Exploring a lower resolution physics grid in CAM-SE-CSLAM

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Key Points:

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Abstract

1 Introduction

Global atmospheric models fundamentally consist of two components. The dynamical core (dynamics), which numerically integrate the adiabatic equations of motion and the advection of tracers, and the physical parameterizations (physics), which compute the effects of diabatic and subgrid-scale processes (e.g., radiative transfer and moist convection) on the grid-scale. More out of convenience than anything else, the physics are evaluated on the dynamics grid, i.e., the physics grid and dynamics grid coincide. From linear stability and accuracy analysis of numerical methods, it is a common result that the shortest simulated wavelengths are not accurately represented by the dynamical core. Additionally, simulated downscale cascades result in an unrealistic collection of energy and/or enstrophy near the truncation scale, which may be observed from kinetic energy spectra in model simulations [Skamarock, 2011]. Some form of dissipation must be incorporated into models to mitigate these numerical artifacts near the grid scale [Jablonowski and Williamson, 2011]. This numerical dissipation has no physical analogy [although see Grinstein et al., 2007], and the grid-scale is therefore contaminated by numerous un-physical processes. The under-resolved nature of the grid-scale led Lander and Hoskins [1997] to speculate whether the physics should be evaluated on a grid that is more reflective of the scales actually resolved by the dynamical core.

Experimentation with different physics grid resolutions have so far been limited to models employing the spectral transform method [Lander and Hoskins, 1997; Williamson, 1999; Wedi, 2014]. Lander and Hoskins [1997] argue that passing under-resolved states to the physics may be especially problematic in spectral transform models, since the physics are evaluated on a transform grid in grid point space, which contains more degrees of freedom than the spectral representation to prevent aliasing of quadratic quantities. However, Lander and Hoskins [1997] indicate that the spectral truncation damps errors that may result from passing an under-resolved state to the physics, although the extent to which these errors may still be present in the model was not addressed.

Another class of spectral-transform models evaluate the quadratic terms using semi-Lagrangian methods, which are implicitly diffusive, relaxing constraints on the resolution of the transform grid. *Wedi* [2014] experimented with different transform grid resolutions and concluded that the standard high resolution quadratic grid actually improves forecast skill over the use of a lower-resolution transform grid. This suggests that increasing the resolution of the transform grid simulates a kind of sub-grid variability on the spectral state, which is thought to be under-represented in global atmospheric models [*Shutts*, 2005]. This is in principle the purpose of "super-parameterization," in which a cloud resolving model is embedded in each grid cell to simulate the requisite subgrid variability, improving both diurnal and sub-seasonal variability in the model [*Randall et al.*, 2003].

After the physics tendencies are transformed into spectral space, the tendencies may be truncated at any particular wave number. *Williamson* [1999] conducted a pair of convergence tests using a global spectral transform model; a conventional convergence test and one in which the spectral truncation of the physics tendencies is held fixed and the resolution of the dynamical core increased. In contrast to the realistic weather forecasts of *Wedi* [2014], *Williamson* [1999] run their model to equilibrium in an idealized climate configuration. When the physics and dynamics resolutions increase together, as in more typical convergence studies, the strength of the Hadley Cell increases monotonically with resolution. This sensitivity of Hadley Cell strength to horizontal resolution is a common result of global models at hydrostatic resolutions [see *Herrington and Reed*, 2017, and references therein]. But with the truncation wave number of physics tendencies held fixed, the Hadley Cell showed very little sensitivity to dynamical core resolution, resembling the solution for which the dynamics truncation wave number is equal to that of the lower

resolution physics. *Herrington and Reed* [2017] speculate that the results of *Williamson* [1999] indicate that the scales of motion resolved by the dynamical core are aliased to the lower resolution physics. The results of *Williamson* [1999]; *Wedi* [2014] do not provide evidence that a lower resolution physics grid reduces computational errors in spectral transform models, but this was seldom discussed in either study.

