

# Linking Atmosphere-Only and Coupled Climate Simulations Through Perturbed Parameter Ensembles

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Supporting Information:

<https://docs.google.com/document/d/1RZsWm5IABhAgsNQ3F1UZ7-3UvYYKQDLx/edit?usp=sharing&ouid=109128369786086630786&rtpof=true&sd=true>

## Key Points:

- Twin perturbed parameter ensembles using atmosphere-only and coupled configurations are integrated to build tuning strategies.
- The upper-atmosphere warm anomaly found in the coupled configurations is linked to the radiative budget of atmosphere-only experiments.
- The anomalies in the upper troposphere found in the atmosphere-only runs are linked to polar climate anomalies of the coupled experiments.

## 26 Abstract

27 Calibration of climate models is essential for adjusting unresolved physical processes  
28 with large observational uncertainties through the adjustment of uncertain parameters,  
29 particularly those controlling clouds, the radiative budget, and ocean mixing properties.  
30 Perturbed parameter ensembles (PPEs) provide a systematic and objective alternative to  
31 manual tuning, but their use in coupled configurations is costly and remains therefore limited.  
32 Here, we analyze a pair of 120-member PPEs conducted with coupled and atmosphere  
33 stand-alone configurations of the IPSL model using identical parameter perturbations in both  
34 configurations. We use empirical orthogonal function analysis applied across the ensemble  
35 dimension to investigate the ensemble spread in both configurations. A first pattern is  
36 consistent with a thermal adjustment of the climate that is linked to the radiative budget of the  
37 atmospheric configuration. The second pattern is linked to the midlatitude higher-troposphere  
38 adjustments to upper level cloudiness, which is common in both configurations. This pattern is  
39 also related to sea ice changes in the coupled models. These results suggest that  
40 atmosphere-only configurations can be used to correct some of the biases in coupled models.

## 41 Plain Language Summary

42

## 43 1 Introduction

44 Uncertainty in climate projections remains a central challenge in climate science, largely due  
45 to variations in how models represent key physical processes and respond to external forcing  
46 (Hourdin et al., 2017; Knutti et al., 2017; Flynn and Mauritsen, 2020). Part of this uncertainty  
47 arises from parametric uncertainty. The latter is due to the fact that some processes cannot be  
48 explicitly resolved by the model equations, either due to their occurrence at spatial scales  
49 smaller than the model's resolution or because the governing for these processes remain  
50 insufficiently understood or unknown. The need to calibrate these parameters led to the  
51 development of frameworks for exploring the acceptable ranges of values for the parameters.

52 Previously, manual calibration and hand-chosen parameter combinations were the  
53 dominant approach in GCM calibration, with evidence that it may inadequately sample model  
54 diversity (Mauritsen et al., 2012; Sanderson et al., 2008, Hourdin et al., 2023). Manual  
55 calibration can be time consuming: the calibration of IPSL-CM6A-LR followed a long three-year  
56 sequence of improvements, bug fixes, and expert-driven manual tuning phases, largely focused  
57 on improving the sea ice extent and global mean surface temperature (Mignot et al., 2021).  
58 More recent studies used emulators, based on machine learning techniques, trained on large  
59 PPEs. A PPE is an ensemble of simulations using a modified set of parameters for each member.  
60 The investigation of such ensembles allows investigating the effect of the changes in each  
61 parameter and their interactions. The spread obtained with such an ensemble provides an  
62 evaluation of the so-called parametric uncertainty. The investigation of PPE usually involves  
63 having observational targets to reduce the dimensionality of the model outputs, and get  
64 physical or statistical insights on the adjustment in parameters needed to simulate correctly the  
65 target variables.

66 Several protocols have been previously proposed. For instance, Peatier et al. (2022; 2024)  
67 analyzed a PPE from the atmospheric component of CNRM-CM6-1, sampling 30 unconstrained  
68 parameters with a latin-hypercube strategy within their observational range. They propose  
69 selecting diverse but comparably performing candidates to better sample the parametric  
70 uncertainty and capture a range of possible climate responses. Eidhammer et al. (2024) similarly  
71 introduced an extensible PPE for CAM6 with the same framework to explore sensitivity to 45  
72 parameters. Mikkelsen et al. (2025) used the same model and method but focused five  
73 aerosol–cloud parameters and compared the resulting simulations to surface observations.

74 In parallel, several methods have been developed using PPE results in order to infer climate  
75 characteristics from parameter combinations that were not directly sampled in the PPE. For  
76 instance, Williamson et al. (2013, 2017) built emulators based on gaussian processes to  
77 reconstruct and explore the climate in all the parameter space. On the other hand, Elsaesser et  
78 al. (2025) and Yang et al. (2025) used PPEs integrated with GISS ModelE atmosphere (version  
79 E3) to derive a calibrated physics ensemble (CPE) using emulators based on other machine  
80 learning methods.

81 These strategies offer alternatives to traditional manual tuning, emphasizing the need to  
82 build efficient targets with established observational uncertainties combined into statistical  
83 frameworks, in order to translate the expert driven tuning, done manually so far, into an  
84 objectified and automated expert driven tuning. As discussed in Williamson et al. (2013, 2017),  
85 Li et al., (2019), Couvreur et al. (2021), Hourdin et al. (2021, 2023), and Yamazaki et al. (2021),  
86 the use of emulator and process-based evaluation allows tuning to become more reproducible  
87 and potentially scalable across model resolutions. This approach reveals that distinct coupled  
88 climate states can emerge from multiple valid parameter combinations or unresolved structural  
89 errors (Hourdin et al., 2023; Peatier et al., 2024).

90 In summary, atmospheric stand-alone configurations provide means to test how  
91 atmospheric parameter perturbations influence radiation, circulation, and cloud processes (Vial  
92 et al., 2013; Webb et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2023). These experiments have been widely used to  
93 calibrate atmospheric parameters, identify stable diagnostics, and explore emergent feedbacks  
94 (Mauritsen et al., 2012; Hourdin et al., 2017). This approach also allows separation of  
95 parametric uncertainty from structural uncertainty of climate models, which remains a critical  
96 challenge in interpreting models' ensembles diversity (Williamson et al., 2015; Sanderson et al.,  
97 2021; Peatier et al., 2024). However, the extent to which atmospheric parameter sensitivities  
98 derived from atmosphere-only configurations are transferable to coupled configurations  
99 remains mainly unknown.

100 With the emergence of single model perturbed parametric (PPE) protocols, recent efforts  
101 have aimed to quantify the impact of parametric uncertainty on simulated coupled climate  
102 responses (i.e., Sexton et al., 2021; Duffy et al., 2024; Bonnet et al., 2025; Yang et al., 2025;  
103 Hourdin et al., 2023, and several others). However, such an approach is costly CPU-wise to carry  
104 in coupled mode. More generally, a central challenge in climate model development is  
105 identifying which variables and diagnostics provide stable, transferable signals for tuning across  
106 experimental setups. Do atmospheric responses seen in atmosphere-only simulations carry over  
107 into coupled climate simulations, or do ocean–atmosphere interactions shift the parameter  
108 sensitivities once the ocean equilibrates?

109 This study addresses this question by directly comparing a pair of atmosphere-only and  
110 coupled PPEs built from the modification of 12 parameters. Specifically, we assess the  
111 opportunities of using atmospheric stand-alone simulations to precondition coupled model  
112 tuning, extending the approach and discussion of Hourdin et al. (2023). Our design allows us to  
113 isolate how ocean-atmosphere coupling alters the atmospheric diversity expressed in  
114 atmospheric ensembles and to test whether atmospheric stand-alone-based sensitivities can  
115 precondition coupled model tuning. Specifically, we (i) quantify the role of radiative adjustments  
116 and ocean-atmosphere coupling in masking, amplifying, or aligning ensemble diversity across  
117 configurations, (ii) compare ensemble spread across key atmospheric variables in  
118 atmosphere-only and coupled runs, and (iii) identify and understand the parameters controlling  
119 the spread in each configuration and assess their transferability between setups.

### 120 3. Experimental Protocol

#### 121 2.1 Atmosphere-only and coupled configurations of IPSL-CM6

122 We use the latest version of IPSL-CM. It is derived from the CMIP6 (Coupled Model  
123 Intercomparison Project Phase 6) model version (Boucher et al., 2020), with small adjustments  
124 and bug corrections, and using newer versions of ocean and sea ice models. The coupled model  
125 consists of the LMDZ6 atmospheric component (Hourdin et al., 2020), the ORCHIDEE land  
126 surface model (Krinner et al., 2005), and the NEMO version 4 ocean model (Madec et al., 2019),  
127 coupled to the SI3 sea ice model (Vancoppenolle et al., 2023). The atmospheric resolution is  $144$   
128  $\times 143$  points in latitude and longitude ( $2.5^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$ ), with 79 vertical layers extending up to  
129 approximately 80 km. The ORCA1 ocean configuration is on a quasi-isotropic global tripolar grid  
130 with a  $1^\circ$  nominal resolution that increases latitudinal resolution to  $1/3^\circ$  in the equatorial  
131 region. Vertically, layer thickness varies from 1 m at the surface, 10 m at 100 m depth, and 200  
132 m in the bottom layers (75 vertical levels).

133 The atmosphere-only simulations are run with imposed climatological sea surface  
134 temperatures (SSTs) and sea ice concentration (SIC) and last 2 years. The SST and SIC are derived  
135 from a climatology over 1979-2005 of the boundary conditions used in the AMIP (Atmospheric  
136 model intercomparison project) protocol. The first year of each simulation is discarded as  
137 spin-up.

138 The coupled simulations used fixed external forcings, such as greenhouse gases and aerosol  
139 concentrations, corresponding to the values of the year 2000 from the CMIP6 protocol. The  
140 initial conditions for the coupled experiments are taken from a control run with a spin-up of XX  
141 years obtained with the default values of the parameters. The simulations last at least 20 years.  
142 We are aware that this duration is too short with respect to the typical equilibrium time scale of  
143 the deep ocean, which could span decades to centuries. Yet, as explained next, we suggest that  
144 this duration is enough to investigate the drift toward an equilibration of the upper ocean, as we  
145 have chosen parameters that relate to the surface ocean rather than the deep ocean. To partly  
146 assess this important aspect, a subset of simulations is run over 60 years. Only the final 10 years  
147 of the simulations are considered, which helps to reduce the influence of drift.

