

1 **Estimations of Global Shortwave Direct Aerosol Radiative Effects Above Opaque Water Clouds**
2 **Using a Combination of A-Train Satellite Sensors**

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24 **Abstract**

25 All-sky Direct Aerosol Radiative Effects (DARE) play a significant yet still uncertain role in climate.
26 This is partly due to poorly quantified radiative properties of Aerosol Above Clouds (AAC). We
27 compute global estimates of short-wave top-of-atmosphere DARE over Opaque Water Clouds (OWC),
28 DARE_{OWC}, using observation-based aerosol and cloud radiative properties from a combination of A-
29 Train satellite sensors and a radiative transfer model. There are three major differences between our
30 DARE_{OWC} calculations and previous studies: (1) we use the Depolarization Ratio method (DR) on
31 CALIOP (Cloud Aerosol LIdar with Orthogonal Polarization) Level 1 measurements to compute the
32 AAC frequencies of occurrence and the AAC Aerosol Optical Depths (AOD), thus introducing fewer
33 uncertainties compared to using the CALIOP standard product; (2) we apply our calculations globally,
34 instead of focusing exclusively on regional AAC “hotspots” such as the southeast Atlantic; and (3)
35 instead of the traditional look-up table approach, we use a combination of satellite-based sensors to
36 obtain AAC intensive radiative properties. Our results agree with previous findings on the dominant
37 locations of AAC (South and North East Pacific, Tropical and South East Atlantic, northern Indian
38 Ocean and North West Pacific), the season of maximum occurrence and aerosol optical depths (a
39 majority in the 0.01-0.02 range and that can exceed 0.2 at 532 nm) over the globe. We find positive
40 averages of global seasonal DARE_{OWC} between 0.13 and 0.26 W·m⁻² (i.e., a warming effect on climate).
41 Regional seasonal DARE_{OWC} values range from -0.06 W ·m⁻² in the Indian Ocean, offshore from
42 western Australia (in March-April-May) to 2.87 W ·m⁻² in the South East Atlantic (in September-
43 October-November). High positive values are usually paired with high aerosol optical depths (>0.1) and

44 low single scattering albedos (<0.94), representative of, e.g., biomass burning aerosols. Because we use
45 different spatial domains, temporal periods, satellite sensors, detection methods, and/or associated
46 uncertainties, the $DARE_{OWC}$ estimates in this study are not directly comparable to previous peer-
47 reviewed results. Despite these differences, we emphasize that the $DARE_{OWC}$ estimates derived in this
48 study are generally higher than previously reported. The primary reasons for our higher estimates are (i)
49 the possible underestimate of the number of dust-dominated AAC cases in our study; (ii) our use of
50 Level 1 CALIOP products (instead of CALIOP Level 2 products in previous studies) for the detection
51 and quantification of AAC aerosol optical depths, which leads to larger estimates of AOD above OWC;
52 and (iii) our use of gridded $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ seasonal means of aerosol and cloud properties in our $DARE_{OWC}$
53 calculations instead of simultaneously derived aerosol and cloud properties from a combination of A-
54 Train satellite sensors. Each of these areas is explored in depth with detailed discussions that explain
55 both rationale for our specific approach and the subsequent ramifications for our DARE calculations.

56

ACRONYMS

AAC	Aerosol-Above-Clouds
AAOD	Absorption Aerosol Optical Depth
AOD	Aerosol Optical Depth
$\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$	Aerosol Optical Depth above clouds using the DR method
AeroCom	Aerosol Comparisons between Observations and Models
AERONET	Aerosol RObotic NETwork
AMSR-E	Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer - Earth Observing System
ARCTAS	Arctic Research of the Composition of the Troposphere from Aircraft and Satellites
ASR	integrated Attenuated Scattering Ratio
BRDF	Bidirectional Reflectance Distribution Function
CAC	Clear Air above Cloud
CALIOP	Cloud Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization
CALIPSO	Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations
CERES	Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System
CF	Cloud Fraction
CloudSat	NASA Earth observation satellite
COD	Cloud Optical Depth

CR	Color Ratio technique
$DARE_{all-sky}$	Direct Aerosol Radiative Effect in all-sky conditions (cloudy and non-cloudy)
$DARE_{cloudy}$	Direct Aerosol Radiative Effect in cloudy conditions
$DARE_{non-cloudy}$	Direct Aerosol Radiative Effect in non-cloudy conditions (clear-skies)
$DARE_{OWC}$	Direct Aerosol Radiative Effect above opaque water clouds
DISORT	DIScrete ORdinate Radiative Transfer solvers
DR	Depolarization Ratio technique
δ^{OWC}	layer-integrated volume depolarization ratio
f_{AAC}	AAC frequency of occurrence
HSRL	High Spectral Resolution Lidar
IAB	Integrated Attenuated Backscatter
IBS	Integrated aerosol Backscatter
InWA	Indian ocean, offshore from West Australia
LUT	Look Up Table
LWP	Liquid Water Path
MBL	Marine Boundary Layer
MCD43GF	MODIS BRDF/Albedo/NBAR CMG Gap-Filled Products
MODIS	MODerate Imaging Spectroradiometer
η^{OWC}	layer effective multiple scattering factor

NEAs	North East Asia
NEPa	North East Pacific ocean
NWPa	North West Pacific ocean
OMI	Ozone Monitoring Instrument
ORACLES	ObseRvations of Aerosols above CLouds and their intEractionS
OWC	Opaque Water Cloud
POLDER	Polarization and Directionality of Earth's Reflectances
PBL	Planetary Boundary Layer
R_e	Cloud droplet effective radius
RT	Radiative Transfer scheme
S_a	Aerosol extinction-to-backscatter (lidar) ratio
S_c	Cloud extinction-to-backscatter (lidar) ratio
SCIAMACHY	Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Cartography
SEAs	South East Asia
SEAt	South East Atlantic ocean
SEPa	South East Pacific ocean
SEVIRI	Spinning Enhanced Visible and InfraRed Imager
SNR	Signal-to-Noise Ratio
SS	Single Scattering
SSA	Single Scattering Albedo

SW	Short Wave
TAt	Tropical Atlantic ocean
TOA	Top Of Atmosphere

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59

1. Introduction

The Direct Aerosol Radiative Effect (DARE) is defined as the change in the upwelling radiative flux (F^\uparrow) at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) due to aerosols. Measured values of DARE depend on the accuracy and the geometry of the observation(s), the concentrations of various atmospheric constituents (e.g., aerosols, clouds, and atmospheric gases) and their radiative properties, and the Earth's surface reflectance. All-sky DARE ($\text{DARE}_{\text{all-sky}}$) combines contributions from DARE under cloudy conditions ($\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$) and DARE under cloud-free conditions ($\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$):

$$\text{DARE}_{\text{all-sky}} = \text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}} \times \text{Cloud Fraction} + \text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}} \times (1 - \text{Cloud Fraction}) \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

According to Yu et al., [2006], substantial progress has been made in the assessment of $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ using satellite and in situ data. Further evidence is provided in a companion to our study, Redemann et al. [2019], which use A-Train aerosol observations to constrain $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ and compares the results with AeroCom (Aerosol Comparisons between Observations and Models) results (see Appendix A for further details). However, traditional passive aerosol remote sensing techniques are limited only to clear-sky conditions and significant efforts are required to estimate $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$. Moreover, simulations of $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ from various AeroCom models in Schulz et al. [2006] (see their figure 6) show large disparities. Our study focuses on Aerosol Above Cloud (AAC) scenes over the globe and subsequent estimates of $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ (i.e., the instantaneous short wave (SW) upwelling TOA reflected radiative fluxes due to clouds only minus SW upwelling TOA fluxes due to clouds with overlying aerosols). Let us note that, ideally, TOA $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ should include aerosols below, in-between and above clouds. Here we assume that TOA $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ is only caused by aerosols above clouds. Table 1 lists TOA SW

80 DARE_{cloudy} results that use satellite observations in the literature, together with assumptions in their
81 calculations. Compared to the peer-reviewed studies of Table 1, our study marks a departure on three
82 accounts. First, most peer-reviewed DARE_{cloudy} calculations focus primarily on the South East Atlantic
83 (SEAt e.g., [Chand et al., 2009, Wilcox et al., 2012, Peters et al., 2011, De Graaf et al., 2012, 2014,
84 Meyer et al., 2013, 2015, Peers et al., 2015, Feng and Christopher, 2015] in Table 1). Second, our
85 results use a combination of A-Train satellite sensors (i.e., MODIS-OMI-CALIOP), instead of the
86 Look-Up-Table (LUT) approach used in the other studies of Table 1, to obtain estimates of the intensive
87 aerosol radiative properties above clouds. Third, the peer-reviewed global DARE_{cloudy} calculations in
88 Table 1 use standard products from the active satellite sensor Cloud Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal
89 Polarization (CALIOP) for either AAC Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) and/or aerosol and cloud vertical
90 distribution information in the atmosphere [Zhang et al., 2014, 2016, Matus et al., 2015, Oikawa et al.,
91 2013]. In our case, we estimate DARE_{cloudy} globally by using an alternate method applied to CALIOP
92 Level 1 measurements [Hu et al., 2007b; Chand et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2015] to obtain AAC AOD and
93 the AAC frequency of occurrence. In the sections below, we explain why we have used such a method,
94 instead of other passive or active satellite sensor techniques.

95 **Table 1:** TOA SW DARE_{cloudy} calculations that use satellite observations in the literature and specific
96 assumptions in the calculations. See also the theoretical study by Chang and Christopher et al. [2017]
97 (i.e. they impose fixed COD, Re, AOD, aerosol radiative properties, and aerosol / cloud vertical
98 distribution) and the study by Costantino and Bréon et al. [2013] (their method uses MODIS-derived
99 cloud microphysics that are not corrected for overlying aerosols). When not specified, the study uses the
00 standard CALIOP data product; otherwise, it uses the DR (Depolarization Ratio) or CR (Color Ratio)

01 technique on CALIOP measurements. MODIS^A and MODIS^T respectively denote the AQUA or
 02 TERRA platform. SEAt: South East Atlantic. LUT: Look Up Table. See acronyms for satellite sensors
 03 MODIS, CALIOP, CloudSat, POLDER, CERES and AMSR-E.

Reference	Domain	Satellite sensor(s) used for DARE _{cloudy} calculations			
		Cloud properties (e.g. COD, albedo, fraction)	AOD	Aerosol radiative properties (e.g. SSA, g)	Vertical distribution of aerosol and cloud
Chand et al. [2009]	SEAt	MODIS ^T	CALIOP ^{CR}	Fixed value	Assumed constant
Wilcox [2012]	SEAt	MODIS ^A , AMSR-E	CERES provides upwelling shortwave flux		
Peters et al. [2011]	Atlantic	MODIS ^A , AMSR-E	CERES provides upwelling shortwave flux		
De Graaf et al. [2012, 2014]	SEAt	Direct determination of DARE _{cloudy} by building LUT of cloud and aerosol-free reflectances			
Meyer et al. [2013]	SEAt	MODIS ^A	CALIOP	LUT approach	CALIOP
Zhang et al. [2014, 2016]	Globe	MODIS ^A , CALIOP (uses probability density function of CALIOP above-cloud AOD and underlying MODIS COD)		LUT approach	CALIOP
Meyer et al. [2015]	SEAt	MODIS ^A (simultaneous retrieval of above-cloud AOD, COD and R _e)		LUT approach	Assumed constant
Peers et al. [2015]	SEAt	POLDER (simultaneous retrieval of above-cloud aerosol OD, size and single scattering albedo, cloud optical depth and cloud top height)			
Feng and Christopher [2015]	SEAt	MODIS ^A , CERES	CERES provides upwelling shortwave flux		

Reference	Domain	Satellite sensor(s) used for DARE _{cloudy} calculations			
		Cloud properties (e.g. COD, albedo, fraction)	AOD	Aerosol radiative properties (e.g. SSA, g)	Vertical distribution of aerosol and cloud
Matus et al. [2015]	Globe	CloudSat, MODIS ^A , CALIOP	CALIOP	LUT approach	CloudSat, CALIOP
Oikawa et al. [2013]	Globe	CALIOP, MODIS ^A	CALIOP	LUT approach	CALIOP
This study	Globe	MODIS ^A	CALIOP ^{DR}	MODIS ^A , OMI, CALIOP	Assumed constant

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05 Table 2 lists some passive (i.e., Spinning Enhanced Visible and InfraRed Imager, SEVIRI, Moderate
06 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer, MODIS, Polarization and Directionality of Earth's
07 Reflectances, POLDER, Ozone Monitoring Instrument, OMI or the Scanning Imaging Absorption
08 Spectrometer for Atmospheric Chartography, SCIAMACHY) and active (i.e., CALIOP and CloudSat)
09 satellite sensors that were used to detect and quantify the AAC AODs. Among the peer-reviewed
10 studies of Table 2, those few that present DARE_{cloudy} results (see Table 1) are denoted by a “+” sign in
11 the first column.

12 **Table 2:** Studies that observe AAC using passive and active satellite sensors (i.e., from left to right,
13 SEVIRI, POLDER, CloudSat, OMI, MODIS, SCIAMACHY, CALIOP; see acronyms). When using
14 CALIOP, the authors either use the standard Level 2 products (Std), the Depolarization method (DR)
15 [Hu et al., 2007b] or the color ratio method (CR) [Chand et al., 2008]. SEAt stands for SE Atlantic,

16 SEAs for SE Asia, NEAs for NE Asia and TAt for Tropical Atlantic. The “+” sign in the first column
 17 denotes the presence of DARE_{cloudy} calculations.

	Reference	Domain	Satellite sensor(s) used for aerosol-above-cloud detection						
			SEVIRI	POLDER	CloudS	OMI	MODIS	SCIAMA	CALIOP
1	Chang and Christopher [2016, 2017] ⁺	SEAt							
2	Waquet et al. [2013a]	Globe							
3	Waquet et al. [2009, 2013b]	SEAt, TAt							
4	Peers et al. [2015] ⁺	SEAt							
5	Jethva et al [2013, 2014]	SEAt, TAt							
6	Torres et al. [2012]	SEAt							
7	Peters et al. [2011] ⁺	Atlantic							
8	De Graaf et al. [2012, 2014] ⁺	SEAt							
9	Meyer et al. [2015] ⁺	SEAt							
10	Feng and Christopher [2015] ⁺	SEAt							
11	Sayer et al. [2016]	SEAt, SEAs							
12	Matus et al. [2015] ⁺	Globe							Std
13	Alfaro-Contreras et al. [2016]	Globe							Std
14	Alfaro-Contreras et al. [2014]	SEAt, SEAs							Std
15	Devasthale and Thomas [2011]	Globe							Std
16	Yu et al. [2012]	SEAt, TAt							Std
17	Wilcox [2012] ⁺	SEAt							Std
18	Meyer et al. [2013] ⁺	SEAt							Std
19	Zhang et al. [2014, 2016] ⁺	Globe							Std
20	Oikawa et al. [2013] ⁺	Globe							Std
21	Chung et al. [2016]	Globe							Std
22	Chand et al. [2008]	SEAt							CR, DR

	Reference	Domain	Satellite sensor(s) used for aerosol-above-cloud detection						
			SEVIRI	POLDER	CloudS	OMI	MODIS	SCIAMAC	CALIOP
23	Chand et al. [2009] ⁺	SEAt							CR
24	Deaconu et al. [2017]	Globe							Std, DR
25	Liu et al. [2015]	SEAt, TAt							DR
26	This study ⁺	Globe							DR

18

19 The brightening of clear patches near clouds [Wen et al., 2007] (i.e., “3-D cloud radiative effect” or
20 “cloud adjacency effect”) can introduce biases into the current passive satellite AAC retrieval
21 techniques (i.e., lines 1-11 of Table 2). To minimize these biases, this study relies primarily on CALIOP
22 observations [Winker et al., 2009]. CALIOP is a three-channel elastic backscatter lidar with a narrow
23 field of view and a narrow source of illuminating radiation, which limits cloud adjacency effects and the
24 subsequent cloud contamination of aerosol data products [Zhang et al., 2005; Wen et al., 2007; Várnai
25 and Marshak, 2009]. CALIOP measures high-resolution (1/3 km in the horizontal and 30m in the
26 vertical in low and middle troposphere) profiles of the attenuated backscatter from aerosols and clouds
27 at visible (532 nm) and near-infrared (1064 nm) wavelengths along with polarized backscatter in the
28 visible channel [Hunt et al., 2009]. These data are distributed as part of the Level 1 CALIOP products.
29 The Level 2 products are derived from the Level 1 products using a succession of sophisticated retrieval
30 algorithms [Winker et al., 2009]. The Level 2 processing is composed of a feature detection scheme
31 [Vaughan et al., 2009], a module that classifies features according to layer type (i.e., cloud versus
32 aerosol) [Liu et al., 2010] and subtype (i.e., aerosol species) [Omar et al., 2009], and, finally, an
33 extinction retrieval algorithm [Young and Vaughan, 2009] that retrieves profiles of aerosol backscatter
34 and extinction coefficients and the total column AOD based on modeled values of the extinction-to-

35 backscatter ratio (also called lidar ratio and represented by the symbol S_a) inferred for each detected
36 aerosol layer subtype.