Global spectral transform models, while remarkably efficient at small processor counts, do not scale well on massively parallel systems. High-order Galerkin methods are becoming increasingly popular in climate and weather applications due to their high-parallel efficiency, high-processor efficiency, high-order accuracy (for smooth problems), and geometric flexibility facilitating mesh-refinenment applications. High resolution climate simulations with NCAR's Community Atmosphere Model [CAM; Neale et al., 2012] are typically performed using a continuous Galerkin dynamical core referred to as CAM-SE [CAM Spectral Elements; Taylor et al., 2008; Dennis et al., 2012; Lauritzen et al., 2018]. CAM-SE may be optionally coupled to a conservative, semi-Lagrangian tracer advection scheme for accelerated multi-tracer transport [CAM-SE-CSLAM; Lauritzen et al., 2017]. Tracer advection then evolves on an entirely separate, finite-volume grid which contains the same degrees of freedom as the spectral element grid.

Element-based Galerkin methods are susceptible to grid-imprinting, and may need be considered when contemplating a particular physics grid. Grid imprinting manifests at the element boundaries, since the global basis is least smooth on the element boundaries [see section The Quadrature Node Problem in Herrington et al., in revision, hereafter referred to as HL18], and the gradients (e.g., the pressure gradient) are systematically tighter. In CAM-SE, the solutions are defined at the quadrature nodes, some of which are located at element boundaries, and the physics tendencies computed from the boundary extrema may exacerbate the grid imprinting. HL18 has shown that through evaluating the physics on the finite-volume tracer advection grid in CAM-SE-CSLAM, element boundary noise is substantially reduced in the model, although still problematic in regions of steep terrain, at low latitudes. They show that through integrating CAM-SE's spectral basis over the control volumes of the finite-volume grid, the volume mean filters out element boundary noise. Additionally, through defining a volume mean state, the finite-volume physics grid is made consistent with assumptions inherent to the physics, and is more appropriate for coupling to other model components (e.g., the land model), which is conventionally performed using a finite-volume based mapping algorithm.

The finite-volume physics grid in HL18 was found by tiling the elements of the cubed-sphere grid with 3×3 equi-angular coordinate lines parallel to the element boundaries, and since the elements are defined by a cubed-sphere grid, the grid approximately isotropic. While a 3×3 physics grid was chosen in order to have the same degrees of freedom as the dynamical core, the control volumes encompass a region of the element in which their proximity to the element boundaries are not equal. Therefore, not every control volume has the same smoothness. This may be avoided through defining a physics grid in which the elements are divided into 2×2 approximiately equal area control volumes, depicted schematically in Figure 1a (hereafter referred to as pg2). The control volumes of the pg2 grid all have the same proximity to the element boundaries, which is the reason we hypothesize that the pg2 grid will have less grid-imprinting than the pg3 grid.

Additionally, through integrating CAM-SE's spectral basis over control volumes, a finite-volume physics grid is made consistent with assumptions inherent to the physics, and is more appropriate for coupling to other model components (e.g., the land model), which is conventionally performed using a finite-volume based mapping algorithm.

In this study, a finite-volume physics grid is developed for CAM-SE-CSLAM which contains fewer degrees of freedom than the dynamical core grid. We test the hypothesis that the coarser physics grid is effective at reducing spurious noise at element boundaries, particularly over regions of rough topography. In addition, the recent trend towards run-

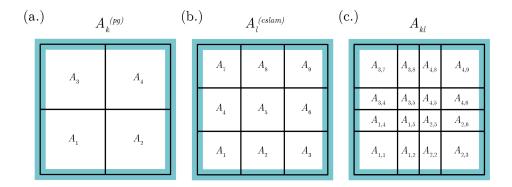


Figure 1. Indice notation for the (a) pg2 grid, (b), pg3 grid and (c) their exchange grid.

ning models at ever higher resolutions is an almost prohibitive computational burden. As the physics makes up over half of the computational cost in CAM-SE [Lauritzen et al., 2018], the improvement in computational performance using a coarser resolution physics grid is potentially significant. However, any advantages of using a coarser physics grid need be weighed against any potential reduction in simulation quality, e.g., the models effective resolution. Section 2 describes the implementation of the coarse physics grid into CAM-SE-CSLAM. Section 3 provides the results of a hierarchy of model configurations to identify whether grid imprinting, and the overall model solution is improved. Section 4 provides a discussion of the results and conclusions.