148 All the coupled simulations were performed under present-day conditions. As explained in  
149 Mignot et al (2021), this protocol includes a small artificial increase of the oceanic surface  
150 albedo to mimic the effect of the present-day ocean heat uptake. This allows comparing the

151 results of the simulations against present-day observations, which are much more numerous  
 152 and reliable than over the pre-industrial period.

153

Realm and model	Name		Min. Value	Max. Value	Current IPSL Model Value	Short Description
Atmosphere (LMDZ)	P1	CLC	1E-04	1,00E-03	6.5e-4	Autoconversion threshold for liquid cloud water.
	P2	FALLV	0.3	2.	0.8	Scaling parameter on the terminal fall velocity of ice crystals.
	P3	OMEPMX	0.0003	0.02	0.001	Ice-to-rain conversion efficiency of deep convection (1 – epmax)
	P4	DZ	0.04	0.12	0.07	Scaling factor on the thermal distance to boundary layer inversion.
	P5	EVAP	5E-05	5,00E-04	1,00E-04	Coefficient for re-evaporation of rain.
	P6	GKDRAG	0.2	2.	0.6	Subgrid-scale orographic drag coefficient.
Land Surface (ORCHIDEE)	P7	PCENT	0.3	1.	0.8	Maximum transpiration efficiency based on soil moisture.
	P8	ASNOW	5.	15.	10.	Snow albedo adjustment
Sea Ice (SI3)	P9	RNALB	0.	1.	0.50	Scaling factor for sea ice albedos.
	P10	RNCND	0.10	0.50	0.31	Thermal conductivity of snow over sea ice.
Ocean (NEMO)	P11	RNCE	0.06	0.08	0.06	Eddy diffusivity for mixed-layer processes.
	P12	RNLC	0.05	0.5	0.15	Langmuir cell mixing parameter.

154 Table 1. A descriptive table outlining the parameter names used within the PPE and the  
 155 corresponding model component, value ranges, and short description.

## 156 2.2 Selection of parameters to be tested

157 Twelve unconstrained parameters are modified in the PPEs. These parameters are  
 158 selected in atmospheric, oceanic and land surface components. The number of parameters was  
 159 limited, since it scales the size of the ensemble: the number of simulations to adequately  
 160 explore the parameter space using the iterative history matching method should be at least 10  
 161 times the number of parameters. These parameters, and their exploration ranges, are chosen  
 162 based on expert judgment and are detailed Table 1. They are selected because they are known  
 163 or suspected to influence the global climate and especially the coupling between atmosphere  
 164 and ocean.

As processes controlling clouds are the most uncertain and affect global radiation budget the most, five of the twelve parameters varied in this experiment are involved in cloud-related parameterizations. They are chosen to most appropriately represent the diversity of cloud-related processes. Some of them control liquid cloud type (P1, P4, P5 in Table 1) while others affect mainly ice clouds (P2 and P3). P4 parameter is specific to the “thermal plume” parameterization, and affects mainly stratocumulus clouds, that are known to be key in regulating the climate and involved in atmosphere-ocean coupling (Hourdin et al 2015). P1 is one of the parameters that controls the liquid cloud reflectivity, impacting strongly global reflected shortwave radiation, and therefore global temperature, without affecting longwave global radiation. P2 is a shared parameter with other atmospheric GCMs that scales the terminal velocity fall of ice crystals. It affects both shortwave and longwave global TOA radiation (Hourdin et al 2017). It is known to be related with P3, a threshold parameter on condensed water-to-rain conversion in deep convection parameterization, that mainly controls the water remaining in the middle too high troposphere after deep convection event. P3 controls tropospheric humidity source term while P2 controls its sink. The sixth LMDZ parameter selected, P6, controls the influence of subgrid scale orography, which mainly affect Northern Hemisphere midlatitudes (Gastineau et al. 2020).

Parameters P7 and P8 respectively control land surface transpiration and land surface snow albedo in the land component, which affects land surface energy budget and land-atmospheric coupling. P9 and P10 are two parameters controlling respectively the sea ice albedo and the snow thermal conductivity of the SI3 model. Finally, two ocean parameters (P11 and P12) controlling upper ocean mixing processes are selected. Oceanic parameters were restricted to upper ocean processes due to the relatively short duration of the simulations for computing time constraints.

### 2.3 Preconditioning of the parameters range

We use an iterative history matching procedure to select the parameters of the twin PPEs (atmosphere-standalone and coupled simulation) of this study. The method is implemented with the High-Tune explorer software, as used in Hourdin et al (2021), Hourdin et al. (2023) or Raoult et al. (2024). It works iteratively : 1) generating a set of parameters via latin-hypercube sampling, 2) running a wave of PPE simulation, and 3) using emulators trained on these simulations to eliminate the combinations that produce climate metrics too far from target values, considering an expert given tolerance to error and the emulator uncertainty. At the end of each iteration, the space of acceptable parameters is reduced. The process can be repeated (resampling, running another wave of simulation, train emulators) to further narrow the acceptable parameter space. At the end, it provides a set of parameters values (or a range of) that allows simulating all climate metrics within their observational uncertainties. More details about the practical use and outcomes of the history matching can be found in the papers cited above. .

Following Hourdin et al 2021, in order to save computation time and ensure a good representation of some key phenomena at process scale, we start by constraining boundary layer processes, that control cumulus and stratocumulus cases. For this, we run the atmospheric model in single column mode, in which boundary conditions are chosen among a series of test cases, using target metrics computed on high resolution explicit simulations (LES) of the same



cloud scenes. For this initial step, only parameters P1 to P6 are constrained. Note however that all 12 parameters are sampled at each iteration. After 40 iterations, 71.7% of the volume of the initial parameter hypercube has been ruled out.

We then use waves of 2-year long atmosphere-only simulations, as presented in section 2.1. Parameters P1 to P8 are then constrained. The metrics used to characterize the climate are calculated from the top of the atmosphere (TOA) radiative fluxes and rainfall, which are compared to observations. The metrics consist of regional or global mean TOA radiative fluxes on the second year of the simulation, regional TOA radiative fluxes to target two major biases of the model, and three localized metrics related to precipitation. The targets for these metrics are computed from CERES-EBAF observations (Loeb et al., 2009) and the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP) monthly climatology (Huffman et al., 2001). We also use an a priori  $7 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  1-sigma observational uncertainty, except for the global net TOA imbalance which follows a specific protocol explained below. The convergence of the initial parameter hypercube ruled out volume increases from 71.7% to 97.9% after the 41<sup>st</sup> iteration and 1<sup>st</sup> iteration of the atmosphere-only.

As in Hourdin et al. (2023), we target a global TOA radiative imbalance of  $2.7 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ , with an uncertainty of  $\pm 1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . This value was chosen empirically, as it has been noticed that it leads to a steady-state climate when using the same parameters in the coupled configuration. It is due to an imperfect energy conservation in the global model and to the different mean states of the coupled and stand-alone atmospheric simulations modulating the energy fluxes at TOA (Hourdin et al 2023). The analyses of the PPEs presented below will aim to verify this methodological choice and explore the related physical mechanisms.

GG : mention the links between parameters... especially the fact that (P2) FALLV and OMEPMAX are correlated. Maybe using the correlation matrix like Jeanne (M1 internship) did??

## 2.4 Final selection of the PPE

After 4 iterations of atmosphere-only simulations, the rules out volume of the initial parameter hypercube converges and reaches 98.8%. We finally select the 120 vectors of values for P1 to P12 of the 45<sup>th</sup> iteration. These vectors are used to construct the twin PPE of both atmosphere-only and coupled configurations. Note however that only the coupled simulations effectively use the P9 to P12 values for ocean and sea ice parameters. In practice, the 120 members of the atmosphere-only are first simulated for 2 years, after which the coupled model IPSL-CM is then run for 20 years using the same vectors of parameters. The ensemble of atmosphere-only simulations using each of these 120 vectors of parameters is hereafter called the atmosphere-only PPE . The ensemble of coupled simulations is designed as the coupled PPE in the rest of this manuscript. Additionally, 18 coupled configurations are run for 60 years in order to test the impacts of a longer adjustment in coupled mode. The extended configurations are chosen manually to achieve an even sampling of the net global radiative imbalance in the atmosphere-only simulations.

In comparison of the volume of the initial parameter hypercube, after the 45<sup>th</sup> iteration in the coupled represents 99.2% has been ruled out, as the coupled simulations includes the ocean and sea ice components (P9-P12). Moreover, among those top 100 vectors from the atmosphere-only simulations, there are 13, 16, 16, 18, and 37 respectively from wave 41, 42, 43, 44, and 45.

## 2.5 Reanalyses and Observational Datasets

For additional comparison, the NOAA/NSIDC Climate Data Record of Passive Microwave Sea Ice Concentration Version 4 (Fetterer et al., 2025) for years 1980 to 2014 are used to compare the coupled model sea ice extent. We additionally include ERSST v5 from 1980 to 2014 to compare the SST of the coupled model (Huang et al., 2017).

