

1 **Low-level marine tropical clouds in six CMIP6 models are too few, too bright**
2 **but also too compact and too homogeneous**
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42 **Abstract**

43 Several studies have shown that most climate models underestimate cloud cover and overestimate
44 cloud reflectivity, particularly for the tropical low-level clouds. Here we analyze the characteristics
45 of low-level tropical marine clouds simulated by six climate models, which provided COSP output
46 within the CMIP6 project. CALIPSO lidar observations and PARASOL mono-directional
47 reflectance are used for model evaluation. It is found that the ‘too few, too bright’ bias is still
48 present for these models. The reflectance is particularly overestimated when cloud cover is low.
49 Models do not simulate any optically thin clouds. They fail to reproduce the increasing cloud
50 optical depth with increasing lower tropospheric stability as observed. These results suggest that
51 most models do not sufficiently account for the effect of the small-scale spatial heterogeneity in
52 cloud properties or the variety of cloud types at the grid scale that is observed.

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1. Introduction

Low-level clouds are ubiquitous in the tropics and play an important role in the Earth’s radiative budget and climate radiative feedbacks. Low-level cloud feedback differences are a major source of spread in model estimates of climate sensitivity (e.g., Roeckner et al., 1987; Bony and Dufresne, 2005; Webb et al., 2006; Vial et al., 2013; Zelinka et al., 2020).

The cloud radiative effect in the SW (shortwave) primarily depends on the cloud cover, but also on cloud albedo. Several studies have shown that most climate models underestimate the cloud cover and overestimate the cloud albedo, a deficiency referred to as the ‘too few too bright bias’ (e.g., Webb et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2005; Nam et al., 2012; Klein et al., 2013). The coupling between these two biases mainly results from the radiation budget tuning of coupled atmosphere-ocean climate models, needed to prevent any global temperature drift due to an unbalanced energy budget (e.g., Mauritsen et al., 2012; Hourdin et al., 2017). This deficiency particularly impacts tropical marine low-level clouds (Webb et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2005; Nam et al., 2012; Klein et al., 2013). The goal of this study is to examine whether the “too few too bright” bias is still present in six models that recently participated to the sixth phase of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP6) (Eyring et al., 2016), and to examine whether it may have a common origin among different climate models.

The CMIP6 climate models, the satellite observations and the methodology used for the model evaluation are described in Sect. 2. The simulated cloud cover, reflectance and vertical distribution are analyzed section 3. Conclusions are given in Sect. 4.

2. Methodology

2.1 CMIP6 models and COSP simulator

Six general circulation models (GCMs) that participated in CMIP6 are considered (Table S1 in supporting information). We analyze the results of the AMIP experiment where atmospheric models are forced with observed sea surface temperatures and sea-ice cover. This AMIP model configuration, in which the interannual variability is rather consistent with the historical sequence, especially over the tropical ocean, allows us to use a shorter record for model-observation comparison than if coupled configuration was used. The simulated cloud properties are compared with observations over the 2007-2010 period using the Cloud Feedback Model Intercomparison Project (CFMIP) Observation Simulator Package (COSP) (Bodas-Salcedo et al., 2011). More specifically, we use the CALIPSO (Chepfer et al., 2008) and PARASOL (Konsta et al., 2016) simulators that compute the cloud cover, the vertical profile of the cloud fraction and the cloud reflectance that may be directly compared with observations. The total reflectance observed by the instrument contains the clear sky contribution. The cloud reflectance CR, which excludes the contribution of the clear sky around clouds, is calculated for every grid cell and for each time step, according to the relation

$$CR = [R - (1 - CC) * CSR] / CC \quad (2.1)$$

where R is the monodirectional total reflectance, CC is the cloud cover estimated by the lidar simulator and CSR is the clear-sky reflectance (Konsta et al., 2016).

The analysis of the instantaneous cloud properties gives a detailed view of how the parameterizations actually work, allowing a more demanding evaluation of their behaviors and possibly finding ways to improve them (Konsta et al., 2016). For that reason we use the highest possible temporal resolution, which is a daily resolution for the CMIP6 experiments analyzed here, meaning that Eq. 2.1 is calculated using the daily averages of CC and CR. Using multiple models (IPSL-CM6A, CNRM, MRI and HadGEM3) we verified that the analysis results shown here are

105 consistent when using either daily outputs or outputs every 3 hours. Regarding the spatial resolution,
106 we keep the native resolution of the models (Table S1), which is close to that of the observations
107 ($2^\circ \times 2^\circ$).

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109 2.2. Observational and reanalysis datasets

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111 For each GCM, we compare the cloud cover and the cloud vertical distribution simulated by
112 COSP with the GCM-Oriented CALIPSO Cloud Product (GOCCP), developed to be consistent
113 with COSP (Chepfer et al., 2010). Here we use four years of observations (2007-2010) of daily
114 statistics being representative of the cloud climatology over a $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ grid and with a vertical
115 resolution of 480 m. Clouds present at a pressure larger than 680 hPa are considered as low-level
116 clouds following ISCCP definition. A more detailed description of the observational and reanalysis
117 datasets is presented in Text S1.

118

119 The PARASOL satellite provides measurements of reflectance at $6 \times 6 \text{ km}^2$ (Tanré et al.,
120 2011). The monodirectional reflectance measurements are only kept for one viewing angle (Konsta
121 et al., 2012) and are collocated to the CALIPSO trace. Then, in every $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ grid box, the mean
122 cloud reflectance is calculated from the values of the reflectance observed by PARASOL and the
123 cloud cover observed by CALIPSO at the same time (Eq. 2.1) (Konsta et al., 2012). The directional
124 cloud reflectance is chosen because it is less sensitive to cloud geometry and instrument viewing
125 angle than the cloud albedo and is essentially dependent on the cloud optical depth (Konsta et al.,
126 2016). Cloud optical depth increases with cloud reflectance, e.g. cloud reflectance of 0.1, 0.3 and
127 0.6 correspond to values of cloud optical depth of about 1.6, 5.5, and 16.5 respectively for
128 homogeneous liquid water clouds composed of spherical droplets. Cloud albedo and cloud
129 reflectance are closely related and the two can be merged if one wishes to retain only a general
130 image (Fig. S1).

131

132 In order to analyze how cloud properties depend on their environment, we use the ERA-
133 Interim atmospheric reanalysis (Dee et al., 2011). These data are interpolated on a $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ grid at
134 13:30 local time, the approximate time of the CALIPSO/PARASOL daytime passing in the tropics.
135 We will make use of the lower tropospheric stability (LTS), defined as the potential temperature
136 difference $\Delta\theta$ between the 700 hPa level and the surface (e.g., Klein and Hartmann 1993).