2 Methods

In the pg2 configuration, mapping the fields from the quadrature grid to and from the pg2 grid is identical to that described in $Herrington\ et\ al.$ [in revision]. Briefly, in mapping to the physics grid, CAM-SE's Lagrange basis functions are integrated over the pg2 control volumes to provide the physics with a volume averaged state. The procedure is accurate to machine precision, conserves thermal energy and dry air mass, and is consistent (i.e., the mapping preserves a constant). The reverse mapping, from the physics grid to the quadrature grid, is done using a tensor-product Lagrange interpolation [see Appendix A in $Herrington\ et\ al.$, in revision]. The Lagrange intepolation is consistent, conserves dry air mass (Peter, is this true?), but does not conserve thermal energy. Errors arising from the lack of energy conservation were estimated to be small; about two orders of magnitude less than the energy dissipation due to the dynamical core alone.

The semi-Lagrangian advection of tracers in our pg2 configuration uses the 3×3 CSLAM grid. Preserving linear correlations in mapping to and from the CSLAM and pg2 grids requires additional considerations, depicted schematically in Figure 2. Consider a single CSLAM grid cell value of 1.0, and surrounded by all zeros (m_l ; Figure 2a). The tracer value mapped to the pg2 grid (m_k ; Figure 2b) is used to compute a negative tracer tendency by the physics (f_k ; Figure 2c). The non-zero values of the tendencies for pg2 areas overlapping CSLAM grid cells originally containing a value of zero ($f_{k,l}$; Figure 2d), are driven negative by the mapped tendency (Figure 2e). Linear correlations are therefore not preserved in this case, and simulations without addressing this problem were in serious error.

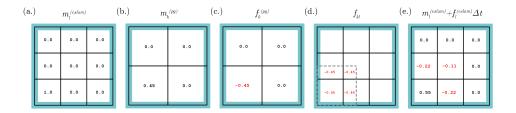


Figure 2. Make captions stand-alone while being concise

The mapping algorithm is applied to each element Ω (with spherical area $\Delta\Omega$) so without loss of generality consider one element. Let $\Delta A_k^{(pg)}$ and $\Delta A_\ell^{(cslam)}$ be the spherical area of the physics grid grid cell $A_k^{(pg)}$ and CSLAM control volume $A_\ell^{(cslam)}$, respectively. tively. The physics grid cells and CSLAM cells respectively span the element without gaps or overlaps

$$\bigcup_{k=1}^{pg^2} A_k^{(pg)} = \Omega \text{ and } A_k^{(pg)} \cap A_\ell^{(pg)} = \emptyset \quad \forall k \neq \ell, \tag{1}$$

The overlap areas between the k-th physics grid cell and CSLAM cells is denoted

$$A_{k\ell} = A_k^{(pg)} \cap A_\ell^{(cslam)},\tag{3}$$

so that

$$A_k^{(pg)} = \bigcup_{l=1}^{nc^2} A_{k\ell}.$$
 (4)

The tendencies from the parameterizations are computed on the physics grid. The tracer tendency in physics grid cell k is denoted $f_k^{(pg)}$. The problem is how to map $f_k^{(pg)}$ to the CSLAM control volumes $f^{(cslam)}$ satisfying the following constraints:

1. Local mass-conservation

$$f_{\ell}^{(pg)} \Delta p_{\ell}^{(pg)} = \bigcup_{\ell=1}^{nc^2} \Delta A_{\ell\ell} \Delta p_{\ell}^{(cslam)} f_{\ell}^{(cslam)}, \tag{5}$$

where $\Delta p_k^{(pg)}$ is the pressure level thickness in physics grid cell k and similarly for