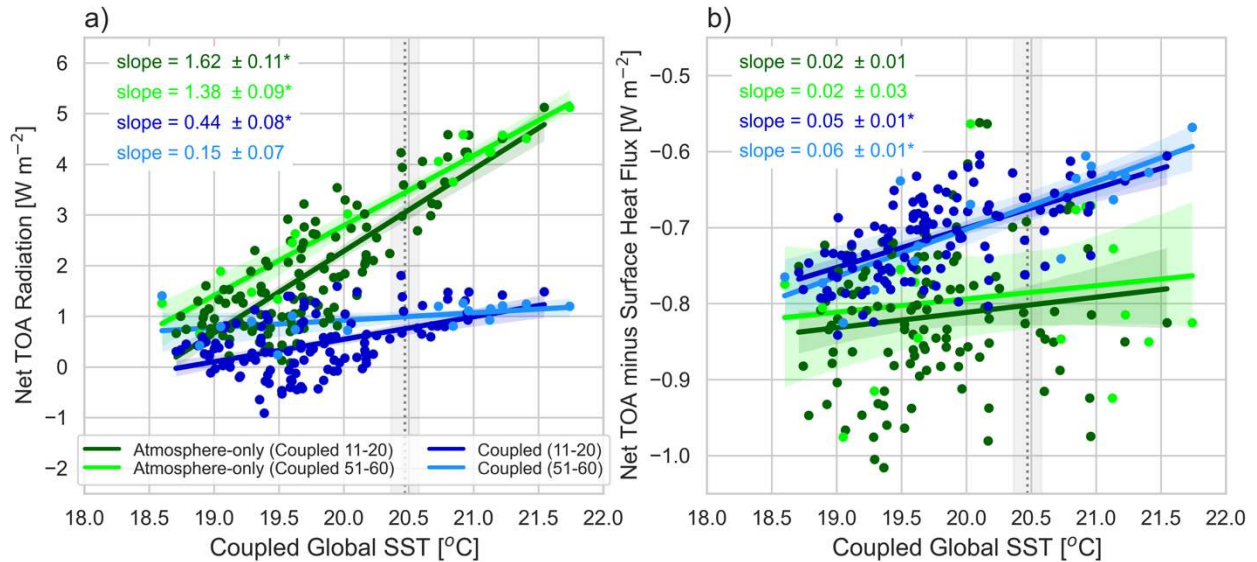


Figure 1: Regressions of globally averaged annual mean a) net top of the atmosphere (TOA) radiation and b) net TOA minus net surface radiation plotted against the Coupled globally averaged sea surface temperature (SST). Atmosphere-only values represent year 2 of simulation plotted against the corresponding Coupled simulations for years 11-20 and years 51-60. The vertical dashed gray line represents EN4 between 1980 and 2014 and its uncertainty. Global SST is defined as  $60^{\circ}\text{S}$ - $60^{\circ}\text{N}$ .

## 3 Results & Discussion

### 3.1. Global energetic and temperature adjustment

We begin by examining the adjustment of the top-of-atmosphere (TOA) radiative imbalance (net radiative flux) and global SST ( $60^{\circ}\text{S}$ - $60^{\circ}\text{N}$ ) across the 120-member ensembles. The TOA imbalance is defined as the globally averaged net radiative flux at the TOA. In the atmosphere-only PPE, which uses prescribed SSTs, the TOA imbalance ranges from 0 to  $5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (Fig. 1a). This is not by chance. As explained above, the center of the distribution is around  $2.7 \text{ W/m}^2$ , which corresponds to the target of the TOA imbalance in the tuning (see section 2.3). As several parameters target cloud physics, vertical displacement, and longevity of poleward distribution (P1-6), this TOA imbalance adjustment occurs mainly through changes in the cloud radiative effect (CRE).

In Fig. 1a the radiative imbalance in atmosphere-only PPE is plotted against the global SST of the coupled PPE for years 11-20 (dark green circles) and 51-60 (light green circle). The global SST of the coupled-PPE is linearly related with the TOA imbalance found in the corresponding atmosphere-only simulations. Although this finding was expected and has already been used in previous studies (e.g. Mignot et al. 2021, Hourdin et al. 2023), it is the first time it is formally verified in a twin-PPE protocol. It confirms that the parametric spread in



279 atmospheric stand-alone global radiative imbalance can be used to anticipate the global SST  
 280 responses in the equivalent coupled simulations. The black vertical line in Fig. 1a represents the  
 281 mean SST from observations. Using a regression, we find that in this version of the IPSL-CM  
 282 model, a radiative imbalance of  $3.1 \pm 0.1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  ( $3.4 \pm 0.1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ) is optimal to simulate the  
 283 observed mean SST for year 11-20 (51-60). This verifies a posteriori the choice for the value of  
 284  $2.7 \pm 1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  used previously for the tuning (Hourdin et al. 2023). The difference obtained  
 285 when using year 11-20 and 51-60 can be explained by the smaller sampling for the year 51-60,  
 286 and by a non converged temperature adjustment in years 11-20 when compared to years 51-60.  
 287 The TOA imbalance of the coupled experiments (Fig. 1a blue circles) can be used to  
 288 evaluate the adjustments of the simulations. As expected, it is much weaker than in the  
 289 corresponding stand-alone configurations as the SST adjusts so as to reduce the TOA imbalance.  
 290 Assuming no changes in the boundary conditions (i.e., external forcings) and ignoring the effect  
 291 of internal climate variability, the TOA imbalance in coupled mode should approach zero once  
 292 the ocean is equilibrated. Here, the TOA imbalance does not fully cancel in the coupled  
 293 simulation, for two possible reasons. The first reason may be the insufficient length of the  
 294 coupled experiments so that the ocean is not yet adjusted. The regression slope for years 51–60  
 295 is indeed approximately one-third of that for years 11–20. The regression is not significant at the  
 296 5% level for years 51-60, meaning that all the coupled PPE members have converged toward the  
 297 same net TOA radiation imbalance. Yet, they have not converged towards zero but the coupled  
 298 TOA radiation is on average  $\sim 0.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  in the PPE. This residual offset leads into the second  
 299 point: the atmospheric model does not fully conserve energy, with an energy numerical sink of  
 300 about 0.7 to 1 W/m<sup>2</sup> as found by Irving et al. (2021) or Mignot et al. (2021). This is confirmed by  
 301 the difference between the TOA and surface (including land and glaciers) energy fluxes in the  
 302 Atmosphere-only PPE (Fig. 1b, green dots): The difference is spread between 0.7 and 1 W/m<sup>2</sup>,  
 303 with no significant correlation with the associated SST in coupled mode. It is thus a purely  
 304 atmospheric internal leakage.

### 305 3.2 Vertical thermal structure of the atmosphere

306 To investigate in more detail the vertical thermal adjustment of the atmosphere in the  
 307 coupled PPEs, we first show the regression of the zonally averaged air temperature anomalies  
 308 on the global mean SST (Fig. 2a). It shows that members with an anomalously warm SST show  
 309 relatively warm temperatures throughout the whole troposphere, and anomalies of opposite  
 310 sign in the stratosphere. The anomalous warming is strongest in the tropical upper troposphere,  
 311 with another maximum in the lower-troposphere north of 70°N, as seen in global warming  
 312 projections (Lee et al. 2021). The stratospheric cooling has a tripolar shape, with cooling above  
 313 100-hPa in the tropics, and at 200-hPa poleward of 40° in both hemispheres. This pattern is  
 314 consistent with past analyses of stratosphere–troposphere coupling in response to radiative  
 315 forcing changes (e.g. Thompson and Solomon, 2005). The occurrence of stratospheric cooling  
 316 associated to tropospheric warming in the tropics is consistent with the quasi-steady,  
 317 quasi-balanced response of the stratosphere to tropospheric heating (Lin and Emanuel 2024a,  
 318 2024b). The stratospheric cooling at midlatitudes might reflect the changes induced in the  
 319 Brewer-Dobson circulation, as well as the modification of the radiative cooling linked to clouds  
 320 at the tropopause. Modifications of the upward propagating planetary waves can also explain  
 321 these anomalies through the downward control theory (Haynes, et al., 1991). Quantitatively, the

majority of the air temperature variance across the PPE in the troposphere is explained by SST dispersion, with  $R^2$  values exceeding 0.7 across most vertical levels, and approaching 1.0 in some layers (Fig. 2b). This result confirms that the tropospheric spread in the coupled configuration is mainly attributable to ocean-mediated adjustments. Comparatively, the lower stratosphere and the tropopause have notably weaker  $R^2$  values up to 0.5 in the mid-latitudes near 150 hPa. This suggests that the upper-atmosphere PPE spread is influenced by other processes than direct SST-adjustments.

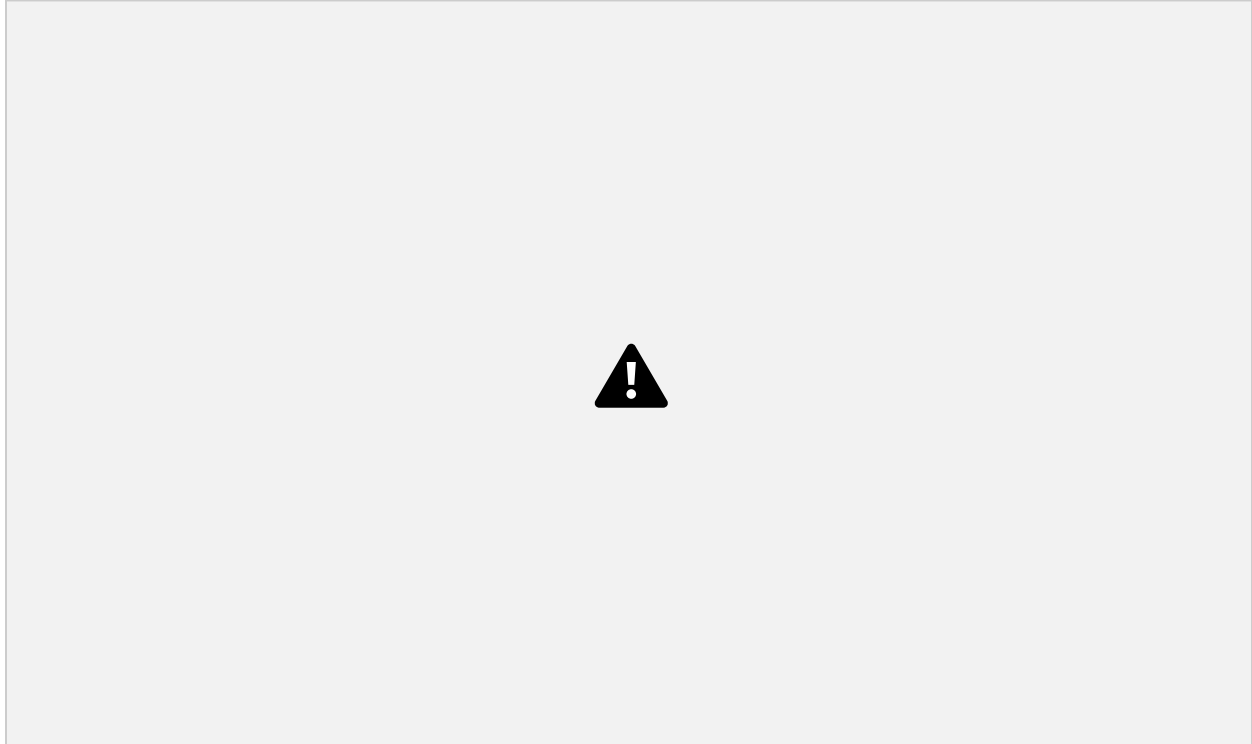


Figure 2: a) Slope and b) explained variance of the regression of zonal mean temperature on the global mean SST. c) The EOF1, shown as covariance of the annual mean zonally averaged temperature across the ensemble of Coupled simulations. d) Same as c) for the residue of the regression coupled PPE on the global mean SST. e) Same as c) for the atmosphere-only PPE. Similar to (c), EOF1 shown as covariance in the (d) Coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> and (e) Atmosphere-only. Atmosphere-only simulations represent year 2 and the coupled years 11-20. f) Scatter plot of the PC1 of the zonal mean temperature from the coupled PPE (blue) and the coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> PPE (orange) versus the same PC1 from the atmosphere-only PPE, demonstrating the similarity between each member of the PPE. Regression slopes that are significant at the 95%-confidence are noted with a \*. Plots c, d, and h) all include the variance explained through the EOF1 in the top right.