37 A few studies use standard CALIOP Level 2 Aerosol and Cloud Layer products to determine AAC
38 occurrence over the globe (see line 12-21 in Table 2). However, a study by Kacenelenbogen et al.
39 [2014] demonstrates that the standard version 3 CALIOP aerosol products substantially underreport the
40 occurrence frequency of AAC when aerosol optical depths are less than ~ 0.02 , mostly because these
41 tenuous aerosol layers have attenuated backscatter coefficients less than the CALIOP detection
42 threshold. CALIOP's standard extinction (and optical depth) data products are only retrieved between
43 the tops and bases of detected features, and these boundaries may significantly underestimate the full
44 vertical extent of the layer (Kim et al., 2017; Thorsen et al., 2017; Toth et al., 2018). Furthermore, the
45 Kacenelenbogen et al. [2014] study found essentially no correlation between AAC AOD results
46 reported by the CALIOP and collocated NASA Langley airborne High Spectral Resolution Lidar
47 (HSRL). A subsequent study by Liu et al. [2015] shows that the CALIOP Level 2 standard aerosol data
48 products underestimate dust AAC AOD by $\sim 26\%$ over the Tropical Atlantic and smoke AAC AOD by
49 $\sim 39\%$ over the SE Atlantic.

50 For these reasons, a few studies in Table 2 (see line 22-26) use alternate methods on Level 1 CALIOP
51 products, such as the Color Ratio (CR) [Chand et al., 2008] or the Depolarization Ratio (DR) [Hu et al.,
52 2007b; Liu et al., 2015] methods, instead of using the AOD reported in the CALIOP standard Level 2
53 products.

54 In this study, we use the DR method and a combination of CALIOP Level 1 and Level 2 data products
55 to compute global estimates of the AAC frequency of occurrence (i.e., f_{AAC}) and the AAC AOD (i.e.,
56 $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$) (section 2.1). We then use CALIOP results of f_{AAC} , $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ and other A-Train satellite products
57 to compute global $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ (section 2.2). Section 3 describes the geographical and seasonal
58 distribution of global f_{AAC} (section 3.1), $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ (section 3.2) and $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ results (section 3.3).
59 Section 4 revisits some of the limitations in the method and proposes ways to improve on these
60 $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ calculations.

61 **2. Method**

62 **2.1. AAC optical depth**

63 Because the CALIOP backscatter signal is totally attenuated below the lowest “feature” detected within
64 any profile [Vaughan et al., 2009], this lowest feature is defined as being opaque. Approximately 69%
65 of the time, the opaque feature detected in a profile is the Earth’s surface [Guzman et al., 2017]. In the
66 remainder of the cases, the opaque feature is either a water cloud, an ice cloud, or, very rarely, an
67 aerosol layer.

68 The DR method, which is also known as the “constrained opaque water cloud method” [Liu et al,
69 2015], relies on Opaque Water Clouds (OWCs) as reflectivity targets. The OWCs in this study are
70 selected using the five criteria listed in Table B2 of the appendix. Most importantly, (1) only one cloud
71 can be detected within a 5 km (15 shot) along-track average (which means, for example, that marine
72 stratus below thin cirrus are excluded), and (2) this one cloud must be opaque (i.e., lowest feature
73 detected in a column, and not subsequently classified as a surface return). Furthermore, all OWCs must

74 be (3) spatially uniform (i.e., detected at single-shot resolution within every laser pulse included in the 5
75 km averaging interval), (4) assigned a high confidence score by the CALIOP cloud-aerosol
76 discrimination (CAD) algorithm and (5) identified as a high confidence water cloud by the CALIOP
77 cloud phase identification algorithm. When there is aerosol above OWCs, the lidar backscatter signal
78 received from the underlying water cloud is reduced in direct proportion to the two-way transmittance
79 of the aerosol layer above. However, because the DR retrieval technique requires backscatter
80 measurements from opaque water clouds [Hu et al., 2007b], it cannot be used to retrieve AOD from
81 aerosols lying above the low, transparent water clouds that are frequently observed over remote oceans,
82 especially in the southern hemisphere (e.g., Leahy et al. [2012]; Mace and Protat [2018]; O et al.
83 [2018]).

84 Based on Hu et al. [2007a, 2007b], Eq. (2) describes how we compute τ_{AAC}^{DR} using the DR method
85 above OWCs.

$$86 \quad \tau_{AAC}^{DR} = -0.5 \times \ln[IAB_{SS,AAC}^{OWC} / IAB_{SS,CAC}^{OWC}] \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

87 Here $IAB_{SS,AAC}^{OWC}$ is the single scattering value (subscript SS) of the layer-integrated attenuated
88 backscatter (IAB) for an OWC underlying one or more aerosol layer(s) above the cloud. $IAB_{SS,CAC}^{OWC}$
89 is the single scattering value of the IAB for an OWC underlying Clear air Above Cloud (CAC). By
90 CAC, we mean that there are no aerosols detected above the OWC. In this study, we consider τ_{AAC}^{DR}
91 valid when positive. According to Eq. (2), this means that $IAB_{SS,AAC}^{OWC}$ needs to always be smaller in
92 magnitude than $IAB_{SS,CAC}^{OWC}$ and τ_{AAC}^{DR} equals zero when $IAB_{SS,AAC}^{OWC}$ equals $IAB_{SS,CAC}^{OWC}$.

Section B of the appendix provides additional information about the application of Eq. (2) and the various steps needed to derive $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$. We list the selection criteria used to identify the OWC dataset in this study and describe the corrections required to obtain single-scattering estimates of IAB from measurements that contain substantial contributions from multiple scattering (B1). We also describe the technique used for distinguishing between CAC and AAC conditions (B2), and illustrate our derivation of an empirical parameterization of $\text{IAB}^{\text{OWC}}_{\text{SS,CAC}}$ as a global function of latitude and longitude (B3). As reported in Table 2, the CALIOP DR method was used to study the African dust transport pathway over the Tropical Atlantic [Liu et al., 2015] and the African smoke transport pathway over the South East Atlantic [Liu et al., 2015; Chand et al., 2008, 2009]. More recently, the CALIOP DR method was also used by Deaconu et al. [2017] to assess POLDER AAC AOD values [Waquet et al., 2009, 2013b and Peers et al., 2015] over the globe. In this study, we extend the previous regional studies of [Liu et al., 2015 and Chand et al., 2008, 2009] to derive global CALIOP-based AAC AOD estimates. Let us note that, in our study, the accuracy of $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ depends on measurements of targets of very high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) such as OWCs in clear skies and OWCs underlying aerosol layers.

2.2. AAC Direct Aerosol Radiative Effects

Having first retrieved global values of $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ from the CALIOP measurements, we then compute global estimates of $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ using DISORT (DIScrete ORdinate Radiative Transfer; Stamnes et al., 1988, Buras et al., 2011), a six-stream plane-parallel radiative transfer model with molecular absorption characterized by a correlated-k scheme [Fu and Liou, 1992] that is embedded within the LibRadtran Radiative Transfer (RT) package [Emde et al., 2016]. Hereafter, our seasonally and spatially gridded (4°

13 x 5°) averaged shortwave (SW) (250 nm to 5600 nm) global TOA $DARE_{cloudy}$ results will be called
14 $DARE_{OWC}$, as they pertain to a specific category of clouds (i.e., OWCs) defined according to the
15 CALIOP data selection criteria set forth in Table B2. We list the following input parameters to DISORT
16 in order to derive estimates of $DARE_{OWC}$:

17 (1) **Atmospheric profiles** of pressure, temperature, air density, ozone, water vapor, CO₂, and NO₂
18 use standard US atmosphere profiles [Anderson et al., 1986].

19 (2) **Aerosol intensive radiative properties** (i.e. properties that depend solely on aerosol species,
20 and are unrelated to the aerosol amount) are informed by seasonal maps (4° x 5°, daytime in 2007)
21 of combined MODIS-OMI-CALIOP (MOC) retrieved median spectral extinction coefficients,
22 single scattering albedos and asymmetry parameters at 30 different wavelengths. As an example,
23 Figure A1 in the appendix shows the seasonal maps of MOC SSA at 546.3 nm that were used in the
24 calculation of $DARE_{OWC}$. These MOC retrievals, described in section A of the appendix, are at the
25 basis of a companion study [Redemann et al., 2019]. Let us note that we only use the shape of the
26 MOC extinction coefficient spectra and not its actual magnitude; the MOC spectral extinction
27 coefficient spectra is normalized to the seasonal 2008-2012 average value of either τ^{DR}_{AAC} or τ^{DR}_{AAC}
28 x f_{AAC} within each grid cell. Our method assumes similar aerosol radiative properties above clouds
29 and in near-by clear-sky regions.

30 (3) **Aerosol extensive radiative properties** (i.e., properties that depend on the aerosol amount
31 present in the atmosphere) are informed by seasonal maps (4° x 5°, nighttime from 2008 to 2012) of
32 either CALIOP τ^{DR}_{AAC} (see Eq. 2) or CALIOP τ^{DR}_{AAC} x f_{AAC} . We chose to use nighttime CALIOP

τ_{AAC}^{DR} or $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$ results in the estimation of $DARE_{OWC}$ because, at nighttime, the CALIOP signal-to-noise-ratio (SNR) is not affected by ambient solar background and leads to a more accurate measurement of the aerosol signal (compared to daytime). By doing this, we implicitly chose a better accuracy in the aerosol extensive radiative properties over a temporal overlap between aerosol extensive (nighttime) and intensive (daytime) radiative properties.

(4) **Cloud albedos** are computed from cloud droplet effective radius (R_e) and Cloud Optical Depth (COD) information inferred from MODIS averaged monthly $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grids (i.e. liquid water cloud products of MYD08_M3: “Cloud Effective Radius Liquid Mean Mean” and “Cloud Optical Thickness Liquid Mean Mean” [Platnick et al. 2015]) from 2008 to 2012 (see Equations 1-9 of Peng et al. [2002]). These maps are then further gridded (to $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$) and seasonally averaged to match the format of the aerosol radiative properties. Appendix figure A2 shows the seasonal maps of MODIS COD that were used in the calculation of $DARE_{OWC}$.

(5) **Aerosol and cloud layer heights** are assumed constant over the globe (respectively between 3-4km and 2-3km in this study), similar to other studies in Table 1 (e.g., Meyer et al. [2015]).

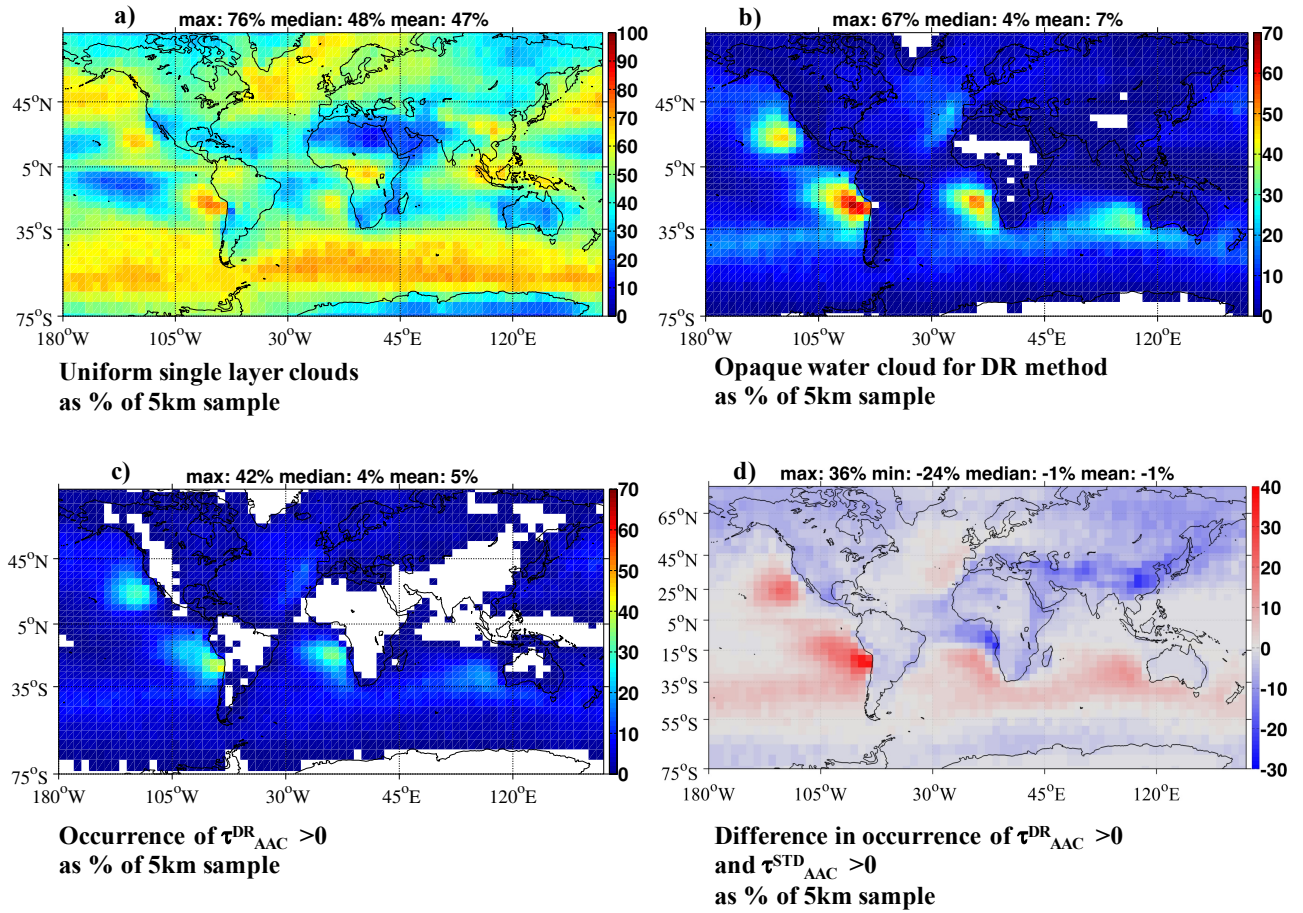
(6) **Earth’s surface albedo** uses global gap-filled Terra and Aqua combined MODIS BRDF/albedo products. It uses the 16-day closest product (i.e., MCD43GF) to the middle of each season (i.e., Jan 15th for DJF, April 15th for MAM, July 15th for JJA and October 15th for SON). In the open ocean, the Cox and Munk [1954] sea surface albedo parameterization is applied with a wind speed of 10 ms^{-1} .

Using these inputs, Daily $DARE_{OWC}$ results for each of the $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ grid cells are obtained by averaging 24 LibRadtran RT calculations, corresponding to 24 different sun positions at each hour of the day.

3. Results

3.1. AAC Occurrence Frequencies

To provide the necessary context for interpreting our TOA radiative transfer calculations, we first establish the observational AAC occurrence frequencies from which we will subsequently compute estimates of $DARE_{owc}$. Figure 1 illustrates the annual gridded mean (5 years) global occurrence frequencies of a) single layer clouds, b) opaque water clouds that are suitable for the DR method and c) aerosol-above-clouds cases using the DR method. Figure 1d) shows the difference between the number of AAC cases using the DR method (i.e., number of cases with $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} > 0$) and the number of AAC cases using the standard Version 3 CALIOP product.



64

65 **Figure 1:** During nighttime, from 2008 to 2012 on a 4°x5°-grid: Occurrence frequencies of (a) uniform
 66 single layer clouds (C1-C3 of Table B2), (b) opaque water clouds suitable for the DR method (C1-C5 of
 67 Table B2; these clouds can be obstructed or unobstructed) and (c) AAC cases that show a positive
 68 τ_{AAC}^{DR} at 532 nm. (d) shows the difference between the number of AAC cases using the DR method
 69 (i.e., number of cases with $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} > 0$) and the number of AAC cases using the standard Version 3
 70 CALIOP product (i.e., number of cases with $\tau_{AAC}^{STD} > 0$); CALIOP AAC cases using the standard
 71 algorithm are defined as 5 km-columns showing an uppermost layer classified as aerosols and a cloud
 21

72 layer anywhere below that aerosol layer; the cloud itself does not have to satisfy any of the criteria of
73 Table B2. Grid cells are $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ latitude/ longitude. The percentages in (a)-(d) use the number of 5 km
74 CALIOP samples within each grid cell as a reference. White pixels show either no CALIOP
75 observations, no CALIOP OWC detection, a small number of CALIOP unobstructed OWCs or a small
76 number of positive $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ values. The title of each map shows the global maximum, median and mean
77 values.

78

79 Uniform single layer clouds (i.e. C1-C3 of Table B2) are detected in ~47% of all 5 km CALIOP
80 samples over the globe (see Figure 1(a)). In other words, at any one time, approximately half of the
81 globe is covered by uniform single layer clouds. As expected, the highest occurrence of those clouds is
82 in the high and low latitude bands and especially over the southern oceans. According to Figure 1(b),
83 OWCs suitable for the DR method (i.e. C1-C5 of Table B2) are mostly in the marine stratocumulus
84 regions and represent a mean of 7% of all 5 km CALIOP samples over the globe. This significant
85 reduction from half-the-globe coverage is explained by the five criteria used to select OWCs for the
86 application of the DR method (i.e., C1-C5 of Table B2). The highest occurrence of OWCs can be found
87 offshore from the west coasts of North and South America, southwest Africa and Australia. In
88 particular, OWC cover ranges from 60 to 75 % over the region of SE Atlantic in August [Klein and
89 Hartmann, 1993]. Also, the southeastern Pacific region off the Peruvian and Chilean coasts is the
90 location of the largest and most persistent stratocumulus deck in the world [Klein and Hartmann, 1993].
91 The percentage of AAC cases (i.e., AAC cases showing positive $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$) at the basis of our study is

92 very small compared to the total number of 5 km CALIOP profiles per grid cell (i.e. mean of 5% on
93 Figure 1(c)). This is primarily due to a small number of low OWC used for the DR method over the
94 globe (when comparing Figure 1(a) and 1(b)).