2. Shape-preservation in mixing ratio: The forcing on the CSLAM grid should not produce a value smaller than the new physics grid mixing ratio, $m_t^{(pg)} + \Delta t f_t^{(pg)}$ or a value smaller than the existing CSLAM mixing ratios over the overlap areas $m_{k\ell}^{(cslam)}$

$$m_k^{(min)} = \min\left(m_k^{(pg)} + \Delta t f_k^{(pg)}, \left\{m_{k\ell}^{(cslam)} | \ell = 1, nc^2\right\}\right),$$
 (6)

where Δt is the physics time-step. Similarly for maxima

$$m_k^{(max)} = \max\left(m_k^{(pg)} + \Delta t f_k^{(pg)}, \left\{m_{k\ell}^{(cslam)} | \ell = 1, nc^2\right\}\right),$$
 (7)

- 3. Linear correlation preservation: The physics forcing must not disrupt linear tracer correlation between species on the CSLAM grid [see, e.g., Lauritzen and Thuburn, 2012].
- 4. Consistency: A constant mixing ratio tendency, cnst, on the physics grid, $f_k^{(pg)} =$ cnst $\forall k$, must result in the same (constant) forcing on the CSLAM grid, $f_{\ell}^{(cslam)} =$ $f_k^{(pg)} = cnst \ \forall \ell.$

Table 1. Average equatorial grid spacing, Δx , and model time-step, Δx , used by the physical parameterizations, phys, and dynamical core, dyn.

Grid name	Δx_{dyn}	Δt_{dyn}	Δx_{phys}	Δt_{phys}
ne20pg3	166.8km	300s	166.8km	1800s
ne30pg2	111.2km	300s	166.8km	1800s
ne30pg3	111.2km	300s	111.2km	1800s
ne40pg3	83.4km	150s	83.4km	900s
ne60pg2	55.6km	150s	83.4km	900s
ne60pg3	55.6km	150s	55.6km	900s
ne80pg3	41.7km	75s	41.7km	450s
ne120pg2	27.8km	75s	41.7km	450s
ne120pg3	27.8km	75s	27.8km	450s

To motivate the algorithm that will simultaneously satisfy 1-4 it is informative to discuss how 'standard' mapping algorithms will violate one or more of the constraints.

- Conservative remapping:
- · Interpolation:

some text about how challenging it is to satisfy 1-3 simultaneously

2.1 Algorithm

3 Results

A plethora of grids are developed for CAM-SE-CSLAM (Table 1), and used to understand the sensitivity to physics grid resolution, across a wide range of spectral-element grid resolutions. The physics time-step, Δt_{phys} , used for each grid is scaled by the dynamics time-step to prevent time truncation errors at higher resolutions [Herrington and Reed, 2018]. A hierarchy of idealized model configurations are presented (available from CESM2.0; https://doi.org/10.5065/D67H1H0V) to illuminate the differences between pg2 and pg3.

3.1 Moist Baroclinic Wave

Terminator Test of linear-correlation preservation, and tracer mass conservation (just a number showing to within machine precision). Just put it in now, as a reminder for peter to fix the algorithm.

3.2 Held-Suarez with Topography

Flow over rough topography may facilitate significant grid imprinting using the spectral element method [Lauritzen et al., 2015; Herrington et al., in revision]. A Held-Suarez configuration, modified with real world topography is used to identify grid imprinting over mountainous terrain. Figure 3 (middle panel) shows the climatological mean vertical pressure velocity, ω , over the Andes and Himalayan region and at two different levels in the mid-troposphere, using the ne30pg3 grid. All Held-Suarez simulations are ran for two-years. The figure is displayed as a raster plot on the native physics grid, so that indidual extrema, which characterize the flow over the Andes between about $10^{\circ} - 20^{\circ}$ S, may be identified as spurious. Similarly, at the foot of the Himalayas, their are spurious oscilla-



Figure 3. Mean ω at two model levels in the middle troposphere, in a Held-Suarez configuration outfitted with real world topography. (Left) ne30pg2 (Middle) ne30pg3 and (Right) ne30pg3 with the divergence damping coefficient increased by an order of magnitude. The ω fields are computed a two-year simulation. The data are presented on a raster plot in order to identify individual grid cells

tory bands of upward and downward motion aligned with the element boundaries [see also *Herrington et al.*, in revision].