Another approach to characterizing the air temperature variation across a PPE is to apply an empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis. The first EOF mode, EOF1, explains 89% of the variance of the coupled ensemble (Fig. 2c). Its pattern closely matches the regression shown in Fig. 2a, showing that the dominant mode of the PPE corresponds to the SST driven adjustments. Members showing a heavy load in this pattern (high values of the corresponding principal component) correspond to the anomalously warm members in terms of SST and thus of global mean SST in Fig. 1. The coupled PC1 is indeed significantly correlated ( $r=0.99$ ) with the global mean SST, with a slope of  $0.6/^{\circ}\text{C}$ . This linear correlation emphasizes the strong linearity of the

global mean SST adjustment in shaping the anomalous vertical temperature structure along the EOF1 pattern in the coupled PPE.

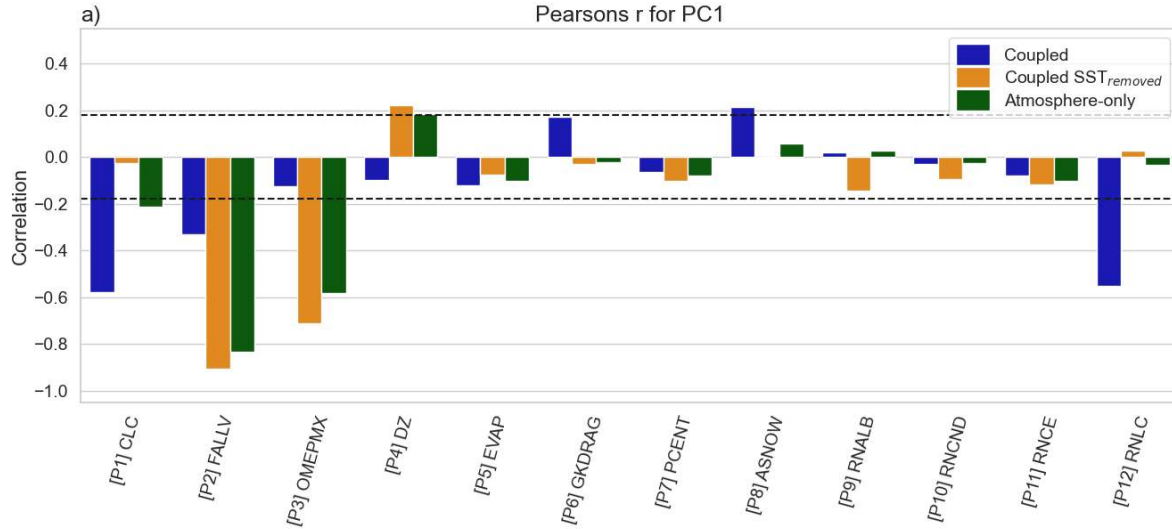
To identify sources of dispersion beyond the response to the global SST, we compute residuals by subtracting from any analyzed field its regression against the global SST in the coupled PPE. The residual fields obtained are hereafter called  $SST_{removed}$  fields. Fig. 2d shows EOF1 of the  $SST_{removed}$  zonal mean air temperature in the coupled PPE. The resulting pattern shows a modest warming throughout the lower-troposphere at 40° and polar regions and is associated with two large cooling patterns in the tropopause and lower stratosphere poleward of 40° in both hemispheres.

An EOF analysis is also conducted on the atmosphere-only PPE (Fig. 2e). EOF1 patterns of the atmosphere only and  $SST_{removed}$  coupled mean air temperature are very similar to each other, both in vertical structure and spatial amplitude (Fig. 2e). The associated first principal components (PC1) from the coupled- $SST_{removed}$  ensemble are also highly correlated with those from atmospheric-stand-alone ensemble (Fig. 2f,  $r = 0.87$ ; orange). On the contrary, there is only a weak correlation between the PC1 from the raw coupled PPE outputs and that of the atmosphere-only PPE ( $r = 0.36$ ; dark blue). This indicates that, beyond the direct thermal adjustment of the coupled model linked to the response of the global SST to the global radiative imbalance that accounts for most of the inter-member spread, the vertical atmospheric thermal structure in the coupled PPE reflects a parametric adjustment that closely resembles the one found in the atmosphere-only runs. EOF1 of the coupled- $SST_{removed}$  explains ~51% of the PPE variance while EOF1 of the atmosphere-only PPE explains ~23% of the variance.

### 3.3. Linking ensemble spread to cloudiness

To identify the parameters responsible for driving the spread among the configurations, we compute the correlation between the PC1 of the zonal mean air temperature and each model parameter values across the PPEs (Fig. 3). In the raw coupled PPE,  $CLC$  (P1; auto-conversion threshold for liquid cloud water) and  $RNLC$  (P12; non-shear-driven Langmuir vertical mixing in the ocean) emerge as dominant drivers ( $r > 0.6$  and  $0.5$ , respectively) of the intermember spread. (P1)  $CLC$  is associated with tropical, low-level clouds forming at the top of the atmospheric boundary-layer. Increasing (P1)  $CLC$  value increases the low cloud cover and thereby cools the climate through an increasing planetary albedo. This result retrospectively justifies the choice, based on expert judgment, to use  $CLC$  as the final adjustment parameter for the global temperature or SST of the IPSL-CM. (Mignot et al., 2021). On the other hand, (P12)  $RNLC$  governs upper ocean mixing processes, with increasing (P12)  $RNLC$  causing increasing mixing in the upper-ocean and cooling the SST. Both of these parameters strongly influence SST, and it is thus coherent that they primarily set the anomalous pattern discussed in Fig. 2c.

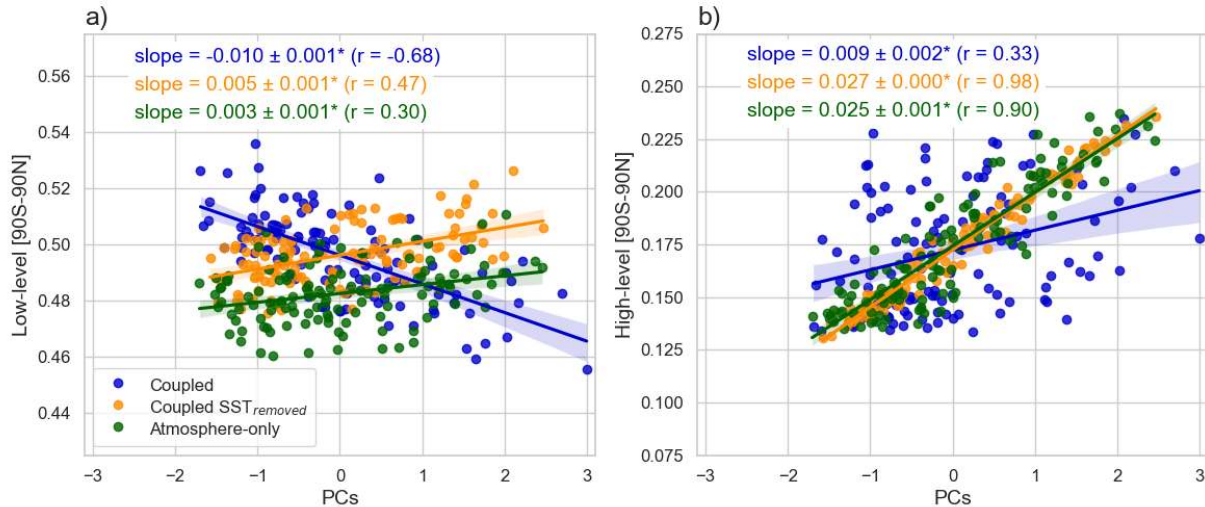
In both atmosphere-only and coupled- $SST_{removed}$  PPE, the parameters  $FALLV$  (P2; fudge factor on the falling velocity of ice crystals) and  $OMEPMX$  (P3; threshold on the conversion of deep convection condensates to rainfall) exhibit the strongest positive correlations with PC1 ( $r > 0.8$  and  $0.6$ , respectively). These two parameters control the upper-level cloud structure and thus associated radiative responses. Notably, the coupled PPE also retains a significant correlation with (P2)  $FALLV$  ( $r > 0.3$ ), highlighting the impact, yet secondary, of this parameter in the adjustment of this ensemble. These findings are robust across alternative ranking methods, including SHAP, Sobol, and Spearman analyses.



390

391 Figure 3: a) Correlation of the values of parameters with the PC1 of zonal mean temperature from the  
 392 coupled and atmosphere-only PPE. The horizontal dashed lines represent the threshold correlation for a  
 393 significance level of 0.05.