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140 3. Low-level tropical marine clouds in six CMIP6 models

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143 We focus on the tropical ocean (30°S - 30°N) and on situations where low-level clouds are the
144 dominant clouds. To determine whether low-level clouds are dominant in a mesh, we use as a
145 criterion that the fraction CC_{low} of low-level clouds is larger than 90% of the total cloud cover
146 ($\text{CC}_{\text{low}} > 0.9 * \text{CC}$). Adding the criterion of excluding mid and high-level clouds ($\text{CC}_{\text{mid}} +$
147 $\text{CC}_{\text{high}} < 0.1 * \text{CC}$) did not significantly change the results (Konsta et al., 2012). We obtain that the
148 relative frequency of occurrence of situations where low-level clouds are dominant in a $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ grid
149 cell over tropical oceans is 35% in observations and from 27% up to 40% in models (Fig. S2). This
150 is consistent with the value of about 30% obtained by Oreopoulos et al. (2017). All the results
151 presented in the rest of the paper concern these situations.

152

153 The multi-model mean low-level cloud cover presents a spatial pattern that corresponds globally to
154 the observations with fairly low and uniform values in the trade wind regions, and higher values in
155 the east of the ocean basins (Fig. 1a,c). However, observations show that the cloud cover is close to
156 1 along the east coast of the tropical oceans, while the model ensemble mean cloud cover is only

157 about 0.7 above the same areas. Beyond the multi-model mean, this underestimation of cloud cover
158 is present in all models except IPSL-CM6A (see Fig. S3 for individual models). This bias is not due
159 to the too low occurrence of clouds with the right fraction but rather to lack of clouds with a high
160 fraction (Fig. 1e). The frequency of occurrence of low-level clouds with a fraction close to 1 is
161 small for all models due to parameterization problems in the stratocumulus clouds (Slingo, 1980;
162 Kawai et al., 2019), except IPSL-CM6A, for which dedicated developments clearly improved their
163 representation (Hourdin et al., 2019) but led to an overestimation of their occurrence. For cloud
164 cover lower than 1, observations show a fairly flat statistical distribution with a maximum around
165 0.35, while almost all models show a more sharp and skewed distribution, with a maximum around
166 0.1-0.2 (Fig. 1e). This high frequency of occurrence of low cloud cover is found in the observations
167 for small tropical cumulus clouds (Mieslinger et al., 2019). An exception is MIROC6 which shows
168 a fairly flat statistical distribution, but a maximum around 0.6.

169
170 For the cloud reflectance, the difference between observations and models is even more dramatic
171 (Fig. 1b,d) (see Fig. S3 for individual models). The observed reflectance PDF is highly skewed and
172 peaks at a low value of 0.12 (Fig. 1f). The most frequent low-level clouds have a low reflectance.
173 The PDF of the models' reflectance is in contrast almost symmetric, centered at a much higher
174 value. The median of the cloud reflectance is about 0.15 for the observations. It is much larger for
175 the models, going from 0.25 (for IPSL-CM6A) up to 0.4 (for HadGEM3) with a mean value of
176 about 0.35.

177 178 179 3.2. Relationship between low-level cloud cover and brightness

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181 We now analyze the covariation between cloud fraction and cloud reflectance. Two separate cloud
182 populations appear clearly in the observations (Fig. 2a): one population with a small or intermediate
183 cover ($CC < 60\%$) and a small reflectance ($CR < 0.3$) corresponding to cumulus clouds with cumulus
184 cloud regime covering most of the ocean, and another population with a large reflectance ($0.2 < CR$
185 < 0.7) and a cloud cover close to one corresponding to stratocumulus clouds mainly on the east side
186 of the ocean basins (Konsta et al., 2016). This is consistent with what is already shown in Figure 1
187 but emphasizes that, for cumulus clouds, their reflectance is low when their cover is low, and it
188 increases with increasing cloud cover. A synthesis view is shown in Fig. 2h, where cloud
189 reflectance has been averaged in each cloud cover bin. This is consistent with the results of Leahy et
190 al. (2012) who show that the relative fraction of optically thin clouds increases with decreasing low-
191 level cloud cover.

192
193 Models show a very different picture. As already noted in Fig. 1, only two models (IPSL-CM6A
194 and MRI) simulate the two distinct cloud populations. But what is clear here is the inability of the
195 models to simulate clouds with low fraction and low reflectance (i.e. low optical thickness, low
196 water content). Instead of showing an increase in cloud reflectance with increasing cloud cover,
197 several models show an opposite relationship, especially when the cloud cover is low. In these
198 models (HadGEM3, IPSL-CM6A and to a lesser degree GFDL), the smaller the cloud fraction, the
199 larger the cloud reflectance. This behavior was also noted in the IPSL-CM5 model family (Konsta
200 et al., 2016). However, several of them (IPSL, CNRM, HadGEM3, MIROC6 and GFDL) show a
201 positive relationship between cloud fraction and cloud reflectance when $CC > 0.4$. MIROC6
202 simulates the increase in cloud reflectance with the cloud fraction, but it fails to simulate enough
203 cloud with low fraction and clouds with small reflectance. MRI simulates the increase in cloud
204 reflectance with cloud fraction for the cumulus clouds only, but cumulus cloud reflectance is too
205 high and CR for high cloud fraction is too low. The difficulty of the models to reproduce the
206 increase of cloud reflectance with increasing cloud cover is evident in Fig. 2-h, and none of the
207 models simulate the low values of cloud reflectance when the cloud cover is low.

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209 3.3. Sensitivity of the low-level cloud properties to their environment

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211 As is well recognized (e.g., Klein and Hartmann 1993, Wood and Bretherton 2006), the cloud cover
212 increases when the LTS increases (Fig. 3a) in long-term observations. This feature is examined here
213 for instantaneous model/observations pairs and is shown to be reproduced by the models, with a
214 slope consistent with observations but with a bias that can be large. In models, the LTS when low-
215 level clouds are dominant are too low compared to those in the reanalysis, except for GFDL (Fig.
216 3c).

217

218 Observations show that the cloud reflectance increases with the LTS (Fig. 3b). But all models
219 simulate a decrease in cloud reflectance with increased LTS (Fig. 3b), i.e. a variation opposite to
220 that observed. This problem is consistent with the large difference between observations and models
221 in how cloud reflectance varies with cloud cover (Fig. 2).

222

223 Observations also show the increase of the cloud cover when the near-surface wind speed increases
224 (Fig. 3d) as explained in Nuijens et al. (2015) and already mentioned in previous analyses
225 (Mieslinger et al., 2019, Scott et al., 2020). In contrast, the models simulate no dependence, they
226 only exhibit a similar cloud cover – wind relationship for low wind speeds (except for MIROC) but
227 not when the surface wind speed exceeds about 5m/s. The cloud reflectance shows no dependence
228 on the surface wind speed both for the observations and the models (not shown).

229

230 3.4. Vertical structure of low-level cloud properties

231 The vertical structure of low-level clouds is critical as it may significantly impact low-level cloud
232 feedbacks (Brient et al. 2016). In observations, the low-level cloud fraction over ocean exceeds 10%
233 from slightly above the surface up to 2.5 km with a maximum of about 20% near 1.25 km (Fig. 4a).
234 Our sample of CMIP6 models do not show the strong bias present in most of the CMIP5 models for
235 which the cloud layer was confined within the first kilometer (Nam et al., 2012). However, the
236 models differ significantly from one to another; while HadGEM3, MRI and MIROC6 simulate the
237 maximum cloud fraction at a height close to that in the observations, other models simulate it at a
238 much lower (750 m in CNRM and GFDL) or higher altitude (2.2 km in IPSL). There is also a large
239 inter-model spread in the cloud fraction maximum, ranging from about 15 % (for CNRM, MRI and
240 GFDL) to about 30% for MIROC6, HadGEM3 being the closest to the observed value (~22%). It
241 should be noted that the 480 m vertical resolution of the data from the GOCCP observations and the
242 COSP simulator smooths the cloud profiles and therefore limits a detailed analysis along the
243 vertical.