As discussed in *Herrington et al.* [in revision], grid imprinting over mountainous regions tends to occur in regions of weak stability, and the extrema often manifest as full tropsphere upward/downward couplets. Thus, grid imprinting over mountains may be alleviated through increasing the divergence damping in the model. Figure 3 (right panel) repeats the *ne*30*pg*3 simulation, but increasing the divergence damping coefficient by an order of magnitude. The spurious noise over the Andes and the Himalayas are damped, as grid point extrema tends to be diffused into neighboring grid cells. The wavenumber-power spectrum of the kinetic energy arising from divergent modes is provided in Figure 4, confirming that divergent modes are significantly damped at higher wavenumbers relative to the default *ne*30*pg*3 simulation. Requiring the divergence damping coefficient to be an order of magnitude larger than is required for numerical stability is not ideal from a model development perspective. The hyper-viscosity coefficients are one of the only free-parameters in the dynamical core to tune the kinetic energy spectrum to observations [*Skamarock et al.*, 2014; *Lauritzen et al.*, 2018].

The ω field in a ne30pg2 simulation is provided in Figure 3 (left panel). Grid cell extrema over the Andes is less prevalent than in the ne30pg3 simulation, as seen by the reduction in large magnitude ω (e.g., red grid cells). The spurious oscillations at the foot of the Himalayas appears to have been entirely eliminated. This improvement in grid imprinting is due to the consistent sampling of nodal types in the pg2 configuration discussed in Section ??. The divergent modes are slightly damped relative to the ne30pg3

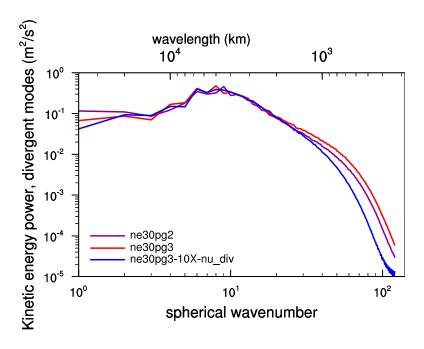


Figure 4. Kinetic energy power spectrum arising from divergent modes in ne30pg2, ne30pg3 and ne30pg3 with the divergence damping coefficient increased by an order of magnitude ($ne30pg3 - 10X - ne_div$).

simulations, somewhat sytematically at high wavenumbers, and much less than the simulation using the larger divergence damping coefficient (Figure 4).

3.3 Aqua-planets

The results of the previous section are consistent with our hypothesis, that spurious noise is effectively reduced, and visibly eliminated using a pg2 grid. We now turn to the question of whether the coarser resolution physics grid has an impact on the resolved scales of motion. This analysis will make use of an aqua-planet configuration [Neale and Hoskins, 2000; Medeiros et al., 2016]; an ocean covered planet in perpetual equinox, and fixed, zonally-symmetric sea surface temperatures idealized after present day Earth. The aqua-planets are run for one simulated year, using CAM, version 6 physics (CAM6; QPC6 compset in CESM2.0).

Herrington and Reed [2017] has shown that through assuming the horizontal scale of the Archimedean buoyancy is linearly proportional to the grid spacing, the magnitude of the vertical motion in aqua-planet runs did not scale like the inverse of the grid-spacing across a set of grid resolutions. However, the results of Herrington and Reed [2018] indicate that the scaling may be recovered through a more judicous choice of Δt_{phys} (Table 1). To test this idea, three aqua-planet simulations are carried out using the ne30pg3, ne60pg3 and ne120pg3 grids.

