud-layer situations (not shown)", for which R increases from 0.89 to 0.92 (I suggest including the "not shown" plots in a future revision);
- Response: This rotation is not diminished in the "single-cloud-layer situations" (Fig. A4d).
- Change made:
 - > In Sect. 6: Sect. 6.2 Multi-layer cloud and broken cloud situations has been added.
 - In <u>Appendix</u>: Fig. A4 has been added. It shows the decomposition of Fig. 6 in "single-layer cloud" and "multi-layer cloud" situations. The main text refers to Fig. A4 in <u>Sect. 6.2</u>.
- (b) I'm intrigued by the differences in the sampling distributions for the opaque clouds vs. the thin clouds. For opaque layers, there is a noticeable skew in the distribution caused by (per line 518) "occurrences far from and over the identity line in Fig. 6a". But for the thin clouds in Fig. 6b the sampling distribution appears to be normally distributed about a single straight line). Do the authors have any thoughts or speculations about the root cause(s) for this difference in behavior?
- **Response:** The new Fig. A4e shows that the noticeable skew in the distribution is due to multi-layer cloud situations. In these situations, an optically thin cloud overlapping an optically opaque cloud will tend to significantly underestimate T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} as we do not consider the difference of emissivity between the two clouds. For thin clouds, in presence of multi-layer cloud situations (Fig. A4f), T_{Thin}^{\dagger} can be overestimated or underestimated depending on which cloud is optically thicker. The contrast between their emissivity is generally smaller than for an opaque multi-layer cloud situation. This is the reason why there is no noticeable skew in the distribution for the thin clouds.

2. How sensitive is the thin cloud OLR to emissivity errors introduced by aerosol contamination of "clear air" beneath the clouds detected by GOCCP?

• **Response:** The computation of the Thin cloud emissivity $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ used all the clear sky layers (without aerosol) located below the lowest cloud layer, in order to determine the optical thickness of the cloud layers. If, for example, an aerosol layer is present just below the cloud, $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ would be derived from the sum of the cloud layer optical thickness and the aerosol layer optical thickness. As this study is only over ocean, errors introduced by aerosol are essentially found during boreal summer over a limited area: the dust plume (Peyridieu et al., 2010 DOI:10.5194/acp-10-1953-2010). Moreover, with regards to this study, we are interested in CRE, which, over ocean, are far larger than aerosol direct radiative effect.

Minor issues:

Line 17 : how much does the "atmosphere opacity altitude" depend on the (a) capabilities of the lidar used to measure the cloud, (b) the ambient lighting conditions, and (c) the algorithms used to retrieve apparent cloud base?

- Response: The "atmosphere opacity altitude" Z[|]_{Opaque} indeed depends on these three aspect.
 - (a) The accuracy of Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} depends on the vertical resolution of the lidar, the telescope field of view, and the capabilities receiver sensor (noise). These uncertainty sources likely give error smaller than one 480 m bin.
 - (b) Z_{Opaque}^{I} retrieval is difficult during daytime because daytime conditions are much noisier than the nighttime conditions in CALIOP data. This is the reason why we only use nighttime data in this study.
 - (c) Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} depends on the algorithm used to retrieve apparent cloud base. It depends on the horizontal and vertical averaging choice (Chepfer et al., 2013; Cesana et al., 2016).
 - · Chepfer et al. (2013) DOI:10.1175/JTECH-D-12-00057.1
 - · Cesana et al. (2016) DOI:10.1002/2015JD024334
- Change made:
 - In Sect. 2.1 (1st §): "Z[|]_{Opaque} depends on the horizontal and vertical averaging used in the retrieval algorithm. It is also affected by sunlight noise during daytime. At 480 m vertical resolution, it poorly depends on the lidar characteristics." has been added.

Lines 126–175 : nothing in this description makes it clear that columns containing multiple layers are actually included in the analyses. The fact that all columns are partitioned into one of the three categories (i.e., clear, thin cloud, and opaque cloud) should be made clear from the very beginning, and not postponed until lines 176–179.

- Change made:
 - In Sect. 2.1 (1st §): "The GCM-Oriented CALIPSO Cloud Product (GOCCP)-OPAQ (GOCCP v3.0; Guzman et al., 2017) segregates each atmospheric single column sounded by the CALIOP lidar as one of the 3 following single column types" has been replaced by "The GCM-Oriented CALIPSO Cloud Product (GOCCP)-OPAQ (GOCCP v3.0; Guzman et al., 2017) has 40 vertical levels with 480 m vertical resolution. Every CALIOP single shot profile — including multi-layer profiles — is classified into one of three types".

Line 171 : in the vast majority of CALIPSO literature (including Garnier et al., 2015, which is cited here), the symbol for optical depth is τ . δ is used for depolarization ratios.

- **Response:** We agree with the reviewer.
- Change made:
 - \succ <u>Throughout the paper</u>: " δ " has been replaced by " τ ".

Lines 378–383 : here and elsewhere, I find the authors' notation to be very complex and cumbersome, which makes the text difficult to read and hard to understand.

Response: We agree with the reviewer that our notation can be sometimes cumbersome. However, we
choose this very explicit notation in order to avoid misleading interpretation as, throughout the paper,
calculations are made at different spatial resolution (lidar single shot, CERES footprint, and gridded).

Lines 530-531 : to my eye, the midlatitude emissivities are not "mostly centered around 0.25"

- Response: We agree with the reviewer that this statement is not very accurate and has been removed.
- Change made:

> In Sect. 6.3 (3^{rd} §): "Given that $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ is mostly centered around 0.25 (Fig. 4d) it should not bring a substantial error, and" has been replaced by "However,".

Line 554 : according to my (admittedly limited) understanding of the way the GOCCP cloud detection scheme works, a more realistic assessment would have been obtained by using on bin lower rather than one bin higher.

- **Response:** We choose to take one bin higher for the sensitivity test on Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} in order to be able to apply this in the same way for every opaque cloud profile. Indeed, a non-negligible amount of opaque cloud profiles have their Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} at the lowest GOCCP level (240 m above sea level), and taking the equivalent of a bin lower would have given negative opacity altitudes (–240 m). This problem is avoided taking one bin higher instead and the sensitivity test should not be sensitive to this choice since the relation between OLR_{Opaque}^{\dagger} and T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} is linear.
- Change made:
 - > In Sect. 6.5 (first §): "(as moving Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} one bin down would have led to negative values for some Z_{opaque}^{\dagger})" has been added.

Lines 641–642 : the suggestion that "the laser beam is not able go through the entire cloud if its vertical geometrical thickness is greater than 5 km" is demonstrably false. For example, see

https://www-calipso.larc.nasa.gov/products/lidar/browse_images/show_detail.php?s=production&v=V4-10&browse_date=2010-01-01&orbit_time=12-47-14&page=3&granule_name=CAL_LID_L1-Standard-V4-10.2010-01-01T12-47-14ZN.hdf

The region between ~1.6° S and ~5.4° S contains numerous examples of transparent cirrus that are more than 6 km thick.

- **Response:** We agree with the reviewer.
- Change made:
 - In <u>Appendix B (2nd §)</u>: "[...] the laser beam is not able go through the entire cloud if its vertical geometrical thickness is greater than 5 km [...]" has been removed.

Point-by-point response to the reviews

Anonymous Referee #2

In this paper the authors devise a technique for relating – with a fairly high amount of accuracy – outgoing long wave radiation (OLR) at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) to several quantities that can be acquired from spaceborne lidar (i.e., CALIOP on board Calipso). These quantities are the the radiative temperature and spatial coverage of opaque clouds and the radiative temperature, spatial coverage, and LW emissivity of thin clouds. Opaque clouds are defined as those for which the lidar beam becomes fully attenuated within the cloud, and typically have LW optical depths exceeding 1.5-2.5. Thin clouds, with LW optical depths less than this threshold, are semi-transparent and do not fully attenuate the lidar beam. The authors derive a simple semi-empirical relationship in which OLR increases by 2 W/m2 for every 1 K increase in opaque cloud radiating temperature. For thin clouds, this 2:1 relationship is scaled by the cloud LW emissivity. OLR inferred from the lidar-derived quantities compares well with that measured directly by CERES, at a variety of spatial scales.

I found the technique described in the paper to be a clever use of the unique measurements provided by active sensors in space. Despite the presence of errors (notably for thin clouds), the OLR can be largely reproduced from 5 basic measurements, which makes it a powerful tool for relating cloud property changes to OLR. I recommend publication pending revisions based on the my concerns that are detailed below.

Major Comments:

1) My main concern with this work is that the authors may be slightly overstating the value of such an analysis, especially in regard to how it is contrasted with passive sensors. Passive sensors are rightfully criticized for often giving incorrect information about cloud vertical distribution, which active sensors retrieve with much higher accuracy. However, passive sensors are (essentially) directly retrieving the quantity that the authors need to derive here: the emission temperature of clouds. Passive retrievals may not place the cloud top at the correct physical altitude like a lidar does, but they do place it at the effective radiating temperature, which is what matters for the OLR and any TOA LW anomalies. This is basically what makes studies that relate TOA radiation to passive-derived cloud fraction histograms like Hartmann et al. (1992), Zelinka et al DOI: 10.1175/JCLI-D-11-00248.1 (2012) and Yue et al DOI: 10.1175/JCLI-D-15-0257.1, (2016) possible. The authors are sort of reverse- engineering this problem: They have highly accurate measurements of backscatter by cloud particles as a function of altitude, which they then use in a clever way to derive the effective radiating temperature, which is what you would already have if you started with passive measurements. It is not obvious to me that this is superior. I think the paper requires a clear discussion of how they both could complement each other. Simply asserting that active sensors retrieve the vertical profile of condensate more accurately is not compelling in this particular context.

- **Response:** We agree with the reviewer that a clear discussion of why one would prefer this technique over one relying on passive measurements is required. Thank you for your comment.
- Change made:
 - In Sect. 3.1 (last §): "These cloud radiative temperatures are fundamental to study the LW CRE and are different from the effective radiating temperatures measured by passive instruments which are influenced by radiation coming from below the cloud. In the case of Opaque cloud which completely absorbs upward LW radiative flux propagating from below, the effective radiating temperature measured by passive instruments should agree with the cloud radiative temperature. However, this assumes to know that the cloud is Opaque, but cloud emissivity from passive measurements is also sensitive to hypothesis made on the clear sky and surface property. Unlike passive measurements, lidar measurements robustly separate Opaque clouds and Thin clouds from the presence or not of a surface echo (Guzman et al., 2017)." has been added.

One advantage I can think of relative to existing kernel techniques is that it does indeed seem desirable to have a small set of measurements that one can get both from observations (Calipso) and models (albeit, those running the Calipso simulator) that can give a highly accurate proxy for OLR, in keeping with the analogy to APRP in the SW. This is in contrast to relying on 7x7 histogram of cloud types from ISCCP and a kernel to match.

- **Response:** Thank you for this comment.
- Change made:
 - In <u>Introduction (8th §)</u>: "We propose to build on these studies by adding the space-borne lidar information." has been replaced by "We propose to build on these studies by adding spaceborne lidar information to obtain a simplified radiative transfer model in the LW domain that can give a highly

accurate proxy for OLR with a small set of parameters available from both observations (space-lidar) and models (space-lidar simulator). This approach is in contrast to reliance on 7×7 histograms (altitude×optical depth) of cloud types from ISCCP and use of a matching radiative kernel.".

Perhaps another advantage has to do with the more practical issue of observing cloud changes over a long period of time. Few people trust ISCCP trends because of various issues that arise with splicing many individual satellites together that are poorly inter-calibrated and have non-climate related trends from satellite orbit changes, view angle changes, etc. (Norris and Evan DOI: 10.1175/JTECH-D-14-00058.1 2015). Presumably some of these issues are less relevant for lidars? If so, it would be important to distinguish these sorts of problems from those arising from the retrieval philosophy (e.g., if ISCCP was a perfect system without any artifacts, would the active approach still be superior?)

- **Response:** Thank you for this comment.
- Change made:
 - In <u>Introduction (8th §)</u>: "Moreover, a highly stable long-time observational record is essential to study clouds and climate feedback (Wielicki et al., 2013), and current passive instruments have shown limited calibration stability over decadal time scales (e.g. Evan et al., 2007; Norris and Evan, 2015; Shea et al., 2017)." has been added.

2) On lines 362-365, the authors state "Monitoring T_Opaque on longterm should provide important information which should help to better understand the LW cloud feedback mechanism. Moreover, because the relationship is linear, it simplifies the derivatives in mathematical expressions of feedback and will allow to construct a useful framework to study LW cloud feedback in simulations of climate models." Feedbacks are conventionally defined as the change in a given quantity holding all else fixed. In the case of altitude feedback, this would be the change in cloud altitude only, with everything including the temperature profile fixed. Mathematically, this is equivalent to comparing a control OLR with a hypothetical one computed with the cloud at a higher altitude and therefore at a lower emission temperature. Of course we know that in reality the cloud top temperature is expected to stay nearly constant with surface warming as the cloud top altitude rises with the isotherms (i.e., FAT hypothesis of Hartmann and Larson 2002). Changes in T_Opaque will depend on both the change in cloud altitude and the change in temperature profile, and constant T_Opaque may mean perfectly complementary changes in both the altitude and the temperature profile, as one expects from FAT. If one uses your relationship between OLR and T_Opaque in computing feedbacks, then the mathematical formulation of the feedbacks will need to be changed to accommodate this. Specifically, I think one would need to compare the fixed T_Opqaue (FAT) case against a hypothetical baseline situation in which all things change except for the Z_Opaque, such that T_Opaque warms as much as a fixed altitude. While this is do-able, I disagree with the statement above that this simplifies the mathematics of feedbacks.

- Response: We agree with the reviewer that it does not simplify the mathematics of feedbacks as the equation is currently as a function of *T_{Opaque}*. We will adapt this equation for a future study using climate model outputs with lidar simulator so that the equation will be as a function of the altitude of *T_{Opaque}* (*Z_{TOpaque}*) considering a linear atmospheric temperature lapse rate. In that way, a change in *Z_{TOpaque}*, holding all else fixed, changes *CRE_{Opaque}* by a quantity which, divided by the global mean raise in surface temperature, is directly the cloud altitude feedback. This will so simplify the mathematics of feedbacks.
- Change made:
 - In <u>Sect. 4.2 (2nd §)</u>: "Moreover, because the relationship is linear, it simplifies the derivatives in mathematical expressions of feedback and will allow to construct a useful framework to study LW cloud feedback in simulations of climate models." has been removed.

3) The English is very poor throughout the manuscript. There were far too many errors for me to list all of them (grammar, spelling, awkward phrasings, words that are plural that should not be, incorrect comma usage, etc.). In some places the writing was poor enough that the meaning of the sentence was unclear. This paper should be copyedited by a native English speaker before the reviewers see it again. In contrast, the figures were very clear, well-designed, and well-executed.

Response: A native English speaker copy-edited the paper.

Minor Comments: In addition to the numerous English errors, I note the following:

Title: I would suggest deleting "the" before Outgoing and also rephrasing to "...where a space borne-lidar..."

Change made:

<u>Title</u>: "Link between the Outgoing Longwave Radiation and the altitude where the space-borne lidar beam is fully attenuated" has been replaced by "The link between Outgoing Longwave Radiation and the altitude where a spaceborne lidar beam is fully attenuated ".

Throughout: "cloud altitude longwave" seems awkward. Please rephrase to "longwave cloud altitude"

- Change made:
 - > Throughout the paper: "cloud altitude longwave" has been replaced by "longwave cloud altitude".

Abstract: This ends very abruptly. It needs a better closing sentence.

- Change made:
 - In <u>Abstract</u>: "The link between outgoing longwave radiation and the altitude where a spaceborne lidar beam is fully attenuated provides a simple formulation of the cloud radiative effect in the longwave domain and so helps to understand the longwave cloud altitude feedback mechanism." has been put as closing sentence.

Lines 29-34: An uninformed reader of this paragraph will assume that the only reason there is uncertainty in how clouds will respond to warming is because models simulate biased clouds in the mean state. Surely this is not the only reason for low confidence in cloud feedbacks. There are a variety of recent review articles out on cloud feedbacks that may be helpful on this point.