394 To further confirm the role of the different types of clouds for the air temperature, we  
 395 show scatter plots of the globally-averaged high level (Fig. 4b) and low level (Fig. 4a) cloud  
 396 covers versus the PC1 of the zonal mean temperature across the PPEs. PC1 from the raw  
 397 coupled PPE shows a positive relationship with globally averaged low-level cloudiness, while the  
 398 atmosphere-only and coupled-SST<sub>removed</sub> configurations exhibit weaker, negative regressions (Fig.  
 399 4a). This is consistent with the role of low clouds in increasing the planetary albedo, which cools  
 400 the climate, primarily visible in the coupled ensemble. In contrast, PC1 in both atmospheric and  
 401 coupled-SST<sub>removed</sub> PPE shows a strong, negative correlation with high-level cloud fraction (Fig.  
 402 4b). The raw coupled ensemble exhibits a weaker negative correlation with high clouds,  
 403 confirming reduced sensitivity to upper-level cloud changes. This is indeed consistent with the  
 404 role of (P2) FALLV and (P3) OMEPMX in modulating the high cloud cover (Fig. 3). This is also  
 405 consistent with the associated patterns (Fig. 2) from the atmosphere-only and  
 406 coupled-SST<sub>removed</sub> PPE, where less high clouds are associated with negative radiative warming in  
 407 the upper troposphere at the cloud top. Note that the dominant impact of (P2) FALLV and (P3)  
 408 OMEPMX in modulating upper-level cloud structure is consistent with prior findings, which  
 409 discussed how cloud-ice microphysical parameters (i.e., upper level clouds) can drive climate or  
 410 PPE diversity (Zelinka et al., 2013; Gettelman et al., 2015; Hourdin et al., 2017).



411

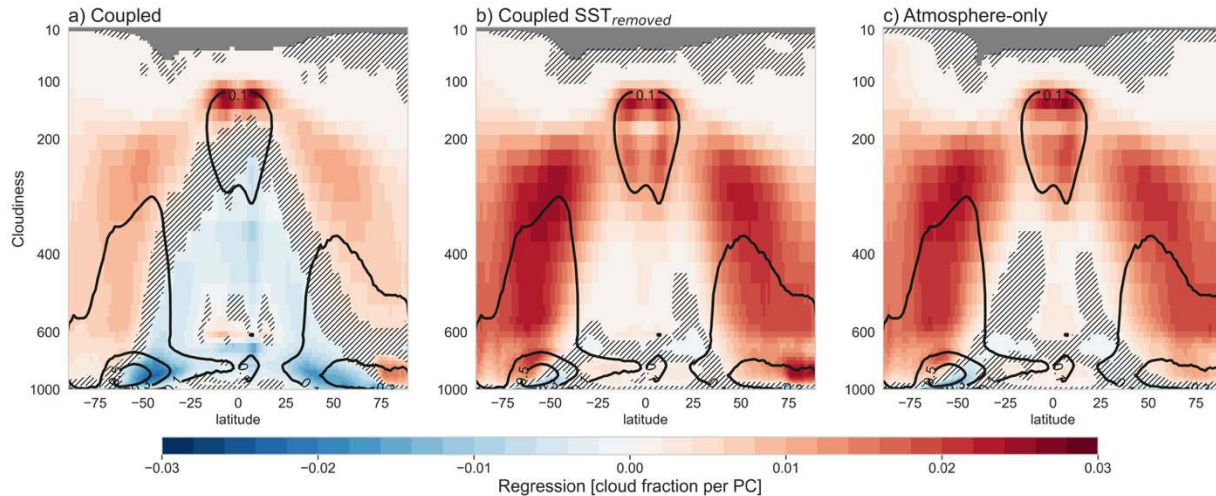
412 Figure 4: Regressions of annual mean a) low-level and b) high-level cloudiness plotted against the PC 1.  
413 Regression slopes that are significant at the 95%-confidence are noted with a \*.

414 These connections can also be explored spatially through the annual mean regression of  
415 the zonal-mean cloud fraction against PC1 (Fig. 5). show in all three PPEs a significant increase  
416 in high clouds above 200-hPa in the deep tropics in 15°N-15°S.

417

418 An increase is also seen in the descending branches of the residual mean atmospheric  
419 circulation connecting the tropics to mid-latitude and polar regions between 600-hPa and  
420 200-hPa poleward for 30° in both hemispheres. Again, this is consistent with Fig. 4b and the  
421 influence of (P2) FALLV and (P3) OMEPMX that set the quantity of high clouds formed in the  
422 deep tropics convective regions, and the residence time of the ice cloud formed. In the coupled  
423 configuration, though, an additional feature can be seen: PC1 also relates to a decrease in  
424 low-level cloudiness below 800 hPa, most notably in the tropics and mid-latitudes. This pattern  
425 extends upward to 200 hPa in the tropical regions. This is consistent with the strong response of  
426 the PPE to SST adjustment (Fig. 2) itself largely driven by low-level clouds (Fig. 4) and the  
427 parameter (P1) CLC (Fig. 3). The same analysis was repeated using the seasonal mean cloudiness  
428 averaged in January-February-March (JFM) and June-July-August (JJA) (see Fig. SX1). The  
429 changes of mid and high clouds are systematically larger in the winter hemisphere, as the  
430 detrainment of the clouds from the tropics by the Hadley circulation is dominant through the  
431 winter hemisphere. The low clouds modification also shows some seasonal changes, with an  
432 increase larger in the summer mid-latitudes than in the winter mid-latitude.





433

434 Figure 5: Regressions of zonally averaged (a-c) annual mean cloud fraction and the PC 1 of the Coupled,  
 435 Coupled SST<sub>removed</sub>, and Atmosphere-only. Seasonal regressions are shown in Figure SX1. Hatching represents  
 436 values not significant at the 95% confidence level.

437 Taken together, these results show that the anomalous atmospheric thermal vertical  
 438 structure in the atmospheric stand-alone PPE is linked to its anomalous high cloud cover. This  
 439 adjustment is transferable to the coupled model but appears as second order after the  
 440 adjustment to parameters controlling low level clouds covers and the global mean SST  
 441 adjustment.

#### 442 3.4 Climate impacts of parametric modulations

443 To understand the effect of clouds on the climate, we evaluate the TOA cloud radiative  
 444 effect (CRE), defined by the difference in net TOA radiation between the clear-sky minus all-sky  
 445 calculations. The CRE thus corresponds to how the atmosphere reflects the balance between  
 446 cloud longwave warming and shortwave cooling. Regressions of PC1 onto TOA net CRE (Fig.  
 447 6a-c) for the coupled PPE reveals large positive net CRE over mid-latitude oceans as well as in  
 448 the tropical western Atlantic and eastern Pacific basins. The tropical regions are strongly  
 449 affected by the changes in low cloud cover, with a positive net SW CRE seen from space when  
 450 low clouds are more frequent, the low clouds having almost no direct effect on the TOA LW  
 451 radiation. The increase in high clouds reduces LW radiation to space strongly, because of the  
 452 strong contrast in temperature between the high clouds altitude and the mid troposphere  
 453 where clear sky LW radiation comes from. It also creates a strong greenhouse effect at the  
 454 surface.

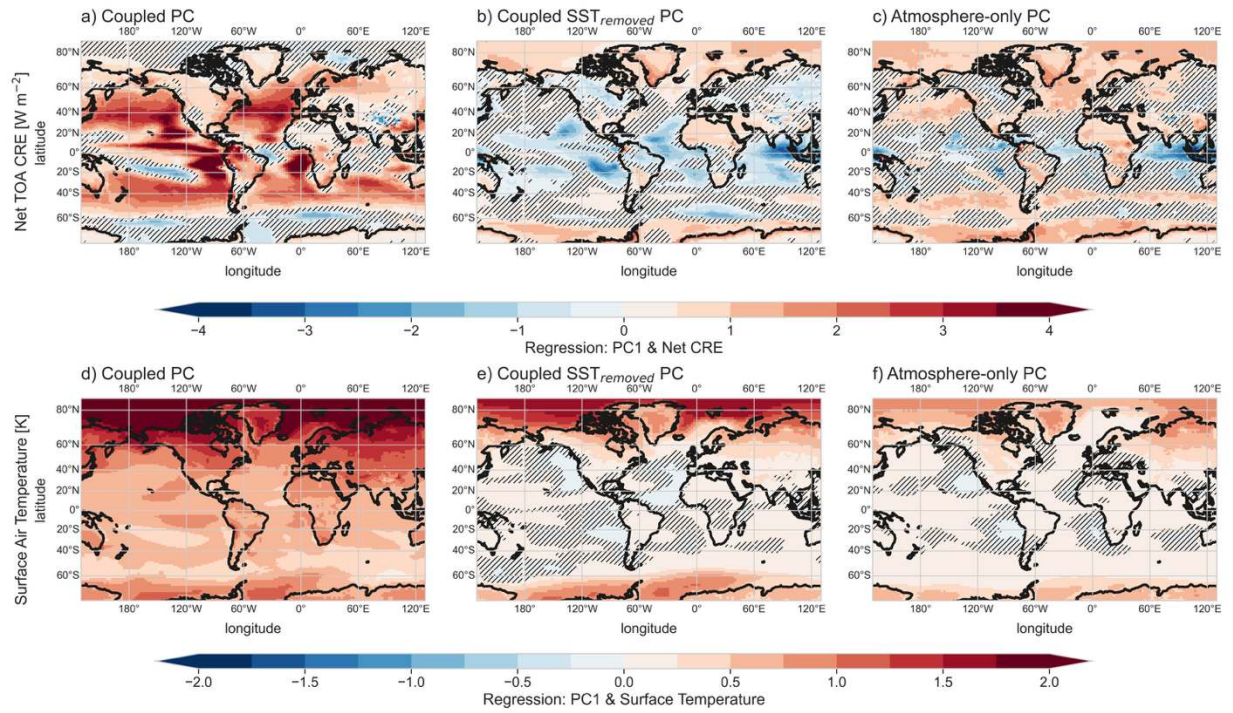
455 In the SST<sub>removed</sub> and atmosphere-only PPE, the CRE is positive in the mid-latitude to polar  
 456 regions and negative in the tropics. The positive relationship with mid-latitude corresponds to  
 457 the effect of increasing high clouds, which warms the mid-latitude regions, as their effect on  
 458 trapping long-wave radiation increases. It is weaker in the deep tropics, in particular over the  
 459 maritime continent or over the equatorial Indo-Pacific and Atlantic and poleward of 70°N in  
 460 both hemispheres.

461 The analysis was repeated using seasonal means (Fig. S2). It reveals that the positive CRE  
 462 poleward of 70°N in the atmosphere-only and SST<sub>removed</sub> PPE is dominant during winter and  
 463 absent in summer. This is consistent with the larger cloud changes in the winter hemisphere.