95 Figure 1(d) illustrates the difference in occurrence frequencies of AAC cases using the DR method
96 compared to the standard Version 3 CALIOP product. Negative values, shown in blue, indicate the
97 fraction of cases for which the DR method fails to detect above-cloud aerosols that are reported in the
98 standard CALIOP product. Similarly, positive values, shown in red, indicate the number of cases for
99 which above-cloud aerosols are detected by the DR method but not reported in the standard CALIOP
00 data product. Unlike the AAC cases detected using the DR method, the AAC cases obtained from the
01 CALIOP standard product do not impose any restrictions on the nature of the underlying clouds.
02 Instead, the CALIOP standard product reports aerosol detected above both opaque and transparent
03 clouds, irrespective of cloud thermodynamic phase. The blue regions in Fig. 1(d) show that, relative to
04 the CALIOP standard product, our implementation of the DR method could be failing to detect AAC
05 cases over most of land surfaces and over the Arabian Sea, the Tropical Atlantic, and the SE Atlantic
06 regions. The lack of AAC cases offshore from the southwest coast of Africa in the DR method dataset is
07 the result of our conservative data filtering strategy. Because the IABs of aerosol-contaminated OWCs
08 can differ significantly from those measured in pristine, aerosol-free conditions, OWCs suspected of
09 being aerosol-contaminated (which are ubiquitous in this part of the world and very common over
10 continents) are specifically excluded from our DR method analyses (see appendix section B3 for more
11 details). However, some regions such as the NE and SE Pacific exhibit up to 40% more AAC cases
12 when using the DR method. The SE Pacific region, especially offshore from Chile, shows particularly

23

13 tenuous aerosols, with attenuated backscatter values that typically fall below the CALIOP detection
14 limit, thus hampering the detection of AAC using the standard CALIOP algorithm [Kacenelenbogen et
15 al., 2014].

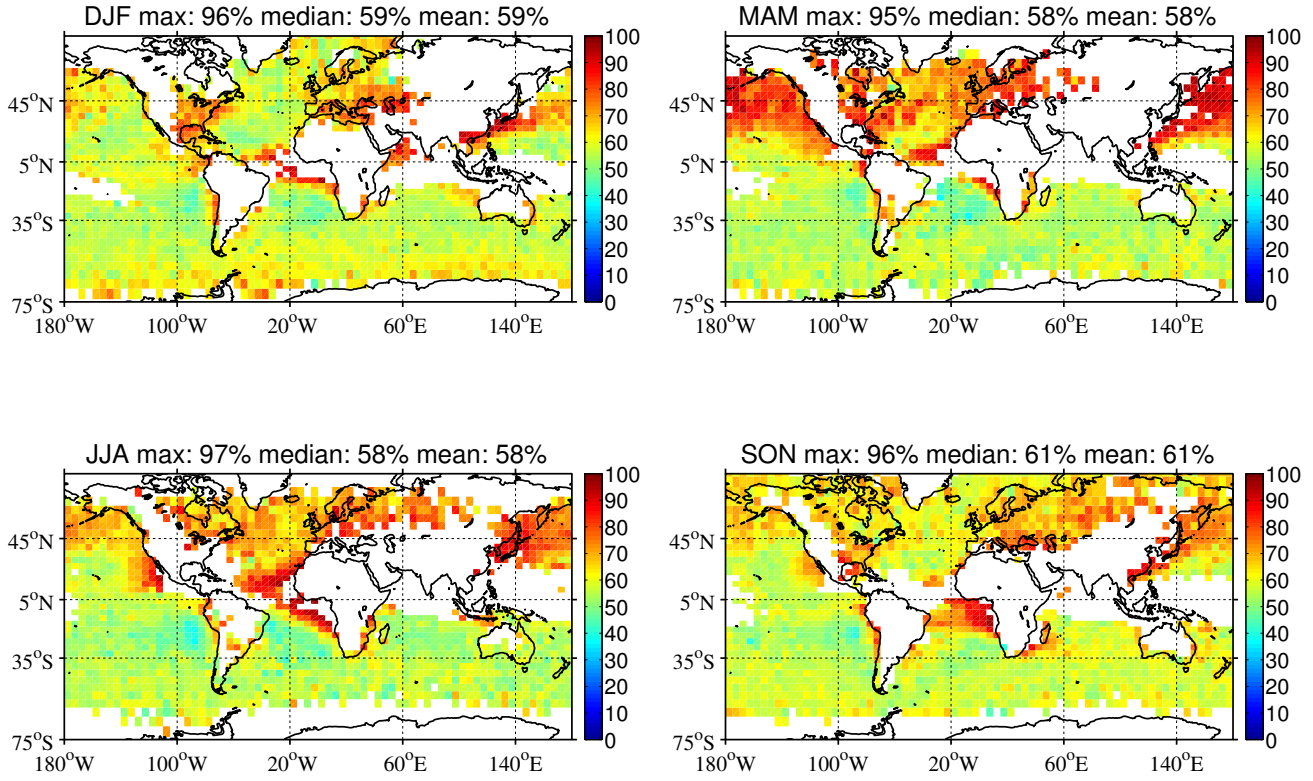
16 In the rest of this study, the frequency of occurrence of AAC, f_{AAC} , is defined as:

17
$$f_{AAC} = N_{AAC} / N_{OWC} \quad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

18 where N_{AAC} is the number of AAC cases (i.e., cases showing a positive τ^{DR}_{AAC} at 532nm) and N_{OWC} is
19 the number of OWCs within each $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ grid cell. Let us note that different studies use different
20 references when computing the frequency of occurrence of AAC. The definition in Eq. (3) is similar to
21 the one in Zhang et al. [2016] (see their Eq. (1)) and different from Devasthale and Thomas [2011],
22 where f_{AAC} is defined as the ratio of AAC cases to the total number of CALIOP observations (similar to
23 what is shown on Fig. 1(c)).

24 Figure 2 illustrates the global seasonal f_{AAC} (see Eq. 3) from 2008 to 2012. We find a median global
25 f_{AAC} of 58% to 61% with regional values that can reach more than 80% in some regions such as the SE
26 Atlantic, especially during the JJA season. The AAC occurrence frequencies in Fig. 2 generally agree
27 with previous findings [Zhang et al., 2016; Devasthale and Thomas, 2011] on the location and season of
28 highest f_{AAC} .

29



31

32 **Figure 2:** Global seasonal 4°x5° nighttime AAC occurrence frequency (noted f_{AAC} , see Eq. (3)) from
33 2008 to 2012. White pixels show either no CALIOP observations, a limited number of CALIOP
34 unobstructed OWCs or a limited number of positive τ^{DR}_{AAC} values. White pixels are not considered in
35 the global mean and median f_{AAC} values in the title of each map. The title of each map shows the global
36 maximum, median and mean values.

37

38 **3.2. AAC Optical Depths**

Figure 3 introduces the global, nighttime and multi-year (2008-2012) AAC optical depths (τ_{AAC}^{DR} , see Eq. 2) dataset that was computed in this study.

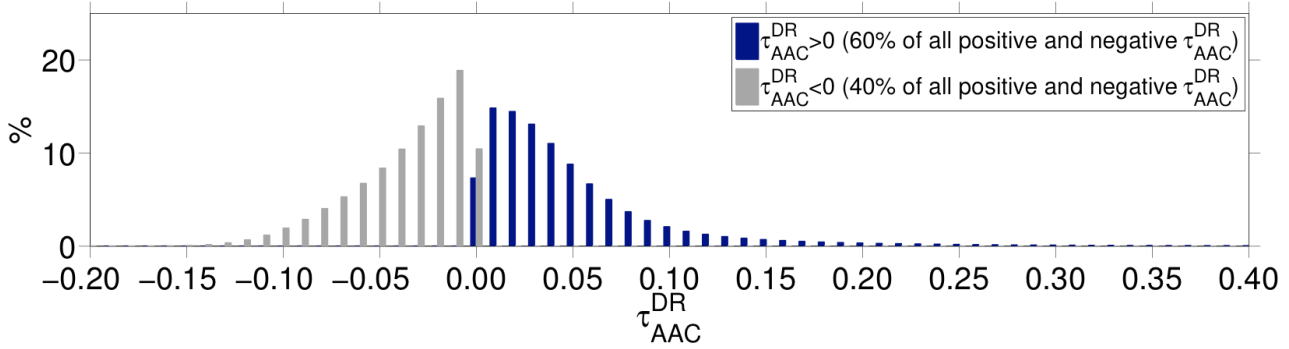


Figure 3: Global distribution of τ_{AAC}^{DR} at 532 nm. Positive (i.e., valid) τ_{AAC}^{DR} values are in dark blue (N~3.4M) and negative τ_{AAC}^{DR} values in grey (N~2.2M). These are nighttime CALIOP measurements from 2008-2012.

About 40% (i.e. 2.2M data points) of the initial dataset (i.e. N~5.6M) shows negative τ_{AAC}^{DR} values and were flagged as invalid data (see Figure 3, in grey). When looking at all valid (i.e. positive) τ_{AAC}^{DR} values (blue), we show a majority of very small τ_{AAC}^{DR} values in the 0.01-0.02 AOD range. This agrees with the findings of Devasthale and Thomas [2011]. Let us note that averaging all data points per $4^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ grid cell (instead of the native resolution shown on Fig. 3) increases the AOD bin of maximum AAC occurrence globally from 0.01 (Fig. 3) to 0.03.

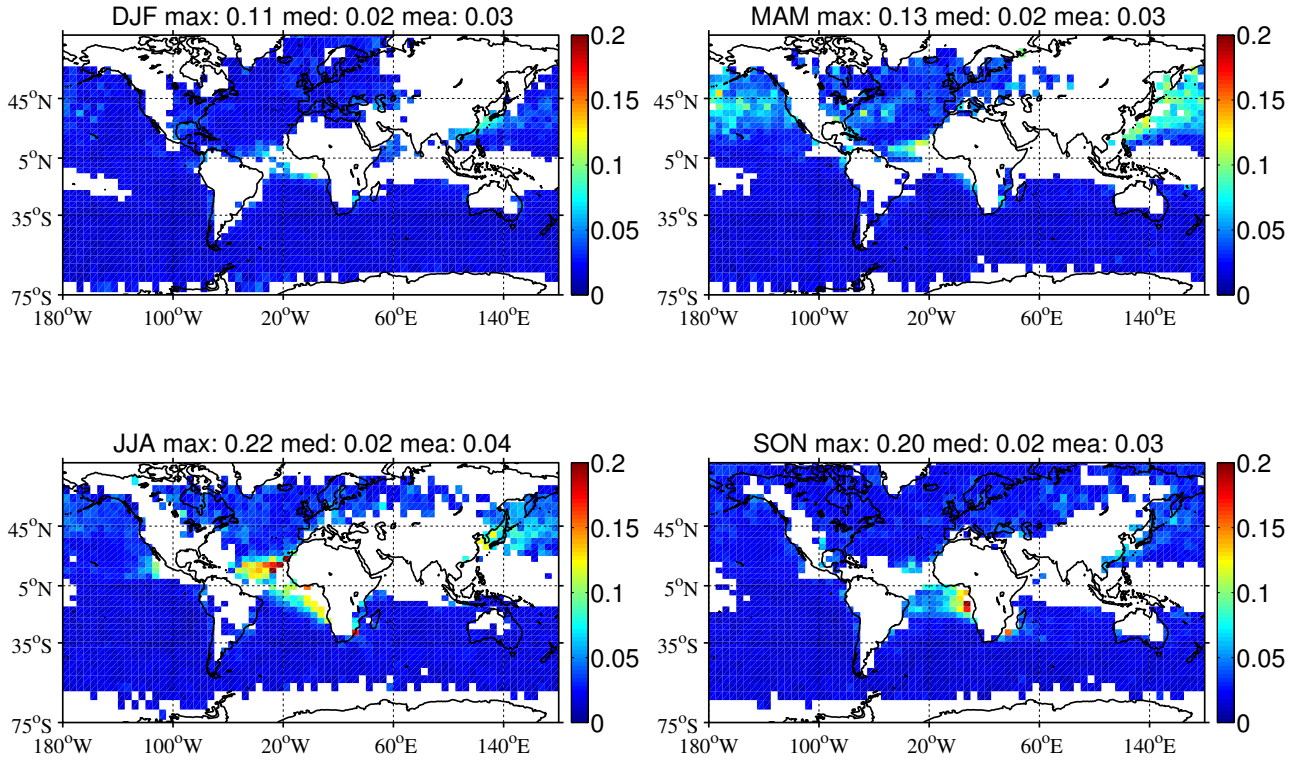
Table 3 shows four different ways of computing global seasonal and annual averages of aerosol optical depth above clouds: we use either τ_{AAC}^{DR} or $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$ (see Case I-II or III-IV) and then either (i)

54 exclude all cases of $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} < 0$ from the average (i.e., as in Case I and Case III), or (ii) set all cases of
55 $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} < 0$ to zero, and include these samples in the averages (i.e., as in Case II and Case IV). Let us
56 note that using $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$ (instead of τ_{AAC}^{DR}) acknowledges the fact that some OWCs present no
57 overlying aerosols. In this case, we assume that when the DR technique retrieves an invalid AAC
58 measurement, $f_{AAC} = 0$ and there are no aerosols above the cloud.

59 **Table 3:** Global seasonal and annual averages of τ_{AAC}^{DR} (Case I and II) or $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$ (Case III and
60 IV) when assuming either (i) $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} < 0$ cases are excluded from the averages (Case I and III) or
61 (ii) $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} < 0$ cases are set to zero and included in the averages (Case II and IV). Annual averages here
62 (last column) are the mean of the seasonal averages.

Global mean aerosol optical depth	DJF	MAM	JJA	SON	Annual
Case I τ_{AAC}^{DR} , invalid τ_{AAC}^{DR} excluded	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05
Case II τ_{AAC}^{DR} , invalid $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} = 0$	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Case III $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$, invalid τ_{AAC}^{DR} excluded	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.03
Case IV $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$, invalid $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC} = 0$	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01

63 Figure 4 shows global seasonal nighttime median $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$ from 2008 to 2012 (i.e., as in Case III
64 of Table 3). The title of each seasonal map (respectively DJF, MAM, JJA, SON) in Figure 4 shows the
65 global maximum (respectively 0.11, 0.13, 0.22, 0.20), median (0.02 for all seasons) and mean (0.03 in
66 DJF, MAM and SON and 0.04 in JJA) $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$ values.



68

69 **Figure 4:** Global seasonal 4°x5° nighttime median $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}} \times f_{\text{AAC}}$ from 2008 to 2012. Underlying clouds
 70 satisfy the criteria in Table B2. White pixels show either no CALIOP observations, a limited number of
 71 CALIOP unobstructed OWCs or a limited number of positive $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ values. White pixels are not
 72 included when calculating the global mean and median $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ values in the title of each map (i.e., as in
 73 Case III in Table 3). Note that if the white pixels were set equal to zero, the seasonal and annual global
 74 $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ values would correspond to Case IV in Table 3. The title of each map shows the global
 75 maximum, median and mean values.

76

77 We do not expect the $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$ values of Figure 4 to be similar to the results of [Zhang et al., 2014,
78 Devasthale and Thomas, 2011, Alfaro-Contreras et al., 2016 or Yu and Zhang, 2013] (see Table 2) as
79 these studies use standard CALIOP Level 2 aerosol and cloud layer products for AAC observations,
80 instead of using the DR method. On the other hand, the results of Figure 4 seem to be in qualitative
81 agreement with the global AAC AOD derived from spaceborne POLDER observations [Waquet et al.,
82 2013a]. Let us note that Waquet et al. [2013a] have to assume an underlying COD larger than 3 to
83 ensure the saturation of the polarized light scattered by the cloud layer. Although Deaconu et al. [2017]
84 make different assumptions in the application of the DR method on CALIOP measurements (e.g., they
85 impose a constant cloud lidar ratio for OWCs with clear air above), they find that POLDER and
86 CALIOP τ_{AAC}^{DR} are in good agreement over the SE Atlantic ($R^2 = 0.83$) and over the Tropical Atlantic
87 ($R^2 = 0.82$) from May to October 2008.

88

89 **3.3. AAC Direct Aerosol Radiative Effects**

90 **3.3.1. Global results of DARE_{OWC}**

91 Figure 5 shows the seasonal TOA SW DARE_{OWC} estimates ($W \cdot m^{-2}$) that use CALIOP $\tau_{AAC}^{DR} \times f_{AAC}$
92 (see Fig. 4) as input to a radiative transfer model, together with the other parameters described in
93 section 2.2. DARE_{OWC} in Fig. 5 is set equal to zero (i.e., white pixels) if DARE_{OWC} is invalid or
94 missing.