Figure 5a shows the wavenumber-power spectrum of the moist physics temperature tendencies (referred to as *forcing* throughout this study) in the upper troposphere, where statiform heating is common due to detrainment by the deep-convection scheme [*Zhang and McFarlane*, 1995]. There is a clear reduction in forcing scale with resolution, which is consistent with the increased magnitude of ω with resolution, expressed by the probability density distribution (PDF) of upward ω , everywhere in the model (Figure 5b). The PDFs

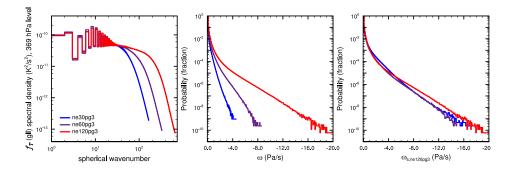


Figure 5. (a) Wavenumber-power spectrum of the temperature tendencies from the moist physics, near the 369 hPa level, (b) probability density distribution and (c) the scaled probability density distribution of upward ω everywhere in the model, from three year long aqua-planet simulations at different grid resolutions. To do: re-do ne120 pdf using binmin of -20 Pa/s.

may be scaled to the ne120pg3 grid using the scaling of Pauluis and Garner [2006],

$$P(\omega_s) = \alpha \times P(\omega/\alpha), \tag{8}$$

where $P(\omega_s)$ is the PDF of the scaled ω , ω_s , and α is the ratio of the vertical velocity scale to the vertical velocity scale of the target grid resolution, set to $\alpha = \Delta x_{target}/\Delta x$, after [Herrington and Reed, 2018], where Δx is the grid spacing and Δx_{target} is the grid spacing of the target resolution. The scaled PDFs do not line up perfectly on top one another (Figure 5c), but the scaling explains the change in magnitude of ω with resolution to first order. This result is consistent with the notion that the characteristic forcing scales in the simulations are linearly proportional to the grid spacing.

When the physics and dynamics grids are of a different resolution, it is not clear which grid determines the forcing scale. If the characteristic forcing scale is determined by the physics grid spacing, Δx_{phys} , than the ne30pg2 solution should more closely resemble the ne20pg3 solution, in which both the physics and dynamics grids are equal to the physics grid of ne30pg2. Likewise, if the dynamics grid spacing, Δx_{dyn} , governs the forcing scale than the ne30pg2 solution would more closely resemble the ne30pg3 solution. Figure 7a is the PDF of upward ω for simluations using the ne20pg3, ne30pg2 and ne30pg3 grids. It is clear that the ne30pg2 solution more closely resembles the ne30pg3 solution. Scaling the ne20pg3 solution to ne30pg3 using eqn. 8 does a fair job of predicting the ne30pg3 magnitudes (Figure 7b), again consistent with a linear relation between forcing scale and grid spacing. Scaling the ne30pg2 PDF to the ne30pg3 grid using Δx_{phys} overestimates the magnitude of ω in the ne30pg3 solution, suggesting the characteristic forcing scale can not be proportional to Δx_{phys} .

The dynamical core requires explicit numerical damping to increase with Δx_{dyn} for numerical stability, the exact relation provided in the appendix of *Lauritzen et al.* [2018]. The hyper-viscosity coefficients are therefore smaller (and equal) in the ne30pg2 and ne30pg3 simulations, relative to the ne20pg3 simulation. Figure 7a (green line) shows the PDF of upward ω for a ne30pg2 simulation, in which the hyper-viscosity coefficients are increased to ne20pg3 values (referred to as ne30pg2 - hivisc). The solution now more closely resembles the ne20pg3 solution, indicating that an increase in explicit damping results in an increase in characteristic forcing scale. Through scaling the ne30pg2 - hivisc solutions to the ne30pg3 grid using Δx_{phys} , the scaled solution lie much closer to the ne30pg3 solution, compared wth scaling the default ne30pg2 solution using Δx_{phys} . When using a slightly lower resolution physics grid, $\Delta x_{phys}/\Delta x_{dyn} = 1.5$, it seems the