- Response: We agree with the reviewer. Thank you for this comment.
- Change made:
- In Introduction (1st §): "One reason for this uncertainty is that [...]" has been added.

Lines 52-54: This statement needs to be rephrased. Emergent constraints are not feedback mechanisms.

- Response: We agree with the reviewer.
- Change made:
 - In Introduction (3rd §): "Such records do not exist yet. Klein and Hall (2015) suggested that some cloud feedback mechanisms, namely the "emergent constraints", could be tested with shorter records in comparing the simulated and the observed current climate interannual variabilities" has been replaced by "Such records do not exist yet, but existing records might help our understanding (Klein and Hall, 2015)."

Lines 64-65: I disagree that there is no link between observed cloud variables and LW CRE. See, for example, the section on LW cloud altitude feedback in Ceppi et al doi: 10.1002/wcc.465 (2017), which points out that high cloud amount and emissivity, along with the temperature structure of the upper troposphere, govern the strength of this feedback. All of these are observable.

- Response: We wanted to focus on the fact that, so far, there was no simple mathematical expression to directly link, at different scales, cloud properties to OLR.
- Change made:
 - In Introduction (4th §): "Nevertheless, the cloud altitude LW feedback mechanism and its amplitude still struggle to be verified in observations. There is still no observational confirmation for the altitude LW cloud feedback mechanism because 1) there is no simple direct and robust formulation linking the observed fundamental cloud variables and the LW CRE at the TOA [...]" has been replaced by "Nevertheless, the LW cloud altitude feedback mechanism and its magnitude still remain to be confidently verified with observations, because 1) there is no simple, robust, and comprehensive mathematical formulation linking the observed fundamental cloud variables and the LW CRE at the TOA [...]".

Lines 85-87: Cloud fraction histograms from passive sensors generally report cloud fraction on 7 cloud top pressure bins; the high, mid, and low aggregating is usually done later to simplify.

- Response: We agree with the reviewer.
- Change made:
 - In Introduction (7th §): "[...] and only retrieve the cloud top pressure and estimates of high-level, midlevel, and low-level cloud covers. These last estimates have been coupled with ranges of cloud optical depth to define different cloud types (Hartmann et al., 1992) associated to different values of CRE." has been replaced by "[...] and instead retrieve single-layer effective cloud heights, often summarized as cloud fraction in seven cloud top pressure bins. Hartmann et al. (1992) used these pressure bins

coupled with ranges of cloud optical depth to define different cloud types associated to different values of CRE.".

Lines 88-89: Suggest also citing Zhou et al DOI: 10.1175/JCLI-D-12-00547.1 (2013) and Yue et al 10.1002/2016JD025174 (2017), who have done this globally

- **Response:** Thank you for this suggestion.
- Change made:
 - > In Introduction (7th §): "Zhou et al., 2013" and "Yue et al., 2017" have been added.

Lines 90-91: These studies should be more clearly distinguished from the ones preceding it in the sentence: they have focused on trends, not interannual variability.

- **Response:** We agree with the reviewer.
- Change made:
 - In Introduction (7th §): "[...], as well as the International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP) and the Pathfinder Atmospheres Extended (PATMOS-x) (Marvel et al., 2015; Norris et al., 2016) in order to identify LW CRE changes associated to cloud properties changes." has been replaced by "[...]. Recently, Marvel et al. (2015) and Norris et al. (2016) analyzed data from the International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP) and the Pathfinder Atmospheres Extended (PATMOS-x) datasets in terms of these cloud types to search for trends in LW CRE which would be associated with changes in cloud properties.".

Line 97: Mace et al (2011) DOI: 10.1175/2010JCLI3517.1 should be cited here

- **Response:** We agree with the reviewer.
- Change made:
 - ▶ In Introduction (8th §): "Mace et al., 2011" has been added.

Lines 168-170: I can't understand this. Please rephrase.

- Change made:
 - In Sect. 2.1 (3^{rd} §): "Thin cloud emissivity $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ of a *Thin cloud single column* is inferred from the mean attenuated scattering ratio of levels flagged as "Clear" below the cloud, that we note $\langle SR' \rangle_{below}$ and which approximately corresponds to the apparent two-way transmittance through the cloud. Indeed, considering a fixed multiple scattering factor $\eta = 0.6$, we retrieve the Thin cloud visible optical depth δ_{Thin}^{VIS} (Garnier et al., 2015)." has been replaced by "Thin cloud emissivity $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ of a *Thin cloud single column* is inferred from the attenuated scattering ratio of clear sky layers measured by the lidar below the cloud. This is approximately equal to the apparent two-way transmittance through the cloud which, considering a fixed multiple scattering factor $\eta = 0.6$, allows retrieval of the Thin cloud visible optical depth τ_{Thin}^{VIS} (Garnier et al., 2015). As cloud particles are much larger than the wavelengths of visible and infrared light, and assuming there is no absorption by cloud particles in the visible domain, the Thin cloud LW optical depth τ_{Thin}^{UIS} is approximately half of τ_{Thin}^{VIS} (Garnier et al., 2015)."

Line 183: should be "sea ice"

In Sect. 2.1 (last §): "iced sea" has been replaced by "sea ice".

Line 185: Should be "Flux observations collocated with lidar cloud observations"

- Change made:
 - In Sect. 2.2 (title): "Fluxes observations collocated with lidar clouds observations" has been replaced by "Flux observations collocated with lidar cloud observations".

Line 216: Should "as" be "that"?

- **Response:** Yes, indeed. Thank you.
 - Change made:
 - In Sect. 3 (1st §): "such as" has been replaced by "such that".

Figure 4: Is it possible to compare these cloud emission temperatures with those from passive sensors? They should be in agreement, right?

Change made:

Response: Passive sensors do not allow a clear separation of Opaque clouds and Thin clouds as done with the lidar. Moreover, it does not find the same cloud occurrence. Cloud emissivity retrieval depends on hypothesis on clear sky and surface properties. Comparison with classical product derived from passive sensor is not obvious. An equivalent comparison was done by Stubenrauch et al. (2010) with collocated measurements from CALIOP and the passive sounder AIRS: they compared the height of the cloud emission temperatures determined by AIRS with the "apparent middle" of the cloud sounded by CALIOP, which is actually our definition of where the emission temperature of the cloud is. They show very good agreement.

Line 273: "T_opaque among opaque clouds" is redundant. This sort of statement occurs throughout the document.

- **Response:** We agree this precision makes the reading difficult.
- Change made:
 - Throughout the paper: "among Opaque clouds" and "among Thin clouds" have been removed from the main text but left into <u>figure captions</u> and the 1st § of Sect. 3.2 to avoid misunderstanding.

Line 282: meaning of "mid-effect" is unclear

- Change made:
 - In Sect. 3.2 (2nd §): "These Opaque clouds will have a mid-effect on the local OLR," has been replaced by "The local radiative effect of these Opaque clouds is weaker than the effect if they were in tropical ascending regions.".

Line 288: "pick" should be "peak"

- Response: Thank you.
- Change made:
 - In Sect. 3.2 (3rd §): "pick" has been replaced by "peak".

Line 303: rephrase

- Change made:
 - In Sect. 3.2 (last §): "[...] emissivities of Thin clouds are usually small, and clouds with small emissivities have less impact on the OLR. This, once again, goes in the sense that the role that play Thin clouds on the total CRE should be significantly smaller than that of Opaque clouds." has been replaced by "[...] emissivities of Thin clouds are usually small, so they have little impact on the OLR and hence their contribution to CRE should be significantly smaller than that of Opaque clouds.".

Lines 422-423: Rephrase.

- Change made:
 - In Sect. 5.2 (1st §): "Interestingly, an inversion of cover predominance and colder temperature between Opaque and Thin clouds occurs around 30° latitude. " has been replaced by "There are always more Opaque clouds than Thin clouds in the extratropics (beyond 30° latitude) and they are colder than the Thin clouds. It is the opposite in the tropical belt: there are always more Thin clouds than Opaque clouds, and those are slightly warmer.".

Figure 8: Is the shading 2-sigma? Max to min?

- Change made:
- In figure caption of Fig. 8: "(max to min)" has been added.
- Additional change:
 - Fig. 8 has been redrawn because an error in our script was discovered. During computation of annual means of T_{Opaque} , T_{Thin} , and ε_{Thin} on 2°x2° boxes (before averaging zonally), means were not weighted by monthly mean cover, on 2°x2° boxes, of opaque and thin clouds. It is now fixed. Changes are quite small and do not affect the conclusions.

Line 433: "under the tropics" - rephrase

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    Change made:
    In Sect. 5.2 (2<sup>nd</sup> §): "under the tropics" has been replaced by "in the tropics".
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Line 453: I don't know what this statement means.

Response: .

- Change made:
 - > In Sect. 5.2 (last §): "Also, since the expression used for Thin clouds seems to give coherent results for CRE_{Thin}^{\oplus} , it could also be used in a future work to quantify the role of a change in C_{Thin}^{\oplus} , T_{Thin}^{\oplus} , and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\oplus}$ in the variations of CRE_{Thin}^{\oplus} ." has been replaced by "However, since the OLR expression above Thin clouds is almost as good as for the Opaque clouds, it could also be used in a future work to quantify the impact of changes in C_{Thin}^{\oplus} , T_{Thin}^{\oplus} , and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\oplus}$ on the variations of CRE_{Thin}^{\oplus} ."

Lines 488-493: The authors seem to be implying that omega is the only variable on which the cloud properties and CRE depend, and that therefore knowing how omega change will tell one how cloud properties and CRE will change. This is incorrect, as has been discussed many times over, most notably by Bony et al DOI 10.1007/s00382-003- 0369-6 (2004) where this type of analysis originally appeared. While omega changes may strongly determine regional changes in cloud properties, when averaged over the entire tropics, it is the thermodynamic sensitivity of cloud propertiesÂa within omega bins that emerges as the dominant driver of cloud changes.

- **Response:** We agree with the reviewer.
- Change made:
 - In Sect. 5.3 (last §): "Because cloud properties seem to be invariants for dynamical regimes, a change in the tropics of the large-scale circulation should provide a change in the CRE predictable and linked to the spatial distribution (both covers and altitudes) of Opaque clouds and Thin clouds sounded by CALIOP. For example, under global warming, climate models suggest a narrowing of the ascending branch of the Hadley cell (e.g. Su et al., 2014), which means less convective regions and more subsiding regions and which should result in a decrease of the CRE predictable knowing the changes of ω_{500} all over the tropics." has been replaced by "Because cloud properties seem to be invariants for dynamical regimes between 20 hPa·day⁻¹ and -100 hPa·day⁻¹, a change in the tropics of the largescale circulation should lead to a predictable change in the CRE in regions that stay in this range of dynamical regimes, linked to the spatial distribution (both covers and altitudes) of Opaque clouds and Thin clouds sounded by CALIOP. For example, general circulation models suggest that a warmer climate will see a narrowing of the ascending branch of the Hadley cell (e.g. Su et al., 2014), which means less convective regions and more subsiding regions. This should result in a predictable decrease of the CRE, knowing the changes of ω_{500} for some part of the tropics."

Section 6.1: It is unclear whether this is actually an error source. The authors raise the issue then immediately downplay it. Is it a source of error? Have you actually performed a sensitivity study to determine with these assumptions matter?

- Response: It is a source of error. The worst case for this is the multi-layer scenario when an optically thin cloud overlap an optically opaque cloud. This is now discussed in the new subsection 6.2. We could certainly have slightly more precise results using a centroid temperature for every case but it will add complexity to our expressions. However, the aim of our study is to find a simple expression of the CRE by determining its main cloud variable driver, not to reach the maximum of accuracy in CRE estimation.
- Change made:
 - > In Sect. 6: Sect. 6.2 Multi-layer cloud and broken cloud situations has been added.
 - ➢ In <u>Appendix</u>:
 - Fig. A4 has been added. It shows the decomposition of Fig. 6 in "single-layer cloud" and "multi-layer cloud" situations. The main text refers to Fig. A4 in <u>Sect. 6.2</u>.
 - Fig. A5 has been added. It shows improvement on OLR_{Opaque} when considering multi-layer cloud in the computation of T_{Opaque} . The main text refers to Fig. A5 in Sect. 6.2.

Section 6.4: the impacts of these assumptions are being assessed on the global mean OLR, but I wonder whether they also influence the slope of OLR on T_Opaque.

 Response: As Z_{Opaque} is increased in every profile with the same amount (+480 m), and because atmospheric temperature profile is linearly dependent on the altitude, the slope of OLR_{Opaque} on T_{Opaque} is not influenced.

Point-by-point response to the reviews

Anonymous Referee #3

General

The authors present a methodology to estimate the outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) at the global scale from cloud products derived with the help of long-term space-borne measurements with the lidar CALIOP onboard CALIPSO. The major information comes from the opacity altitude of the atmosphere, i.e. the altitude at which the laser beam is fully attenuated due to clouds, and the geometrical cloud top height, which together allow the estimation of the radiative temperature of the cloud. It is shown that the latter one is linearly related to the OLR. Non-opaque (thin) clouds are treated in terms of top and base heights together with their emissivity, which is estimated from the lidar attenuated scattering ratio below the cloud under consideration of a constant multiple-scattering factor. For opaque clouds, a very good correlation between the derived OLR and the one measured by CERES is found, whereas a systematic deviation is seen for thin clouds. Despite some possible explanations the reason for the deviation in the case of thin clouds does not finally become clear.

In general, the paper presents an interesting approach to study longwave radiation effects of clouds at the global scale. The paper deserves publication, but has the potential to be improved both in terms of scientific contents as well as style of presentation. I recommend publication after consideration of the comments below.

Major

My major concerns are related to the rather simplified approach of using only two cloud scenarios, namely singlelayer thin and opaque clouds. I would at least expect an extended sensitivity study regarding more realistic scenes in the very beginning. Justifying the approach before the presentation and discussion of results would be much more satisfying for the reader than the currently provided discussion of limitations in Sec. 6 (where several questions are tackled which the reader has already in mind when reading the major part of the paper). In particular, the following cases need to be considered in the evaluation and discussion of obtained results throughout the paper, starting already in Sec. 2.1 and Fig. 1.

Response:

- We agree with the reviewer that the proposed cases need to be discussed. We have dedicated a subsection in Sect. 6 for this. Specifications are given below.
- We first tried to discuss all these aspects throughout the paper. However, this approach drowns the main message of the paper in digression. This is why we have decided to summarize them in Sect. 6.
- Change made:
 - > In <u>Sect. 6</u>: Sect. 6.2 Multi-layer cloud and broken cloud situations has been added.

1) Multi-layer clouds: The discussion related to multi-layer clouds is not sufficient. The authors have added a very short paragraph in Sec. 2.1 (lines 176-179) during the technical revision of the paper. However, this explanation deals with thin clouds only. The more common feature is the appearance of thin, high cirrus clouds over mid-level or low-level opaque clouds. It is well known that retrievals from passive sensors locate the radiative cloud top height (or radiative temperature) in between the cloud layers in such cases, and that the location will depend on the optical thickness of the upper "thin" cloud. This fact is obviously not covered by the presented approach, since it considers only the geometrical properties of cloud top height and opacity altitude for the calculation of the radiative temperature. Although some discussion is provided in Sec. 6.2, no substantial investigation of the related consequences for the approach is given.

- **Response:** Thank you for this comment. An extensive investigation of multi-layer clouds is now given in Sect. 6.2.
- Change made:
 - In <u>Appendix</u>:
 - Fig. A4 has been added. It shows the decomposition of Fig. 6 in "single-layer cloud" and "multilayer cloud" situations. The main text refers to Fig. A4 in Sect. 6.2 (1st §).
 - Fig. A5 has been added. It shows improvement on OLR_{opaque} when considering multi-layer cloud in the computation of T_{opaque} . The main text refers to Fig. A5 in Sect. 6.2 (1st §).