95

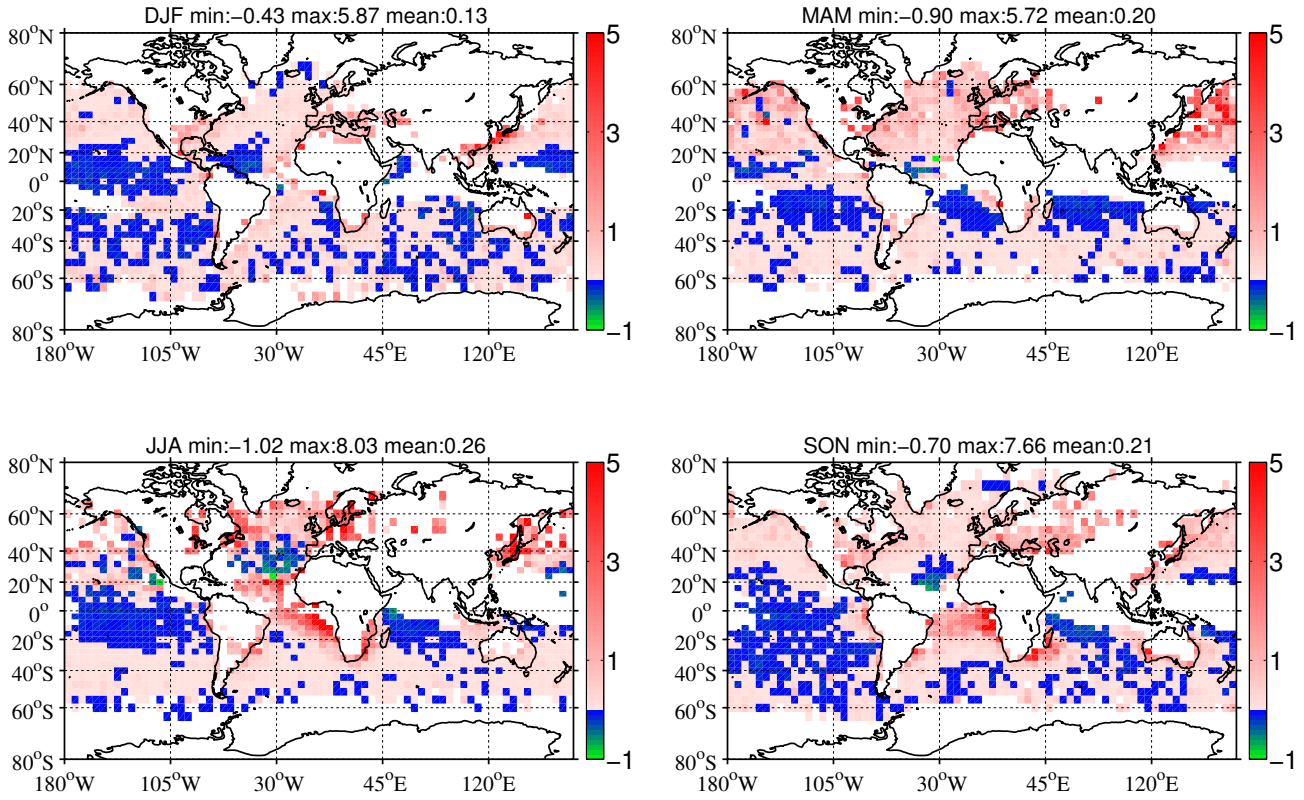


Figure 5: Global seasonal 4°x5° TOA SW DARE_{OWC} estimates ($\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$, as described in section 2.2). A white pixel is counted as DARE_{OWC}=0 in the global mean DARE_{OWC} values in the title of each map. White pixels show a limited number of CALIOP OWCs, positive $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ values or auxiliary MODIS-OMI-CALIOP combined satellite observations. The title of each map shows the global minimum, maximum, and mean values.

04 Similar to TOA $DARE_{cloudy}$ values from combined A-Train satellites in Oikawa et al. [2013] (see their
 05 Fig. 10) and from General Circulation Models (GCMs) (e.g. SPRINTARS) in Shulz et al. [2006] (see
 06 their Fig. 6 and 7), TOA $DARE_{OWC}$ values in Fig. 5 are mostly positive (i.e., a warming effect due to
 07 less energy leaving the climate system) over the globe. We find, globally, 72% positive $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$
 08 $DARE_{OWC}$ values (i.e., $N=4045$) against 28% negative values (i.e., $N=1581$) when considering all four
 09 seasons on Fig. 5. On the other hand, the highest negative TOA $DARE_{OWC}$ values on Fig. 5 (i.e.,
 10 cooling effects shown in green pixels) are over the Tropical Atlantic (in MAM, JJA and SON), in the
 11 Pacific Ocean offshore from Mexico (in JJA) and at the periphery of the Arabian Sea (in JJA).
 12 There are multiple ways to compute the global seasonal and annual $DARE_{cloudy}$ averages (i.e.,
 13 $DARE_{OWC}$ in our case), and it is not clear which method would bring us closer to the true $DARE_{cloudy}$
 14 state of the planet. For this reason, we list several different methods in Table 4. We either use CALIOP
 15 τ^{DR}_{AAC} or CALIOP $\tau^{DR}_{AAC} \times f_{AAC}$ (Case I-II or III-IV) and we either exclude invalid $DARE_{OWC}$ values
 16 or set invalid $DARE_{OWC} = 0$ (Case I-III or II-IV). For completeness and as an intermediate step towards
 17 $DARE_{all-sky}$ (see Eq. 1), Case V and VI show the global seasonal averages of $DARE_{OWC} \times$ Cloud Fraction
 18 (CF), instead of $DARE_{OWC}$. The CF values use monthly MODIS AQUA MYD08_M3 products (variable
 19 “Cloud Retrieval Fraction Liquid FMean”), which are seasonally averaged and $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ -gridded.

20

21 **Table 4:** Global seasonal and annual averages of TOA SW $DARE_{OWC}$ estimates ($W \cdot m^{-2}$, as described in
 22 section 2.2). Annual averages (last column) are the mean of the seasonal averages (e.g., 0.53 for Case I
 23 is the average of 0.34, 0.52, 0.71 and 0.56); CF stands for Cloud Fraction.

Global averaged $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ ($\text{W} \times \text{m}^{-2}$)	DJF	MAM	JJA	SON	Annual
Case I $\text{DARE}_{\text{OWC}}, \tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$, invalid DARE_{OWC} excluded	0.34	0.52	0.71	0.56	0.53
Case II $\text{DARE}_{\text{OWC}}, \tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$, invalid $\text{DARE}_{\text{OWC}}=0$	0.19	0.26	0.35	0.29	0.27
Case III $\text{DARE}_{\text{OWC}}, \tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}} \times f_{\text{AAC}}$, invalid DARE_{OWC} excluded	0.24	0.40	0.53	0.40	0.39
Case IV $\text{DARE}_{\text{OWC}}, \tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}} \times f_{\text{AAC}}$, invalid $\text{DARE}_{\text{OWC}}=0$	0.13	0.20	0.26	0.21	0.20
Case V $\text{DARE}_{\text{OWC}} \times \text{CF}, \tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$, invalid DARE_{OWC} excluded	0.11	0.16	0.25	0.19	0.18
Case VI $\text{DARE}_{\text{OWC}} \times \text{CF}, \tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}} \times f_{\text{AAC}}$, invalid $\text{DARE}_{\text{OWC}}=0$	0.04	0.06	0.09	0.07	0.07

24

25 Global seasonal and annual DARE_{OWC} averages (see titles in Fig. 5 and Table 4) in our study represent
26 the surface area of each grid cell. Each valid DARE_{OWC} value per pixel on each map of Fig. 5 is
27 multiplied by the surface of the pixel. These values per grid cell are then summed up and divided by the
28 sum of the surface of all valid grid cells.

29 Figure 5 corresponds to the setting of Case IV in Table 4. The reason why we have selected to
30 showcase this setting is because it closely resembles the settings of the $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ calculations in
31 Zhang et al. [2016]; i.e., it assumes $\text{DARE} = 0$ when CALIOP cannot detect an aerosol layer. Figure 5
32 shows positive global seasonal DARE_{OWC} averages between 0.13 and 0.26 $\text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ (and an annual
33 average of 0.20 $\text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ in Table 4) as well as the lowest DARE_{OWC} values when compared to DARE_{OWC}

34 values from Case I through Case IV in Table 4. These values are nonetheless much larger than the
35 global annual ocean $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ values reported in Zhang et al. [2016] and Schulz et al. [2006] (e.g.,
36 annual average of $0.015 \text{ W} \times \text{m}^{-2}$ reported over ocean in Zhang et al. [2016]). Moreover, Matus et al.
37 [2015] find (see their Table 2) a global TOA $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ value of $0.1 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ over thick clouds (these
38 clouds are similar to our study), compensated by a global TOA $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ value of $-2 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ over thin
39 clouds.

40 Section 3.3.2 further analyzes DARE_{OWC} , together with f_{AAC} , $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$, SSA, and COD results in a few
41 selected regions and compares these results to previous studies.

42 **3.3.2. Regional results of DARE_{OWC}**

43 The f_{AAC} results in Fig. 2 help us define six major AAC “hotspots” over the North East Pacific (NEPa),
44 South East Pacific (SEPa), Tropical Atlantic (TAt), South East Atlantic (SEAt), Indian ocean, offshore
45 from West Australia (InWA), and North West Pacific (NWPa). To assist in the analysis of the
46 remaining figures in this study, Figure 6 and Table 5 briefly describe these six AAC hotspots.

47

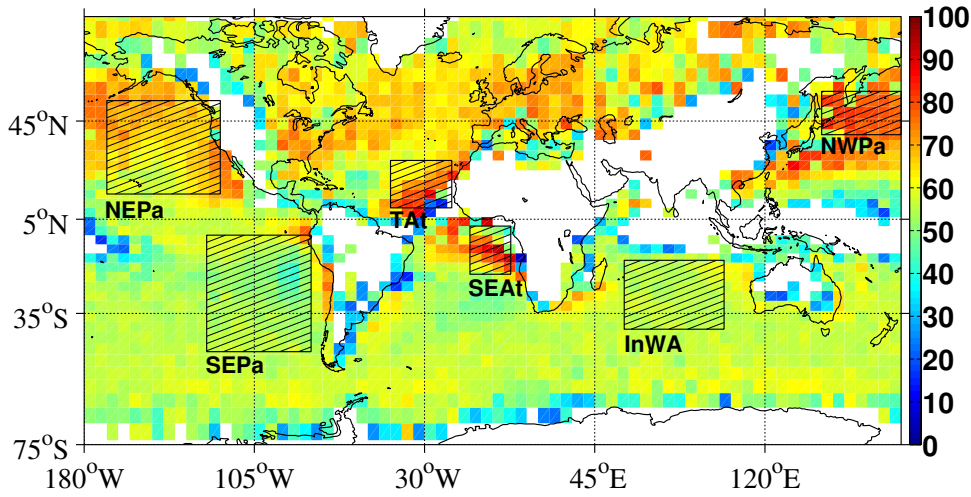


Figure 6: Six regions of high AAC occurrence, further defined in Table 5. Background map is the global annual $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ nighttime AAC occurrence frequency (f_{AAC} , see Eq. 3 and Fig. 2 for seasonal f_{AAC} maps). Global annual maximum, median and mean f_{AAC} values are respectively 93%, 57% and 57%.

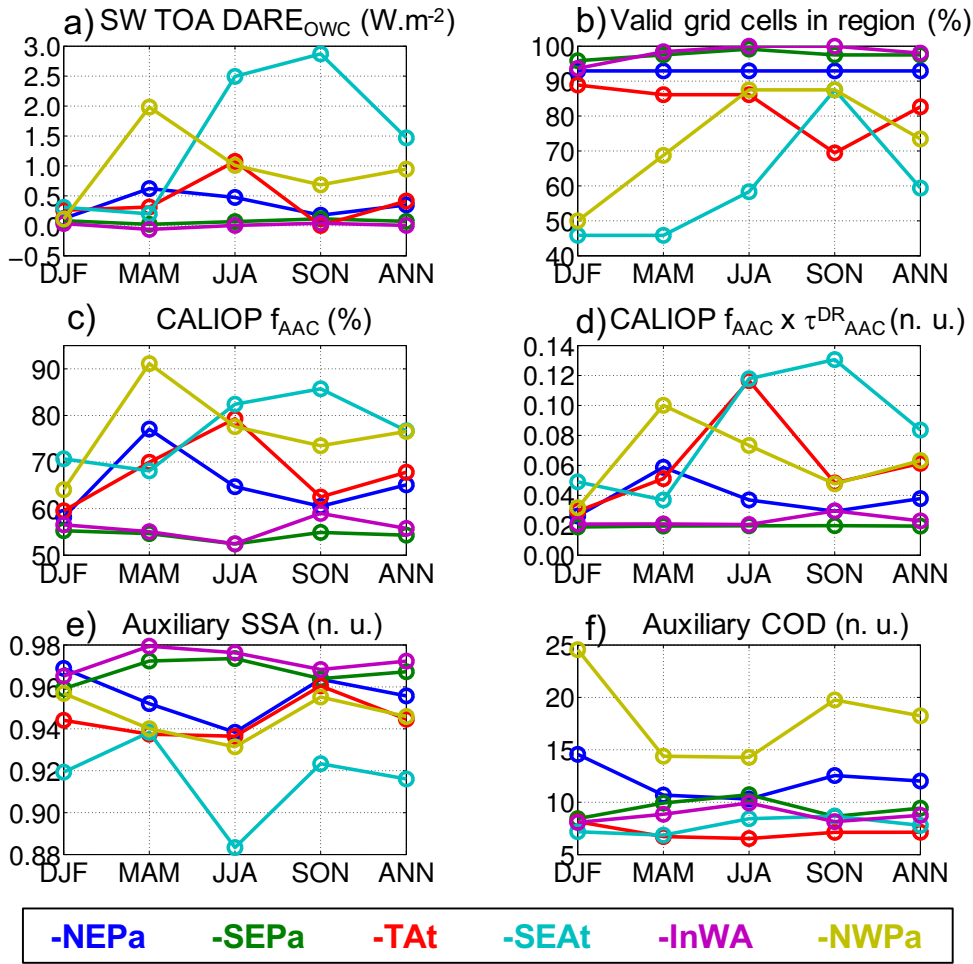
Table 5: Six regions of high AAC occurrence (see Fig. 6), their season of highest AAC occurrence and its corresponding mean f_{AAC} value

Region	[latitude; longitude]	Season of most f_{AAC}
North East Pacific Ocean (NEPa)	[16N, 52N; 170W, 120W]	MAM (80%)
South East Pacific Ocean (SEPa)	[49S, 2S; 126W, 80W]	DJF (55%)
Tropical Atlantic Ocean (TAt)	[10N, 30N; 45W, 18W]	JJA (80%)
South East Atlantic Ocean (SEAt)	[19S, 2N; 10W, 8E]	SON (87%)
Indian Ocean, offshore from West Australia (InWA)	[41S, 13S; 58E, 102E]	SON (60%)
North West Pacific Ocean (NWPa)	[40N, 55N; 145E, 180E]	MAM (90%)

55

56 Figure 7a illustrates the mean regional, seasonal or annual estimates of SW TOA $DARE_{OWC}$ ($W \cdot m^{-2}$) in
57 each region of Table 5. Figure 7b-7f show the primary parameters used in the $DARE_{OWC}$ calculations
58 (see section 2.2): the mean regional, seasonal or annual (b) percentage of grid cells that show valid (i.e.,
59 positive) $f_{AAC} \times \tau^{DR}_{AAC}$ values compared to the total number of $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ pixels in each region, (c)
60 CALIOP f_{AAC} values, (d) CALIOP $f_{AAC} \times \tau^{DR}_{AAC}$ values, (e) assumed overlying SSA values at 546.3 nm
61 and (f) assumed underlying COD values from MODIS.

62



65 **Figure 7:** Mean regional, seasonal or annual (a) estimated SW TOA DARE_{OWC} (W·m⁻², calculation is
66 described in section 2.2), (b) percentage of grid cells that show valid f_{AAC} x $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ (i.e., positive)
67 values compared to the total number of 4° x 5° pixels in each region, (c) CALIOP f_{AAC} (%), (d) f_{AAC} x
68 $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ (no unit), (e) assumed overlying SSA at 546.3 nm from a combination of MODIS-OMI-

69 CALIOP and (f) assumed underlying COD from MODIS in each region of Table 5. DARE_{owc} in (a) is
70 computed using the case IV of Table 4.

71

72 Table 6 reports the estimated seasonal or annual, regional range, mean and standard deviations of our
73 TOA DARE_{owc} dataset (i.e., values of Fig. 7a)

74 **Table 6:** Estimated SW TOA DARE_{owc} ($\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$, setting is case IV of Table 4) in each region of Table
75 5.