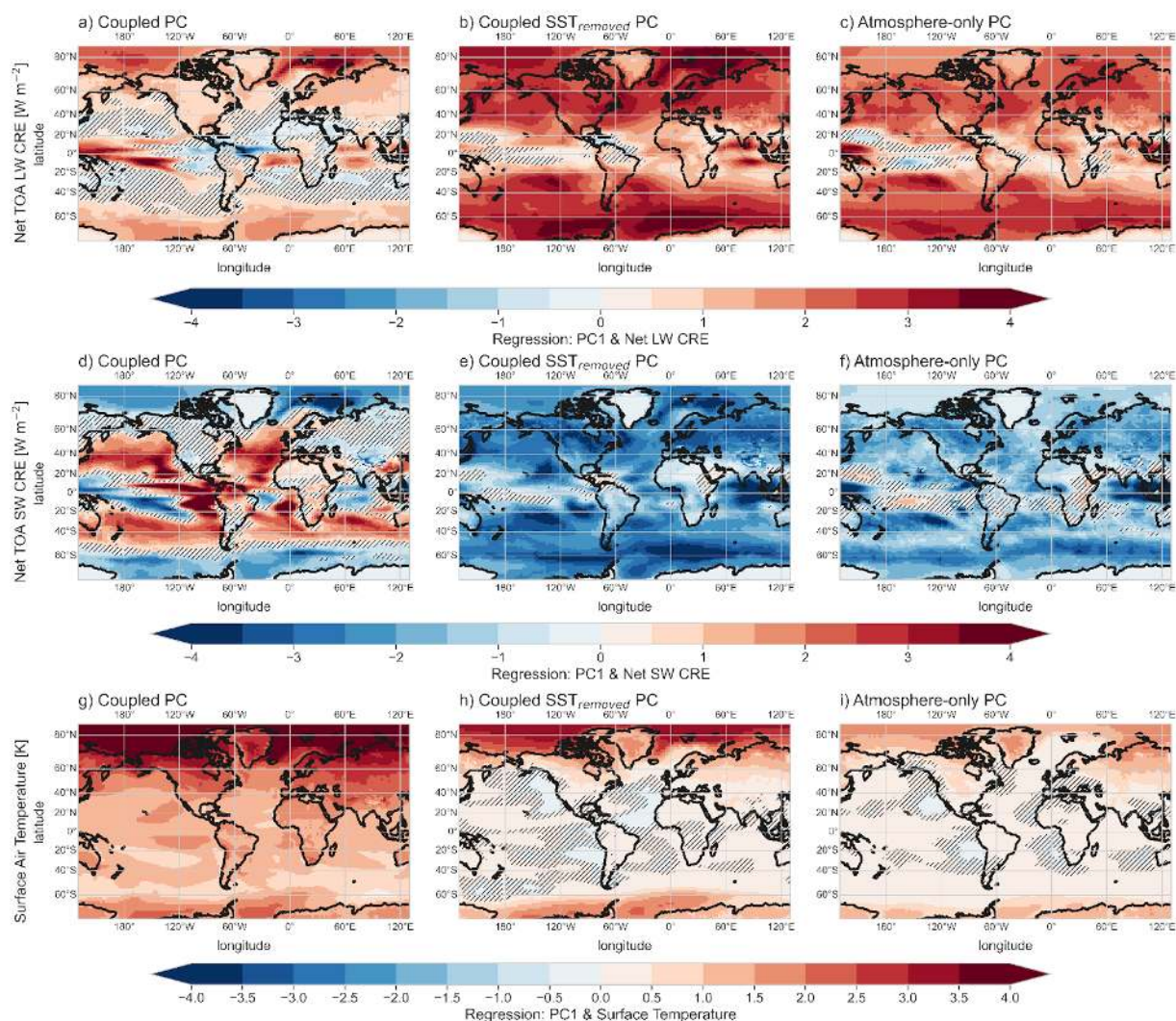
More generally, these signals of high latitude CRE aligns with previous studies emphasizing the critical role of upper-level clouds in regulating the polar energy budget and surface temperature (Crook et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2013; Payne et al., 2015; Stuecker et al., 2018). The coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> and atmosphere-only PPE SST signature is indeed dominated by the significant warming signals in the Southern Ocean and Arctic regions. This warming is amplified in the winter hemisphere (Fig. S2). To conclude, the atmosphere-only and coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> PPE indeed agree with a dominant influence of high-clouds in the winter hemisphere that has a large influence for the polar surface air temperature. The divergence of net CRE and SAT between the coupled and coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> PPE within the mid-latitudes and tropics highlights that SST pattern feedbacks significantly influence the mean state and spatial structure of climate sensitivity (Proistosescu et al., 2018; Dong et al., 2020).

Warming in the polar region can reach values approaching 4°C per unit of PC in the coupled PPE (Fig. 6a). This result emphasizes that the mid-latitude to polar regions of the coupled PPE reflect the atmospheric response, independent of the tropics and SST-feedbacks. Moreover, we speculate that these strong changes are in part controlled by the net CRE and global climate adjustment to global warming, with the characteristic polar amplification in coupled models, based on the relationships of the PPEs' PC and the relationships with the parameters and cloud responses. For example, results from Fig. 3 suggest that the link between PC1 and CRE is likely controlled by (P2) FALLV. In all coupled, coupled-SST<sub>removed</sub>, and atmosphere-only PPEs, increasing (P2) FALLV indeed reduces the annual mean net CRE and cools the surface throughout the tropics, mid-latitudes, and polar regions (Fig. S3). There are not significant areas in both the coupled and coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> in the polar regions compared to the atmosphere-only net CRE results, likely related to non-linearities in the PPE diversity of sea ice extent. Taken globally, these findings confirm the physically consistent pathway that occurs across coupled, coupled-SST<sub>removed</sub>, and atmosphere-only simulations by which a single parameter drives upper-level cloud changes that affect net global cloud radiative effect and the temperature surface. This underscores how an atmosphere-only calibrated parameter like (P2) FALLV can help precondition the polar regions net CRE and surface temperature behavior in coupled simulations through upper-level cloud cover.



493

494 Figure 6: Regressions of (a-c) annual mean net CRE and the PC 1 of the coupled, coupled SST<sub>removed</sub>, and  
 495 atmosphere-only. Regressions of (d-f) annual mean surface temperature and the PC 1 of the coupled,  
 496 coupled SST<sub>removed</sub>, and atmosphere-only. The atmosphere-only comparisons represent year 2 and the coupled  
 497 years 11-20. Hatching represents values not significant at the 95% confidence level.



498

499 Figure 6 Alternate: LW → clear signal in polar regions of all, SST<sub>removed</sub> and Atmosphere-only similar spatial  
 500 pattern. SW has features of sea ice in coupled, otherwise SST<sub>removed</sub> and Atmosphere-only similar. Similar  
 501 pattern and agrees to cloudiness? SW CRE by low clouds and ice, LW CRE by high clouds?

502 To further explore the climate responses in the PPEs, regressions of zonally-averaged  
 503 zonal wind velocity and PC1 (Fig. S4) in both coupled and coupled-SST<sub>removed</sub> are performed Here,  
 504 the atmosphere-only PPE is not investigated as we suspect that the duration of one year is  
 505 insufficient to capture the wind stress change, the internal climate variability having a large  
 506 influence. The regressions show a poleward shift of the subtropical jets and of the eddy-driven  
 507 jet in the Southern Hemisphere associated to positive loads of PC1. The zonal wind is also  
 508 strongly modified in the stratosphere in thermal wind balance with the temperature changes.  
 509 The polar jet is intensified especially over its poleward flank which further suggest associated  
 510 changes in the Brewer-Dobson circulation. In the Northern Hemisphere, the raw coupled  
 511 ensemble shows an enhanced magnitude compared to the coupled SST<sub>removed</sub>, likely due to  
 512 broader meridional SST and troposphere temperature gradients in the coupled EOF1 pattern.  
 513 Still, the vertical structure and position of the jet anomalies the coupled and SST<sub>removed</sub>



configurations share some common points, suggesting that zonal winds, both surface and upper-level, can in part be preconditioned using atmosphere-only simulations. In both regressions, the Southern Hemisphere jet has a larger magnitude and reaches the surface in JFM months compared to JAS months. The Southern Hemisphere relationship is weaker and constrained to the lower-stratosphere during JAS months. Moreover, the relationship with seasonality of both hemispheres in the regressions further demonstrates the similarities in PPEs, mostly in the spatial patterns above 200 hPa. This pattern is true in the extra-tropics, particularly well in the Southern Hemisphere. Again, the magnitude between coupled and SST<sub>removed</sub> do not match. These results suggest a positive PC based on the EOF of a “cooler” stratosphere of the coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> (and thus atmosphere-only) is related to a more poleward position of the mid-latitude jets and the seasonality across the PPEs, with emphasis at vertical heights near the tropopause and lower-stratosphere.

Fig. S5 extends this analysis of PC1 to zonal surface wind stress, in the coupled and coupled SST<sub>removed</sub>. The relationships between the PC1 wind stress regressions show strong (moderate) agreement between the raw coupled and coupled-SST<sub>removed</sub>, particularly in the Southern (Northern) Hemisphere mid-latitudes in JFM. However, the magnitude of regression is weaker in the coupled-SST<sub>removed</sub> compared to the coupled. This hemispheric difference is in agreement with the zonally averaged zonal wind relationship with PC1 (Fig. S4) in that there is a stronger spatial similarity in the Southern Hemisphere than the Northern Hemisphere and that in JFM months the relationship of the jet reaches the surface compared to JAS months.

Additionally, the changes agree with the zonal mean temperature anomalous pattern that showed warming over the whole atmospheric column at the edges of the tropical band, showing an enhanced tropical zone, with atmospheric eddy-driven jets shifted poleward. In the coupled PPE, this enhanced tropical band is reinforced by the global warming effect (Lu et al. 2007; Gastineau et al. 2008).