244

245 CALPISO lidar permits observations of optically-thin low-level clouds ($CR < 0.2$, i.e. optical
246 thickness < 3) throughout their depth (Chepfer et al., 2008). As shown in section 3.1, these clouds
247 are dominant in observations but not in models. As compared to the overall cloud profile (Fig. 4a),
248 optically-thin clouds tend to be shallower on average (maximum peaks at 750 m) with reduced
249 cloudiness throughout cloud depth (Fig. 4b). All models (except IPSL) also simulate shallower
250 optically-thin clouds with a maximum cloud fraction at around 750 m. But, unlike in the
251 observations where optically-thin clouds can be found up to 2.5 km, in models these clouds remain
252 exclusively confined within the lowest atmospheric levels. The IPSL model is the only one to
253 simulate these clouds, yet with a strong overestimation of the amplitude and height of the cloud
254 fraction maximum.

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256 In observations, optically thick low-level clouds ($CR > 0.4$, i.e. optical thickness > 8) exhibit a
257 greater vertical extension and a significantly larger maximum fraction than optically-thin clouds.
258 Note that the sharp decrease in cloud fraction below the cloud peak height may be partially due to
259 the attenuation of the lidar beam as it passes through thick clouds. Thus, the cloud fractions at low
260 levels are strongly affected by the cloud top height in both models and observations.

261

262 To provide a more complete view, we show on Figure 4d how cloud top altitude varies with cloud
263 reflectance. In observations, the cloud-top height is at about 1.5 km, in good agreement with Lu et
264 al. (2021), and increases only slightly with the cloud reflectance. In contrast, this increase is
265 substantially stronger in the models, especially for optically-thin clouds (CR below 0.4-0.5). This is
266 also visible when the mean cloud-top altitude is shown as a function of both the cloud cover and the
267 cloud reflectance (Fig. S4). A hypothesis to explain this difference is that at the scale of a $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$
268 mesh some optically-thin veil clouds, commonly observed beneath the trade inversion in
269 stratocumulus-to-cumulus transition zones, but also more broadly over the tropical oceans (Kuang-
270 Ting et al., 2018; Wood et al. 2018), could be missing in models. Results shown on Figures 3 and 4
271 are not significantly changed when removing situations where stratocumulus type clouds are
272 dominant (cloud fraction above 0.9), which suggests that this discrepancy between observations and
273 models concerns primarily cumulus-type of clouds.

274

275 4. Discussion and Conclusions

276

277 The “too few and too bright” bias of low-level clouds is still present in the subset of CMIP6 models
278 we analyzed. The distribution of the observed daily cloud cover shows a broad maximum of cloud
279 fraction at around 0.35, and a sharp secondary maximum near 1 corresponding to stratocumulus
280 clouds over the eastern part of the ocean basins. For most of the models, this distribution has a
281 marked main mode for low values of cloud cover and a missing or very limited secondary
282 maximum for cloud cover near 1, except for IPSL-CM6A for which this secondary maximum is
283 large and for MIROC6 for which this distribution is flat and symmetrical. The errors on the daily
284 cloud reflectance are very different. The distribution is almost symmetrical for all models, while for
285 the observations the distribution is concentrated around the low values with a long tail towards the
286 high reflectance. This frequent occurrence of optically-thin low-level clouds is also found by Leahy
287 et al. (2012) and Mieslinger et al. (2021).

288

289 The co-variations of cloud cover and cloud reflectance also exhibit very different behaviors
290 between models and observations. While in observations the cloud reflectance increases as the
291 cloud fraction increases, models show either an inverse dependence or no dependence at all. The
292 cloud optical thickness in models is much too large when the cloud cover is low. A consequence of
293 this problem emerges when analyzing the dependence of cloud properties on cloud environmental
294 conditions. In particular, while the cloud fraction increases with the lower tropospheric stability in
295 both observations and models, the reflectance increases with the LTS in observations but not in
296 models.

297

298 The vertical profile of cloud fraction in this sample of CMIP6 models better agrees with that of the
299 observations than did the CMIP5 models (Nam et al., 2012). However, the cloud-top height is too
300 low for optically-thin clouds. Cloud-top height increases much faster with cloud optical thickness in
301 these CMIP6 models than in observations.

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303 These results may reflect the fact that outside the stratocumulus region on the eastern part of the
304 oceans, the models simulate small cumulus clouds that are “too compact”, i.e. low cloud cover, high
305 reflectance. This could arise if the models’ representation of clouds does not sufficiently account for
306 (if at all) the sub-grid scale heterogeneities of cloud properties. As noted by Del Genio et al. (1996),
307 GCM cloud schemes assume that the cloud fractions by area and by volume are equal, i.e. clouds
308 occupy the entire depth of individual model layers over the cloud fraction of that layer, whereas in
309 observations (Brooks et al., 2005) and LES models (Neggers et al., 2011) the former is much larger
310 than the later. Accounting for sub-grid scale heterogeneity in the geometry of clouds influences the
311 cloud radiative properties, by increasing the fraction and reducing the reflectance (Jouhaud et al.,
312 2018). In addition, accounting for sub-grid scale heterogeneity in the autoconversion rate reduces
313 the cloud water content (Hotta, et al., 2020), and thus the cloud reflectance.

314

315 A complementary hypothesis is that the models simulate too often, or even almost exclusively,
316 small cumulus clouds at low levels (i.e. near the lifting condensation level). In models, the
317 distribution of cloud fraction resembles that of the observed active cumuli and the reflectance
318 increases with the cloud-top altitude, as expected for this type of cloud. These clouds do not leave
319 such a marked signature in the observations that we use here. This might be explained by recent
320 analyses showing that thin layers of clouds are often present beneath the trade inversion, and
321 generally mixed with other cloud types when looking at a scale of a few hundred kilometers (Wood
322 et al. 2018, Bony et al., 2020, Stevens et al., 2020). In the observations that we use, which are on a
323 $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ grid, close to that of the models, the probability of observing only small cumulus clouds is
324 low, they are almost always mixed with other cloud types. Another way to phrase our hypothesis is
325 that the models do not manage to simulate, in the same atmospheric column, the variety of low-
326 level cloud types that is present in nature.

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342 Federation (ESGF) for archiving the data and providing access, and the multiple funding agencies
343 who support CMIP6 and ESGF.

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345

346 Open Research

347 Data Availability Statement

348 The CALIPSO-GOCCP data used for cloud properties in this study are available online through the
349 GOCCP website (https://climserv.ipsl.polytechnique.fr/cfmip-obs/Calipso_goccp.html).