Region	min, max	mean DJF	mean MAM	mean JJA	mean SON	mean ANN
NEPa	-0.57, 5.10	0.12±0.18	0.62±0.79	0.47±0.78	0.18±0.25	0.35 ± 0.50
SEPa	-0.21, 2.85	0.09±0.19	0.02±0.15	0.07±0.37	0.12±0.44	0.07 ± 0.29
TAt	-1.02, 5.25	0.26±0.43	0.31±0.43	1.08±1.66	0.01±0.42	0.41 ± 0.74
SEAt	0.20, 7.59	0.31±1.09	0.20±0.41	2.49±2.54	2.87±2.33	1.47 ± 1.59
InWA	-0.39, 0.83	0.04±0.16	-0.06±0.10	0.01±0.11	0.04±0.27	0.01 ± 0.16
NWPa	0.07, 5.72	0.11±0.14	1.98±1.85	1.01±1.65	0.68±0.46	0.95 ± 1.02

76

77 We record positive TOA DARE_{owc} values above $1 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ in Fig. 7a over TAt in JJA (1.08 ± 1.66),
78 SEAt in JJA and SON (2.49 ± 2.54 and 2.87 ± 2.33) and NWPa in MAM (1.98 ± 1.85). Let us note that
79 the highest positive TOA DARE_{owc} values on Fig. 7a and in Table 6 may not be entirely representative
80 of each region, because they are based on a smaller number of valid DARE_{owc} results (86% valid
81 values in JJA in TAt, 58-88% in JJA-SON in SEAt and 69% in MAM in NWPa). SEAt and NWPa are
82 the only regions showing an all-positive range of DARE_{owc} values in Table 6 (i.e., respectively within

83 0.20 and 7.59 and within 0.07 and 5.72 $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$). The spread (i.e., standard deviation) on those mean
 84 regional DARE_{OWC} is of the same order of magnitude as the mean values themselves. For example,
 85 although TAt shows an annual mean DARE_{OWC} value of 0.41 $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$, most points (i.e., about 68%,
 86 assuming a normal distribution of DARE_{OWC}) are within $0.41 \pm 0.74 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ (see Table 6). Those regions
 87 and seasons of highly positive DARE_{OWC} values are associated with the highest CALIOP $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}} \times f_{\text{AAC}}$
 88 values (see Fig. 7d: 0.12 in JJA in TAt, 0.12-0.13 in JJA-SON in SEAt and 0.10 in MAM in NWPa).
 89 They are also associated with lower SSA values (i.e., < 0.94 in Fig. 7e), typical of more light absorbing
 90 aerosols such as biomass burning. The underlying COD values are fairly constant (between ~ 5 -10 on
 91 Fig. 7f), except for a noticeably higher COD over the NWPa region (between ~ 15 -25 on Fig. 7f). NWPa
 92 is the region of highest latitudes in our study (i.e., between 40N and 55N). More variation in the COD at
 93 higher latitudes is also observed in Fig. A2 in the Appendix. This agrees with King et al. [2013], who
 94 show a larger zonal variation of COD (and increased uncertainty in the MODIS cloud property
 95 retrievals) in the higher latitudes of both hemispheres, particularly in winter (see their Fig. 12b).
 96 When computing mean DARE_{OWC} results within the “SE Atlantic” region defined in Zhang et al.
 97 [2016] (i.e., [30S, 10N; 20W, 20E] instead of [19S, 2N; 10W, 8E] in our study), we find a small
 98 fraction of valid pixels (i.e., an average of $\sim 37\%$) but a mean annual DARE_{OWC} value of 0.57 $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$,
 99 which resides within their range of annual $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ values (i.e., 0.1 to 0.68 $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ in Zhang et al.
 00 [2016]). Similar to Matus et al. [2015], the season of highest DARE_{OWC} is SON over the SE Atlantic
 01 (they find 10% of DARE_{OWC} larger than 10 $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ over thick clouds with $\text{COD} > 1$, see their Fig. 9d).
 02 However, our DARE_{OWC} results are significantly higher than the ones in Zhang et al. [2016] in our
 38

03 SEAt region (defined as a smaller region and offshore from the “SE Atlantic” region in Zhang et al.
04 [2016]) as well as in the TAt (similar latitude/ longitude boundaries to the ones of region “TNE
05 Atlantic” in Zhang et al. [2016]) and the NWPa (similar boundaries to “NW Pacific” in Zhang et al.
06 [2016]) regions.

07 We emphasize that the $DARE_{OWC}$ estimates in this study are not directly comparable to many previous
08 studies (see Table 1) because of different spatial domain, period, satellite sensors and associated
09 uncertainties. This will lead to the detection of different fractions of AAC above different types of
10 clouds and different AAC types over the globe. The calculations of $DARE_{cloudy}$ can also differ greatly
11 depending on different AAC aerosol radiative properties assumptions above clouds (especially
12 absorption) and different assumptions in aerosol and cloud vertical heights (see Table 1).

13 Apart from the major differences in methods and sensors, it seems reasonable to say that we are missing
14 AAC cases over pure dust-dominant regions such as the Arabian Sea or the TAt region (compared to
15 e.g. Zhang et al. [2016] and Matus et al. [2015]). Both Matus et al. [2015] and Zhang et al. [2016] use
16 the CALIOP Level 2 standard products to distinguish among a few aerosol types and infer specific
17 aerosol optical properties in their $DARE_{cloudy}$. According to Figure 1(d), SEAt, TAt and the Arabian Sea
18 are regions where we might be missing up to 40% of AAC cases when using the DR technique
19 compared to the CALIOP standard products. The number of potentially missing AAC cases in our study
20 is larger over the Arabian sea ([0-30°N and 40-80°E] due to the limited number of OWCs suitable for
21 the DR method (see section B1 in the Appendix). Zhang et al. [2016] show that pure dust aerosols over
22 these dust-dominant regions tend to produce a negative $DARE_{cloudy}$ when the underlying COD is below

~7 and this is the case for most of the clouds over these regions in their study. In summary, two factors in the DR method seem to hamper the detection of AAC in these regions: the low cloud optical depths of underlying clouds and very few cases of “clear air” above clouds. As a consequence, we propose that the positive $DARE_{OWC}$ values in our study should, in reality, be counter-balanced by more negative dust-driven $DARE_{cloudy}$ values over regions such as TAt and the Arabian Sea. On the other hand, the $DARE_{cloudy}$ results from Matus et al. [2015] and Zhang et al. [2016] might also differ from the true global $DARE_{cloudy}$ state of the planet for different reasons. As described in Matus et al. [2015], using CALIOP Level 2 standard products as in Matus et al. [2015] and Zhang et al. [2016] could lead to possible misclassification of dust aerosols as clouds [Omar et al., 2009], specifically around cloud edges in the TAt region. Moreover, even if the AAC is correctly detected in Matus et al. [2015] and Zhang et al. [2016], the amount of AAC AOD might be biased low due to their use of the CALIOP Level 2 standard products [Kacenelenbogen et al., 2014].

4. Uncertainties in our DARE above cloud results and the path forward

4.1. Detecting and quantifying the true amount of AAC cases

Our study uses mainly CALIOP Level 1 measurements to detect aerosols above specific OWCs that satisfy the criteria given in Table B2. We suggest that the number of CALIOP profiles that contain aerosols over any type of cloud (instead of only OWCs in this study) should be informed by a combination of different techniques applied to CALIOP observations (e.g., the standard products, the DR and the CR technique). Airborne observations such as those from the ObseRvations of Aerosols

42 above Clouds and their intEractionS (ORACLES) field campaigns [Zuidema et al., 2016] are well
43 suited for providing further guidance on when to apply which technique.

44 To the best of our knowledge, the true global occurrence of aerosols above any type of cloud remains
45 unknown. This question cannot be entirely answered with the use of CALIOP observations only. We
46 suggest that a more complete global quantification and characterization of aerosol above any type of
47 cloud should be informed by a combination of AAC retrievals from CALIOP, passive satellite sensors
48 (e.g. POLDER [Waquet et al., 2013a,b, Peers et al., 2015, Deaconu et al., 2017] and MODIS [Meyer et
49 al., 2013, Zhang et al., 2014, 2016], see Table 2) and model simulations [Schulz et al., 2006].

50 **4.2. Considering the diurnal variability of aerosol and cloud properties**

51 While we consider the diurnal cycle of solar zenith angles in our DARE_{cloudy} calculations, we use
52 MODIS for underlying COD and cloud R_e information as well as a combination of MODIS, OMI and
53 CALIOP for overlying aerosol properties (see section 2.2). By using A-Train satellite observations (i.e.,
54 the AQUA, AURA and CALIPSO platforms), with an overpass time of 1:30 PM local time at the
55 Equator, we are only using a daily snapshot of cloud and aerosol properties and not considering their
56 daily variability.

57 Min and Zhang [2014] show a strong diurnal cycle of cloud fraction over the SEAt region (i.e., a 5-year
58 mean trend of diurnal cloud fraction using SEVIRI that varies from ~60% in the late afternoon to 80%
59 in the early morning on their Fig. 4). According to Min and Zhang [2014] (see their Table 2), assuming
60 a constant cloud fraction derived from MODIS/ AQUA generally leads to an underestimation (less
61 positive) by ~16% in the DARE_{all-sky} calculations (see Eq. 1). Further studies should explore the

implications of diurnal variations of COD and cloud R_e on $DARE_{cloudy}$ results using, for example, geostationary observations from SEVIRI.

Daily variations of aerosol (intensive and extensive) radiative properties above clouds cannot be ignored either. Arola et al. [2013] and Kassaniov et al. [2013] both show that even when the AOD strongly varies during the day, the accurate prediction of 24h-average $DARE_{non-cloudy}$ requires only daily averaged properties. However, in the case of under-sampled aerosol properties, such as when using A-Train derived aerosol properties (this study), the error in the 24h- $DARE_{non-cloudy}$ can be as large as 100% [Kassaniov et al., 2013]. Xu et al. [2016] show that the daily mean TOA $DARE_{non-cloudy}$ is overestimated by up to $3.9 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ in the summertime in Beijing if they use a constant MODIS/ AQUA AOD value, compared to accounting for the observed hourly-averaged daily variability. Kassaniov et al. [2013] propose that using a simple combination of MODIS TERRA and AQUA products would offer a reasonable assessment of the daily averaged aerosol properties for an improved estimation of 24h- $DARE_{non-cloudy}$.

4.3. Considering the spatial and temporal variability of cloud and aerosol fields

We have used coarse resolution (i.e., $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$) seasonally gridded aerosol and cloud properties in our $DARE_{OWC}$ calculations (see section 2.2). As a consequence, sub-grid scale variability (or heterogeneity) of cloud and aerosol properties has not been considered. This approach is similar to assuming spatially and temporally homogeneous cloud and aerosol fields in our $DARE_{OWC}$ results.

Marine Boundary Layer (MBL) clouds show significant small-scale horizontal variability [Di Girolamo et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011]. Using mean gridded COD in $DARE_{cloudy}$ calculations, for example, can

82 lead to significant biases in $DARE_{cloudy}$ calculations, an effect called the “plane-parallel albedo bias”
83 [e.g., Oreopoulos et al., 2007, Di Girolamo et al., 2010, Zhang et al., 2011, Zhang et al., 2012]. Min and
84 Zhang [2014] show that using a mean gridded COD significantly overestimates (by ~10% over the
85 SEAt region) the $DARE_{cloudy}$ results when the cloud has significant sub-grid horizontal heterogeneity.
86 Furthermore, this overestimation increases with increasing AOD, COD and cloud inhomogeneity.
87 Future studies should examine the difference between $DARE_{cloudy}$ results calculated with gridded mean
88 COD and cloud R_e values (this study) and $DARE_{cloudy}$ results calculated with MODIS Level-3 joint
89 histograms of MODIS COD and cloud R_e (e.g., similar to Min and Zhang [2014]).

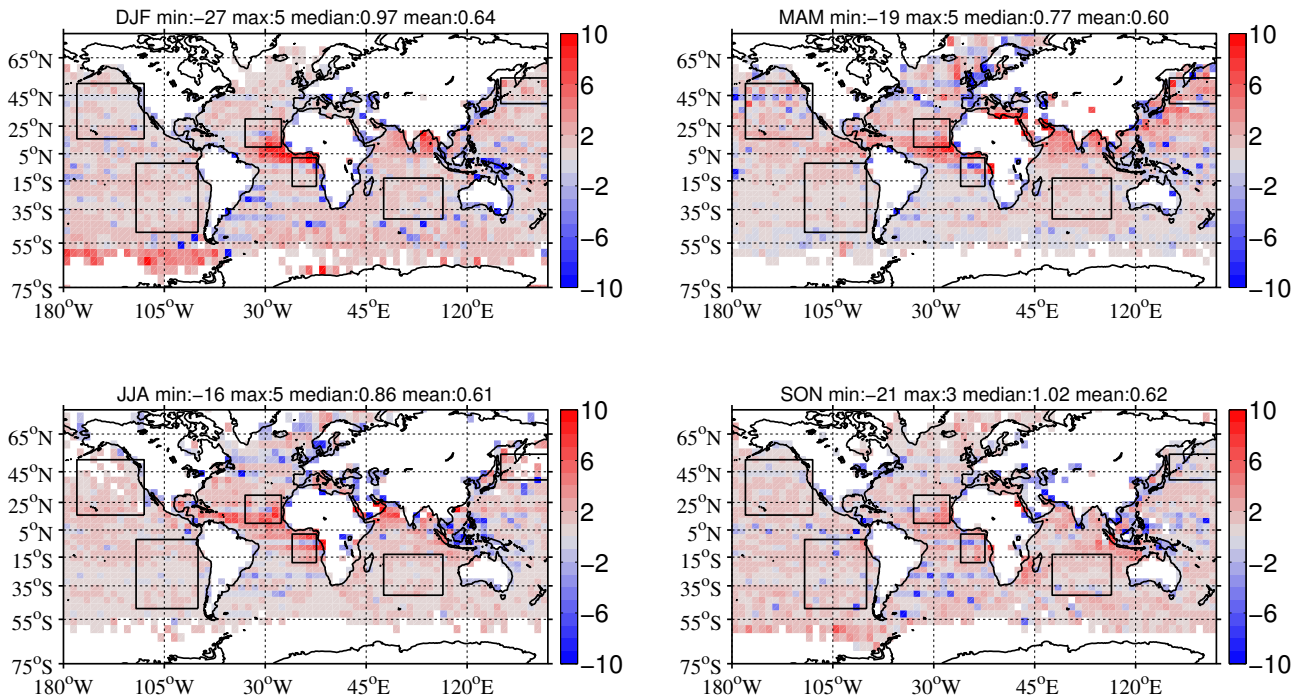
90 Aerosol spatial variation can be significant over relatively short distances of 10 to 100km, depending on
91 the type of environment [Anderson et al., 2003; Kovacs, 2006; Santese et al., 2007; Shinozuka and
92 Redemann, 2011; Schutgens et al., 2013]. Shinozuka and Redemann [2011] argue that only a few
93 environments can be more heterogeneous than the Canadian phase of the ARCTAS (Arctic Research of
94 the Composition of the Troposphere from Aircraft and Satellites) experiment where the airmass was
95 subject to fresh local biomass emissions. In this type of environment, they observed a 19% variability of
96 the AOD over a 20 km length (comparable in scale to a $\sim 0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ area). They also found a 2%
97 variability in the AOD over the same length in a contrasting homogeneous environment that occurred
98 after a long-range aerosol transport event. As a consequence, similar to using a mean gridded
99 underlying COD and cloud R_e , using mean gridded overlying aerosol radiative properties could very
00 well bias our $DARE_{OWC}$ results.

01 As a preliminary investigation into the sources and magnitudes of these potential biases, we have used
02 TOA $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ (see Eq. 1) estimates derived using well-located aerosol properties (hereafter
03 called “retrieve-then-average” or R-A) from a companion study (Redemann et al. [2019]; see section A
04 of the appendix) and compared those to $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ estimates computed using seasonally gridded
05 mean aerosol properties at seasonally gridded mean vertical heights (hereafter called “average-then-
06 retrieve” or A-R). Both $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ results obtained with the two methods are compared over ocean
07 and at a resolution of $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$.

08 A majority (i.e., $\sim 58\%$) of A-R $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ results are within $\pm 35\%$ of the R-A $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$
09 results. We find very few (i.e., $\sim 1\%$) negative R-A $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ values paired with positive A-R
10 $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ values and very few large differences between both methods (i.e., less than 1% of the
11 differences are above $\pm 10 \text{ W m}^{-2}$). However, we find a weak agreement between A-R and R-A
12 $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ values during each of the seasons (i.e., a correlation coefficient between 0.21 and 0.34).
13 The A-R $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ values are generally biased high relative to the R-A calculations, as illustrated
14 by positive mean and median values of the A-R to R-A differences (respectively 0.64 W m^{-2} and 0.92
15 W m^{-2} ; standard deviation of 2.25). When computing the global seasonal mean A-R and R-A $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-}}$
16 cloudy values separately, we find that the global seasonal A-R $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ values overestimate the
17 global seasonal R-A $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ values by 17%, 19%, 21%, and 17% in DJF, MAM, JJA and SON.
18 Moreover, the seasonal median A-R $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ values overestimate the seasonal median R-A
19 $\text{DARE}_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ values in all six regions of Table 5 (i.e., median differences between 0.28 W m^{-2} in
20 NWPa in SON and 3.05 W m^{-2} in SEAt in JJA). The geospatial distributions of these differences in
21 DARE calculation strategies are illustrated in Figure 8.

25 **Figure 8:** Seasonal maps showing the differences in SW TOA DARE_{non-cloudy} computed using the
26 average-then-retrieve (A-R) and the retrieve-then-average (R-A) strategies. Positive values (in red)
27 show regions where the A-R DARE calculations are larger, whereas negative values (in blue) show
28 regions where the R-A DARE calculations are larger. The squares show different regions defined in
29 Table 5. The title of each map shows the global minimum, maximum, median and mean values.