2) Broken clouds: The authors find a high amount of "thin clouds" in the lower troposphere at temperatures above $0 \circ C$, i.e. liquid clouds (Fig. 4). Usually, liquid clouds are not penetrated by lidar, even if they are geometrically thin (thickness of a few hundred meters). Those occasions of "thin clouds" might often be related to broken opaque

clouds partly hit and partly missed by the lidar beam, thus leading to signals from the cloud and from the atmosphere and surface below the cloud in the same profile, so that the cloud appears to be transparent. The effect may be due to broken clouds within a single laser footprint, but can also result from averaging of laser shots over cloudy and clear atmospheric volumes before further retrievals are applied. From the description in Sec. 2.1, it does not become clear how averaging of lidar profiles is done, what exactly is meant with "each atmospheric single column" (line 127), which basic products (single shot, 1-km averages, 5-km averages) are used, and how the averaging to the $2^{\circ}x2^{\circ}$ grid is performed. It should be studied which differences in the results are expected when sub-scale broken opaque clouds instead of thin clouds appear. It would be interesting to see whether the worse correlation between calculated and measured OLR found for thin clouds could be explained in this way. In this context, also the discussion in Sec. 6.2 is insufficient.

- Response: We agree with the reviewer that broken opaque clouds can be classified as thin clouds. However, in the GOCCP product, we do not average lidar profiles horizontally, so we only use single shot (90 m diameter footprint), which minimize this misclassification. Moreover, we plotted same as Fig. 6b only for Thin clouds with T_{Thin} > 0 °C (see Fig. A6): it shows excellent agreement between observed and lidarderived OLR, and so does not explain the worse correlation between calculated and measured OLR as these clouds show excellent agreement.
- Change made:
 - In Sect. 2.1 (1st §): "The GCM-Oriented CALIPSO Cloud Product (GOCCP)-OPAQ (GOCCP v3.0; Guzman et al., 2017) segregates each atmospheric single column sounded by the CALIOP lidar as one of the 3 following single column types" has been replaced by "The GCM-Oriented CALIPSO Cloud Product (GOCCP)-OPAQ (GOCCP v3.0; Guzman et al., 2017) has 40 vertical levels with 480 m vertical resolution. Every CALIOP single shot profile — including multi-layer profiles — is classified into one of three types".
 - ➢ In <u>Appendix</u>:
 - Fig. A6 has been added. It shows Fig. 6b but only with $T_{Thin}^{\oslash} > 0 \,^{\circ}C$. The main text refers to Fig. A6 in Sect. 6.2 (2^{nd} §).

Minor

Abstract: The abstract doesn't say anything about the retrievals for thin clouds.

- Change made:
 - In <u>Abstract</u>: "Similarly, the longwave cloud radiative effect of optically thin clouds can be derived from their top and base altitudes and an estimate of their emissivity." has been added.

Line 185, should be: "Flux observations collocated with lidar cloud observations"

- Change made:
 - In Sect. 2.2 (title): "Fluxes observations collocated with lidar clouds observations" has been replaced by "Flux observations collocated with lidar cloud observations".

Line 290, regarding the "second mode": What does "more diffuse" mean? What about altocumulus, altostratus clouds?

- Response: We agree the reviewer it could also be due to altocumulus or altostratus clouds.
- Change made:
 - In Sect. 3.2 (3rd §): "The second mode could be due to more diffuse or developing convective clouds." has been replaced by "The middle mode, near 5 km, might be due to developing convective clouds or middle altitude clouds.".

Line 300, "cloud emissivity of the cloud": correct to either "cloud emissivity" or "emissivity of the cloud".

- Response: Thank you.
- Change made:
 - > In Sect. 3.2 (last §): "cloud emissivity of the cloud" has been replaced by "cloud emissivity".

Lines 331-332, "in spite of significant differences in the atmospheric temperature and humidity profiles": What does "significant" mean? How are these differences considered/validated in the calculations?

- **Response:** The sentence was indeed not very clear, it has been modified.
- Change made:

> In Sect. 4.1 (2^{nd} §): "Linear regressions done on other regions with different atmospheric conditions give a similar coefficient. This means that, in spite of the significant differences in the atmospheric temperature and humidity profiles, OLR_{opaque}^{\dagger} depends essentially only on T_{opaque}^{\dagger} ." has been replaced by "Conducting the same linear regression on very different atmospheric conditions (from tropical to polar) gives similar coefficients. This means that OLR_{opaque}^{\dagger} depends mainly on T_{opaque}^{\dagger} ."

Line 372, "The evaluation . . . is only using observation from January 2008": This explanation should be given in the beginning of the discussion of Fig. 6.

- Response: .
- Change made:
 - In Sect. 4.2 (2nd §): "Figure 6 compares lidar-derived and observed OLR during January 2008." has been added.
 - In Sect. 4.2 (last §): "The evaluation showed in Fig. 6 is only using observation from January 2008." has been removed.

Lines 405-415: Explain the units to be applied in the equations.

- Change made:
 - > In Sect. 5.1: "[...] where $CRE_{Opaque}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ and OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} are expressed in W·m-2 and T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} in K." and "[...] where $CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ and OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} are expressed in W·m-2 and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} in K." have been added after Eqs. (7) and (8).

Lines 556 and 561, "decreases...from...", "reduces...from...": The meaning of the sentences with the word "from" is unclear.

Change made:
 In <u>Sect. 6.4</u>: "from" has been replaced by "by".

There a many language/grammar/punctuation errors, which cannot be listed in detail here. The manuscript needs careful copy editing.

Response: A native English speaker copy-edited the paper.

<u>The Llink between the Outgoing Longwave Radiation and the</u> altitude where the <u>a</u> space-borne lidar beam is fully attenuated

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12 Abstract. According to climate models² simulations, the changing eloud-altitude of mid and high clouds ehange-is the 13 dominant contributor of to the positive ensemble global mean longwave cloud feedback. Nevertheless, the mechanism of this 14 cloud altitude longwave cloud altitude feedback mechanism and its amplitude magnitude struggle have not yet to be been 15 verified in-by observations. An accurate, stable-in-time, and potentially-long-term observations of a eloud property 16 summarizing metric characterizing the cloud vertical distribution and driving related to the longwave cloud radiative effect is 17 needed to hope to achieve a better understanding of the mechanism of eloud altitude longwave cloud altitude feedback 18 mechanism. This study proposes shows the that direct lidar measurement of the altitude of atmosphere atmospheric lidar 19 opacity altitude-is a good candidate to derive for the needed-necessary observed-observational eloud property metric. The 20 opacityis altitude is the level at which a space-borne lidar beam is fully attenuated when probing an optically opaque cloud. 21 By combining this altitude with the direct lidar measurement of the cloud top altitude, we derive the effective radiative 22 temperature of opaque clouds that which linearly drives; (as we will show); the outgoing longwave radiation. This linear 23 relationship provides a simple formulation of the cloud radiative effect in the longwave domain for opaque clouds and so, helps to understand the cloud altitude longwave feedback mechanism. We find that, in presence offor an opaque cloud, a 24 cloud temperature change of 1 K modifies its cloud radiative effect by 2 W·m⁻². Similarly, the longwave cloud radiative 25 effect of optically thin clouds can be derived from their top and base altitudes and an estimate of their emissivity. We show 26 27 with radiative transfer simulations that this linear these relationships holds true at single atmospheric column scale-with radiative transfer simulations, at the instantaneous radiometer footprint scale of the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy 28 System (CERES) instantaneous footprint, and at monthly mean 2°×2° gridded scale. Opaque clouds cover 35 % of the ice-29 30 free ocean and contribute to 73 % of the global mean cloud radiative effect. Thin clouds coverage is 36 % and contributes to 27% of the global mean cloud radiative effect. This linear relationship The link between outgoing longwave radiation and 31 32 the altitude where a spaceborne lidar beam is fully attenuated providess a simple formulation of the cloud radiative effect in 33 the longwave domain for opaque clouds and so, helps to understand the longwave cloud altitude longwave feedback 34 mechanism.

36 1 Introduction

Cloud feedbacks mechanisms remain reamin the main source of uncertainty for currentin predictions of the climate sensitivity (e.g. Dufresne and Bony, 2008; Vial et al., 2013; Webb et al., 2013; Caldwell et al., 2016). One reason for this uncertainty is that cclouds simulated by climate models in the current climate, exhibit large biases compared to observations (e.g. Zhang et al., 2005; Haynes et al., 2007; Chepfer et al., 2008; Williams and Webb, 2009; Marchand and Ackerman, 2010; Cesana and Chepfer, 2012; Kay et al., 2012; Nam et al., 2012; Cesana and Chepfer, 2013; Klein et al., 2013), leading leading to low confidence in the cloud feedbacks predicted by elimate-the models.

43 In order tTo understand the feedback mechanisms, it is useful to identify the fundamental variables that driveing the 44 climate radiative response, and then to decompose the overall radiative response as the sum of the individual radiative 45 responses due to changes in each of these variables. This classical feedback analysis has been largely frequently applied to 46 outputs from numerical climate system simulations in order to estimate the effects of changes in water vapor, temperature 47 lapse rate, clouds and surface albedo on the overall climate radiative response (e.g. Cess et al., 1990; Le Treut et al., 1994; 48 Watterson et al., 1999; Colman, 2003; Bony et al., 2006; Bates, 2007; Soden et al., 2008; Boucher et al., 2013; Sherwood et 49 al., 2015; Rieger et al., 2016). Focusing only on the cloud feedback mechanisms, such approach (Zelinka et al., (2012a) and 50 others used this approach has been used to isolate the role of each of the fundamental cloud variables that contribute to the 51 cloud radiative response: the cloud cover, the cloud optical depth or condensed water phase (liquid and or ice), and the cloud 52 altitude (or cloud temperature). The shortwave (SW) cloud feedback is primarily driven by changes in the cloud cover and 53 the cloud optical depth, whereas the longwave (LW) cloud feedback is driven by changes in the cloud cover, the cloud 54 optical depth and the cloud vertical distribution (e.g. Klein and Jakob, 1999; Zelinka et al., 2012a, 2012b, 2013, 2016).

55 Using observations to ¥verifying the cloud feedback mechanisms that have been predicted by simulated in climate 56 models simulations using observations requires two steps: 1) First, establish a direct and robust link between the the 57 observed fundamental cloud variables and the the cloud radiative effect (CRE) at the top of the atmosphere (TOA); so that 58 any change in a the-fundamental cloud variables can be unambiguously translated within-related to a change in the CRE at 59 the TOA₇. 2) Second, establish an observational record of these cloud fundamental cloud variables that is long enough, stable 60 enough, and accurate enough to detect the cloud changes due to greenhouse gases forcing (Wielicki et al., 2013). Such records do not exist yet. Despite this last limitation, Klein and Hall (2015) suggested that some, but existing records might 61 62 help our understanding eloud feedback mechanisms(Klein and Hall, 2015), namely the "emergent constraints", could be tested with shorter records in comparing the simulated and the observed current climate interannual variabilities. 63

64 The current-is paper focuses on the LW cloud feedback. Current climate models consistently predict that the cloud altitude change is the dominant contributor to the LW cloud feedback (Zelinka et al., 2016) in agreement consistent with 65 many previous works-studies (e.g. Schneider, 1972; Cess, 1975; Hansen et al., 1984; Wetherald and Manabe, 1988; Cess et 66 67 al., 1996; Hartmann and Larson, 2002). If the While models agree on the sign and the physical mechanism of the LW cloud altitude feedback, they predict different amplitudes magnitude. Simulations from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 68 69 Phase 5 (CMIP5) elimate model simulations suggest that upper tropospheric the clouds altitude would ill rise up by 0.7 to 1.7 km, in the upper troposphere in all regions at all latitudes, in a warmer climate (+4 K)₅. This is a which is a significant 70 71 change compared to the currently observed variability and means cloud altitude, and thus, could be a more robustly 72 observable signature of climate change than the CRE (Chepfer et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the LW cloud altitude LW 73 feedback mechanism and its amplitude magnitude still struggle remain to be confidently verified inwith observations-, There 74 is still no observational confirmation for the altitude LW cloud feedback mechanism because 1) there is no simple, direct and 75 robust, and comprehensive mathematical formulation linking the observed fundamental cloud variables and the LW CRE at 76 the TOA and 2) there is are no sufficiently accurate and stable observations of the vertical distribution of clouds over several

77 decades.

78 Thus, aA preliminary step toward observational constraints-progress on the LW cloud feedback is-would be to 79 establish a direct and robust link between the LW CRE at the TOA and a small number of fundamental cloud properties that 80 can be both accurately observed and which can also be simulated in climate models. In the SW, Taylor et al. (2007) defined 81 such a simplified radiative transfer model by robustly expressing the SW CRE as a function of the cloud cover and the cloud 82 optical depth. This linear relationship has been largely-widely used for decomposing the SW cloud feedbacks into 83 contributions due to from changes in cloud cover change and optical depth-change. Contrary to Unlike the SW CRE, the LW 84 CRE does not only depend on the cloud cover and the cloud optical depth, but also depends on a third variable, the cloud 85 vertical distribution, in addition to cloud cover and optical depth. As stated in Taylor et al. (2007) and in the attempt made by 86 Yekohata et al. (2005), This makes establishing a simple radiative transfer model that robustly expresses the LW-CRE as a 87 function of a limited number of properties (which can be reliably observed and which can also be simulated in climate 88 models), is more challenging in the LW than in the SW, as Taylor et al. (2007) and Yokohata et al. (2005) recognized. 89 because the LW involves three variables instead of two: the cloud cover, the cloud optical depth and the cloud vertical 90 distribution.

91 Detailed information from active sensors has already been fed into comprehensive Complete radiative transfer 92 simulations allow to accurately compute the TOA and surface LW CRE for-in a-well-defined atmosphereic conditions (elear 93 sky and clouds): detailed information on the atmospheric columns collected by active sensors have been used to estimate 94 TOA CRE and surface CRE (e.g. Zhang et al., 2004; L'Ecuyer et al., 2008; Kato et al., 2011; Rose et al., 2013). In contrast, 95 the definition of Defining a simple and robust-linear formulation between linking the LW CRE at the TOA and to a limited 96 number of cloud variables, that would be more directly useful for decomposing elimate cloud climate feedbacks 97 decomposition. This formulation, however, cannot use-utilize the detailsed of the entire-cloud vertical distribution: first, one 98 needs to but must be summarize the entire cloud vertical profile within a fewbased on specific cloud levels that drives the 99 LW CRE at the TOA, and second, this. Further, these specific cloud levels need tomust be accurately observed observable at 100 global scale from satellites.

101 Most of the cloud climatologies derived from space observations rely on passive satellites, which do not retrieve the 102 actual detailed cloud vertical distribution, and only retrieve the cloud top pressure and estimates of high level, mid level, and 103 low-level cloud coversinstead retrieve single-layer effective cloud heights, often summarized as cloud fraction in seven 104 cloud top pressure bins. These last estimates have been Hartmann et al. (1992) used these pressure bins coupled with ranges 105 of cloud optical depth to define different cloud types (Hartmann et al., 1992) associated to different values of CRE. These 106 cloud types have been used to analyze the interannual cloud record collected by the Moderate Resolution Imaging 107 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) (e.g. Zelinka and Hartmann, 2011; Zhou et al., 2013; Yue et al., 2017).- Recently, Marvel et al. 108 (2015) and Norris et al. (2016) analyzed data from as well as the International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP) 109 and the Pathfinder Atmospheres Extended (PATMOS-x) datasets (Marvel et al., 2015; Norris et al., 2016) in terms of these 110 cloud types-order to identifysearch for trends in LW CRE changes which would be associated to-with changes in cloud 111 properties-changes.