350 The POLDER/PARASOL Level-1 data were originally provided by CNES. The Level-1
351 PARASOL normalized radiance at CALIPSO/CALIOP subtrack are produced and distributed by
352 ICARE Data and Services Center (<https://www.icare.univ-lille.fr/parasol/products/>).
353 The original CMIP6 data can be accessed through the ESGF data portal via [https://esgf-](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/)
354 [node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/)
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Figures

Figure 1: For situations over the tropical ocean where low-level clouds are dominant, geographical distribution of the a) observed (CALIPSO-GOCCP) and c) multi-models mean (IPSL-CM6A, CNR-CM6, HadGEM3, MRI-ESM2, MIRCO6 and GFDL-CM4) total cloud cover, and of the b) observed (CALIPSO-GOCCP, PARASOL) and d) multi-models mean cloud reflectance. For the same situations, Probability Distribution Function of e) the cloud cover and f) the cloud reflectance observed with CALIPSO-GOCCP and PARASOL (black line) and simulated by the models (colored lines). All the data are daily for the 4 years period 2007 – 2010.

Figure 2: 2D histograms of cloud reflectance and cloud cover a) observed (CALIPSO-GOCCP, PARASOL) and simulated by b) IPSL, c) CNRM, d) HadGEM3, e) MRI, f) MIROC6, and g) GFDL models, and h) mean cloud reflectance for each cloud cover bin of 0.03 observed with CALIPSO-GOCCP and PARASOL (black line) and simulated by the models (colored lines). The error bars mark the standard error of the mean cloud reflectance within each cloud cover bin. All the data are daily values over the tropical ocean, when low-level clouds are dominant and for the period 2007-2010. The colorbar gives the number of points at each grid cell (cloud cover – cloud reflectance) divided by the total number of points.

Figure 3: a) Cloud cover, b) Cloud reflectance as a function of the LTS, c) PDF of LTS and d) Cloud Cover as a function of the surface wind speed. The black lines correspond to observation and ERA Interim reanalysis, the colored lines to models results. All the data are daily values taken over the tropical ocean, when low-level clouds are dominant and for the period 2007-2010. The standard error of the mean is below 0.01 % (Text S2) and not shown in the Figure for the sake of clarity.

Figure 4: Vertical profile of the cloud fraction (CF3D) a) for all low-level clouds, b) for optically thin low-level clouds ($CR < 0.2$), c) for optically thick low-level clouds ($CR > 0.4$), and d) mean cloud

605 top altitude as a function of cloud reflectance, for the observations (CALIPSO-GOCCP, PARASOL,
606 black lines) and models (lidar and PARASOL simulator, colored lines). Cloud top altitude is
607 defined as the highest level of low-level clouds where the sum of the cloud fraction (CF3D) from
608 the top is greater than 10% of the cloud cover ($\text{sumCF3D}_{(\text{from top})} > 10\% \text{CC}$). All the data are daily
609 values over the tropical ocean, when low-level clouds are dominant and for the period 2007-2010.
610 The standard error of the mean is below 0.01 % (Text S2) and not shown in the Figure for the sake
611 of clarity.
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Figure 1.

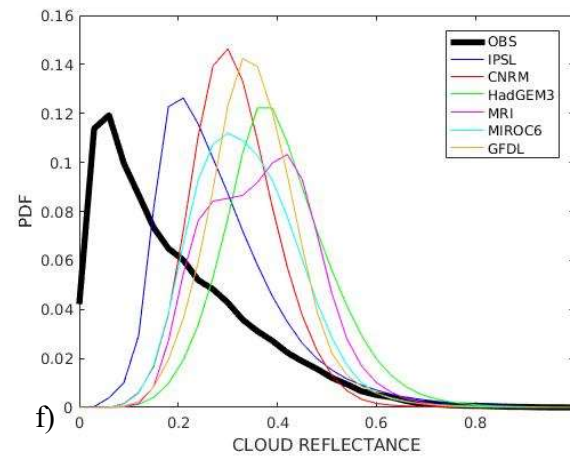
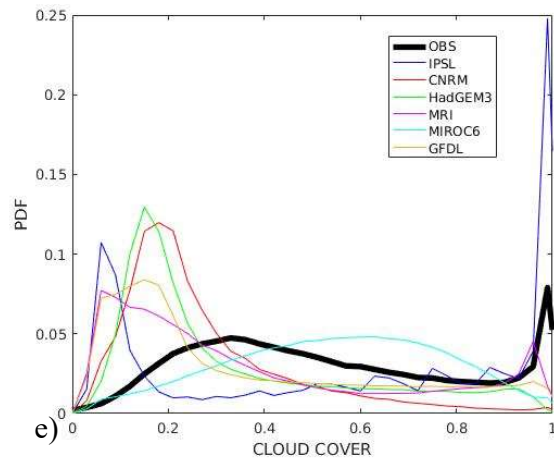
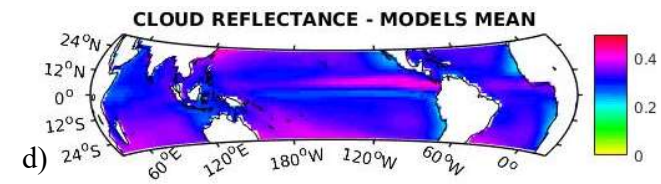
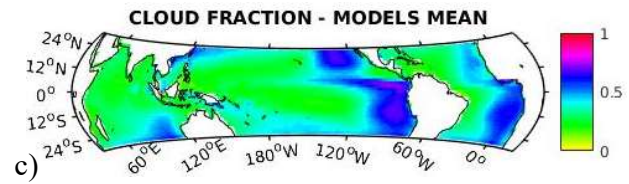
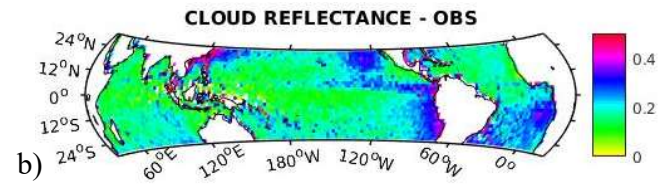
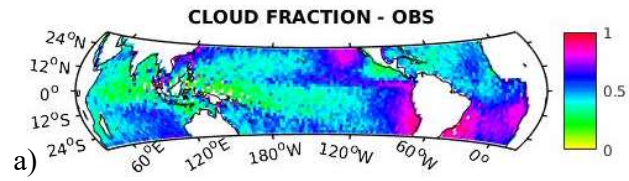