31 **4.4. Assuming similar intensive aerosol properties above clouds and in near-by cloud-**
32 **free skies**



33 In the calculation of DARE_{owc} , we assume similar intensive aerosol properties above clouds and in
34 near-by clear skies. This assumption might not be valid and should be investigated in future studies by
35 comparing aerosol properties and their probability distributions over clear and cloudy conditions using
36 observations from the ORACLES field campaign.

37 **4.5. Assuming fixed aerosol and cloud vertical layers**

38 Finally, Long Wave (LW) radiative forcing is particularly dependent on the vertical distribution of
39 aerosols, especially for light absorbing aerosols [Chin et al., 2009]. This is because the energy these
40 aerosols reradiate depends on the temperature, and hence their altitude. For example, Penner et al.
41 [2003] emphasize the importance of soot and smoke aerosol injection height in LW TOA $\text{DARE}_{\text{all-sky}}$
42 (see Eq. 1) simulations (higher injection heights tend to enhance the negative LW radiative forcing).

43
44 Quijano et al. [2000], Chung et al. [2005] and Chin et al. [2009] demonstrate the importance of an
45 aerosol height, in relation to a cloud height (i.e., the aerosols located above, within or below the clouds)
46 in an accurate estimation of SW TOA $\text{DARE}_{\text{all-sky}}$. Chung et al. [2005], for example, show that varying
47 the relative vertical distribution of aerosols and clouds leads to a range of global anthropogenic SW
48 TOA $\text{DARE}_{\text{all-sky}}$ from -0.1 to $-0.6 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ (using a combination of MODIS satellite, AERONET ground-
49 based observations and CTM simulations, see their Table 2).

50
51 However, here, we concentrate on cases of aerosol layers overlying clouds in order to compute SW
52 TOA $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$. Aerosol and cloud layer heights are assumed constant over the globe in our study (see

section 2.2). Future studies should incorporate mean gridded (i.e., $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ in this study)-seasonal CALIOP Level 2 aerosol and cloud vertical profiles into the calculation of $DARE_{owc}$. However, constraining clouds between 2 and 3km in our study does not seem unreasonable as our AAC AOD calculations using the DR method can only be applied to aerosols overlying specific low opaque water clouds with, among other criteria, an altitude below 3km (see Table B2). On the other hand, constraining aerosols between 3 and 4km in our study is not realistic over many parts of the globe (e.g., see Fig. 7 of Devasthale et al. [2011]). For example, over the region of South East Atlantic during the ORACLES campaign, the HSRL team observed an aerosol layer located in average between 2 and 5km, and overlying a cloud at an average altitude of 1.2km.

According to Zarzycki et al. [2010], the underlying cloud properties are orders of magnitude more crucial to the computation of $DARE_{cloudy}$ than the location of the aerosol layer relative to the cloud, as long as the aerosol is above the cloud. In other words, the forcing does not seem to depend on the height of the aerosols above clouds as much as other parameters such as the AOD, SSA or cloud albedo. Zarzycki et al. [2010] investigated this assumption and found that over low and middle clouds, forcing changed by $\sim 1\text{-}3\%$ through the heights where the Black Carbon burden was the largest. These small changes in forcing are likely products of a change in atmospheric transmission above the aerosol layer [Haywood and Ramaswamy, 1998] (e.g., a change in the aerosol height is linked to a change in the integrated column water vapor above the aerosol layer and this, in turn, would alter the incident solar radiation).

5. Conclusions

We have computed a first approximation of global seasonal TOA short wave Direct Aerosol Radiative Effects (DARE) above Opaque Water Clouds (OWCs), $DARE_{OWC}$, using observation-based aerosol and cloud radiative properties from a combination of A-Train satellite sensors and a radiative transfer model. Our $DARE_{OWC}$ calculations make three major departures from previous peer-reviewed results: (1) they use extensive aerosol properties derived from the Depolarization Ratio, DR, method applied to Level 1 CALIOP measurements, whereas previous studies often use CALIOP Level 2 standard products which introduce higher uncertainties and known biases; (2) our $DARE_{OWC}$ calculations are applied globally, while most previous studies focus on specific regions of high AAC occurrence such as the SE Atlantic; and (3) our calculations use intensive aerosol properties retrieved from a combination of A-Train satellite sensor measurements (e.g., MODIS, OMI and CALIOP).

Our study agrees with previous findings on the locations and seasons of the maximum occurrence of AAC over the globe. We identify six regions of high AAC occurrence (i.e., AAC hotspots): South and North East Pacific (SEAt and NEPa), Tropical and South East Atlantic (TAt and SEAt), Indian Ocean offshore from West Australia (InWA) and North West Pacific (NWPa). We define τ^{DR}_{AAC} , the Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) above OWCs using the DR method on CALIOP measurements, f_{AAC} , and the frequency of occurrence of AAC cases. We record a majority of $\tau^{DR}_{AAC} \times f_{AAC}$ values at 532nm in the 0.01-0.02 range and that can exceed 0.2 over a few AAC hotspots.

We find positive averages of global seasonal $DARE_{OWC}$ between 0.13 and 0.26 $W \cdot m^{-2}$ and an annual global mean $DARE_{OWC}$ value of 0.20 $W \cdot m^{-2}$ (i.e., a warming effect on climate). Regional seasonal

94 DARE_{OWC} values range from $-0.06 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ in the Indian Ocean, offshore from western Australia (in
95 March-April-May) to $2.87 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ in the South East Atlantic (in September-October-November). High
96 positive values are usually paired with high aerosol optical depths (>0.1) and low single scattering
97 albedos (<0.94), representative of e.g. biomass burning aerosols.

98 Although the DARE_{OWC} estimates in this study are not directly comparable to previous studies because
99 of different spatial domain, period, satellite sensors, detection methods, and/ or associated uncertainties,
00 we emphasize that they are notably higher than the ones from [Zhang et al., 2016; Matus et al., 2015
01 and Oikawa et al., 2013]. In addition to differences in satellite sensors, AAC detection methods, and
02 the assumptions enforced in the calculation of DARE_{cloudy}, there are several other factors that may
03 contribute to the overall higher DARE_{OWC} values we report in this study. The most likely contributors
04 are (1) a possible underestimate of the number of dust-dominated AAC cases; (2) our use of the DR
05 method on CALIOP Level 1 data to quantify the AAC AOD; and, in particular, (3) the technique we
06 have chosen for aggregating sub-grid aerosol and cloud spatial and temporal variability. We discuss
07 each of these in turn in the following paragraphs.

08 Two factors seem to be preventing the DR method from recording enough AAC cases in these regions:
09 the low cloud optical depths of underlying clouds and very few cases of “clear air” above clouds. The
10 DR method used in this study is restricted to aerosols above OWCs that satisfy a long list of criteria.
11 The AAC dataset in this study underestimates (i) the total number of CALIOP 5 km profiles that
12 contain AAC over all OWCs (i.e., not just suitable to the DR technique), (ii) the total number of
13 CALIOP 5 km profiles that contain AAC over any type of clouds over the globe and (iii) the true global

14 occurrence of AAC over any type of clouds. To the best of our knowledge, the true amount of AAC in
15 (i), (ii) and (iii) remains unknown. A better characterization of the “unobstructed” OWCs in the
16 application of the DR technique on CALIOP measurements might bring us closer to answering (i). A
17 combination of CALIOP standard, DR and CR techniques together with airborne observations (e.g.,
18 from the ORACLES field campaign) might answer (ii). Finally, (iii) cannot be answered with the only
19 use of CALIOP observations. The results in this study should be combined with aerosol-above-cloud
20 retrievals from passive satellite sensors (e.g. POLDER [Waquet et al., 2013a,b, Peers et al., 2015,
21 Deaconu et al., 2017] or MODIS [Meyer et al., 2013, Zhang et al., 2014, 2016]) and model simulations
22 [Schulz et al., 2006] to obtain a more complete global quantification and characterization of aerosol
23 above any type of clouds.

24 Compared to other methods, the DR technique applied to CALIOP measurements retrieves $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ with
25 fewer assumptions and lower uncertainties. Other global $\text{DARE}_{\text{cloudy}}$ results (e.g., Matus et al. [2015]
26 and Zhang et al. [2016]) use CALIOP standard products to detect the AAC cases, quantify the AAC
27 AOD and define the aerosol type (and specify the aerosol intensive properties). These studies rely on
28 the presence of aerosol in concentrations sufficient to be identified by the CALIOP layer detection
29 scheme, and on the ability of the CALIOP aerosol subtyping algorithm to correctly identify the aerosol
30 type and thus select the correct lidar ratio for the AOD retrieval. While several recent studies have
31 taken various approaches to quantifying the amount of aerosol currently being undetected in the
32 CALIOP backscatter signals, their general conclusions are unanimous. The CALIOP standard products
33 underestimate above-cloud aerosol loading and the corresponding AAC AOD (Kacenelenbogen et al.,

2014; Kim et al., 2017; Toth et al., 2018; Watson-Parris et al., 2018), and this in turn leads to underestimates of both $DARE_{\text{non-cloudy}}$ and $DARE_{\text{cloudy}}$ (Thorsen and Fu, 2015; Thorsen et al., 2017). In this study, we have assumed spatially and temporally homogeneous clouds and aerosols in our $DARE_{\text{OWC}}$ calculations. As a preliminary investigation of such effects on our calculations, we have compared DARE calculations derived from well collocated aerosol properties (retrieve-then-average) to DARE calculations using seasonally gridded mean aerosol properties (average-then-retrieve). We have shown that the average-then-compute DARE results generally overestimate the retrieve-then-average results both on a global scale and in each of our selected regions. Further research and analysis are required to determine which of these two computational approaches provides the most accurate estimates of real-world DARE.

44

45 **Appendix A: Method to obtain aerosol radiative properties in non-cloudy (i.e., clear-sky)**
46 **conditions using MODIS, OMI and CALIOP and to estimate $DARE_{non-cloudy}$**

47

48 A companion paper, Redemann et al. [2019], develops and refines a method for retrieving full spectral
49 (i.e., at 30 different wavelengths) extinction coefficients, Single Scattering Albedo (SSA) and
50 asymmetry parameters from satellite aerosol products in non-cloudy (i.e., clear-sky) conditions. The
51 method requires collocation of quality-screened satellite data, selection of aerosol models that reproduce
52 the satellite observations within stated uncertainties, and forward calculation of aerosol radiative
53 properties based on the selected aerosol models. They use MODIS-Aqua AOD at 550 and 1240 nm,
54 CALIPSO integrated backscattering (IBS) at 532 nm and OMI Absorption Aerosol Optical Depth
55 (AAOD) at 388 nm (see Table A1). The aerosol radiative properties resulting from this method are
56 called MOC retrievals (for MODIS-OMI-CALIOP).

57

58

59 Table A1. Data sets currently used for global MODIS-OMI-CALIOP (MOC) retrievals of aerosol
 60 radiative properties [Redemann et al., 2019]; DT: Dark Target and EDB: Enhanced Deep Blue.

Product	Source	Assumed Uncertainties*	Weight**,***
550 nm AOD	MODIS Collection 6 (Ocean, DT-Land, EDB-Land)	$\pm 5\% \pm 30 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$	0.1488
1240 nm AOD	MODIS Collection 6 (extrapolated spectrally over land)	$\pm 5\% \pm 30 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$	0.1422
388 nm AAOD	OMI (OMAERO for ocean, OMAERUV for DT-land), MODIS EDB	$\pm 30\% \pm 50 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$	0.5542
532 nm IBS	CALIPSO V3-01	$\pm 30\% \pm 0.1 \text{ Mm}^{-1} \text{sr}^{-1}$	0.1548

61 * For the values after division by CALIPSO layer depth

62 ** The weight, w_i , is used to calculate the cost function $X = (\sum w_i ((x_i - \hat{x}_i) / \delta \hat{x}_i)^2)^{1/2}$ where x_i are the retrieved parameters,

63 \hat{x}_i are the observables, $\delta \hat{x}_i$ are the uncertainties in the observables.

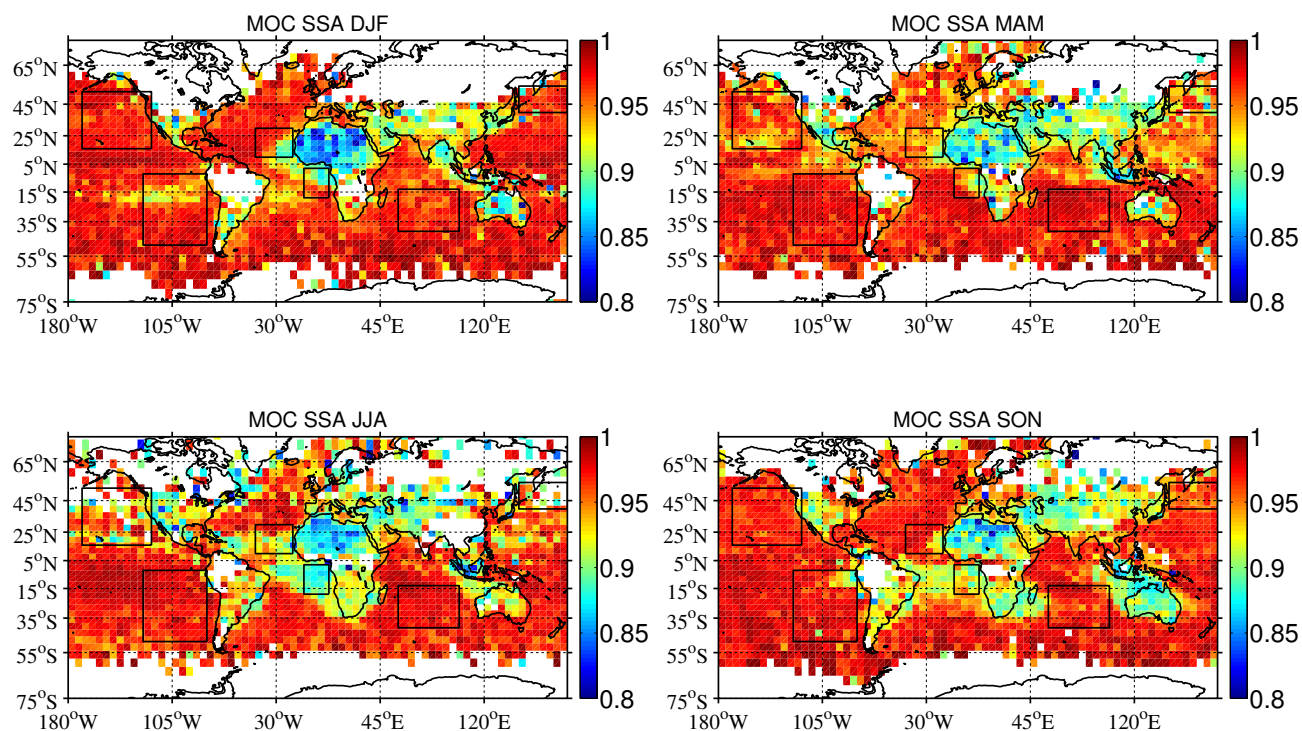
64 The choice of OMI satellite algorithms (see Table A1) reflects their assessment of the
 65 representativeness of subsampling OMI data along the CALIPSO track; i.e., they compared the
 66 probability distribution (PDF) of the OMI retrievals along the CALIPSO track to the global PDF and
 67 chose the data set that had the best match between global and along-track PDF for the over-ocean and
 68 two over-land data sets, the latter being different in their use of MODIS dark target (DT) versus
 69 enhanced Deep-Blue (EDB) data as the source of AOD. They collocate the MODIS and OMI products
 70 within a $40 \times 40 \text{ km}^2$ box centered at each CALIPSO 5-km profile location after Redemann et al. [2012].
 53

71 For the OMAERUV data set, they choose the SSA product for the layer height indicated by the
72 collocated CALIOP backscatter profile.

73 Their aerosol models emulate those of the MODIS aerosol over-ocean algorithm [Remer et al., 2005].
74 Like the MODIS algorithm, they define each model with a lognormal size distribution and wavelength-
75 dependent refractive index. They then combine two of these models, weighted by their number
76 concentration, and compute optical properties for the bi-modal lognormal size distribution. Unlike the
77 MODIS algorithm, they allow combinations of two fine-mode or two coarse-mode models. They use
78 ten different aerosol models, which stem from some of the MODIS over-ocean models [Remer et al.,
79 2005] but include more absorbing models, which was motivated by application of their methodology to
80 the Arctic Research of the Composition of the Troposphere from Aircraft and Satellites (ARCTAS)
81 field campaign data, requiring more aerosol absorption than included in the current MODIS over-ocean
82 aerosol models. They use MOC spectral aerosol radiative properties to then calculate Direct Aerosol
83 Radiative Effects (i.e., $DARE_{non-cloudy}$, see Eq. 1) through a delta-four stream radiative transfer model
84 with fifteen spectral bands from 0.175 to 4.0 μm in SW and twelve longwave (LW) spectral bands
85 between 2850 and 0 cm^{-1} [Fu and Liou, 1992].

86 In order to use these MOC parameters (retrieved in clear-skies) in our $DARE_{owc}$ calculations, we need
87 to assume similar aerosol intensive properties in clear skies compared to above clouds and we need to
88 spatially and/ or temporally grid these MOC parameters. As discussed in section 2.2, we use seasonally
89 averaged MOC spectral SSA, aerosol asymmetry parameter, and extinction retrievals on $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ grids.
90 Figure A1 illustrates seasonal maps of MOC SSA used in our calculations of $DARE_{owc}$.