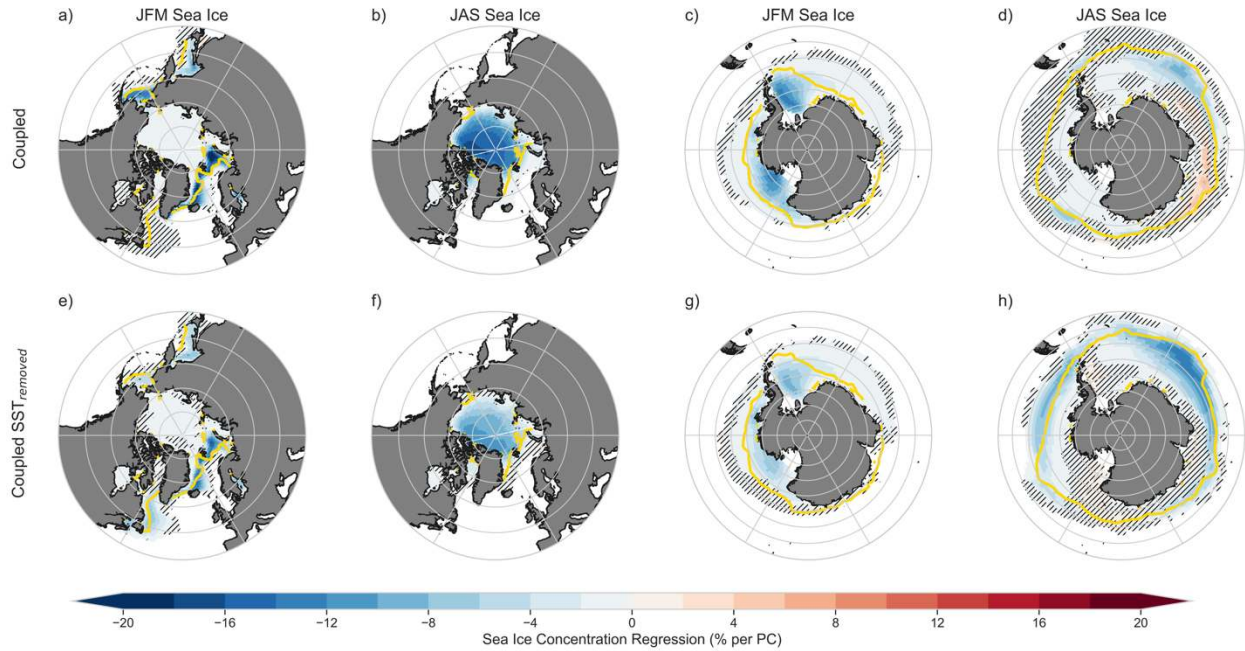
539

### 3.5 Calibrating the sea ice extent in climate models

Recent studies have shown that surface winds can modulate the sea ice extent in the Southern Hemisphere (Blanchard-Wrigglesworth et al., 2021; Roach et al., 2023; Cesana et al., 2025), and can also influence the CRE (Cesana et al., 2025). Sea ice extent is thus a critical variable to adjust in climate models. We now compare the sea ice cover adjustment in the various ensembles. Regressions of PC1 onto sea ice concentration in the Northern (Fig. 7a–c) and Southern (Fig. 7e–g) Hemispheres reveal robust seasonal and regional signals. In the Northern Hemisphere, the coupled and SST<sub>removed</sub> coupled PPEs both show a significant negative regression in the Nordic and Barents Seas, as well as the Bering Sea during the boreal winter (Fig. 7a,e). They differ in the western subpolar and Labrador Sea, the SST<sub>removed</sub> PPE showing a significant negative relationship where the coupled is not significant. In the boreal summer (Fig. 7b,f) both PPEs indicate a negative regression with PC1 with the summer Arctic sea ice concertation.

The Southern Hemisphere austral summer (Fig. 7c,g) shows similar negative patterns spatially in both the coupled and SST<sub>removed</sub> coupled regressions, with strong negative similarities in the Ross and Weddell Seas and the sea ice extent. The austral winter (Fig. 7d,h) indicates stronger differences. The SST<sub>removed</sub> sea ice regression with the corresponding PC1 demonstrates a strong relationship with the sea ice extent across the Atlantic sector, but spatially more local in

the fully coupled ensemble. In the austral winter, the spatial pattern in the eastern Pacific sector of the Southern Hemisphere is different between the two PPEs, which shows a weaker relationship in the coupled PPE to that of the negative regressions in the Eastern Pacific of the  $SST_{removed}$ . Interesting to note, both the boreal (Fig. 7b,f) and austral (Fig. 7c,g) summer regressions indicate that the coupled relationships are twice as strong as the  $SST_{removed}$  and have similar spatial patterns. However, both boreal (Fig. 7a,e) and austral (Fig. 7d,h) show less coherence between the coupled and coupled  $SST_{removed}$ , with the  $SST_{removed}$  regressions being significantly stronger in magnitude and covering a larger area.



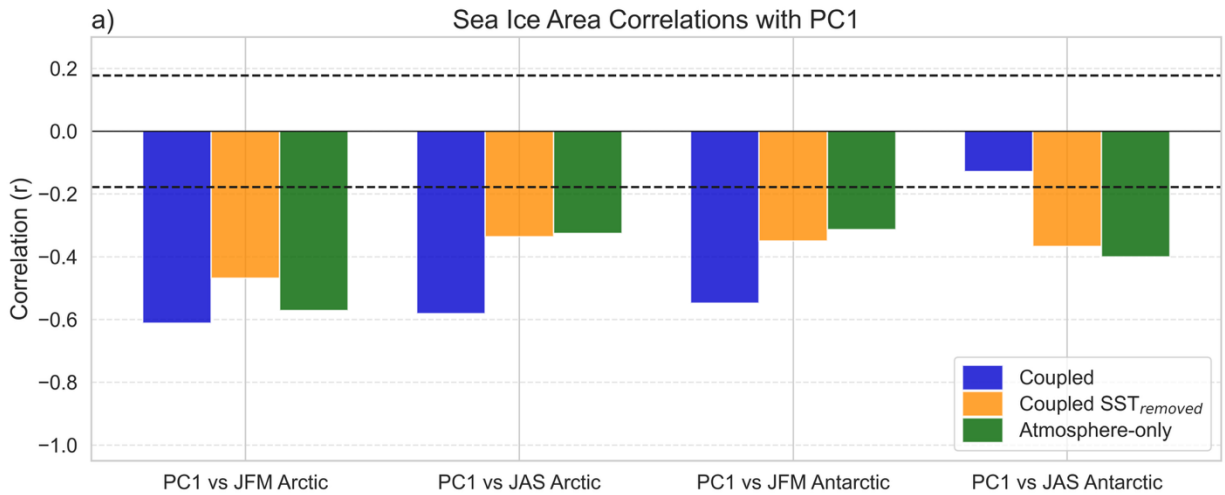
566

Figure 7: Regressions of PCs onto Coupled JFM (a-c) sea ice concentration and d) Arctic sea ice area. (e-h) Similar, but for Coupled JAS sea ice concentration and Antarctic sea ice area. The Coupled PCs years 11-20 and the Coupled  $SST_{removed}$  are regressed on the sea ice concentration field with the SST-effect removed. The yellow contour represents the 1980-2000 NOAA NSIDC v4 0.15 sea ice extent. Hatching represents values not significant at the 95% confidence level.

Fig. 8 further demonstrates this relationship with sea ice extent by correlating the PC1 with the Arctic and Antarctic winter and summer total sea ice extents. To include the atmosphere-only the correlation compares the atmosphere-only PC1 with the sea ice concentration of the  $SST_{removed}$  analysis. Thereby, the atmosphere-only PC1 is included to show the sea ice extent that could have been obtained with the atmosphere-only configuration and as a benchmark to compare with the coupled and  $SST_{removed}$  PPEs. In the Arctic, the raw coupled PC1 indicates moderate negative correlations ( $r \sim -0.6$ ) in both boreal winter and summer, while the coupled  $SST_{removed}$  and atmosphere-only being weaker in winter ( $r < -0.45$ ) and summer ( $r < -0.3$ ), but still significant. In the Antarctic, the raw coupled reveals moderate negative correlations ( $r \sim -0.5$ ) in austral summer, but is not significant in austral winter. Both the coupled  $SST_{removed}$  and atmosphere-only PC1 are significant in austral summer and winter ( $r < -0.3$ ).

While the general negative anomalies in sea ice extent are consistent with the global troposphere warming pattern found in the coupled EOF1, the specific anomalies in the coupled

585 SST<sub>removed</sub> and atmosphere-only PPE can be attributed to the enhanced high-cloud cover. In the  
 586 coupled SST<sub>removed</sub>, more high clouds increase the longwave CRE in winter (Fig. S2), which  
 587 promotes sea ice decline. Negative anomalies in sea ice volume and extent can persist through  
 588 the summer and manifest as reduced sea ice extent climate states in the PPE. The wind  
 589 anomalies might play an additional role in the Southern Hemisphere, with enhanced westerlies  
 590 in JAS increasing the sea ice Ekman drift toward the equator, and increasing the upwelling of  
 591 relatively warm circumpolar deep waters (ref).