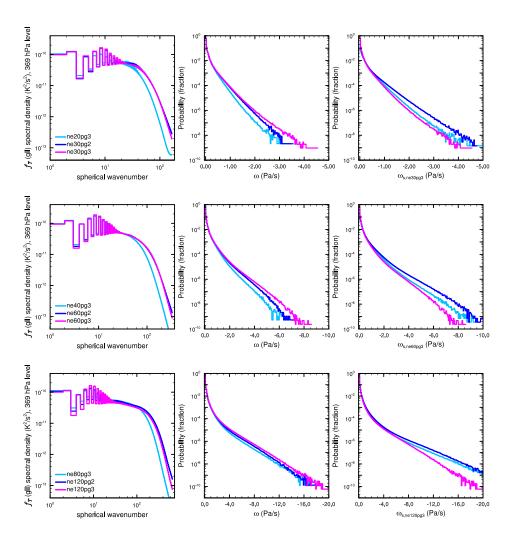


Figure 6. (Left) Wavenumber-power spectrum of the temperature tendencies from the moist physics, near the 369 hPa level, (Middle) probability density distribution and (Right) the scaled probability density distribution of upward ω everywhere in the model. To do: make legend and re-do 0.25 degree sims using binmin of -20 Pa/s.

forcing scale is determined by Δx_{dyn} , primarily a result of Δx_{dyn} dependent hyper-viscous damping.

The vertical velocity scale is determined by the characteristic forcing scale on the dynamical core grid. Mapping the physics forcing to the dynamics grid using a high-order reconstruction may introduce some fine scale features that the physics grid is unable to support, potentially increasing the vertical velocity scale. A ne30pg2 simulation using low-order reconstruction (bilinear interpolation from pg2 to GLL, and piecewise-constant mapping between pg2 and CSLAM grids; referred to as ne30pg2 - loworder) is carried out. The wavenumber-power spectrum of the physics forcing in the upper-troposphere on the physics grid (Figure 8a), and after the forcing is mapped to the dynamics grid (Figure 8b) is provided for the ne30pg2 - loworder, ne30pg2 and ne30pg3 simulations.

On the physics grid, power at high wavenumbers is reduced in ne30pg2 - loworder compared with the default ne30pg2 solution, and both have less power than the ne30pg3 solution at most wavenumbers. On the dynamics grid, ne30pg2 - loworder is the only

Figure 7. (a) Probability density distribution and (b) the scaled probability density distribution of upward ω everywhere in the model, from four different year long aqua-planet simulations at different grid resolutions. To do: make this a two panel plot with a clear legend.

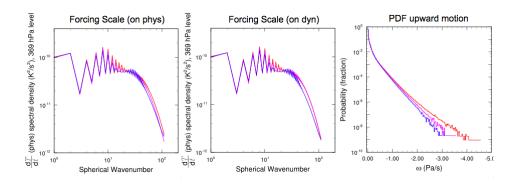


Figure 8. (a) Wavenumber-power spectrum of the temperature tendencies from the moist physics, near the 369 hPa level, on (a) the physics grid, and (b) the dynamics grid, and (c) the probability density distribution of upward ω everywhere in the model To do: make a clear legend.

solution with a clear reduction in power compared with ne30pg3 —the power spectrum of the ne30pg2 simulation is indistinguishable from the ne30pg3 solution at high wavenumbers (but note the damped oscillations in the 10-20 wavenumber window in ne30pg2). The PDFs of upward ω indicate the magnitude of the ne30pg2 solution lies intermediate to the two other simulations, but the magnitudes are closer to the ne30pg3 solution in the higher probability regions (greater than -2 hPa/day). High-order mapping is therefore an effective means to mitigate any loss in effective resolution arising from the use of a coarser physics grid.

4 Conclusions

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