91



92

93 Figure A1: Seasonal maps of MOC SSA at 546.3 nm in 2007 used in the calculations of $DARE_{owc}$.

94 The squares show different regions defined in Table 5.

95

96 The $DARE_{owc}$ calculations in our study also require information about the underlying cloud optical
 97 properties. As discussed in section 2.2, we use seasonally mean gridded COD from MODIS such as
 98 illustrated in Figure A2.

99

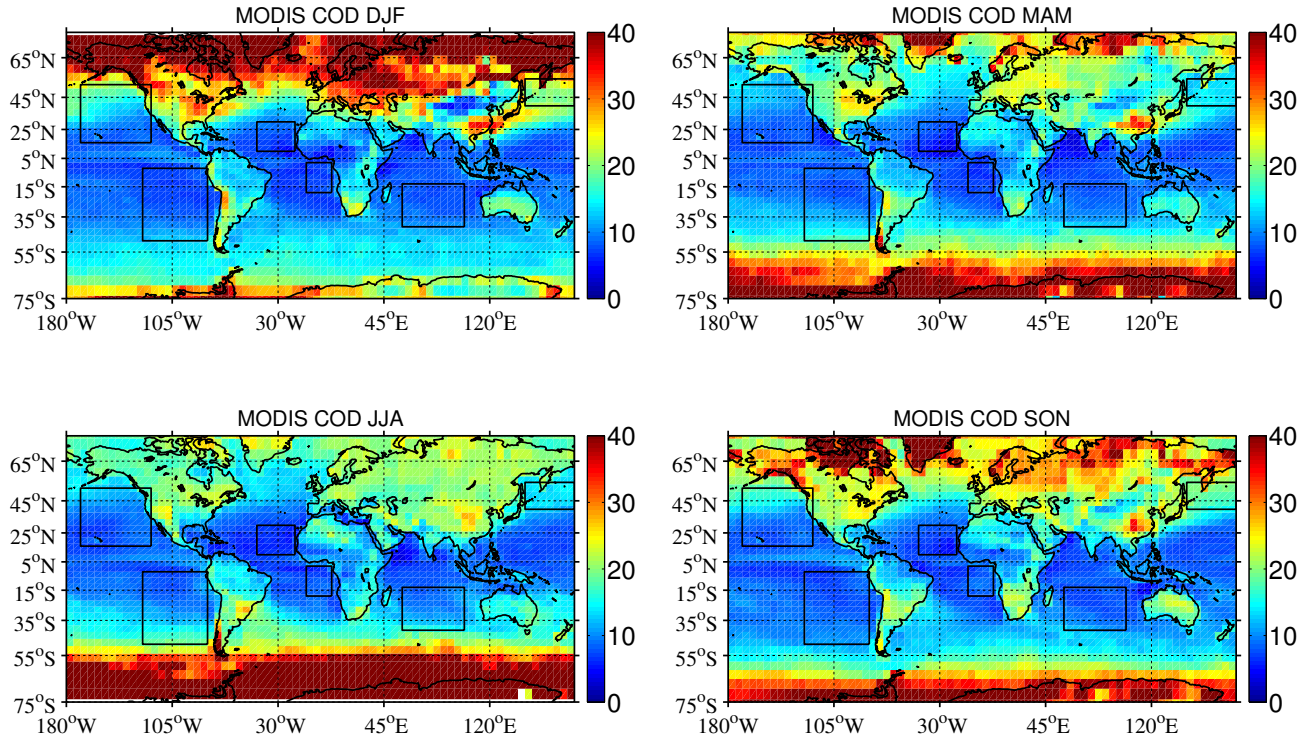


Figure A2: Seasonal maps of COD used in the calculations of $DARE_{OWC}$. COD information is inferred from MODIS seasonally averaged monthly $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grids (i.e. liquid water cloud products of MYD08_M3: “Cloud Effective Radius Liquid Mean Mean” and “Cloud Optical Thickness Liquid Mean Mean” [Platnick et al. 2015]) from 2008 to 2012. The squares show different regions defined in Table 5.

Appendix B: Method for AAC detection and AAC AOD computation

The depolarization ratio (DR) method [Hu et al., 2007b] used to derive estimates of the optical depths (τ) of aerosols above clouds (AAC) is given in Eq. (2) and repeated here for convenience:

$$\tau_{AAC}^{DR} = -0.5 \times \ln[IAB_{SS,AAC}^{OWC} / IAB_{SS,CAC}^{OWC}] \quad (B1)$$

10 The subscripts SS and CAC represent, respectively, ‘single scattering’ and ‘clear above clouds’.
 11 IAB^{OWC}_{SS} (i.e., either $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,AAC}$ or $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$) is the single scattering integrated attenuated
 12 backscatter (IAB), derived from the product of the measured 532 nm attenuated backscatter coefficients
 13 integrated from cloud top to cloud base, IAB^{OWC} , and a layer effective multiple scattering factor, η^{OWC} ,
 14 derived from the layer-integrated volume depolarization ratio of the water cloud (called δ^{OWC}) using:

$$15 \quad \eta^{OWC} = [(1-\delta^{OWC})/(1+\delta^{OWC})]^2 \quad (B2)$$

16 [Hu et al., 2007a]. The single scattering IAB is thus derived using:

$$17 \quad IAB^{OWC}_{SS,X} = \eta^{OWC} \times IAB^{OWC}_{measured,X} \quad (B3)$$

18 for both aerosol above cloud cases ($X = AAC$) and those cases with clear skies above ($X = CAC$). An
 19 assumption of the DR method is that δ^{OWC} is negligibly affected by any aerosols that lie in the optical
 20 path between the OWC and the lidar.

21 Table B1 provides a high-level overview of the procedure we use to compute aerosol optical depth
 22 (τ^{DR}_{AAC}) above OWCs over the globe. We chose to concentrate on night-time CALIOP observations
 23 only, as they have substantially higher signal-to-noise ratios (SNR) than the daytime measurements
 24 [Hunt et al., 2009].

25

26 **Table B1:** Steps required to compute τ^{DR}_{AAC} . (*): we construct global maps of $4 \times 5^\circ$ pixels using
 27 median values. Superscripts 1 and 2 denote respectively CALIOP Level 1 and Level 2 aerosol or cloud
 28 layer products.

Step	Description	CALIOP, GEOS-5 and other computed products that are used in each step	More detail
S1	Select specific Opaque Water Clouds (OWC) suitable for the DR technique	CAD Score ² , Integrated Attenuated Backscatter Uncertainty 532 ² , Integrated Volume Depolarization Ratio Uncertainty ² , Horizontal Averaging, Opacity Flag ² , Feature Classification Flags ² , Layer Top Altitude ² , Layer Top Temperature ² , Surface Wind Speed ²	section B1, Table B2
S2	Select a subset of OWCs from (S1) with clear air above	Overlying Integrated Attenuated Backscatter 532 ² , simulated molecular layer-integrated attenuated backscatter [Powell et al., 2002 and 2006] and OWCs from (S1)	section B2
S3	Process seasonal maps of median $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$ and record number of $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$ values per grid cell (*)	Integrated Attenuated Backscatter 532 ² , Integrated Volume Depolarization Ratio ² , and OWCs with clear air above from (S2)	section B3
S4	Compute τ^{DR}_{AAC} along track	Total Attenuated Backscatter 532 ¹ , Molecular Number Density ¹ , Ozone Number Density ¹ Integrated Attenuated Backscatter 532 ^{2,+} , Integrated Volume Depolarization Ratio ^{2,+} , Layer Top Altitude ^{2,+} , Layer Base Altitude ^{2,+} and seasonal maps of $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$ from (S3) Note: (+) these parameters are re-computed from CALIOP level 1 data, and may differ from the standard CALIOP products	Eq. (2) or Eq. (B1)
S5	Process seasonal maps of median τ^{DR}_{AAC} and record number of τ^{DR}_{AAC} values per grid cell (*)	τ^{DR}_{AAC} of (S4) and we filter using number of $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$ values per grid cell and per season from (S3)	Results in section 3.2

29

30 The first step (S1) is to identify OWCs that are suitable for the application of the DR method. The
31 acceptance criteria used to identify these clouds are described below in section B1 and listed in Table
32 B2. In the second step (S2), we use the overlying integrated attenuated backscatter (i.e., the 532 nm

33 attenuated backscatter coefficients integrated from TOA to the OWC cloud tops) to partition the OWC
34 into two classes: (i) “unobstructed” clouds, for which the magnitude of the overlying IAB suggests that
35 only aerosol-free clear skies lie above; and (ii) “obstructed” clouds for which we expect to be able to
36 retrieve positive estimates of $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$. Section B2 describes the objective method we have developed to
37 separate unobstructed clouds (for which we can compute $\text{IAB}^{\text{OWC}}_{\text{SS,CAC}}$) from obstructed clouds (for
38 which we calculate $\text{IAB}^{\text{OWC}}_{\text{SS,AAC}}$).

39 In step (S3), we construct global seasonal maps of median $\text{IAB}^{\text{OWC}}_{\text{SS,CAC}}$ using 5 consecutive years
40 (2008-2012) of CALIOP nighttime data (see section B3). By doing this we can subsequently compute
41 estimates of $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ without invoking assumptions about the lidar ratios of water clouds in clear skies
42 [Hu et al., 2007]. Throughout this study, we chose to compute global median values within each grid
43 cell (instead of mean values) to limit the impact of particularly high or low outliers on our statistics.

44 In step (S4), we compute estimates of $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ for all obstructed OWC within each grid cell using Eq. (2)
45 or Eq. (B1) and the 5-year nighttime seasonal median values of $\text{IAB}^{\text{OWC}}_{\text{SS,CAC}}$ from (S3) (i.e., each
46 $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ value along the CALIOP track is computed using one median value of $\text{IAB}^{\text{OWC}}_{\text{SS,CAC}}$ per $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$
47 pixel and per season).

48 For the OWCs considered in this study, true layer base cannot be measured by CALIOP, simply
49 because the signal becomes totally attenuated at some point below the layer top. Instead, what is
50 reported in the CALIOP data products is an apparent base, which indicates the point at which the signal
51 was essentially indistinguishable from background levels. Numerous validation studies have established
52 the accuracy of the CALIOP cloud layer detection scheme (e.g., McGill et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2011;

Thorsen et al., 2011; Yorks et al., 2011; Candlish et al., 2013). Strong attenuation of the signal by optically thick aerosols above an OWC can, in some cases, introduce biases into the cloud height determination, which would lead to misestimates of $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,AAC}$ and subsequent errors in τ^{DR}_{AAC} . To ensure the use of consistent data processing assumptions throughout our retrievals of τ^{DR}_{AAC} , we recalculated the components of $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,AAC}$ (i.e., the “Integrated Attenuated Backscatter 532” and “Integrated Volume Depolarization Ratio”) using parameters in the CALIOP Level 1 product (“Total Attenuated Backscatter 532”, “Molecular Number Density” and “Ozone Number_Density”) and optimized estimates of cloud top and base altitudes based on the “Layer Top Altitude” and “Layer Base Altitude” values reported in the CALIOP Level 2 layer product.

Apart from the identification of specific OWCs in step (S1), the primary Level 2 CALIOP parameters used to calculate τ^{DR}_{AAC} (S2-S4 in Table B1) are (i) the integrated attenuated backscatter above cloud top to detect “clear air” cases (i.e. “Overlying Integrated Attenuated Backscatter 532” in step (S2)), (ii) the layer integrated attenuated backscatter of the OWC with clear air above (i.e. “Integrated Attenuated Backscatter 532” in step (S3)) and (iii) the cloud multiple scattering factor, derived as a function of the layer integrated volume depolarization ratio (i.e. the “Integrated Volume Depolarization Ratio” in S3 and S4).

Below, we list the potential sources of errors associated with those three products:

- (a) the accuracy of the 532 nm channel calibrations,
- (b) the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of the backscatter data within the layer,
- (c) the estimation of molecular scattering in the integrated attenuated backscatter (section 3.2.9.1 of the 60

73 CALIPSO Feature Detection ATBD, [http://www-calipso.larc.nasa.gov/resources/pdfs/PC-SCI-](http://www-calipso.larc.nasa.gov/resources/pdfs/PC-SCI-202_Part2_rev1x01.pdf)
74 [202_Part2_rev1x01.pdf](http://www-calipso.larc.nasa.gov/resources/pdfs/PC-SCI-202_Part2_rev1x01.pdf)), and

75 (d) the accuracy of the depolarization calibration (see section 5 in Powell et al., [2009]).

76 Concerning (a), Rogers et al. [2011] show that the NASA LaRC HSRL and CALIOP Version 3 532 nm
77 total attenuated backscatter agree on average within ~3%, demonstrating the accuracy of the CALIOP
78 532 nm calibration algorithms.

79 Concerning (b), we assume the influence of the SNR returned from the OWC is negligible as the OWCs
80 are strongly scattering features and our dataset is composed of nighttime data only. However, the
81 backscatter from tenuous and spatially diffuse aerosol layers with large extinction-to-backscatter ratios
82 can lie well beneath the CALIOP attenuated backscatter detection threshold. When such layers lie
83 above OWCs, the measured overlying integrated attenuated backscatter can fall within one standard
84 deviation of the expected ‘purely molecular’ value that is used to identify CAC (or “unobstructed”)
85 OWC in our dataset (S2; see Sect. B2). Within the context of this study, these tenuous and spatially
86 diffuse aerosol layers can have appreciable AOD, and thus care must be taken to ensure that these sorts
87 of cases are not misclassified as CAC OWC. Section B3 discusses such cases, possibly found, for
88 example, over the region of SEAt.

89

90 **B1. Select specific Opaque Water Clouds suitable for DR technique**

91 Successful application of the DR method (Eq. 2 or Eq. B1) requires a very specific type of underlying
 92 cloud (step (S1) in Table B1). Table B2 lists the criteria we have applied to the CALIOP 5 km cloud
 93 layer products for the selection of these specific OWCs over the globe.

94

95 **Table B2:** Criteria used to select the Opaque Water Clouds (OWC) for the application of the DR
 96 method to obtain the AAC frequency of occurrence, AAC optical depth, AAC lidar ratio and $DARE_{OWC}$
 97 in this study.

criteria	metric	interpretation
C1	Number of cloud layers = 1	a single cloud in each column
C2	High CALIOP cloud-aerosol discrimination (CAD) score ($90 \leq CAD \leq 100$) and high SNR (IAB SNR > 159 , δ^{OWC} SNR > 2)	highly confident of cloud classification
C3	Cloud detected at 5 km averaging resolution with CALIOP single shot cloud cleared fraction = 0	cloud is spatially uniform over a 5 km averaging interval
C4	CALIOP opacity flag = 1; surface wind speed < 9 m/s	cloud is opaque
C5	CALIOP phase classification is high confidence water; $\delta^{OWC} < 0.5$; cloud top altitude < 3 km; cloud top temperature $\geq -10^\circ$ C	highly confident of cloud phase identification (water)

98 We ensure that each cloud is the only cloud detected within the vertical column (C1) and is guaranteed
 99 to be of high quality by imposing filters on various CALIOP quality assurance flags (C2). Imposing the
 00 “single shot cloud cleared fraction = 0” in criterion (C3) assures that the clouds are uniformly detected
 01 at single shot resolution throughout the full 5 km (15 shot) horizontal extent. As a result, we will

02 intentionally miss any broken clouds and any clouds that show a weaker scattering intensity within one
03 or more laser pulses with the 15 shot average. On the other hand, enforcing the single shot cloud
04 fraction = 0 criteria simultaneously ensures that all $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}}$ values in this study will lie below a certain
05 threshold: larger values would attenuate the signal to the point that single shot detection of underlying
06 clouds is no longer likely. Consequently, some highly attenuating biomass burning events (e.g., with
07 $\tau^{\text{DR}}_{\text{AAC}} > 2.5$) can be excluded from the cases considered here.

08 At high surface wind speeds over oceans, the CALIOP V3 layer detection algorithm may fail to detect
09 surface backscatter signals underneath optically thick but not opaque layers. In such cases, CALIOP's
10 standard algorithm may misclassify the column as containing an opaque overlying cloud. To avoid such
11 scenarios, we exclude all the cases with high surface wind conditions (C4). Let us note that this
12 condition was applied on the entire dataset, disregarding the surface type (i.e. land or ocean), as our
13 OWC dataset resides mostly over ocean surfaces (see Figure 1b).

14 Criterion (C5) requires that the OWC be both low enough (cloud top below 3km) and warm enough
15 (cloud top temperature above -10°C as in Zelinka et al. [2012]) to ensure that it is composed of liquid
16 water droplets. After applying all the criteria of Table B2, the median OWC top height of our dataset is
17 ~1.6 km. According to Hu et al. [2009], any feature showing a cloud layer integrated volume
18 depolarization ratio above 50% should correspond to an ice cloud with randomly oriented particles.
19 Criterion (C5) assures the deletion of such cases.

20 The averaged single-layer, high QA, uniform cloud (i.e. C1-C3 in Table B2) has a top altitude of ~8
21 km, a top temperature around -38° C and mean surface winds of ~6 m s⁻¹. Selecting only those clouds

with top temperatures above -10° C removes 30-40% of the observations. Subsequently filtering out clouds with top heights above 3 km removes an additional 30% of the observations. Finally, filtering out clouds with underlying winds above 9 m s^{-1} deletes another 20% of the observations. Among all single-layer, high QA, uniform clouds (i.e. C1-C3 in Table B2), we find that ~45-50% are opaque clouds (C4), and that ~11-12% satisfy all criteria (C1-C5) of Table B2.