112 Today, ten years of satellite-borne active sensor data collected by the Cloud-Aerosol LIdar with Orthogonal 113 Polarization (CALIOP) from the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations (CALIPSO; Winker et 114 al., 2010) and the Cloud Profiling Radar (CPR) from CloudSat (Stephens et al., 2002) are available to provide a detailed and 115 accurate view of cloud vertical distribution. But rRecently, Stephens et al. (submitted) used combined passive observations 116 and active sensors observations (2B-FLXHR-LIDAR product; Henderson et al., 2013) collected by the Cloud-Aerosol LIdar 117 with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP) from the Cloud Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations 118 (CALIPSO) and the Cloud Profiling Radar (CPR) from CloudSat (Stephens et al., 2002) to re-build similar-cloud types as 119 insimilar to Hartmann et al. (1992). Stephens et al (submitted) found differences in attribution of CRE to cloud type 120 compared to Hartmann et al. (1992)and Hartmann et al. (1992), largely due to ambiguities of passive cloud top height

121 retrievals in the presence of optically thin and multi-layer clouds found very different results because passive sensors cannot 122 retrieve reliable cloud altitude contrarily to active sensors (e.g. Sherwood et al., 2004; Holz et al., 2008; Mace et al., 2011; 123 Michele et al., 2013; Stubenrauch et al., 2013). Today, ten years of satellite borne active sensors data provide a detailed and 124 accurate view of the cloud vertical distribution, which Data from CALIOP and CloudSat can be used to build, for the first 125 time, a simplified radiative transfer model that robustly expresses the LW CRE as a function of the cloud cover, the optical 126 depth (or emissivity) and the cloud altitude, and that can be tested against observations. To do so, in thise current paper, we 127 summarize the entire cloud vertical profiles of clouds observed by active sensors with using three specific cloud levels that 128 drive the LW CRE at the TOA and that can be accurately observed by space-borne lidar: the cloud top altitude, the cloud 129 base altitude, and the altitude of opacity, at which where the laser beam gets lidar signal becomes fully attenuated when it 130 passes through within an Opaque cloud. This altitude of opacity together withand the Opaque cloud cover, are both observed 131 by space-borne lidar, and are strongly correlated to the LW CRE (Guzman et al., 2017) because emissions of-from layers 132 located below the altitude of opacity have little influence on the outgoing LW radiation (OLR). Previous studies 133 (Ramanathan, 1977; Wang et al., 2002), suggested that the link between the Opaque cloud temperature and the OLR is 134 linear, which would be mathematically very convenient for the study of cloud feedbacks (derivatives), but these studies are 135 limited to radiative transfer simulations only. We propose to build on these studies by adding the space-borne lidar 136 information to obtain a simplified radiative transfer model in the LW domain that can give a highly accurate proxy for OLR 137 with a small set of parameters available from both observations (space-lidar) and models (space-lidar simulator). This 138 approach is in contrast to reliance on 7×7 histograms (altitude×optical depth) of cloud types from ISCCP and use of a 139 matching radiative kernel. Moreover, a highly stable long-time observational record is essential to study clouds and climate 140 feedback (Wielicki et al., 2013), and current passive instruments have shown limited calibration stability over decadal time 141 scales (e.g. Evan et al., 2007; Norris and Evan, 2015; Shea et al., 2017). 142 In Section 2 we present the data and tools-methods used in this study. In Section 3 we define the radiative

143 temperatures of Opaque elouds and Thin clouds derived from combined lidar eloud altitude observations and reanalysis, and 144 present the observed distributions document them over the mid-latitudes region and the ascending and subsiding regime areas 145 in the tropics. In Section 4 we use radiative transfer simulations to establish a simple expression of the OLR as a function of 146 lidar cloud observations for Opaque cloud single columns, and for Thin cloud (non-opaque) single columns, using clear sky 147 data by adding from the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) clear sky satellite observations instrument. 148 Then, wWe verify this relationship using CERES and CALIPSO observations, first collocated against observations at the 149 instantaneous 20 km scale, using high spatial resolution collocated satellite borne broadband radiometer (CERES) and lidar 150 data (CALIPSO), and atthen monthly-mean-averaged on 2° latitude $\times 2^{\circ}$ longitude gridded scales. In Section 5 we estimate 151 the independent contributions to the LW CRE of optically Opaque clouds and optically Thin clouds-to the CRE. We then 152 focus on the Tropics and examine Opaque and Thin cloud CREs partitioned into regions of subsidence and deep 153 convectivione regions. Section 6 discusses the limits of the linear expression we propose, and concluding remarks are 154 summarized in Section 7.

2 Data and Tools<u>Method</u>

156	2.1 Opaque and Thin clouds observations by space-borne lidar
157	Eight years (2008-2015) of CALIPSO observations are used in this study. The GCM-Oriented CALIPSO Cloud
158	Product (GOCCP)-OPAQ (GOCCP v3.0; Guzman et al., 2017) has 40 vertical levels with 480 m vertical resolution.
159	segregates Every each atmospheric single column sounded by the CALIOP lidar single shot profile — including multi-layer
160	profiles — is classified as one of the 3 following single columninto one of three types (Fig. 1):
161	• The Clear sky single column (brown, center) is entirely free of clouds. In other words,: none of the 40 levels of
162	480 m vertical resolution composing the atmospheric single column is are flagged as "Cloud" (cloud detection
163	information in Chepfer et al., 2010).
164	• The Opaque cloud single column (orange, right) contains a cloud into which the laser beam of the lidar ends-is fully
165	attenuated, at an altitude termed Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} . Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} (as well as any X ⁺ variable used later on in the paper) refers to a
166	single column, i.e. a 1D atmospheric column from surface to the TOA where each altitude layer is homogeneously
167	filled with molecules and/or clouds, as mentioned by the exponent symbol " ". Such single column is directly
168	identified by the presence of a level flagged as "z_opaque". Full attenuation of the lidar signal is reached for at a
169	visible optical depth, integrated from the top of the atmosphere (TOA), of about 3 to 5 integrated from the TOA
170	(Vaughan et al., 2009). This corresponds to a cloud LW emissivity of 0.8 to 0.9, if we consider that cloud particles
171	do not absorb visible wavelengths and that diffusion-scattering can be neglected in the LW domain. In GOCCP,
172	such an opaque single column is identified by one level flagged as "z opaque". Like other variables identified by
173	the superscript " " in the rest of this paper, Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} refers to a single column, i.e. a 1D atmospheric column from the
174	surface to the TOA where each altitude layer is uniformly filled with molecules and/or clouds. Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} depends on
175	the horizontal and vertical averaging used in the retrieval algorithm. It is also affected during daytime by noise from
176	the solar background. At 480 m vertical resolution, it depends weakly on the characteristics of the lidar.
177	• The Thin cloud single column (brown and blue, left), contains a one or more semi-transparent clouds. In GOCCP,
178	Ssuch a single column is identified by the presence of at least one level flagged as "Cloud" without abut no level
179	flagged as "z_opaque".
180	



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FIG. 1. Partitioning of the atmosphere into 3 single column types thanks to the CALIOP lidar: (left) Thin cloud single column, when a cloud is detected in the lidar signal and the laser beam achieve to wholly go through the cloud untilreaches the surface, (middle) Clear sky single column, when no cloud is detected, and (right) Opaque cloud single column, when a cloud is detected and the laser beam ends becomes fully attenuated into the cloud at a level called Z_{Opaque}^{l} . *C*, *T* and ε respectively account for cover, temperature and emissivity. The vVariables highlighted in yellow are the key cloud properties, extracted from the GOCCP-OPAQ-product, that drive OLR over Thin cloud and Opaque cloud single columns. The total gridded OLR will be computed from the 3 single column OLRs weighted by their respective cover: C_{Thin} , C_{Clear} , C_{Opaque} .

Figure 2 shows the global cover<u>ages</u> of these 3 single column types, <u>usingon</u> $2^{\circ}\times2^{\circ}$ grids. The <u>gG</u>lobal mean Opaque clouds cover C_{0paque}^{\oplus} is 35 %, Thin clouds cover C_{Thin}^{\oplus} is 36 % and the Clear sky cover C_{Clear}^{\oplus} is 29 %. C_{0paque}^{\oplus} , C_{Thin}^{\oplus} and C_{Clear}^{\oplus} (as well as any X^{\oplus} variable used later on in the paper) refer to $2^{\circ}\times2^{\circ}$ grid box, like any variable identified by the superscript " \oplus " in the rest of the paper as mentioned by the exponent symbol " \oplus ". Opaque clouds cover is very high at mid-latitudes and, in the tropics, high occurrences clearly reveal regions of deep convection (warm pool, ITCZ) and stratocumulus regions at the east part of oceans. Thin clouds cover is very homogeneous over all oceans, with some-slight maxima in some regions, namely-near the warm pool. These results are discussed in detail in Guzman et al. (2017).



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FIG. 2. Maps of (a) Opaque cloud cover (b) Thin cloud cover and (c) Clear sky cover. Only nighttime over ice-free oceans for the 2008–2015 period is considered. Global mean values are given in parentheses.

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Our study builds on the work of Guzman et al. (2017) by using considering Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} in terms of temperatures rather than instead of altitudes, and by estimating an additional variable, the Thin cloud emissivity:

- Temperatures T[|]_{Z[|]_{Opaque}}, T[|]_{Top} and T[|]_{Base} are respectively those at the altitudes of the level flagged as "z_opaque" (Z[|]_{Opaque}) and of the highest (Z[|]_{Top}) and lowest (Z[|]_{Base}) levels flagged as "Cloud", using the temperature profiles of from the NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) reanalysis (Suarez et al., 2005) provided in CALIOP Level 1 data and also reported in GOCCP v3.0 data.
- Thin cloud emissivity $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ of a *Thin cloud single column* is inferred from the mean-attenuated scattering ratio of levels flagged as "Clear" below the cloud, that we note $\langle SR' \rangle_{below}$ and clear sky layers measured by the lidar below the cloud. This is which-approximately corresponds equal to the apparent two-way transmittance through the cloudwhich-Indeed, considering a fixed multiple scattering factor $\eta = 0.6$, we allows retrieve retrieval of the Thin cloud visible optical depth $\delta \tau_{Thin}^{VIS}$ (Garnier et al., 2015). Then, aAs the cloud particles are much larger than the wavelengths of visible and infrared wavelengthslight, and considering assuming there is no absorption by cloud particles is occurring in the visible domain, the Thin cloud LW optical depth $\delta \tau_{Thin}^{LW}$ is approximately half of $\delta \tau_{Thin}^{VIS}$ (Garnier et al., 2015). Finally, we retrieve the Thin cloud emissivity with as $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger} = 1 - e^{-\delta \tau_{Thin}^{LW}}$. Opaque cloud

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eEmissivity of Opaque clouds cannot be inferred and we do the approximation that assume they are approximately it is close to a black bodybodies, so i.e. $\varepsilon_{opaque}^{\dagger} \approx 1$.

217 <u>Our approach takes into account the possibility of multi-layer clouds within Ss</u>ingle columns: with multi-layers of 218 elouds are also consider in this study, i.e. T_{rop}^{\dagger} and Z_{rop}^{\dagger} refer to the highest "Cloud" flagged level of the highest cloud in the 219 column and T_{Base}^{\dagger} and Z_{Base}^{\dagger} to the lowest "Cloud" flagged level of the lowest cloud in the column. Also, iIn this case, $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ 220 is computed from the summed optical depth of all cloud layers present in the column.

In order t<u>T</u>o avoid all possible uncertainties due to<u>effects of</u> solar <u>background</u> noise, results presented in this paper are only for nighttime conditions. Furthermore, we <u>restricted this study toonly consider</u> observations over oceans to avoid uncertainties due to the ground temperature diurnal cycle over land. <u>And, iIn order to-not to</u> be influenced by major <u>surface</u> changes <u>of surface physical properties</u> across the seasons, we also removed from this study all observations over <u>iced-sea_ice</u>, based on sea ice fraction from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA-Interim reanalysis (Berrisford et al., 2011).

227 **2.2** Fluxes observations collocated with lidar clouds observations

228 The CERES radiometer, on-board the Aqua satellite, measures the OLR at the same-location where the CALIOP 229 lidar, on board the CALIPSO satellite, will shoot-fire 2 minutes and 45 seconds afterwardslater. So, tThe instantaneous 230 Single Scanner Footprint (SSF) of the CERES swath crossing the CALIPSO ground-track gives the OLR over atmospheric 231 single columns sounded by the lidar. Because aThe CERES footprint has a diameter of ~20 km diameter, whereas-while the 232 CALIOP lidar samples every 333 m along-track with a footprint of 70 m diameter footprint, several-meaning the lidar can 233 sample up to 60 atmospheric single columns sounded by the lidar (up to 60) are located within a single CERES footprint. To 234 collocate the GOCCP-OPAQ instant data and the CERES SSF measurements, we use the CALIPSO, CloudSat, CERES, and 235 MODIS Merged Product (C3M; Kato et al., 2011) which flags the instantaneous CERES SSF footprints where-of the CERES 236 swath crossing crosses the CALIPSO ground-track. Finally, fFor each of these flagged CERES SSF footprints, we matched, 237 from geolocation information, all the GOCCP-OPAQ single columns falling into the CERES footprint. We consider that an 238 atmospheric column with CERES footprint base is an Opaque (Thin) cloud column if all matched single columns are 239 declared as Opaque (Thin) cloud single column. We then use these Opaque and Thin cloud columns to validate the lidar-240 derived OLR.

From the C3M product, we also use the estimated Clear sky OLR of the instantaneous CERES SSF of where the CERES swath crossing crosses the CALIPSO ground-track. This estimated Clear sky OLR is computed from radiative transfer simulations using the synergy synergistic information of the different instruments flying in the Afternoon Train (A-Train) satellite constellation. As C3M is only released through only covers the period when both CALIPSO and CloudSat are both fully operational (until April 2011), during the time period when both CALIPSO and CloudSat are healthy, we also use the Clear sky OLR from 1°×1° gridded data monthly mean CERES Energy Balanced and Filled (EBAF) Edition 2.8 1°×1° product (Loeb et al., 2009), that we average over 2°×2° grid boxes.

248 **2.3 Radiative transfer computations**

For all <u>the</u> radiative transfer computations needed in this study, we use the GAME radiative transfer code (Dubuisson et al., 2004) combined with mean sea surface temperature (SST) and <u>atmospheric</u> profiles of temperature, humidity and ozone extracted from the ERA-Interim reanalysis. GAME is an accurate radiative transfer code to calculates the radiative flux and radiances over the total solar and infrared spectrum. The radiative transfer equation is solved using DISORT (Stamnes et al., 1988) and gaseous absorption is calculated from the k-distribution method. This The code accounts for <u>aerosol and clouds</u> scattering and absorption <u>by aerosol and clouds</u> as well as interactions with gaseous absorption. 255 256 GAME radiative transfer code does not take into account cloud 3D effects, and is based on the plane-parallel approximation.

In this study, we use GAME to compute integrated OLR between 5 and 100 $\mu m.$

257 **3** Radiative temperatures of Opaque elouds and Thin clouds derived from lidar cloud observations and reanalysis

We define here an approximation of <u>in this section</u> the Opaque and Thin cloud radiative temperatures of Opaque and <u>Thin clouds which that</u> can be derived from lidar measurements. The cloud radiative temperature corresponds to the equivalent radiative temperature of the cloud T_{rad}^{\dagger} such as that the upward top of the cloud LW radiative flux emitted by the cloud of with emissivity ε^{\dagger} , at the top of the cloud, __is $F_{cloud}^{\uparrow LW|}(Cloud Top) = \varepsilon^{\dagger}\sigma(T_{rad}^{\dagger})^4$, where σ denotes the Stefan-Boltzmann constant. We present distributions of these cloud radiative temperatures derived from lidar measurements over the mid-latitudes region and the tropics.

264 **3.1 Definition and approximations of the cloud radiative temperature**

Considering an optically uniform cloud with a cloud total LW optical depth $\delta \tau_{cloud}^{LW|}$, and assuming a linearly increase increasing of the temperature from the cloud top to the cloud base, we can compute the upward LW radiative flux at the cloud top emitted by the cloud at the top of the cloud $F_{cloud}^{LW|}(Cloud Top)$ can be computed from using the radiative transfer equation (RTE) (see appendix A). Then, sSolving the equation $F_{cloud}^{LW|}(Cloud Top) = \varepsilon |\sigma(T_{rad}^{l})^4 = (1 - e^{-\delta \tau_{cloud}^{LW|}})\sigma(T_{rad}^{l})^4$, we can infer the value of the equivalent radiative cloud temperature T_{rad}^{l} . Figure 3 shows T_{rad}^{l} deduced computed from RTE (green) as a function of $\delta \tau_{cloud}^{LW|}$. As $\delta \tau_{cloud}^{LW|}$ increases, T_{rad}^{l} is found decreases and approaches the cloud top temperature closer to the cloud top and so the cloud radiative temperature decreases.





FIG. 3. Comparison of (green) the cloud radiative temperature T_{rad}^{\dagger} inferred from the RTE (see appendix A) with the lidar-definitions of (blue) the Thin cloud radiative temperature T_{Thin}^{\dagger} and (red) the Opaque cloud radiative temperature T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} , as a function of the cloud total LW optical depth $\delta \tau_{cloud}^{LW}$. Here, on an example with a fixed cloud top temperature T_{Top}^{\dagger} at 250 K and a fixed cloud base temperature T_{Base}^{\dagger} at 260 K.