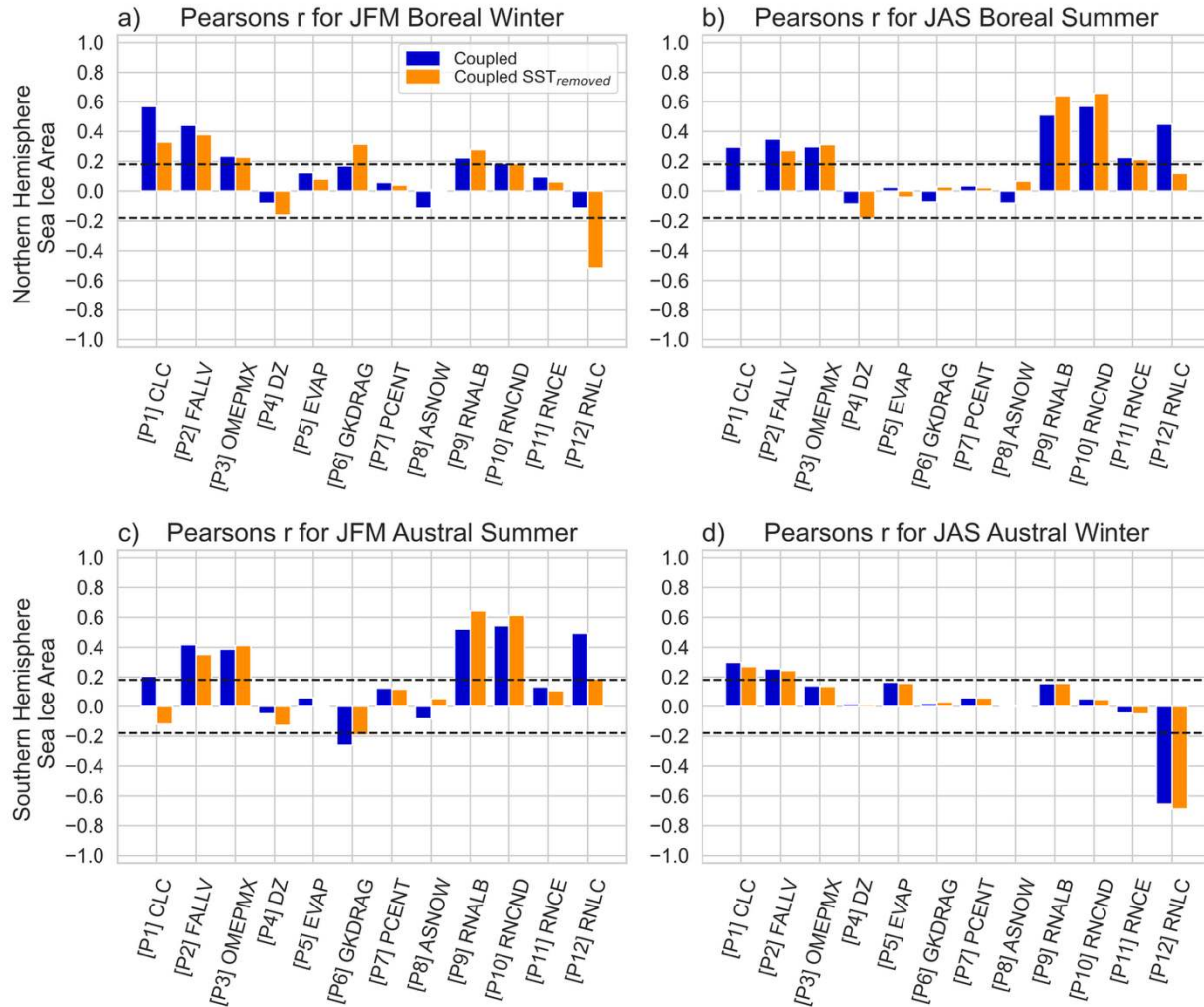


592

593 Figure 8: a) Pearson's  $r$  of the seasonal Arctic and Antarctic sea ice area with PC 1. The coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> are  
 594 correlated with the sea ice concentration field with the SST-effect removed. To compare the  
 595 atmosphere-only, the PC1 are correlated with the coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> sea ice detrended field.

596 These results demonstrate the importance of the zonally averaged atmospheric  
 597 temperature pattern, shown as EOF1 in Fig. 2, on Arctic sea ice area and Antarctic austral  
 598 summer sea ice area in the coupled PPE. In the context of relating the PC1 with the EOF1  
 599 pattern, the regression with sea ice extent for coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> suggests a significant  
 600 relationship to upper troposphere ensemble diversity. The similarities between the coupled and  
 601 SST<sub>removed</sub> ensembles suggests that upper-level cloud and CRE processes originating in  
 602 atmosphere-only can influence the cryospheric state in the coupled model (see also Cesena et  
 603 al., 2025, on Antarctic cloud-ice interactions), independent of SST-feedbacks and ocean and sea  
 604 ice parameters used in a coupled model. This result stresses how the upper-atmosphere and  
 605 AMIP configurations can significantly contribute to preconditioning the polar climates through  
 606 the spatial temperature structure and cloud feedbacks.





607

608 Figure 9: Similar to Figure 3, but Pearson's  $r$  correlation for Arctic and Antarctic JFM and JAS sea ice area and  
 609 the 12 parameters used in the PPE.

#### 610 4. Implications for Climate Model Tuning & Conclusion

611 This study evaluates whether atmosphere-only simulations can capture and  
 612 precondition the diversity expressed in coupled climate simulations, using a PPE constructed  
 613 with identical atmospheric parameter perturbations. By comparing atmosphere-only, coupled,  
 614 and coupled SST<sub>removed</sub> ensembles across TOA radiative imbalance, cloud structure, parameter  
 615 sensitivity, and surface climate responses, we show that a large fraction of the coupled model's  
 616 atmospheric diversity is already expressed in atmosphere-only, particularly in the upper  
 617 troposphere and lower stratosphere and in the mid and high latitudes of both hemispheres. The  
 618 additional spread in coupled runs is largely due to global thermal adjustment and surface-driven  
 619 feedbacks.

620 An EOF analysis reveals that the leading mode of variability (PC1) is consistently  
 621 reproduced across atmosphere-only and coupled-SST<sub>removed</sub> ensembles, with clear upper  
 622 troposphere and lower stratosphere signal across the PPE. This EOF1 signal further relates to  
 623 the extra-tropical jet responses in the PPEs, reflecting stratosphere–troposphere coupling

624 processes (Baldwin et al., 2024). These localized relationships suggest that the upper  
625 troposphere could be a good region to identify additional metrics for the atmosphere-only to  
626 precondition the coupled model. Several atmospheric parameters, especially those related to  
627 upper-level cloud microphysics (e.g., ice auto-conversion, cloud lifetime), exert a persistent  
628 influence on ensemble spread in both atmosphere-only and coupled frameworks. This  
629 strengthens the case for targeting upper-tropospheric diagnostics in calibration, while also  
630 underscoring that tuning efforts must be grounded in physical understanding to avoid  
631 compensating errors (Sherwood et al., 2020).

632 Among these diagnostics (see Fig. S6), the Northern Hemisphere midlatitude  
633 temperature at 150 hPa, which is identified through the EOF spatial pattern that shows a near  
634 1:1 relationship between atmosphere-only and coupled simulations PC1. The temperature  
635 metric shows a positive correlation in all three coupled,  $SST_{\text{removed}}$ , and atmosphere-only. This  
636 would suggest that when the North Hemisphere midlatitude stratosphere is “warmer”, there is  
637 more Arctic sea ice seasonally. This same relationship is true for the Southern Hemisphere and  
638 the Antarctic sea ice extent. The correlations range from 0.35 to 0.50 in the North Hemisphere  
639 and Southern Hemisphere JFM months. The correlations are weaker in the Southern  
640 Hemisphere for JAS months ( $\sim 0.25$ ).

641 Additionally, LW CRE estimated globally or in the polar regions further provide significant  
642 correlations. The hemispheric polar values provide a higher correlation than the  
643 globally-averaged LW CRE. The coupled,  $SST_{\text{removed}}$ , and atmosphere-only all suggest a significant  
644 negative relationship, so if the LW CRE increases, the sea ice extent decreases. Correlations  
645 range from -0.35 to -0.70, except in the Southern Hemisphere for JAS months ( $\sim 0.3$ ). Finally, the  
646 net global radiative imbalance, which is already a metric within our approach and Hourdin et al.,  
647 (2023), indicates strong correlations with winter sea ice extent in both hemispheres.  
648 Correlations in the coupled and  $SST_{\text{removed}}$  exceed -0.75, suggesting in the coupled model there is  
649 a strong dependence of winter sea ice extent to the net global radiative imbalance. The  
650 correlations are weaker in the atmosphere-only, but still significant.

651 These metrics could further provide added value as to constrain the model to be within  
652 the given error tolerance. Moreover, these metrics are comparable in fidelity to TOA-based  
653 metrics and largely insensitive to ocean feedbacks (Hourdin et al., 2023). In contrast,  
654 precipitation-based diagnostics have not been explored due to the high frequency variability  
655 relative to the simulation length and have been shown to exhibit poor atmosphere-only to  
656 coupled alignment (Ceppi & Gregory, 2017; Mikkelsen et al., 2025).

657 The implications extend to polar regions. Sea ice regressions demonstrate that coupled  
658  $SST_{\text{removed}}$  ensemble PC1 structure (and therefore linked to the AMIP) projects onto coupled sea  
659 ice patterns in the Weddell and Ross Seas of the Antarctic and Nordic Seas of Arctic, validating  
660 the ability of AMIP diagnostics to precondition polar climate states (i.e., sea ice extent) even in  
661 the presence of ocean feedbacks. This is consistent with recent findings showing that high-cloud  
662 processes and upper-tropospheric radiative feedbacks are stronger predictors of high-latitude  
663 diversity and sea ice extent than precipitation-based metrics (Cesena et al., 2025). Related work  
664 further links lower-stratospheric temperature biases to sea ice extent and air-sea coupling  
665 strength (Studholme et al., 2025), highlighting the importance of upper-tropospheric and  
666 lower-stratospheric layers as effective tuning targets. Here, applying both atmosphere, ocean,

667 and sea ice parameters in the PPE, we demonstrate how seasonally the atmospheric state can  
668 be vital in preconditioning the sea ice extent.

669 Together, these findings extend the PPE framework proposed by Hourdin et al. (2023) by  
670 incorporating vertically and spatially resolved diagnostics. AMIP-based PPEs emerge as a  
671 practical tool for isolating robust atmospheric parameter impacts, preconditioning coupled  
672 simulations, and reducing reliance on costly manual tuning (Murphy et al., 2004; Sanderson et  
673 al., 2008). The demonstrated AMIP–coupled alignment in key diagnostics, combined with tools  
674 such as hightune-explore, provides a pathway toward reproducible, systematic model  
675 calibration and more reliable projections of polar climate change ahead of CMIP7.

676

677

(All figures and tables should be cited in order. For initial submission, please embed figures, tables, and their captions within the main text near where they are cited. At revision, figures should be uploaded separately, as we need separate files for production. Tables and all captions should be moved to the end of the file.)

References should use a name-date format, not numbers. Enclose citations in parentheses with authors in upright text (non italics) as in: (Smith et al., 2009) or Smith et al. (2009). More information on in-text citations can be found in our [Brief Style Guide](#), “Reference Formatting.”

## **Acknowledgments**

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## **References**