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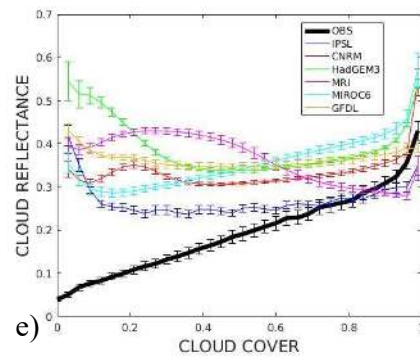
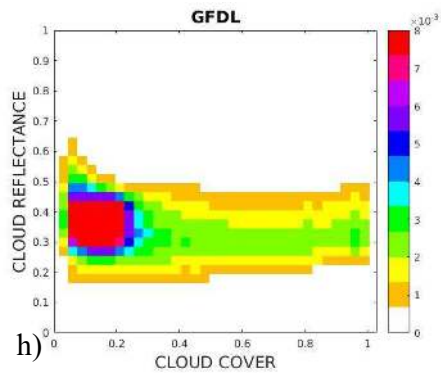
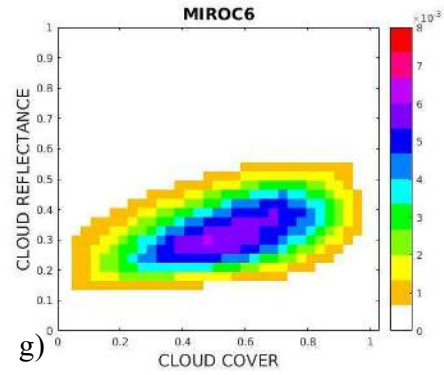
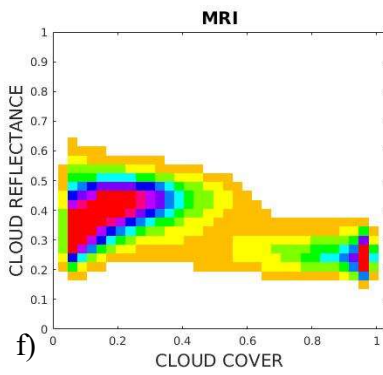
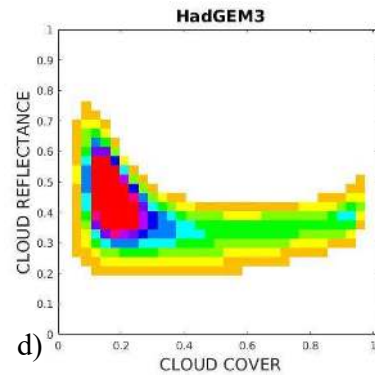
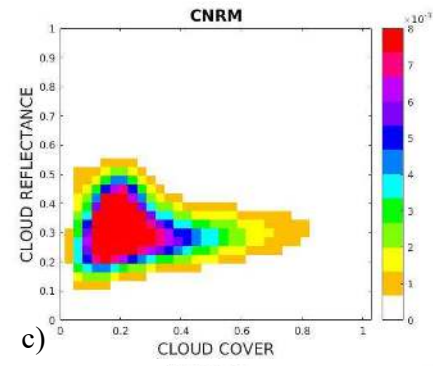
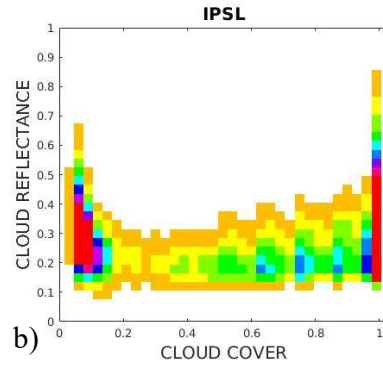
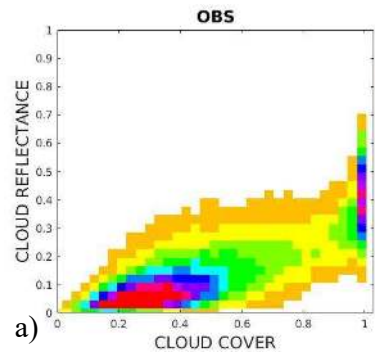


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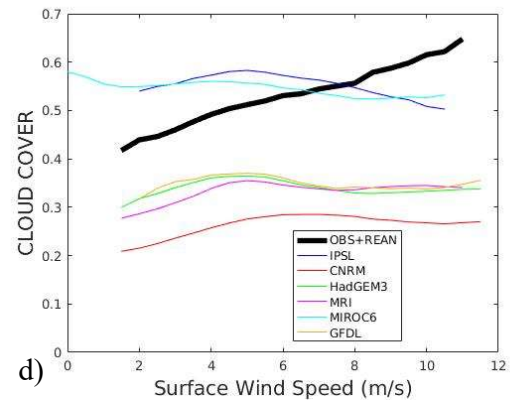
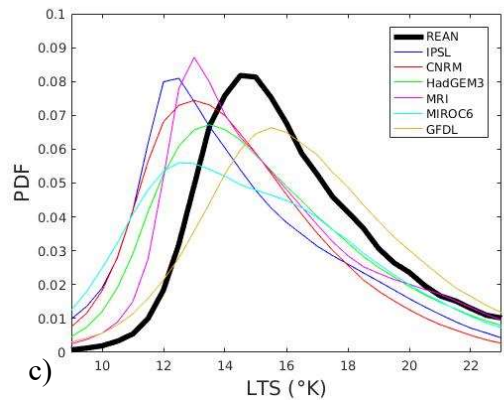
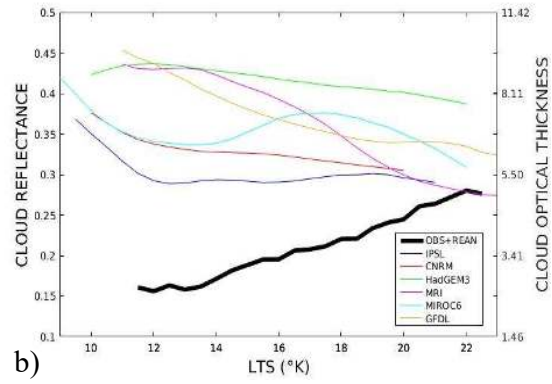
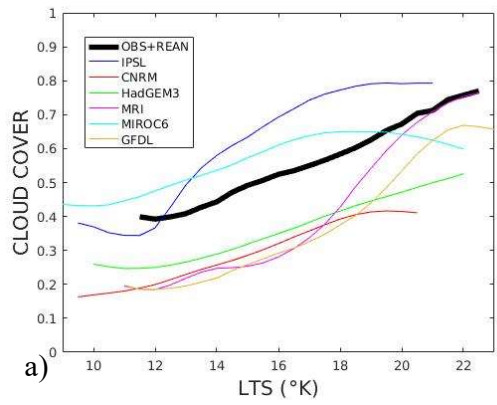
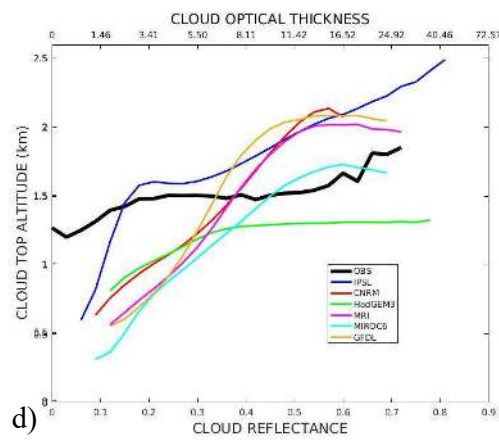
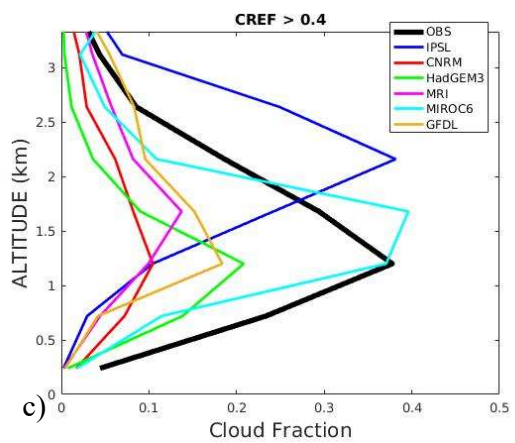
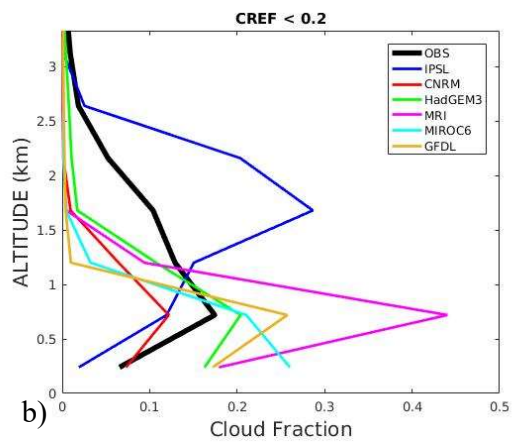
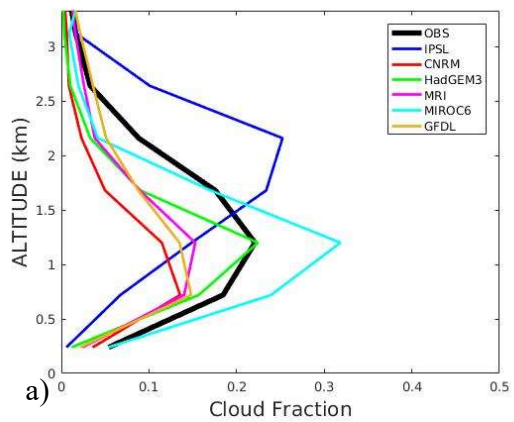