 T_{rad}^{\dagger} is obtained by computing the LW flux emitted by the cloud at the top of the cloud $F_{cloud}^{\dagger LW \dagger}$ (Cloud Top) from the RTE and then

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solving $F_{Cloud}^{\uparrow LW|}(Cloud Top) = \varepsilon^{\mid} \sigma \left(T_{rad}^{\mid}\right)^4$.

Clouds are declared as (oOrange area) defines Opaque clouds, if they present an opacity level altitude Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} . This occurs which in lidar observations for have $\delta \tau_{Cloud}^{LW|}$ greater than a limit situated between 1.5 to 2.5. Below this limit clouds are declared as (blue area). This clouds (blue area). Clouds with $\delta \tau_{Cloud}^{LW|}$ between 1.5 and 2.5 could be (gray area) either Opaque or Thin clouds (gray area) depending on the limit.

We will now approximate T_{rad}^{\dagger} for Opaque clouds and Thin clouds using straightforward formulations which eouldthat can be derived from lidar cloud observations and reanalysis. In anFor the Opaque cloud single columncase (Fig. 1, right), the optically very thick cloud prevents completely absorbs upward LW radiative flux propagating from below-to propagate upwards. ThusIn this case, atmospheric layers below Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} have little influence on the OLR over an Opaque eloud single column OLR_{opaque}^{\dagger} . HereTherefore, we propose that OLR_{opaque}^{\dagger} is mainly driven by an *Opaque cloud radiative* temperature defined as:

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$$T_{opaque}^{\dagger} = \frac{T_{Top}^{\dagger} + T_{Z_{opaque}}^{\dagger}}{2}.$$
 (1)

In-<u>For athe</u> Thin cloud <u>single columncase</u> (Fig. 1, left), the cloudy <u>part is optically semi-transparent and lets throughis</u> translucent so that a part of the <u>upward</u> LW radiative flux <u>coming fromemitted by</u> the <u>surface and</u> cloud-free atmospheric layers <u>and surface</u> underneath the cloud is transmitted through the cloud. Then, the OLR over a Thin cloud single<u>In this case</u> column_a OLR^{\dagger}_{Thin} depends on one hand on the surface temperature, the <u>surface and</u> <u>surface</u> emissivity, the temperature profile, and the humidity profile<u>s below the cloud</u>, and on the other hand on the cloud emissivity $\varepsilon^{\dagger}_{Thin^{a}}$ and the *Thin cloud* radiative temperature defined as:

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$$T_{Thin}^{\dagger} = \frac{T_{Top}^{\dagger} + T_{Base}^{\dagger}}{2}$$
. (2)
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293 Comparisons of T^{\dagger}_{Thin} , the cloud radiative temperature of Thin clouds ($\delta \tau^{LW|}_{cloud} < 1.5$, blue area in Fig. 3), and 294 T^{\dagger}_{Opaque} , the cloud radiative temperature of Opaque clouds ($\delta \tau^{LW|}_{cloud} > 2.5$, orange area), agree well with T^{\dagger}_{rad} (deduced from

 RTE_{a} (green) show good agreement in Fig. 3. Clouds with $1.5 < \delta \tau_{Cloud}^{LW|} < 2.5$ (gray area) can be either Thin or Opaque 295 clouds depending on the integrated LW optical depth at which Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} will occur. Here, computations were performed for 296 297 <u>aln computing LW radiative flux, we assume the</u> fixed cloud top temperature T_{Top}^{\dagger} at of 250 K and a fixed cloud base temperature T_{Base}^{\dagger} at of 260 K. T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} will depends on the integrated LW optical depth τ^{LW} from cloud top $\frac{\delta^{LW}}{\delta}$ to where 298 Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} will occur, which. Since the equivalent visible optical depth τ^{VIS} to Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} is between 3 and 5 (Vaughan et al., 299 2009), and $\tau^{LW|} = \frac{1}{2} \tau^{VIS|}$ (Chepfer et al., 2014), $\tau^{LW|}$ is known to be situated between 1.5 and 2.5, provided a range of 300 $\delta^{\frac{LW}{2}} = \frac{1}{2} \delta^{\frac{VIS}{2}}$ (Chepfer et al., 2014), with $\delta^{\frac{VIS}{2}}$ between 3 and 5 (Vaughan et al., 2009). Then, according to possible values 301 of $T_{z_{Opaque}}^{\dagger}$ possible values given this approximation (black shadow area), and then, a range of possible values of 302 T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} range is deduced (red shadow area). 303

Computations with other pairs of T_{Top}^{\dagger} and T_{Base}^{\dagger} temperatures (not shown) reveal that the relative vertical position 304 into the cloud of T_{rad}^{\dagger} does not depend much of the cloud top and cloud base temperatures. In other words, with other pairs 305 of T_{Top}^{\dagger} and T_{Base}^{\dagger} temperatures, we obtain would produce almost the same figure as Fig. 3, only with the y-axis temperature 306 values changed. This means that the difference between T_{rad}^{\dagger} and T_{Thin}^{\dagger} or between T_{rad}^{\dagger} and T_{opaque}^{\dagger} becomes larger as the 307 difference between T_{Top}^{\dagger} and T_{Base}^{\dagger} increases. Naturally, in reality <u>Generally</u>, the error made by using <u>specific values of</u> T_{Thin}^{\dagger} 308 and T_{opaque}^{\dagger} as approximations of <u>in computing</u> T_{rad}^{\dagger} will also depends on other cloud properties <u>used in the computation</u>, 309 310 such as cloud inhomogeneity and cloud microphysics. However, this simple theoretical calculation allows us to assertshows 311 that T_{Thin}^{\dagger} and T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} as we defined above are good approximations of the cloud radiative temperature of the Thin and Opaque clouds, with less than a. Considering a cloud with $\tau_{cloud}^{LW|} > 5$ and 10 K between its base and top temperatures, this 312 approximation leads to an error of the radiative temperature less than 2 K error-for a Thin cloud with a 10 K difference 313 314 between its cloud base and cloud top temperatures, and less less than than a 1 K error for an Opaque cloud with $\delta_{Cloud}^{LW|} > 5$ 315 and with a 10 K difference between its cloud base and cloud top temperatures.

316 These cloud radiative temperatures are fundamental to study the LW CRE and are different from the effective 317 radiating temperatures measured by passive instruments which are influenced by radiation coming from below the cloud. In the case of Opaque cloud which completely absorbs upward LW radiative flux propagating from below, the effective 318 319 radiating temperature measured by passive instruments should agree with the cloud radiative temperature. However, this 320 assumes to know that the cloud is Opaque, but cloud emissivity from passive measurements is also sensitive to hypothesis 321 made on the clear sky and surface property. Unlike passive measurements, lidar measurements robustly separate Opaque 322 clouds and Thin clouds from the presence or not of a surface echo (Guzman et al., 2017).

323 3.2 T[|]_{Opaque} and T[|]_{Thin} retrieved from CALIOP observations during 2008–2015

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For each cloudy single column sounded observed by CALIOP, we derive T_{opaque}^{\dagger} from T_{Top}^{\dagger} and $T_{z_{opaque}^{\dagger}}^{\dagger}$ using Eq. (1)₂₇ We also and we derive T_{Thin}^{\dagger} from T_{Top}^{\dagger} and T_{Base}^{\dagger} using Eq. (2). Then, www e then computed the probability density 325 function (PDF) of T_{opaque}^{\dagger} among Opaque clouds and T_{Thin}^{\dagger} among Thin clouds for 3 different regions: the tropical 326 ascendinging regions region between $\pm 30^{\circ}$ latitude with monthly mean 500-hPa pressure vertical velocity $\omega_{500} < 0$ hPa day 327 ¹, the tropical subsidingence regions region between $\pm 30^{\circ}$ latitude with monthly mean $\omega_{500} > 0$ hPa day⁻¹ and the mid-328 latitudes (North and South) region between 65° S and 30° S and between 30° N and 65° N put together. To compute these 329 PDFs, e.g. the PDF of T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} among Opaque clouds, we firstly compute <u>a-the_PDF</u> of T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} among using all single 330

columns on each $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ grid box for the 2008–2015 period. Then, we compute the <u>PDF with</u> area-weighted averaged <u>PDF of</u> weighting each $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ grid box PDF by the ratio of the number of Opaque single columns over the number of all single columns. We do this <u>latter weighting</u> in order to take into account the sampling differences in eachamong $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ grid box es.

Figure 4a shows the distributions of T^{\dagger}_{Opaque} among Opaque clouds. In the tropical subsidingence regions region 335 (green), 71 % of T_{Ovague}^{\dagger} are found between 0 °C and 25 °C with a maximum at 15 °C. Because the yse clouds are almost as 336 337 warm as the surface, they do not strongly affect the OLR compared to clear- sky conditions. These clouds are the marine 338 boundary layer clouds of present over the descending branches of the Hadley cells. In the tropical ascendinging regions 339 region (red), T[|]_{Opague} has follows a bimodal distribution with few warm clouds warmer than between 0 °C and 25 °C (21 %) 340 and most clouds temperatures spread between 0 °C and -80 °C (79 %). These latter cold Opaque clouds will have locally a 341 very strong impact on the OLR since their temperatures are up to they can be 100 K lower-colder than the surface skin 342 temperature. However, the tropical ascendinging regions region only represents about only 1/5 of the ocean surface between 343 65° S and 65° N, making their global effect contribution at global seale less striking. In the mid-latitudes region (purple), T^{1}_{Opaque} are unsurprisingly located at temperatures less extreme than in tropical regions with temperatures ranging 344 from concentrated in a narrower range (20 °C to -60 °C), and are rather evenly distributed with temperatures mostly between 345 346 10 °C and -30 °C. These local radiative effect of these Opaque clouds will have a mid-effect on the local OLR is weaker than 347 the effect if they were in tropical ascending regions., but the mMid-latitudes region represent are, however, a large area 348 (43 % of the ocean surface between 65° S and 65° N) and their and the cover over of Opaque clouds these regions is large 349 (Fig. 2a). So, they will certainly also play an important role on their contribution to the global CRE is expected to be large.

The Opaque cloud-radiative temperature of Opaque clouds T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} is based on the key new lidar information 350 Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} (Eq. (1)). Figure 4b shows that Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} is mostly-low in-for all regions, at around near 1 km altitude, in the boundary 351 layer clouds, especially for thein subsidingence regions region. Some non negligible amount of Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} are sometimes 352 353 found between 2 km and 8 km in the mid-latitudes storm track regions. In the tropical ascendinging regions region, the PDF 354 is tri-modal with a first-lowest pick-peak around 1 km associated with boundary layer clouds, and a second-highest peak 355 around 5 km and a third around 12 km associated with deep convection systems, suggesting the presence of Opaque clouds 356 in the boundary layer and at very high altitudes due to deep convection for the first and last mode. The second middle mode, <u>near 5 km</u>, <u>could might</u> be due to more diffuse or developing convective clouds or middle altitude clouds</u>. Since T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} also 357 depends on Z_{Top}^{\dagger} , distributions of the distance between cloud top and Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} among Opaque clouds are given in Fig. A1a 358 359 (appendix B).

360 As in Fig. 4a but for Thin clouds, Fig. 4c also shows, in the tropical subsiding region, a large majority of T_{Thin}^{\dagger} higher than 0 °C (65 %). The radiative temperature of Thin clouds T_{Thin}^{\dagger} is mostly warmer than 0°C in tropical subsidence 361 <u>regions (Fig. 4c)</u>. T^{\dagger}_{Thin} colder than -40 °C are <u>occurs</u> more frequently than for T^{\dagger}_{Opaque} colder than -40 °C, suggesting high-362 363 altitude optically thin cirrus from detrainments of anvil clouds being generated in adjacent convective regions. In the tropical ascendinging regions region, the "warm" mode of the bimodal distributions of T_{Thin}^{\dagger} is bigger more populated and warmer 364 365 than that of T_{opaque}^{\dagger} . The main mode of T_{Thin}^{\dagger} in the mid-latitudes region, is also warmer than that of T_{opaque}^{\dagger} . Warmer cloud 366 temperatures, implying smaller CREs, reinforces the importance of the role of the Opaque clouds versus the Thin clouds in 367 the total CRE. Distributions of the distance between cloud top and cloud base for Thin clouds among Thin clouds are given 368 in Fig. A1b (appendix B).

Because the radiative impact of the Thin clouds will also depend on the cloud emissivity of the cloud, we also computed the distributions of $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ among Thin clouds. (Fig_ure 4d) shows these distributions. For all regions, the maximum is occurs located around 0.25. So; emissivities of Thin clouds are usually small, and clouds with small emissivities to they have less little impact on the OLR. This, once again, goes in the sense that the role that play Thin clouds on the total and hence their contribution to CRE should be significantly smaller than that of Opaque clouds.



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FIG. 4. Observed distributions of (a) T_{opaque}^{\dagger} among Opaque clouds, (b) Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} among Opaque clouds, (c) T_{Thin}^{\dagger} among Thin clouds and (d) $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ among Thin clouds in three regions: (red) the tropical <u>ascendance</u> [30° S–30° N] <u>ascending regime areas</u> (monthly mean $\omega_{500} < 0$ hPa·day⁻¹), (green) the tropical [30° S–30° N] subsidingence regime areas [30° S–30° N] (monthly mean $\omega_{500} > 0$ hPa·day⁻¹) and (purple) the mid-latitudes [30°–65°]. These regions represent respectively 22 %, 35 % and 43 % of their total areathe ±65° ocean surface. Only nighttime over ice-free oceans for the 2008–2015 period is considered.

381 4. Outgoing longwave radiation derived from lidar cloud observations

In this section, we express the OLR as a function of cloud properties derived from lidar observations $(T_{opaque}^{\dagger}, T_{Thin}^{\dagger}, \text{ and } \varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger})$. Then, wWe verify evaluate this relationship against with observations at an instantaneous 20 km footprint scale, using high spatial resolution collocated satellite-borne broadband radiometer and lidar data, and We also evaluate the relationship at a monthly mean 2° latitude × 2° longitude gridded scale.

386 4.1 Linear relationship deduced from radiative transfer simulations over <u>a</u> single cloudy column

The goal of this sub-section is to establish a simple and robust relationship between 1) the OLR over an Opaque cloud single column OLR^{\dagger}_{opaque} and the radiative temperature T^{\dagger}_{opaque} and, 2) the OLR over a Thin cloud single column OLR^{\dagger}_{Thin} and the radiative temperature T^{\dagger}_{Thin} and the Thin cloud emissivity $\varepsilon^{\dagger}_{Thin}$.

1) For an Opaque cloud single column, we computed OLR_{opaque}^{\dagger} , using direct radiative transfer computations, for various atmospheres containing an Opaque cloud with with different variable altitudes and vertical extent. The clouds, is represented by a cloud layer with emissivity equal to 1 at Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} topped with optically uniform cloud layers with vertically integrated visible optical depth equal to 3.2, which corresponds to $\varepsilon \approx 0.8$. Dots in Figure 5a shows on dots the obtained OLR_{opaque}^{\dagger} as function of T_{opaque}^{\dagger} for tropical atmosphere conditions. Linear regression (solid line) leads to:

$$395 \qquad OLR_{opaque}^{|(LID)} = 2.0T_{opaque}^{|} - 310. \tag{3}$$

where $OLR_{Opaque}^{|(LID)}$ is expressed in W·m⁻² and $T_{Opaque}^{|}$ in K. So, when $T_{Opaque}^{|}$ decreases of by 1 K (e.g. if the Opaque cloud 396 397 rises up) then the OLR decreases by 2 W·m⁻². This linear relationship, firstly found initially pointed out by Ramanathan 398 (1977), has a slope which is consistent with previous work that found 2.24 $W \cdot m^{-2}/K$ (Wang et al. (2002) using the radiative 399 transfer model of Fu and Liou (1992, 1993) and the analysis of Kiehl (1994)). Conducting the same Llinear regressions done 400 on other regions with very different atmospheric conditions (from tropical to polar) gives a similar coefficients. This means 401 that, in spite of the significant differences in the atmospheric temperature and humidity profiles, OLR opaque depends essentially only mainly on T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} . This remarkable result demonstrates that a cloud property which drivesing the OLR can 402 403 be derived from spaceborne lidar measurement. Figure 5a also shows the black body emission (dashed line). Differences 404 between the computed OLR and the black body emission (dashed line in Fig. 5a) represent the extinction effect of the 405 atmospheric layers located above the cloud.