27

28 **B2. Select a subset of Opaque Water Clouds with clear air above**

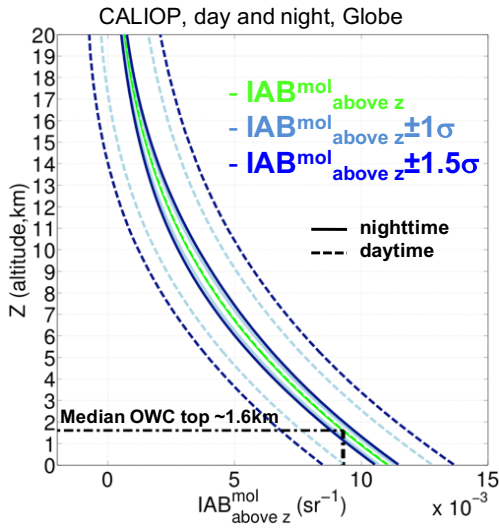
To distinguish between OWCs having clear skies above (i.e., unobstructed clouds, see S2 in Table B1) and those having overlying aerosols, we examine the overlying integrated attenuated backscatter reported in the CALIOP Level 2 cloud layer products. The total Integrated Attenuated Backscatter (IAB) value above a cloud (i.e., $IAB^{\text{tot}}_{\text{aboveCloud}}$) can be written as follows:

$$33 \quad IAB^{\text{tot}}_{\text{aboveCloud}} = \int_0^{\text{cloudtop}} [\beta_a(r) T_a^2(0, r) T_m^2(0, r)] dr + \int_0^{\text{cloudtop}} [\beta_m(r) T_m^2(0, r) T_a^2(0, r)] dr \quad (\text{B4})$$

Here $\beta_a(r)$ and $\beta_m(r)$ are, respectively, the aerosol and the molecular backscatter coefficients ($\text{km}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$) at range r (km), and $T_a^2(0, r)$ and $T_m^2(0, r)$ are the two-way transmittances between the lidar (at range $r = 0$) and range r due to, respectively, aerosols and molecules.

Figure B1 shows simulated profiles of the integrated attenuated backscatter above any given altitude, z , ($IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{above } z}$) for a purely molecular atmosphere for both daytime (solid green curve) and nighttime conditions (dashed green curve). These data were generated by the CALIPSO lidar simulator [Powell et al., 2002; Powell, 2005; Powell et al., 2006] using molecular and ozone number density profiles

41 obtained from the GEOS-5 atmospheric data products distributed by the NASA Goddard Global
 42 Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO). The error envelopes at ± 1 standard deviation (light blue
 43 curves) and ± 1.5 standard deviation (dark blue curves) around the mean represent measurement
 44 uncertainties for CALIPSO profiles averaged to a nominal horizontal distance of 5 km. The mean
 45 $IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{above } z}$ profiles represent an average of all data along the CALIPSO orbit track on 17 March 2013
 46 that began at 03:29:28 UTC and extended from 78.8°N, 20.3°E to 77.3°S, 77.0°W. Spot checks of
 47 mean $IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{above } z}$ profiles from different seasons show variations of $\sim 10\%$ or less, depending on
 48 latitude, for altitudes of 3 km and below. The largest differences are found poleward of 30°. While the
 49 daytime and nighttime mean values are, as expected, essentially indistinguishable from one another, the
 50 error envelopes differ drastically due to the influence of solar background noise during daylight
 51 measurements. In this study, we use nighttime measurements only.



52
 53 **Figure B1:** Nighttime (solid) and daytime (dashed) simulated vertical profile of integrated attenuated
 54 backscatter above any given altitude, z , $IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{above } z}$ (green curve). The light blue (respectively dark
 65

55 blue) envelope shows 1 (respectively 1.5) standard deviation (σ) around the $IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{above } z}$ profile. Data
 56 was generated by the CALIPSO lidar simulator [Powell et al., 2002 and 2006]. The $IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{above } z}$ value
 57 associated to the median OWC top height of ~ 1.6 km in our dataset corresponds to 0.0093 sr^{-1} .

58

59 In this study, we assume “clear air” when $IAB^{\text{tot}}_{\text{aboveCloud}}$ is within the simulated $IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{aboveCloud}}$ value \pm
 60 1σ (i.e., the light blue envelope shown in Figure B1). This definition of “clear air above” conditions is
 61 somewhat more restrictive than those imposed in previous studies. For example, Liu et al. [2015]
 62 conducted an extensive study of AAC optical depths and lidar ratios using CALIOP measurements over
 63 the tropical and southeast Atlantic. To identify clear air above cloud cases, Liu et al. [2015] require that
 64 the integrated attenuated scattering ratio, defined as

65

$$66 \quad ASR = \frac{\int_{8km}^{OWC_{top}} (\beta_m(r) + \beta_a(r)) T_m^2(0, r) T_a^2(0, r) dr}{\int_{8km}^{OWC_{top}} \beta_m(r) T_m^2(0, r) dr} \quad (B5)$$

67 , fall within the range of $0.95 < ASR < 1.05$, irrespective of cloud top altitude. For comparison, at the
 68 maximum OWC top altitude used in our analyses (3 km), $(IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{aboveCloud}} \pm 1\sigma) / IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{aboveCloud}} = 1 \pm$
 69 0.0380 . This restriction tightens for lower cloud top heights; e.g., at our mean OWC top altitude of 1.6
 70 km, $(IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{aboveCloud}} \pm 1\sigma) / IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{aboveCloud}} = 1 \pm 0.0325$.

71 The pioneering study by Chand et al. [2008], who first used the CALIOP DR method to assess the
 72 radiative effects of aerosols above clouds, took a different approach to identifying “clear above cloud”
 73 cases. Rather than examining the overlying IAB, they instead assumed clear air above conditions
 66

74 whenever $IAB^{OWC}_{SS} > 0.025 \text{ sr}^{-1}$. As will be shown in section B3, in addition to the $IAB^{mol}_{aboveCloud}$
 75 limits cited above, our study also enforces limits on $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$. This combination of limits on both
 76 $IAB^{mol}_{aboveCloud}$ and $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$ serves to more effectively reject aerosol-contaminated profiles from
 77 the “clear above” data set than either one alone.

78

79 **B3. Process median seasonal maps of Integrated Attenuated Backscatter of Opaque Water Clouds** 80 **showing Clear Air Above**

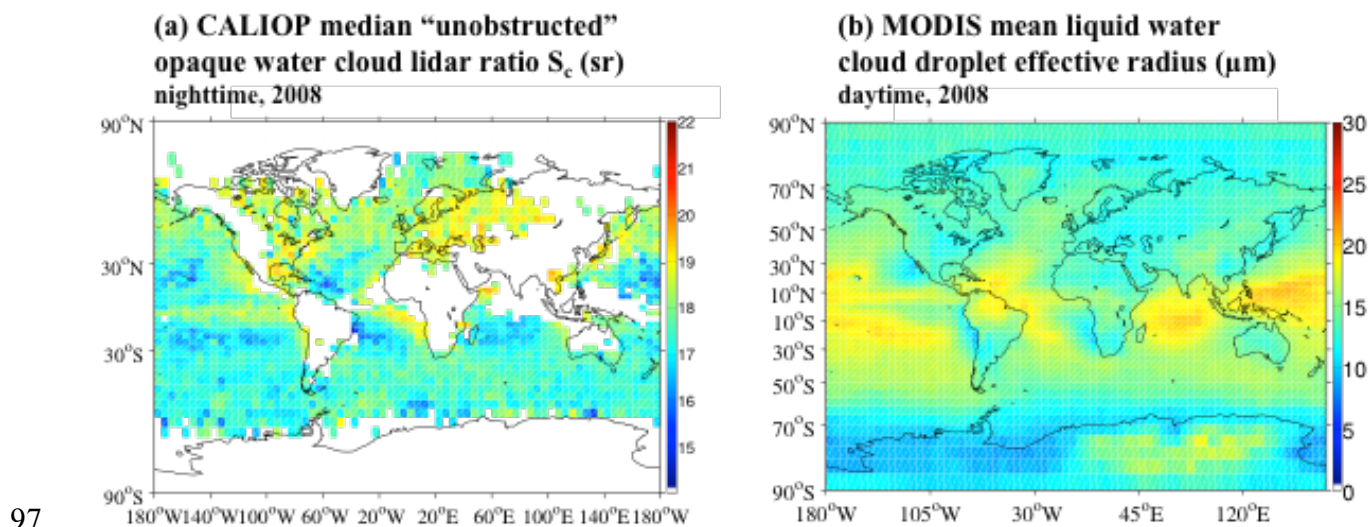
81 Once we select specific OWCs (i.e., that satisfy the criteria of Table B2) and define which ones are
 82 “unobstructed” (see section B2), we can easily compute $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$ by using Eq. (B3). For clouds
 83 that totally attenuate the lidar signal (i.e., cloud optical depths greater than ~ 6 [Young et al., 2018]),
 84 $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$ in Eq. (2) or Eq. (B1) is related to the OWC lidar ratio (called S_c), so that

$$85 \quad S_c = 1 / (2 \times \eta^{OWC} \times IAB^{OWC}_{CAC}) = 1 / (2 \times IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}) \quad (B6)$$

86 [Platt, 1973]. OWC S_c values are relatively stable at the visible and near infrared wavelengths [Pinnick
 87 et al., 1983, O’Connor et al., 2004], but show large variations over land [Pinnick et al., 1983; Hu et al.,
 88 2006]. S_c is known to vary as a function of cloud droplet microphysics, and is especially sensitive to
 89 cloud droplet effective radius (R_e) and the imaginary part of the refractive index (see Fig. 8 of Deaconu
 90 et al. [2017]). Hu et al., [2006], Liu et al. [2015] and Deaconu et al. [2017] show that a decrease of R_e is
 91 often paired with an increase of estimated S_c at 532 nm for pure, non-aerosol-contaminated water
 92 clouds (i.e., cloud droplets having an imaginary refractive index of 0).

93 As an example, Figure B3a shows the median nighttime CALIOP S_c values over the globe during 2008.
 94 Figure B3b shows MODIS AQUA-derived mean liquid water R_e in 2008 (using MODIS Level 3
 95 monthly product “Cloud Effective Radius Liquid Mean Mean”).

96



97 **Figure B3:** a) Global CALIOP yearly median nighttime “unobstructed” (i.e. clear air above) OWC lidar
 98 ratio, S_c , in 2008 that satisfy all criteria of Table B2. For the reasons outlined in this section, any OWC
 99 along the CALIOP track for which $S_c > 20$ sr or $S_c < 14$ sr is deleted before temporal and spatial
 00 averaging. White pixels show a limited number of OWCs; b) Global MODIS yearly mean daytime
 01 liquid water cloud droplet effective radius, R_e (in μm , “Cloud Effective Radius Liquid Mean Mean”
 02 parameter from MODIS MYD08_M3 product).

04

05 Greater S_c values paired with lower cloud R_e can be seen offshore and close to the west coasts of Africa
 06 and the Americas on Figure B3. Other notable regions of low cloud R_e and high S_c on Figure B3 are
 07 above industrial regions like northern Europe, the eastern US and South East Asia. These results appear
 08 to support Twomey's analysis [Twomey, 1977; Rosenfeld and Lensky, 1998], showing an enhancement
 09 of the cloud albedo through the increase of droplet number concentration and a decrease in the droplet
 10 size driven by increased aerosol concentration. On the other hand, Figure B3a mostly exhibits low S_c
 11 values (paired with large R_e) over the inter-tropical convergence zone (ITCZ), likely associated with
 12 deep convective regimes. In addition, Figure B3a generally shows larger OWC S_c values in the northern
 13 hemisphere than in the southern hemisphere, which we attribute to differences in sources of cloud
 14 condensation nuclei. Figure B3b shows patterns that are generally similar to those in Figure B3a, but of
 15 opposite intensity. Let us note that the polarization measurements from the space-borne POLDER
 16 sensor [Deschamps et al., 1994] were also used to estimate R_e of liquid water clouds over the globe
 17 [Bréon and Colzy, 2000] and seem to be in qualitative agreement with the findings of Figure B3b.

18 During our assessment of 5 years of CALIOP data over the globe, we have observed significantly
 19 higher "unobstructed" OWC S_c values (i.e., $S_c > 20$ sr, not shown on Fig B3a) near the coasts of West
 20 Africa and over the region of SE Asia (e.g., see Young et al., [2018]). These may be physically
 21 plausible and either (1) associated with small cloud R_e , resulting from the Twomey's effect as explained
 22 above or (2) associated with the presence of light-absorbing aerosols residing within the OWCs
 23 [Mishchenko et al., 2014; Chylek and Hallett, 1992; Wittbom et al., 2014]. These aerosols would be
 24 undetected in our $IAB^{\text{mol}}_{\text{aboveCloud}}$ clear air selection method (see section B2) and would impact the
 25 chemical composition of the cloud droplets, modifying their backscattered light. The latter is well

69

26 illustrated in Fig. 8 of Deaconu et al. [2017], which shows simulations of cloud S_c with an imaginary
27 part of the refraction index equals to 0.0001, as a function of cloud droplet effective radius. Other
28 reasons for these unusually high S_c values could be the sources of uncertainty noted (a), (b), (c) and (d)
29 in the beginning of section B, with (c) (i.e., the SNR of the backscatter data within the layer) possibly
30 having a much higher impact on S_c than all other factors. An additional source of uncertainty on the
31 retrieval of S_c could be a failure of the CALIPSO surface detection scheme. If CALIOP fails to detect
32 the surface adequately, part of the Earth's surface could be misclassified as an opaque water cloud and
33 these misclassified clouds would have abnormally high S_c .

34 Let us note that the vast majority of the S_c values reported in the literature (i.e., in Hu et al., [2006], Liu
35 et al. [2015] and Deaconu et al., [2017]) are estimated using a Mie code and not directly measured.
36 However, none of these results show S_c values above 20 sr for non-aerosol-contaminated OWCs. On the
37 other hand (and to add a lower bracket on our OWC S_c calculations), none of these results show S_c
38 values below 14 sr. For this reason, we have imposed an additional threshold on the OWC S_c values as
39 part of step (S3) in Table B1: we delete any “unobstructed” OWC along the CALIOP track for which S_c
40 > 20 sr (i.e., unrealistically small water cloud droplets) or an $S_c < 14$ sr (i.e., unrealistically large water
41 cloud droplets). Every OWC S_c value along the CALIOP track was then compiled to produce four
42 global median seasonal $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ maps of OWC S_c using 5 years of night-time CALIOP data (from 2008 to
43 2012).

44 There is additional precedent for establishing an upper limit of $S_c = 20$ sr. Note that, from Eq. B6, the
45 value of $IAB^{OWC}_{SS,CAC}$ corresponding to $S_c = 20$ sr is 0.025 sr^{-1} . As mentioned earlier, this is the same
46 OWC IAB threshold value used by Chand et al. [2008] to identify their “clear air above” cases.

47

48

49 **Data Availability:**

50 This study used the following A-Train data products: (i) CALIPSO version 3 lidar level 1 profile
51 products (Powell et al. [2013]; NASA Langley Research Center Atmospheric Science Data Center;
52 https://doi.org/10.5067/CALIOP/CALIPSO/CAL_LID_L1-ValStage1-V3-01_L1B-003.01; last access:
53 26 September 2018), (ii) CALIPSO version 3 lidar level 2 5 km cloud layer products (Powell et al.
54 [2013]; NASA Langley Research Center Atmospheric Science Data Center;
55 https://doi.org/10.5067/CALIOP/CALIPSO/CAL_LID_L2_05kmCLay-Prov-V3-01_L2-003.01; last
56 access: 26 September 2018), (iii) MODIS Atmosphere L2 Version 6 Aerosol Product (Levy and Hsu
57 [2015]; NASA MODIS Adaptive Processing System, Goddard Space Flight Center, USA;
58 http://dx.doi.org/10.5067/MODIS/MOD04_L2.006; last access: 26 September 2018), and (iv) L2
59 Version 3 OMI products OMAERO [Stein-Zweers and Veefkind, 2012] and OMAERUV [Torres,
60 2006].

61

62 **Author contributions:**

63 The overarching research goals were formulated by Dr Redemann. Dr. Kacenelenbogen, Dr. Young and
64 Mr. Vaughan influenced the evolution of these research goals. Dr. Kacenelenbogen carried out the
65 formal analyses, investigations and visualizations and wrote the original draft. All co-authors have
66 reviewed and edited the multiple drafts of the manuscript. The methodology behind the global
67 application of the DR method to CALIOP measurements was first developed by Dr. Hu, and adapted by
68 Dr. Kacenelenbogen, Dr. Young, Mr. Vaughan, and Ms. Powell to accommodate the requirements of

69 this study. The methodology for using this combination of A-Train satellites to infer aerosol intensive
70 radiative properties was conceptualized by Dr Redemann. The joint MODIS-OMI-CALIOP aerosol
71 radiative properties were developed and provided by Dr. Shinozuka, Mr. Livingston and Ms. Zhang. Dr.
72 LeBlanc performed the radiative transfer calculations that provided Direct Aerosol Radiative Effects
73 estimates in clear skies and above clouds.

74

75 **Competing interests:**

76 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

77

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