Figure 4.



6 **Low-level marine tropical clouds in six CMIP6 models are too few, too bright but also too**
7 **compact and too homogeneous**

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20 **Contents of this file**

21
22 Text S1

23 Text S2

24 Table S1

25 Figure S1

26 Figure S2

27 Figure S3

28 Figure S4
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43

44
45
46
47
48
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Text S1: Observational properties

The observational datasets used in the study are the GCM-Oriented CALIPSO Cloud Product (GOCCP) that provides the total cloud cover (CC), the cloud cover in three layers (Low, Mid, High following ISCCP definition – CClow, CCmid, CChigh) as well as the cloud fraction profile (3D Cloud Fraction - CF3D), and the PARASOL visible directional reflectance, which is a surrogate for the cloud optical depth.

The GOCCP product consists in applying Scattering Ratio (SR) thresholds values to the 532 nm lidar SR signal to detect the presence of clouds (Chepfer et al., 2010). The cloud detection (0 or 1) is done at the original horizontal Level 1 CALIOP resolution (330 m along track and 75 m cross track of the satellite orbit), and on a lower vertical resolution (40 equidistant vertical levels of 480 m height). Layered cloud fractions are also computed for three atmospheric layers: upper levels (between 50 and 440 hPa) middle levels (between 440 and 680 hPa) and low levels (altitudes below the 680 hPa level). In case of overlapping clouds $CC_{low}+CC_{mid}+CC_{high}$ cloud be > 1 . The cloud fraction is then interpolated on a $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ latitude/longitude grid to provide the final cloud product used in the analysis. To ensure that the values are statistically significant, only grid boxes containing more than 30 % of the maximum possible number of measurements (based on the satellite overflights) are considered in the analysis (Konsta et al., 2012).

The PARASOL instrument [POLDER-like, (Deschamps et al., 1994)] has a multi-viewing angle capability, allowing for the estimation of instantaneous monodirectional reflectance of clouds. The calibration of PARASOL is described by Fougnie et al., (2007). The calibration accuracy is within 1.5% for the 865 nm channel. Over the ocean surface, the visible directional reflectance is mostly sensitive to the solar zenith angle, to the viewing direction and to the cloud optical depth. In this analysis the reflectance observed in a single viewing direction has been selected (Konsta et al., 2015), so that it is mostly sensitive to the cloud optical depth and less to other parameters. After avoiding directions less sensitive to the optical depth (e.g. directions sensitive to glitter reflection, the backscatter and the nadir direction), the one at 865 nm which is most frequently observed by PARASOL was selected. All directional reflectance values measured by PARASOL in this direction have a spatial resolution of $6 \times 6 \text{ km}^2$. They are then projected onto a $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ grid. The representativeness of sampling the PARASOL pixels ($6 \times 6 \text{ km}^2$) collocated with CALIOP pixels ($330 \text{ m} \times 75 \text{ m}$) and averaged on a $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ grid is presented in detail in Appendix 1 of Konsta et al. (2015).

The ERA-Interim reanalysis is used in this study to estimate the lower tropospheric stability (LTS). ERA-Interim reanalysis performance is initially discussed in Dee et al., 2011. Since then, several studies have investigated the performance of ERA-Interim against radiosonde measurements for a variety of applications (Luo et al., 2020; Guan et al., 2018; Vergados et al., 2014). ERA-Interim is the predecessor of ERA5 and has been used extensively by the climate community (e.g. Pfeifroth et al., 2013; Pfahl et al., 2014, Bony et al., 2020), while biases on the surface wind speed have been identified (Belmonte Rivas and Stoffelen, 2019).

97 **Text S2: Statistical error calculation**

98 As it is commonly done, we defined the standard error of the mean of random variable M as
 99 the standard deviation σ of M divided by the square root of the number of degrees of freedom N'

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$$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N'}}$$