406 2) For a Thin cloud single column, we can consider that OLR^{\dagger}_{Thin} is composed of two parts (Fig. 1). A-The first part, 407 coming from the LW flux emitted by the cloud, which can be expressed in the same way as Eq. (3) using T^{\dagger}_{Thin} instead of 408 T^{\dagger}_{Opaque} , and weighted by the Thin cloud emissivity $\varepsilon^{\dagger}_{Thin}$. The second part is equal to the OLR over a Clear sky single 409 column OLR^{\dagger}_{Clear} (the same single column without the cloud) multiplied by the cloud transmissivity $(1 - \varepsilon^{\dagger}_{Thin})$:

410
$$OLR_{Thin}^{|(LID)} = \varepsilon_{Thin}^{|} (2.0T_{Thin}^{|} - 310) + (1 - \varepsilon_{Thin}^{|})OLR_{Clear}^{|}.$$
(4)

411 where $OLR_{Thin}^{|(LID)}$ and $OLR_{Clear}^{|}$ are expressed in W·m⁻² and $T_{Thin}^{|}$ in K. In order to evaluate this expression and to examine 412 the dependence of $OLR_{Thin}^{|}$ to $T_{Thin}^{|}$ and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{|}$, we computed $OLR_{Thin}^{|}$, using direct radiative transfer computations, for 413 various atmospheres containing a Thin cloud (represented by optically uniform cloud layers with integrated emissivities 414 equal to $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{|}$) with different altitudes, vertical extents and emissivities. Dots in Figure 5b shows on dots the resulting 415 $OLR_{Thin}^{|}$ as a function of $T_{Thin}^{|}$ for 4 different values of $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{|}$, for in tropical atmosphere conditions. We compare these 416 results with the linear expression of Eq.(4) (solid lines), in which $OLR_{Clear}^{|}$ is obtained by computinged the OLR for a single 417 column without cloud. The theoretical formulation agrees quite well with the different simulations. It may be noted,

418 however, that tThis formulation seems to overestimate OLR^{\dagger}_{Thin} (up to +10 W·m⁻²) for in many cases. Reasons for it are

419 discussed in Section 6.



421

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FIG. 5. Relationship between the OLR and the cloud radiative temperature from radiative transfer computations: (a) over an Opaque cloud single column and (b) over a Thin cloud single column. Direct radiative transfer computations are shown in dots. Solid lines represent the linear relationships inferred from a regression on dots in the Opaque case and applied to the Thin clouds case according to Eq. (4). For a fixed value of cloud emissivity (dots colors; 1 [purples] for Opaque clouds and 0.1 [reds], 0.3 [blues], 0.5 [greens], 0.7 [greys] for Thin clouds), the linear relationship does not depend on the cloud altitudes (dots light intensity; 0 km [dark] – 16 km [bright]) or the geometrical thicknesses (dots size; 1 km [small] – 5 km [large]). Results shown here use the 2008-year mean thermodynamic atmospheric variables over the tropicals region [30° S–30° N] from ERA-I reanalysis.

423 **4.2** Evaluation of the linear relationship using observations at instantaneous CERES footprint scale

424 We evaluate the robustness of the OLR expressions (Eqs. (3) and (4)) at the resolution of a CERES footprint (~20 km) using CERES measurements, and cloud properties derived from collocated CALIOP observations $T_{Opaque}^{O}, T_{Thin}^{O}$ 425 and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\emptyset}$. For this purpose, we apply Eqs. (3) and (4) using $T_{Opaque}^{\emptyset}, T_{Thin}^{\emptyset}, \varepsilon_{Thin}^{\emptyset}$ and the estimated OLR over the scene 426 <u>removing without</u> the clouds given by C3M OLR^{\oslash}_{Clear} given by C3M. $T^{\oslash}_{Opaque}, T^{\oslash}_{Thin}, \varepsilon^{\oslash}_{Thin}$ refer to an atmospheric column 427 with a CERES footprint base, as mentioned (identified by the exponent symbolsuperscript "O"), and are obtained by 428 averaging respectively all T^{\dagger}_{Opaque} , T^{\dagger}_{Thin} and $\varepsilon^{\dagger}_{Thin}$ falling into within the CERES footprint. OLR^{\oslash}_{Opaque} , OLR^{\oslash}_{Opaque} and 429 OLR_{Thin}^{\emptyset} refer to atmospheric columns with a CERES footprint base. 430 Figure 6 compares lidar-derived and observed OLR during January 2008. Figure 6a compares the OLR Opaque 431

measured by CERES only over footprints entirely cover<u>ed</u> by an Opaque cloud, with the $OLR_{Opaque}^{\oslash(LID)}$ computed from T_{Opaque}^{\oslash} using Eq. (3). We see a very strong correlation between observed and computed OLR (R = 0.95). Therefore, t<u>T</u>his confirms that the OLR over an Opaque cloud is linearly dependent o<u>n</u>f T_{Opaque}^{\oslash} . So, from lidar measurement, and that it is possible to derive a cloud property which is proportional to the OLR from lidar measurement. Monitoring T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} on long-term should provide important information which should helpuseful to better understand the LW cloud feedback mechanism. Moreover, 437 because the relationship is linear, it simplifies the derivatives in mathematical expressions of feedback and will allow to 438 construct a useful framework to study LW cloud feedback in simulations of climate models. 439 Figure 6b is the same as Fig. 6a but only for-CERES footprints entirely covered by a Thin cloud are used. So $OLR_{Thin}^{\oslash (LID)}$ is computed from T_{Thin}^{\oslash} , $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\oslash}$ and OLR_{Clear}^{\oslash} using Eq. (4), $OLR_{Thin}^{\oslash (LID)}$ compared to observations (correlates 440 well with $OLR_{Thin}^{O(CERES)}$) also shows quite good correlation (R = 0.89), but the regression line slightly differs from the 441 identity line. Possible reasons for disagreements between $\frac{O(LLP)}{Thin}$ and computed $OLR \frac{O(CERES)}{Thin}$ both values are 442 discussed in Section 6. These same results are also drawn shown as a function of T_{Thin}^{\emptyset} and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\emptyset}$ in Fig. A2 for a fixed value 443 444 of OLR_{Clear}^{\emptyset} (we selected measurements where $OLR_{Clear}^{\emptyset} \in [275, 285] \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$) in order to show the effect of those two cloud properties on $OLR_{Thin}^{\oslash (CERES)}$ 445

446 The evaluation showed in Fig. 6 is only using observation from January 2008. The same evaluation performed with 447 July 2008 data (not shown) gives similar results, with R = 0.96 for Opaque clouds and R = 0.90 for Thin clouds.





449

Fig. 6. Comparison between observed and lidar-derived OLR at CERES footprint scale: (a) over Opaque cloud single columns and (b) over Thin cloud single columns. Results obtained from CERES (y-axis) and CALIOP (x-axis) collocated measurements. $OLR_{Opaque}^{\oslash (LID)}$ and $OLR_{Thin}^{\oslash (LID)}$ are computed using Eqs. (4) and (5). Only nighttime <u>conditions</u> over ice-free oceans for January 2008 is are considered. *R* is the correlation coefficient.

450

451 **4.3 Evaluation of the linear relationship using observations at monthly mean 2°×2° gridded scale**

452	We first compute the monthly mean gridded total OLR from gridded lidar cloud properties:
453	$OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)} = C_{Clear}^{\boxplus} OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} + C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus (LID)} OLR_{Opaque}^{\boxplus (LID)} + C_{Thin}^{\boxplus (LID)} OLR_{Thin}^{\boxplus (LID)}, $ (5)
454	where C_{Clear}^{\boxplus} , C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and C_{Thin}^{\boxplus} are the monthly mean covers (Figs. 1,2): the ratio between the number of a specific
455	kind of single column <u>over to</u> the total number of single columns that fall into the grid box during a month. $OLR_{Opaque}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ i
456	computed from T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} using Eq. (3), and $OLR_{Thin}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ is computed from T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} , $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\boxplus}$ and OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} using Eq. (4). T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus}
457	T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\boxplus}$ are obtained by averaging respectively all $T_{opaque}^{\dagger}, T_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ falling into <u>within</u> the 2°×2° box.

We then evaluate the lidar-derived $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ against the CERES measurements $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (CERES)}$. To do so, we 458 computed the 2008–2010 mean $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ from Eq. (5) using OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from C3M and compared it with the one measured 459 by CERES-Aqua. Figure 7 shows the comparison between <u>the</u> computed $OLR_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$ (Fig. 7a) and <u>the</u> measured 460 $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (CERES)}$ (Fig. 7b). We first_<u>ly observenote</u> the <u>noteworthy</u> agreement of OLR patterns. Figure 7c shows the difference 461 between those two maps. The global mean difference is -0.1 W·m⁻², meaning: $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ very slightly underestimate the 462 observed $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (CERES)}$. The zonal mean differences (not shown) are quite small and mostly lower than 2 W·m⁻², never 463 exceeding 5 W·m⁻²-and are mostly lower than 2 W·m⁻². Locally, we note a lack of OLR over the warm pool, the Intertropical 464 Convergence Zone (ITCZ) and the stratocumulus regions off the West coast of continents (up to 6-8 W·m⁻²) and an excess 465 466 of OLR over latitudes beyond 50° N or 40° S (up to 4–6 W·m⁻²). As C3M only covers through April 2011, but we aim to use this framework on long time-series observations, we replace OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from C3M by OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from CERES-EBAF in the 467 following rest of this paper. Comparison between observed and lidar-derived OLR using OLR transform CERES-EBAF 468 instead of OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from C3M is showed in Fig. A3. Using OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from C3M instead of CERES-EBAF increases the 469 global mean $OLR_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$ by 0.6 W·m⁻²- (Fig. A3), for Rreasons for this increase are discussed in Section 6. 470

471



FIG. 7. Comparison between observed and lidar-derived OLR at $2^{\circ}\times2^{\circ}$ gridded scale: (a) derived from CALIOP observations and (b) measured by CERES-Aqua. (c) = (a) - (b). Only from nighttime conditions over ice-free oceans for the 2008–2010 period is-are considered. Global mean values are given in parentheses.

475 5 Contributions of Opaque clouds and Thin clouds to the cloud radiative effect

In the previous section, we found a clear-linear relationship for Opaque clouds-between OLR_{opaque} and T_{opaque} at different scales. The relationship for Thin clouds, though quite simple, is not linear and agrees less with observations than for Opaque clouds. In this section, we evaluate the contributions of Opaque clouds and Thin clouds to the total CRE.

479 5.1 Partitioning cloud radiative effect into Opaque CRE and Thin CRE

Using Eq. (5), we are able to<u>can</u> decompose the total CRE at the TOA, computed from lidar observations, in its Opaque and Thin clouds contributions:

482
$$CRE_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)} = OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} - OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$$

486 Thereby, using Eq. (3), we can express $CRE_{Opaque}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ as a function of C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} , T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} :

$$487 \quad CRE_{opaque}^{\boxplus (LID)} = C_{opaque}^{\boxplus} \left(OLR_{clear}^{\boxplus} - 2.0T_{opaque}^{\boxplus} + 310 \right)$$
(7)

488 where
$$CRE_{Opaque}^{\text{the (LD)}}$$
 and $OLR_{Clear}^{\text{the decrement}}$ are expressed in W·m⁻² and $T_{Opaque}^{\text{the decrement}}$ in K.

489 Using Eq. (4), we can express $CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ as a function of C_{Thin}^{\boxplus} , T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} , $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\boxplus}$ and OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} :

490
$$CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus (LID)} = C_{Thin}^{\boxplus} \varepsilon_{Thin}^{\boxplus} \left(0LR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} - 2.0T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} + 310 \right).$$
(8)

491 <u>where CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus} and OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} are expressed in W·m⁻² and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} in K.</u>

492 5.2 Global means of the Opaque cloud CRE and the Thin cloud CRE

Figure 8 shows the zonal mean observations of the 5 cloud properties $(C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus}, T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus}, C_{Thin}^{\boxplus}, T_{Thin}^{\boxplus}$ and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\boxplus})$. 493 <u>Over</u> the subsidence branches of the Hadley cell, around 20° S and 20° N, C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} is minimum (Fig. 8a), T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} 494 495 are warm (Fig 8b, temperatures in y-axis oriented downward) and ε_{Thin}^{\pm} is minimum (Fig. 8c). So, we do not expect a very 496 large contribution to the CRE from these regions. In contrast, the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) corresponds to local maxima of Opaque and Thin cloud covers, extremely cold T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} and a maximum of $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\boxplus}$. Very <u>A</u> large 497 498 CRE will arise is, therefore, expected from therethis region. Interestingly, an inversion of cover predominance and colder 499 temperature between Opaque and Thin clouds occurs around 30° latitude There are always more Opaque clouds than Thin 500 clouds in the extratropics (beyond 30° latitude) and they are colder than the Thin clouds. It is the opposite in the tropical belt: 501 there are always more Thin clouds than Opaque clouds, and those are slightly warmer. This suggests that the relative 502 contribution of the Thin clouds to the CRE is larger in the tropicsal belt than in the rest of the globe. This should not be very 503 dependent on the a specific year since the interannual variations of these 5 cloud properties (represented by the shaded areas) 504 are very small compared to the zonal differences.



FIG. 8. Zonal mean observations: (a) C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and C_{Thin}^{\boxplus} , (b) T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} among Opaque clouds and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} among Thin clouds and (c) $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\boxplus}$ among Thin clouds. Only nighttime conditions over ice-free oceans for the 2008–2015 period is are considered. Shaded areas represent the envelope (max to min) including interannual variations.

Figure 9 shows that Opaque clouds contribute the most (73 %) to the total CRE. We can also note that the zonal variations of $CRE_{opaque}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$, and so approximately the variations of $CRE_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$ (black line), can be explained by the zonal variations of T_{opaque}^{\boxplus} and C_{opaque}^{\boxplus} (Fig. 8a,b). For example, the absolute maximum *CRE* at 5° N (~44 W·m⁻²) is associated with a large cover and cold temperature of Opaque clouds. As suggested hereinbefore<u>carlier</u>, we see that the relative contribution of Thin clouds ($CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus (LID)}/CRE_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$, Fig. 9b) is larger <u>under in</u> the tropics, approximately 2<u>-timestwice</u> larger below 30° (up to 40 %) than beyond those latitudes.



FIG. 9. (a) Partitioning of total CRE into Opaque CRE and Thin CRE. (b) Ratios of the Opaque and (Thin) CRE to the total CRE. Only nighttime conditions over ice-free oceans for the 2008–2015 period is-are considered.

Figure 10 shows the same CRE partitioning on maps. The <u>likeness_similarity</u> of patterns between total CRE (Fig. 10a) and the Opaque clouds CRE contribution (Fig. 10b) is <u>prominentobvious</u>, <u>strengthening_showing_again the</u> <u>importance of thethat</u> Opaque clouds <u>in-mostly drive</u> the CRE. We can also note that The contribution of Thin clouds to the CRE contribution (Fig. 10c) <u>have-is</u> quite large <u>values</u> between 20° S and 20° N in the Indian Ocean and the West Pacific Ocean, especially all around Indonesia, where C_{Thin}^{H} (Fig. 2b) is maximum and T_{Thin}^{H} minimum (not shown).



FIG. 10. Maps of (a) the total CRE (b) the Opaque CRE and (c) the Thin CRE. Only nighttime <u>conditions</u> over icefree oceans for the 2008–2015 period <u>is_are</u> considered. Global mean values are given in parentheses.