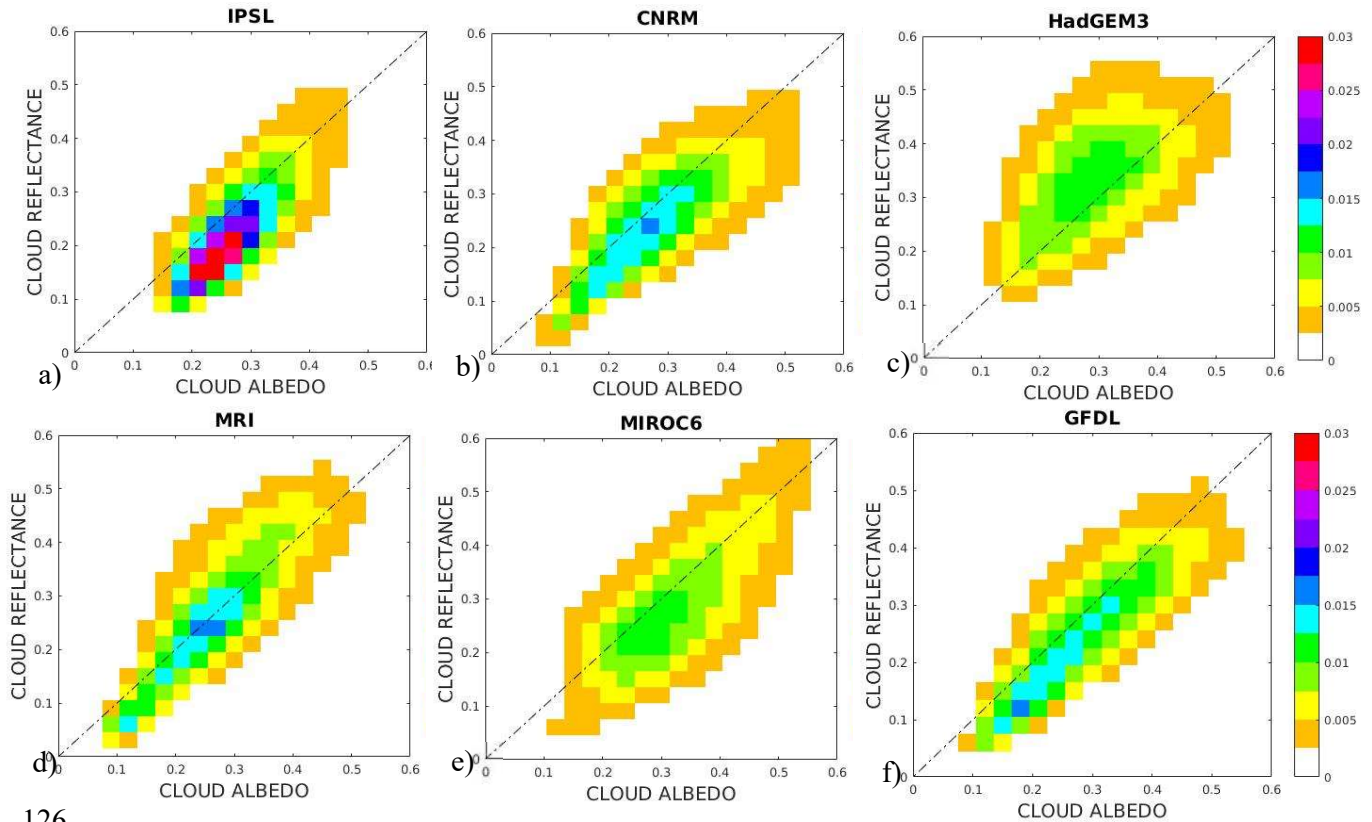
101 Here we assumed that the spatio-temporal auto-correlations of the variables are sufficiently low so
 102 that N' is equal to the number of samples to compute the mean. The calculations are performed over
 103 4 years of daily values for every grid cell. No time average takes place nor the seasonal cycle is
 104 removed.

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Model's short name	Modeling Center	CMIP6 Model	Resolution	Number of vertical layers below 680 hPa	Key references
IPSL	IPSL, France	IPSL-CM6A-LR	2.5° x 1.25°	29	Boucher et al., 2020 Hourdin et al., 2020
CNRM	CNRM-CERFACS, France	CNRM-CM6-1	1.4° x 1.4°	21	Roehrig et al., 2020
HadGEM3	Hadley Centre, UK	HadGEM3-GC31-LL	1.875° x 1.25°	20	Walters et al., 2019
MRI	MRI, Japan	MRI-ESM2-0	1.125° x 1.125°	17	Yukimoto, 2019; Kawai et al. 2019
MIROC6	MIROC, Japan	MIROC6	1.4° x 1.4°	13	Tatebe et al., 2019
GFDL	NOAA-GFDL, USA	GFDL-CM4	2.5° x 2.0°	13	Zhao et al., 2018a, 2018b; Silvers et al., 2018

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 110 Table S1. CMIP6 models used in this study

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Figure S1: Relationship between daily mean Cloud Albedo and daily mean cloud reflectance over the tropical oceans, over the period 2007-2010 simulated with a) IPSL, b) CNRM, c) HadGEM3, d) MRI, e) MIROC6 and f) GFDL. Cloud Albedo is calculated from the difference of the upward SW radiation between clear sky and all sky conditions divided with the downward SW radiation for the cloudy part.

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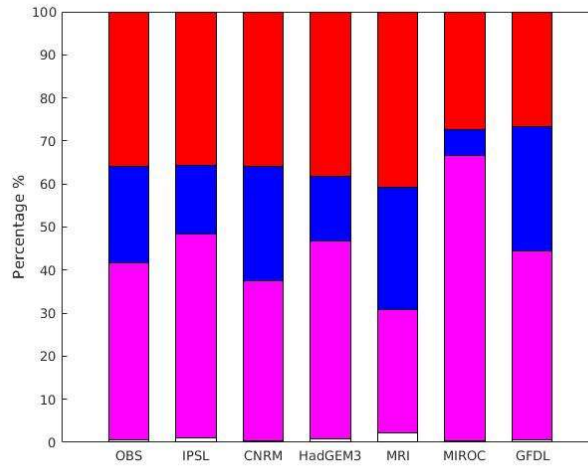
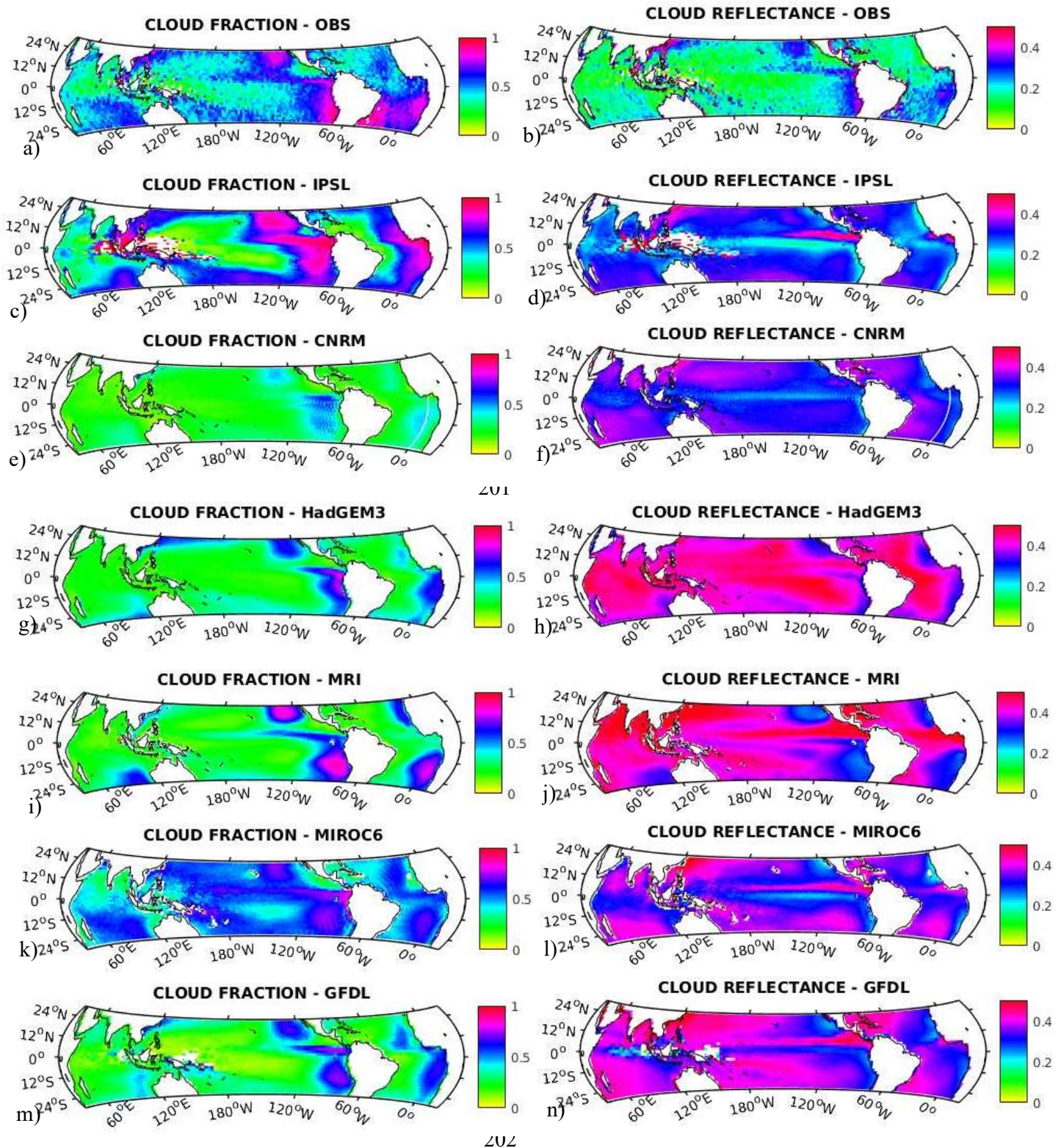
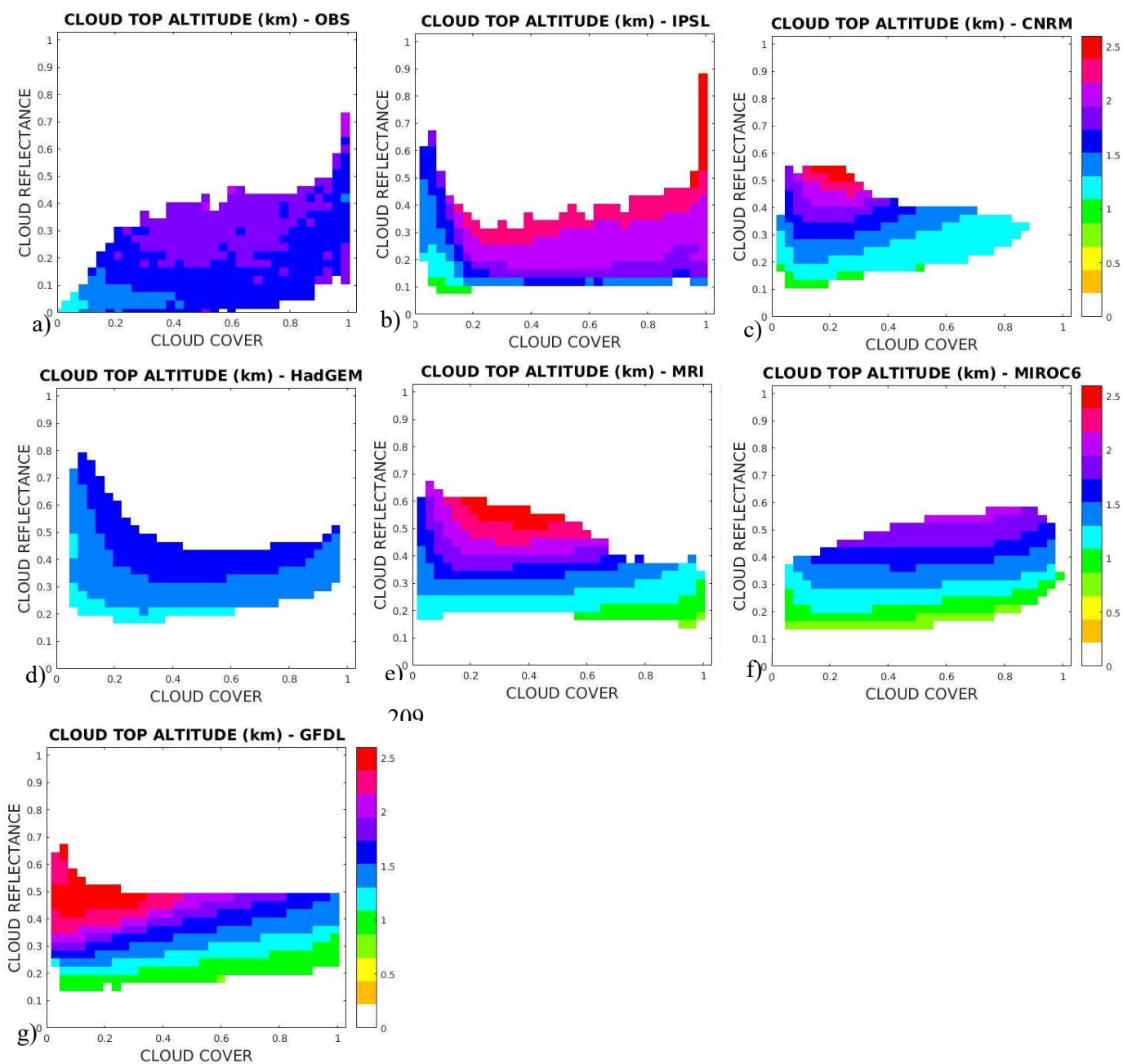


Figure S2: Probability that the sky in a 2°x2° grid cell corresponds to one of the following situations: clear sky (CC=0, white bar), mix clouds (magenta bar), mid or high dominant clouds (blue bar) and low dominant clouds (red bar) for observations (CALIPSO-GOCCP, left column) and the models (with COSP lidar simulator) for daily values on a 4-year period (2007- 2010). Low dominant clouds are defined by using the criterion $CC_{low} > 0.9 * CC$, similarly for mid and high dominant clouds.



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204 Figure S3: For situations where low-level clouds are dominant, geographical distribution of the cloud
 205 fraction (left column) a) observed (CALIPSO-GOCCP) and simulated with c) IPSL, e) CNRM, g)
 206 HadGEM3, i) MRI, k) MIRCO6 and m) GFDL, and cloud reflectance (right column) b) observed
 207 (CALIPSO-GOCCP, PARASOL) and simulated with d) IPSL, f) CNRM, g) HadGEM3, j) MRI, l)
 208 MIRCO6 and n) GFDL.



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Figure S4: Color maps of cloud reflectance and cloud cover over the tropical ocean for dominant low level clouds a) observed and simulated by b) IPSL, c) CNRM, d) HadGEM3, e) MRI, f) MIROC6, and g) GFDL, where the color bar presents the mean value of cloud top altitude (in km) at each grid cell (cloud cover – cloud reflectance). Cloud top altitude is defined as the highest point over the $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ grid where the sum of the cloud fraction (CF3D) from the top is greater than 10% of the cloud cover ($\text{sumCF3D}_{(\text{from top})} > 10\% \text{CC}$).