Globally, the predominance of $CRE_{opaque}^{\oplus (LID)}$ is obvious since it represents nearly the three-fourth quarters of the total $CRE_{Total}^{\oplus (LID)}$. Thereby, the cloud property T_{opaque}^{\oplus} inferred from lidar observations and linearly linked to OLR_{opaque}^{\oplus} should be a very good candidate to constrain LW cloud feedbacks since Thin clouds only account for 27 % of $CRE_{Total}^{\oplus (LID)}$. AlsoHowever, since the <u>OLR</u> expression used for above. Thin clouds seems to give coherent results for $CRE_{Thin}^{\oplus (LID)}$ is almost as good as for Opaque clouds, it could also be used in a future work to quantify the role-impact of a changes in C_{Thin}^{\oplus} , T_{Thin}^{\oplus} , and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\oplus}$ in on the variations of $CRE_{Thin}^{\oplus (LID)}$.

535 5.3 Tropical Opaque cloud CRE and Thin cloud CRE in dynamical regimes

Figure 11 shows the cloud properties as a function of dynamical regime in the tropics (whose PDF according to the 500-hPa pressure velocity is given Fig. 11h). In the tropical convectiveon regimes ($\omega_{500} < 0$ hPa·day⁻¹), C_{Opaque}^{\oplus} is strongly driven by the velocity of ascending air (25 % to 45 % increase from 0 hPa·day⁻¹ to -100 hPa·day⁻¹) by the velocity of ascending air, whereas C_{Thin}^{\oplus} seems to be poorly dependent of on it, with an almost constant cover around 40 %. In subsidence-regions, the mean C_{Opaque}^{\oplus} is also increasing when the air descending velocity is larger but with a wide range of

variation from month to month (Fig. 11a). More strikingly, T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} (Fig. 11b) vary linearly with ω_{500} , with a 541 small variability from month to month. T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} linearly decrease from 20 hPa·day⁻¹ to -100 hPa·day⁻¹ from 542 approximately 5 °C to -35 °C and are constant between 20 hPa day-1 and 70 hPa day-1 at 5 °C. This suggests that, locally, 543 T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} are invariants in each dynamical regime. Radiative cloud temperatures T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} presented in 544 Fig. 11b were built respectively from temperatures at altitudes Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} and Z_{Top}^{\dagger} , and from temperatures at altitudes Z_{Base}^{\dagger} 545 and Z_{Top}^{\dagger} (see Section 3.1). The linear decrease from 20 hPa·day⁻¹ to -100 hPa·day⁻¹ of T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} is due to the 546 cumulative effects of a rising of the altitude of "apparent cloud base" (Z_{opaque}^{\dagger}) for Opaque clouds and Z_{Base}^{\dagger} for Thin clouds; 547 see monthly mean $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ gridded Z_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and Z_{Thin}^{\boxplus} on Fig. 11c) and an elongation of the cloud vertical distribution which 548 gives even higher Z_{Top}^{\dagger} (see monthly mean 2°×2° gridded distance of "apparent cloud base" $Z_{Top}^{\boxplus} - Z_{Opaque}^{\boxplus}$ and $Z_{Top}^{\boxplus} - Z_{Opaque}^{\parallel}$ 549 Z_{Base}^{\boxplus} on Fig. 11d). Figure 11e shows the distribution in dynamical regimes of ε_{Thin} . It increases from 0.31 to 0.42 between 550 20 hPa·day⁻¹ and -100 hPa·day⁻¹, being almost invariant from month to month, and it is around 0.32 in average in subsidence 551 552 region.

553 An interesting point which that appears in these figures is, in the tropics, the very small variability in the relationship between cloud properties and ω_{500} in dynamical regimes between 20 hPa day⁻¹ and -100 hPa day⁻¹: standard 554 deviation is around 2.5% for C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} , less than 2% for C_{Thin}^{\boxplus} , around 2.5 K for T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} , less than 3 K for T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} , 555 approximately 0.01 for ε_{Thin} , around 350 m for Z_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and Z_{Base}^{\boxplus} , 300 m for $Z_{Top}^{\boxplus} - Z_{Opaque}^{\boxplus}$ and 200 m for $Z_{Top}^{\boxplus} - Z_{Base}^{\boxplus}$. 556 557 So, a change in the large-scale dynamic regimes produces a change in the cloud properties and CRE that seem predictable. For example, if an intensification of the upward air motions velocity change ω_{500} on a region changes from -40 hPa day⁻¹ to 558 -80 hPa·day⁻¹, C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} would will increase by 8 % (C_{Thin}^{\boxplus} will remain more or less constant), T_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} will decrease by 10 K 559 and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} by 7 K, and ε_{Thin} will increase by 0.03. These cloud changes would increase the CRE by 17 W·m⁻² including 560 14 W·m⁻² from Opaque clouds (Fig. 11f). Because C_{Thin}^{\boxplus} will remain more or less constant whereas C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} will increase 561 562 with a decrease of ω_{500} in ascendingance-regime, the relative contribution of Opaque clouds to the total CRE will be more 563 and more important asincrease with convection increases. This is why we see in Fig. 11g a decrease of the Thin clouds relative contribution from 20 hPa·day⁻¹ to -100 hPa·day⁻¹. 564



FIG. 11. Tropical mean cloud properties and radiative effects as a function of the 500-hPa pressure velocity: (a) C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} and C_{Thin}^{\ddagger} , (b) T_{Opaque}^{\oplus} among Opaque clouds and T_{Thin}^{\boxplus} among Thin clouds, (c) Z_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} among Opaque clouds and Z_{Base}^{\boxplus} among Thin clouds, (d) $Z_{Top}^{\boxplus} - Z_{Opaque}^{\boxplus}$ among Opaque clouds and $Z_{Top}^{\boxplus} - Z_{Base}^{\boxplus}$ among Thin clouds, (e) $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\boxplus}$ among Thin clouds, (f) total CRE, Opaque CRE and Thin CRE and (g) relative contribution of Opaque CRE and Thin CRE. (h) Distribution of the 500-hPa pressure velocity. Results obtained from monthly mean 2°×2° gridded variables. Only nighttime conditions_over ice-free oceans for the 2008–2015 period in [30°S–30°N] is-arc considered. The error bars show the ± standard deviation of the 96-monthly means.

Because cloud properties seem to be invariants for dynamical regimes <u>between 20 hPa·day⁻¹ and -100 hPa·day⁻¹</u>, a change in the tropics of the large-scale circulation should <u>provide-lead to a predictable</u> change in the CRE <u>in regions that stay</u> in this range of dynamical regimes, predictable and linked to the spatial distribution (both covers and altitudes) of Opaque

- 572 clouds and Thin clouds sounded by CALIOP. For example, under global warming, climategeneral circulation models suggest
- 573 <u>that a warmer climate will see a narrowing of the ascending branch of the Hadley cell (e.g. Su et al., 2014), which means less</u>
- 574 convective regions and more subsiding regions. This and which should result in a predictable decrease of the CRE,
- 575 predictable knowing the changes of ω_{500} all over<u>for some part of</u> the tropics.

576 6 Limitations of the OLR linear expression

In this study, from the direct measurement of the <u>altitude of opacity for a atmosphere opacity by</u> spaceborne lidar, termed Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} , we were able to infer the radiative temperature of Opaque clouds T_{opaque}^{\dagger} , which we found linearly linked related to the OLR. We propose Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} as a good candidate to provide an observational constraint on the LW CRE. W and we tested the linear relationship at different space scales from instantaneous to monthly means. HereinbelowIn this section, we list possible reasons for sources of uncertaint<u>yies</u>.

582 6.1 Cloud radiative temperatures T^{\dagger}_{Opaque} and T^{\dagger}_{Thin}

<u>The definitions of the c</u>-loud radiative temperatures T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} and T_{Thin}^{\dagger} definitions (Section 3.1) only take into 583 account the apparent cloud extremities edges seen by the lidar (Z_{Top}^{\dagger}) and Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} or Z_{Base}^{\dagger}). A temperature defined by the edges seen by the lidar (Z_{Top}^{\dagger}) and Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} or Z_{Base}^{\dagger}). 584 centroid altitude (Garnier et al., 2012) would take into better account for the entire cloud vertical profile-, and It could give a 585 586 better_estimate better of the equivalent radiative temperature. However, our results show that the CRE is mainly driven by Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} and Z_{Top}^{\dagger} over above Opaque clouds and Z_{Base}^{\dagger} and Z_{Top}^{\dagger} over above Thin clouds. Furthermore, observational-based 587 588 studies from the Atmospheric InfraRed Sounder (AIRS) and CALIOP showed that the radiative cloud height is located at 589 near the "apparent middle" of the cloud (Stubenrauch et al., 2010). The authors defininge the "apparent middle" of the cloud as the middle between the cloud top (Z_{Top}^{\dagger}) and the "apparent" cloud base seesing by the CALIOP lidar (Z_{Base}^{\dagger}) for Thin clouds 590 591 and Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} for Opaque clouds), consistently with our own definitions (Eqs. (1) and (2)).

592 <u>6.2 Multi-layer cloud and broken cloud situations</u>

593 Plotting the results of Fig. 6 in single-cloud-layer situations (not shownFig. A4c,d) showsgives better correlation 594 coefficients, with R = 0.99 for Opaque clouds and R = 0.92 for Thin clouds. It reveals that This shows our linear expression 595 ean be affected by additional uncertainties does not capture non-linearities which can occur in multi-layers situations 596 (Fig. A4e,f). As an example, all the occurrences far from and away above over the identity line in Fig. 6a are due to eloud 597 multi-layers situations. For single columns with Opaque cloud-single columns, taking into account the optical depth of the thinner cloud which overlaps an Opaque cloud in the expression of T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} improves the results for the multi-layer scenario 598 599 from R = 0.79 (Fig. A4e) to R = 0.86 (Fig. A5)-(R = 0.97). However, this subtlety adds complexity to the compute ation of T^{\dagger}_{Opaque} , and only gives provides small improvements to a simple expression with which already provides very satisfying 600 601 results when considering all scenarios (R = 0.95 on Fig. 6a). 602 When clouds are broken, single lidar shots, having a 90 m diameter footprint, can fall on the edge of an Opaque

when clouds are broken, single lidar shots, having a 90 m diameter footprint, can fall on the edge of an Opaque cloud leading to signals from both cloud and the atmosphere and surface below the cloud in the same lidar profile. In this case an Opaque cloud can appear to be semi-transparent. Thus, the frequency of liquid clouds ($T \ge 0^{\circ}$ C) classified as Thin clouds (Fig. 4c) may be exaggerated as most liquid clouds are optically dense and not penetrated by lidar. This misclassification does not affect the computation of OLR, as OLR_{Thin}^{\odot} derived from lidar observations when $T_{Thin}^{\odot} \ge 0^{\circ}$ C show excellent agreement with measurements made by CERES (R = 0.94; Fig. A6).

608 6.2-3 Evaluation of the OLR over Thin clouds

609 We saw that the theoretical linear expression of OLR_{Thin}^{\dagger} for a fixed $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ overestimates the simulated 610 onerelationship, by up to +10 W·m⁻² for-in many cases (Section 4.1). This is partly due to the fact that the linear theoretical 611 expression does not takeing into account the diffusion scattering of the LW radiation within the clouds. It could partly This 612 <u>may partially</u> explain why $OLR_{Thin}^{\oslash (LID)}$ is large<u>r than compared to</u> the measured $OLR_{Thin}^{\oslash (CERES)}$ (Fig. 6b). However, we do not 613 think it should reallythis should substantially affect the global scale partitioning of $CRE_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ between $CRE_{Opaque}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ and 614 $CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus (LID)}$, because, replacing $CRE_{Thin}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ by the difference $CRE_{Total}^{\boxplus (CERES)} - CRE_{Opaque}^{\boxplus (LID)}$, reveals that only increases the 615 <u>contribution of</u> Opaque clouds <u>contributeto the total CRE</u> to 74 %, to the total CRE instead of 73 %.

616 Plotting results of Fig. 6 in single cloud layer situations (not shown) shows better correlation coefficients, with 617 R = 0.99 for Opaque clouds and R = 0.92 for Thin clouds. It reveals that our linear expression can be affected by additional 618 uncertainties in multilayers situations. As an example, all the occurrences far from and over the identity line in Fig. 6a are 619 due to cloud multilayers. For Opaque cloud single columns, taking into account the optical depth of the thinner cloud which 620 overlaps an Opaque cloud in the expression of T^{\dagger}_{Opaque} improves the results (R = 0.97). However, this subtlety adds 621 complexity to compute T^{\dagger}_{Opaque} , and only gives small improvements to a simple expression with already very satisfying 622 results (R = 0.95 on Fig. 6a).

Also, the value of $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\text{H}}$ used to construct $OLR_{Thin}^{\text{H}(LID)}$ does not account for Thin cloud single columns where no "Clear" bin is found below the cloud (these clouds are not present in the $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ PDFs of Fig. 4d). This happens when very low clouds are present in the lowest 480 m bin_{Ta} and Sso, emissivities of Thin clouds close to the surface are not taken into account in the averaged $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\text{H}}$. But since all these "missed" cloud emissivities are from clouds near the surface, their temperature is certainly close to the surface temperature and their LW CRE should be small. So, this effect should have no significant impact on the presented results.

629 Moreover<u>Further</u>, applying OLR_{Thin}^{\dagger} Eq. (4) to 2°×2° gridded variables introduces errors since the equation is non-630 linear (the product of T_{Thin}^{\dagger} and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$) unlike Eq. (5) for the OLR_{Opaque}^{\dagger} Eq. (5) which is linearly dependent on T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} . 631 Given that $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\dagger}$ is mostly centered around 0.25 (Fig. 4d) it should not bring a substantial error, and However, the 632 comparison of the computed gridded OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus} (LID) against the measured OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus} (CERES) has shown very good agreement.

Finally, due to the fact thatsince one of the objectives of the GOCCP product was built in order to avoid false cloud detections during both nighttime and daytime conditions, the signal threshold chosen for cloud detection is quite large, implies meaning that GOCCP does not detect high clouds with an optical depths smaller than about 0.07 are absent from GOCCP (Chepfer et al., 2010, 2013). These subvisible cirrus clouds are not included therefore excluded from in this study, but as their emissivities are very small (smaller than about 0.03), they would ill likely not change the impact our results of the paper.

639 6.3-4 Gridded OLR

Concerning gridded OLR, it should be noted that we used monthly mean OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from CERES-EBAF in Eqs. (4-640 641 5) instead of instantaneous OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from C3M since this product is only available up to April 2011. Clear sky OLR from 642 CERES-EBAF data is derived only from measurements over Clear sky atmospheric columns which are generally drier than 643 the clear part of a cloudy atmospheric CERES column. Then, bB ecause a drier atmospheric column leads to a stronger OLR (e.g. Spencer and Braswell, 1997; Dessler et al., 2008; Roca et al., 2012), OLR[⊞]_{Clear} from CERES-EBAF should 644 overestimates OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from C3M ion average. The diurnal cycle, which is taken into account in OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from CERES-645 EBAF but not in OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from C3M (since we only used nighttime observations) could also play a role in the difference. 646 We found an increase of 0.6 W·m⁻² for the global mean $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ computed with OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from CERES-EBAF compared 647 to $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ computed with OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from C3M for the 2008–2010 period. 648

Differences <u>between $OLR_{Total}^{\text{H}(LID)}$ and $OLR_{Total}^{\text{H}(CERES)}$ </u> could also be related, to multi-layer clouds in atmospheric single columns, to <u>cloud</u> microphysicsal <u>cloud</u> properties, and to differences in local atmospheric properties. However, using this very simple expression of for the OLR give an excellent correlation (R = 0.95) between monthly mean $OLR_{Total}^{\text{H}(LID)}$ and $OLR_{Total}^{\text{H}(CERES)}$ and a good agreement of the linear regression with the identity line (appendix C, 2D distribution of monthly means 2°×2° gridded measured and computed OLR is given in Fig. <u>A4A6</u>).

654 6.4-<u>5</u> Sensitivity to Z[|]_{Opague} and to the multiple scattering factor

We also checked the sensitivity of $OLR_{Total}^{\text{\ensuremath{\square}}(LID)}$ to the uncertainty in the altitude of full attenuation of the lidar <u>signal</u>. To do this, we <u>computed the $OLR_{Total}^{\text{\ensuremath{\square}}(LID)}$ assuming conducted a test by moving Z_{Opaque}^{l} one bin up (480 m) in all Opaque</u> single columns is located one bin (480 m) higher than Z_{Opaque}^{l} given by <u>GOCCP</u> v3.0. (as moving Z_{Opaque}^{l} one bin down would have led to negative values for some Z_{Opaque}^{l}). This leads to a modification of changes the Opaque cloud radiative temperature, and then to a modification of the OLR_{Opaque}^{l} and so the $OLR_{Total}^{\text{\ensuremath{\square}}(LID)}$. Doing this Results show that after this change; decreases the global mean $OLR_{Total}^{\text{\ensuremath{\square}}(LID)}$ from is decreased by 0.9 W·m⁻² (appendix D, Fig. A5aA7a).

Finally, the use of a fixed multiple scattering factor η is used for the retrievaling of the Thin cloud emissivity, whereas it dependsthere is evidence of a dependence on cloud temperature (Garnier et al., 2015). This, could also play an important role in the differences between computed $OLR_{Thin}^{\oslash (LID)}$ and measured $OLR_{Thin}^{\odot (CERES)}$. We tested the sensitivity of **a** change variability in η on the computed $OLR_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$, by modifying the value of η from 0.6 to 0.5. It-This reduceds the global mean $OLR_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$ from by 1.1 W·m⁻² (appendix D, Fig. A5bA7b), which we consider negligible compared to the global mean value of $CRE_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ equal to 28.4 W·m⁻².

668 7 Conclusion

Simple radiative transfer models that estimate the top of the atmosphere outgoing radiations at the TOA as a function of from a limited number of variables are useful tools to build a first-order decomposition of climate feedbacks. Such simple models exist in the SW domain, but not in the LW domain because the LW fluxes are sensitive to the cloud vertical distribution, making the definition of such a simple model more challenging in the LW than in the SW. In this work, we propose a simple LW radiative model which express derives the LW CRE as a function of firom five variables: two of them describinge the Opaque clouds (Opaque cloud cover, and Opaque cloud radiative temperature) and three which others describe the semi-transparent clouds (Thin cloud cover, Thin cloud radiative temperature, and Thin cloud emissivity).

676 The originality of the our approach proposed in this paper relies on in how the cloud vertical distribution is 677 described in this simple radiative transfer model. We have used three altitude levels of altitude which can be precisely 678 documented-measured by a-space-borne lidar to describe the cloud vertical distribution within the simple radiative model. 679 Our approach contrasts with the techniques based on passive space-borne sensors because those latter measure vertically 680 integrated variables and that do not provide direct retrieve effective cloud heights rather than profile information on the cloud 681 vertical distribution. Our approach also contrasts with techniques based on full-profile lidar/radar measurements that 682 useusing 40 levels of altitude (or more) to describe the cloud vertical distribution in the troposphere. In this work, we have 683 taken advantage of the precision and accuracy of the space-borne lidar to describe the cloud vertical structure, but have we 684 retained only three levels of altitude out of the 40 or more, to describe the cloud vertical distribution. Considering only three 685 levels of altitude allows toallows us build a simple radiative models, useful for first-order cloud feedback analysis, given that 686 the more complex radiative transfer models using 40-all altitude levels cannot hardly be used for this purpose. We have 687 selected tThe three levels of altitude that we have selected are the ones which that influence the most the OLR the most 1) the cloud top altitude $Z_{Top^2}^{\dagger}$ 2) the level of full attenuation of the lidar laser beam $Z_{Opaque^2}^{\dagger}$ in a single columns containing an 688 689 Opaque cloud, and 3) the cloud base Z_{Base1}^{\dagger} in a single columns containing a semi-transparent Thin cloud. These three levels 690 of altitudes have two advantages: they are first_order drivers of the LW CRE, and they have been measured precisely and 691 unambiguously over a decade with the CALIPSO space-borne lidar.

692 Using radiative transfer computations, we found that the OLR above an opaque cloud can be expressed linearly as a function of the <u>"Opaque</u> temperature": $OLR_{Opaque}^{\dagger} = 2.0T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} - 310$, where T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} is obtained from the combination of 693 the cloud top altitude Z_{Top}^{\dagger} , the level of full attenuation of the lidar laser beam Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} , and a temperature profile taken from 694 695 a reanalysis product. From tThis simple relationship predicts, it results that if the altitude an Opaque cloud rises up, and increases so as to decreases its T_{Opaque}^{\dagger} by 1 K, then the OLR is decreased by 2 W·m⁻². Using this linear relationship 696 697 together with CALIPSO and CERES observations, we estimated the contribution of the Opaque clouds to the global mean 698 LW CRE-that Opaque clouds, which cover 35 % of the ice-free ocean, contribute to 73 % of the global mean eloud radiative 699 effectCRE whereas Thin clouds, which cover 36 %, contribute to 27 %.

700 We checked the robustness of theis linear relationship given here above against observations at two different space 701 and time scales. First, we tested the Using instantaneous time scale at small space scale (20 km) using collocated 702 observations from the CALIPSO lidar data collocated withand CERES broadband radiometer data at the sensor spatial scale (20 km)_{-,} w We found a correlation coefficient of 0.95 between the lidar derived T_{Opaque}^{\emptyset} and the OLR measured by the 703 704 broadband radiometer CERES. Second, we tested the validity of the relationship using Averaging the same data monthly 705 mean data within 2° latitude × 2° longitude grid boxes. There we found that the global annual mean OLR derived from the 706 combination of the lidar data and the linear relationship, our derived OLR differs by 0.1 W·m⁻² from the OLR measured by 707 CERES.

708 To conclude, this paper proposes a simple approximate formulation of solution to the complex problem of radiative 709 transfer in the LW domain, that-which could be used to explore first-order LW cloud feedbacks in both observations and 710 climate model simulations. On the observational side, future work will consist in-analyzinge the inter-annual variability of 711 the record collected by space-borne lidars and broadband radiometers: CALIPSO/CERES in the A-train (10+ years), 712 followed completed by EarthCare EarthCARE (Illingworth et al., 2014) to be launched in the coming years2018. On the 713 climate model simulation side, this new framework will be included in the Cloud Feedback Model Intercomparison Project 714 (CFMIP) Observation Simulator Package (COSP; Bodas-Salcedo et al., 2011) lidar simulator (Chepfer et al., 2008) and 715 applied to climate model outputs in order to quantify the role-contribution of each cloud property in-to the simulated cloud 716 feedbacks.

718 Appendix A: Radiative cloud temperature

Schematically, if we consider an optically uniform cloud, i.e. the LW optical depth $\delta \tau^{LW|}$ increases linearly through the cloud, with a cloud total LW optical depth $\delta \tau^{LW|}_{cloud}$, we can compute the upward LW radiative flux emitted by the cloud at the top of the cloud ($\delta \tau^{LW|} = 0$). Neglecting the cloud particle reflectivity in the longwave domain, from the integral form of the Schwarzschild's equation, we can express the upward zenithal spectral radiance I_v^{\downarrow} emitted by the cloud at the top of the cloud:

724
$$I_{v_{cloud}}^{\dagger}\left(\underbrace{\delta\tau^{LW}}_{cloud}=0\right) = \int_{0}^{\delta\tau^{LW}}_{cloud}B_{v}\left(T\left(\underbrace{\delta\tau^{LW}}_{c}\right)\right)e^{-\delta\tau^{LW}}d\underbrace{\delta\tau^{LW}}_{cloud}\left[W\cdot m^{-2}\cdot sr^{-1}\cdot m^{-1}\right](A1)$$

725 Considering a linear increase of the temperature with $\delta \tau^{LW|}$ from the cloud top to the cloud base $(T(\delta \tau^{LW|}) =$ 726 $k_1 \delta \tau^{LW|} + k_2)$ and integrating I_{vcloud}^{\dagger} throughout the whole LW spectrum (using Stefan-Boltzmann law $\int B_v dv = \sigma T^4/\pi$), 727 we can write the LW radiance $I^{LW|}$ emitted by the cloud at the top of the cloud as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 728 & I_{Cloud}^{LW|} (\delta \tau^{LW|} = 0) = \int_{0}^{\delta \tau^{LW|}} \frac{\sigma}{\pi} (k_1 \delta \tau^{LW|} + k_2)^4 e^{-\delta \tau^{LW|}} d\delta \tau^{LW|}$$

$$[W \cdot m^{-2} \cdot sr^{-1}]$$

$$729 \quad (A2)$$

Assuming that the cloud emits as a Lambertian surface, the upward LW radiative flux $F^{\uparrow_{LW}|}$ emitted by the cloud at the top of the cloud is given by:

$$732 \qquad F_{cloud}^{\uparrow_{LW|}}(\mathfrak{F}^{\iota_{LW|}}=0) = \int_{0}^{\mathfrak{F}^{\iota_{LW|}}_{cloud}} \sigma \left(k_1 \mathfrak{F}^{\iota_{LW|}}+k_2\right)^4 e^{-\mathfrak{F}^{\iota_{LW|}}_{cloud}} d\mathfrak{F}^{\iota_{LW|}} \qquad [W \cdot m^{-2}]$$

$$(A3)$$

Then, for specific values of coefficient k_1 and k_2 , which determine the gradient of temperature in the cloud and the cloud top temperature (and so the cloud base temperature knowing $\delta \tau_{Cloud}^{LW|}$), it is possible to compute $F_{Cloud}^{\uparrow_{LW|}}(\delta \tau^{LW|} = 0)$ and then solve the equation $F_{Cloud}^{\uparrow_{LW|}}(\delta \tau^{LW|} = 0) = \varepsilon |\sigma(T_{rad}^{\dag})^4 = (1 - e^{-\delta \tau_{Cloud}^{LW|}}) \sigma(T_{rad}^{\dag})^4$ to find the corresponding equivalent cloud radiative temperature T_{rad}^{\dag} .

738 Appendix B: Vertical distributions of clouds directly observed by CALIOP

739 For 3 regions, as for Fig. 4, Fig. A1 shows distributions of the distance between cloud top and Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} among 740 Opaque clouds and the distance between cloud top and cloud base-among Thin clouds. In the 3 regions, when an Opaque cloud (Fig. A1a) is penetrated by the laser beam of the lidar, Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} is mostly found in the 1st km below Z_{Top}^{\dagger} (30 % in the 741 tropical convective region, 52 % in the mid-latitudes region and 75 % in the tropical subsiding region). The frequency 742 distribution collapses after 1 km (note the logarithmic y-axis). The greater altitude differences between Z_{Top}^{\dagger} and Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} can 743 be due to a more vertically spread cloud or to multiple cloud layers. If we look at the dashed lines, which represent the part 744 745 of the PDF considering only profiles without multilayers, we can see that the curves of the 3 regions fall to zero around 4-746 5 km. This means that all the part of PDFs over 5 km are due to eloud-multi-layers clouds. It also suggests that the laser 747 beam never sounds deeper than 5 km within a cloud.

Regarding Thin clouds (Fig. A1b), we mostly found Z_{Base}^{\dagger} in the 1st km below Z_{Top}^{\dagger} (49 % in the tropical convective region, 68 % in the mid-latitudes region and 76 % in tropical subsiding region). The frequency distribution collapses after 1 km (again, note the logarithmic y-axis). The part of the PDF of profiles without multilayer (dashed lines), i.e. single columns which contain only one optically thin cloud layer and so directly represent the geometrical thickness of Thin clouds, fall to zero around 4–5 km. This means, as for Opaque clouds, that all the part of PDFs over 5 km are due to overlap of multiple-multi-layer clouds-layers. It therefore suggests, if we look at both Figs. A1a and A1b, that the laser beam is not able go through the entire cloud if its vertical geometrical thickness is greater than 5 km. In other words, a cloud with a vertical 755 geometrical thickness greater than 5 km is always declared as an Opaque cloud. Furthermore, as PDFs collapse after 1 km in

both figures Ala and Alb and for all regions, it also suggests that, even if the maximum penetration depth is 5 km, the laser

- 757 beam is almost every time totally attenuated when exceeding 1 km thickness.
- 758

Appendix C: Verification of the lidar-derived gridded OLR against CERES observations

Figure A4-A7 shows the correlation between the OLR computed from lidar observations $(OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)})$ and the OLR measured by the CERES radiometer on-board the Aqua satellite on which we extract only footprints collocated with the CALIPSO ground track $(OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (CERES)})$ for nighttime and over ice-free oceans on 2°×2° monthly means for the 2008. We found an excellent correlation (R = 0.95) and the regression slope is near the one-to-one line which reinforces our confidence in this simple OLR expression to correctly estimate the observed OLR.

Appendix D: Sensitivity of the lidar-derived gridded OLR to $Z_{Opaque}^{|}$ and to the multiple scattering factor

Figure A5a-A8a shows the difference between lidar-derived gridded $OLR_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$ shown in Fig. 7a and the one which 765 would be obtain if Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} was found 480 m higher. To do this, we replaced the altitude Z_{opaque}^{\dagger} of each Opaque cloud 766 single column found with the lidar by the bin above, so the altitude of Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} is systematically increased by 480 m. We 767 then recomputed $OLR_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$ in the exact same way as described in this paper. The effect of an increase in the altitude of 768 Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} is a global mean decrease in $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ by 0.9 W·m⁻². Areas where $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ is the most affected correspond to 769 770 areas with large values of Opaque cloud cover (patterns for 2008-2015 period on Fig. 2a are quite similar to those for the 771 year 2008) except for the stratocumulus regions off the West coasts of the African, the American and the Oceanian continents where C_{Opaque}^{\boxplus} is large but where $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LD)}$ change is not very pronounced. A higher Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} increases the level 772 of the radiative temperature of the Opaque clouds, so decreases this temperature and then weakens $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$. Since 773 $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ is not affected as much in the stratocumulus regions, this suggests that vertical temperature gradient where these 774 775 clouds are founded must be weak.

Figure A5b-A8b shows the difference between lidar-derived gridded $OLR_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$ shown in Fig. 7a and the one which is obtain using a fixed multiple scattering factor $\eta = 0.5$ instead of $\eta = 0.6$. Decreasing η , increases the retrieved emissivity of the Thin clouds by 0.05. Consequently, areas where Thin cloud cover is large and where they are high and cold, so where they have a strong cloud radiative effect, are regions where $OLR_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$ is the most affected by this change (in the multiple scattering factor), up to a decrease of 3.5 W·m⁻² in the Indonesian region.



FIG. A1. Distributions of (a) the distance between cloud top and Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} among Opaque clouds and (b) the distance between cloud top and cloud base among Thin clouds in three regions: same as Fig. 4. Dashed lines represent the distribution only among single columns where a unique cloud layer was found (no multiple cloud layers). Only nighttime <u>conditions</u> over ice-free oceans for the 2008–2015 period is <u>are</u> considered.



FIG. A2. Comparison between observed and lidar-derived OLR, at CERES footprint scale, as a function of T_{Thin}^{\emptyset} and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\emptyset}$. Results obtained from CERES (dots) and CALIOP (lines) collocated measurements. Theoretical expressions are from Eq. (4). Same results as in Fig. 6b but only for measurements where OLR_{Clear}^{\emptyset} is close to 280 W·m⁻² selected $(OLR_{Clear}^{\emptyset} \in [275-285] \text{ W·m}^2)$, in order to only see the contribution of T_{Thin}^{\emptyset} and $\varepsilon_{Thin}^{\emptyset}$ on the OLR. Only nighttime conditions_over ice-free oceans for January 2008 is-are considered.



FIG. A3. Same as Fig. 7 but using OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from CERES-EBAF instead of OLR_{Clear}^{\boxplus} from CERES-Aqua in the calculation of $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus(LID)}$.

FIG. A4A7. Comparison between observed and lidarderived OLR at monthly mean 2°×2° gridded scale. Only nighttime conditions over ice-free oceans for the 2008-year period is are considered.

807

FIG. A5A8. Sensitivity of the lidar-derived annual-mean gridded $OLR_{Total}^{\bigoplus (LID)}$ to the altitude of full attenuation of the lidar into Opaque 808 clouds Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} and to the multiple scattering factor η : (a) difference between $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ of Fig. 7a and $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ which would be obtain if Z_{Opaque}^{\dagger} was found a 480 m-bin upper and (b) difference between $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ of Fig. 7a and $OLR_{Total}^{\boxplus (LID)}$ which is obtain using a 809 810 811 fixed multiple scattering factor $\eta = 0.5$ instead of $\eta = 0.6$. Only nighttime <u>conditions</u> over ice-free oceans for the 2008 year is-are 812 considered.

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