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

A.R. Herrington^{1*}, P.H. Lauritzen², S. Goldhaber², Mark A. Taylor³, K.A. Reed¹

 $^1\mathrm{School}$ of Marine and Atmospheric Sciences, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, New York $^2\mathrm{National}$ Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, Colorado, USA $^3\mathrm{Sandia}$ National Laboratories, Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA

Key Points:

•

•

•

^{*}Stony Brook, New York

Abstract

1 Introduction

Global atmospheric models fundamentally consist of two components. The dynamical core (dynamics), which numerically integrate the adiabatic equations of motion and tracer advection, 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 latitude-longitude transform grid, and 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 of the physics tendencies 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. They 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, and improves 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 CAM-SE's quadrature node grid.

Element-based Galerkin methods are susceptible to grid-imprinting, and may need be considered when contemplating a particular physics grid [Herrington et al., in revision, hereafter referred to as HL18]. Grid imprinting manifests at the element boundaries, since the global basis is least smooth (C^0 ; all derivatives are discontinuous) for quadrature nodes lying on the element boundaries, and the gradients (e.g., the pressure gradient) are systematically tighter producing local extremes. Through computing the physics tendencies at the nodal points, element boundary extrema is also observed in the physics tendencies.

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, although still problematic in regions of steep terrain, at low latitudes. Through integrating CAM-SE's basis functions over the control volumes of the finite-volume grid, element boundary extrema is additionally weighted by the C^{∞} solutions (i.e., the basis representation is infinitely smooth and all derivatives are continuous) of the element interior, and the state is smoother. Additionally, in defining an area averaged 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 typically performed using finite-volume based mapping algorithms.

The finite-volume grid of HL18 is found through dividing the elements of CAM-SE's gnomic cubed-sphere grid with equally spaced, equi-angular coordinate lines parallel to the element boundaries, such that there are 3×3 control volumes per element (hereafter referred to as pg3). 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 in an element has the same smoothness properties. This may be avoided through defining a physics grid in which the elements are instead divided into 2×2 control volumes (hereafter referred to as pg2). The control volumes of the pg2 grid all have the same proximity to the element boundaries, and should mitigate the element boundary noise that remains in the pg3 grid, and shown in HL18.

In this study, we test the hypothesis that the coarser, pg2 physics grid is effective at reducing spurious noise at element boundaries, particularly over regions of rough topography. In addition, the recent trend towards running 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 re-

duction in simulation quality, e.g., possible aliasing of the resolved scales of motion by the coarser grid, as suggested by the results of Williamson [1999]. Section 2 described the implementation of the pg2 grid into CAM-SE-CSLAM. Section 3 provides the results of a hierarchy of model configurations to identify any changes in grid imprinting, or in the overall solution, compared with the pg3 configuration. Section 4 provides a discussion of the results and conclusions.

2 Methods

Separating dynamics, tracer and physics grids introduces the added complexity of having to map the state from dynamics and tracer grids to the physics grid; and mapping physics tracer tendencies back to the tracer grid and physics tendencies needed by the dynamical core to the dynamics grid. The dynamics grid refers to the Gauss-Lobatto-Legendre (GLL) quadrature nodes by the spectral-element method to solve the momentum equations for the momentum vector (u, v), thermodynamics equation for temperature (T), continuity equation for dry air (M), and continuity equations for water vapor and condensates thermodynamically active [see, e.g., Lauritzen et al., 2018, for details]. By tracer grid we refer to the pg3 grid on which CSLAM performs tracer transport of water vapor, condensates and other tracers. The GLL value for water vapor and condensates is overwritten by the CSLAM values every physics time-step so that the spectral-element advection of water species does not become decoupled from the the CSLAM advection of the same water species. Mapping velocity components, dry air mass and temperature from the GLL grid to the pg2 grid is done by using the internal degree 3 Lagrange basis functions in CAM-SE [as described in *Herrington et al.*, in revision, for pg3; exactly the same methods can be used for pg2].

As compared to the pg3 configuration, the extra complication of the pg2 setup is that tracer state needs to be mapped from the tracer grid to the physics grid and tracer tendencies need to the mapped from the physics grid to CSLAM grid. In order to describe the algorithm some notation needs to be introduced.

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 $\Delta A_\ell^{(nc)}$ be the spherical area of the physics grid grid cell $A_k^{(pg)}$ and CSLAM control volume $A_\ell^{(nc)}$, respectively. The physics grid cells and CSLAM cells respectively span the element without gaps or overlaps

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

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

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

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

so that

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

This overlap grid is also referred to as an exhange grid.

2.1 Mapping tracers from CSLAM to pg

For mapping tracer state from the CSLAM grid to any physics grid can be done using exising CSLAM technology, i.e. do a high-order shape-preserving reconstruction of mixing ratio and dry air mass inside each CSLAM control volume and integrate those reconstruction functions over the overlap areas [??]. This algorithm retains the properties of CSLAM: inherent mass-conservation, mixing ratio shape-preservation and linearcorrelation preservation.

In mathematical terms the remapping is given by

$$\Delta M_{\ell}^{(pg)} \Delta A_{\ell} = \sum_{k=1}^{nc^2} \Delta M_{k\ell}^{(nc)} \Delta A_{k\ell}, \tag{5}$$

$$\Delta M_{\ell}^{(pg)} \Delta A_{\ell} = \sum_{k=1}^{nc^{2}} \Delta M_{k\ell}^{(nc)} \Delta A_{k\ell},$$

$$\Delta M_{\ell}^{(pg)} m_{\ell}^{(pg)} \Delta A_{\ell} = \frac{1}{\Delta M_{\ell}^{(pg)}} \sum_{k=1}^{nc^{2}} [\Delta M m]_{k\ell}^{(nc)} \Delta A_{k\ell},$$
(6)

where

$$\Delta M_{k\ell}^{(nc)} = \frac{1}{\Delta A_{k\ell}} \int_{A_{k\ell}} \Delta M(x, y) dA.$$

$$[\Delta M m]_{k\ell}^{(nc)} = \frac{1}{\Delta A_{k\ell}} \int_{A_{k\ell}} [\Delta M m] (x, y) dA.$$
(8)

$$\left[\Delta M \, m\right]_{k\ell}^{(nc)} = \frac{1}{\Delta A_{k\ell}} \int_{A_{k\ell}} \left[\Delta M \, m\right](x, y) \, dA. \tag{8}$$

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 $f^{(nc)}$ satisfying the following constraints:

1. Local mass-conservation

$$f_k^{(pg)} \Delta p_k^{(pg)} = \bigcup_{\ell=1}^{nc^2} \Delta A_{k\ell} \Delta p_\ell^{(nc)} f_\ell^{(nc)}, \tag{9}$$

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, $m_k^{(pg)} + \Delta t f_k^{(pg)}$ or a value smaller than the existing CSLAM mixing ratios over the overlap areas $m_{k\ell}^{(nc)}$

$$m_k^{(min)} = \min\left(m_k^{(pg)} + \Delta t f_k^{(pg)}, \left\{m_{k\ell}^{(nc)} | \ell = 1, nc^2\right\}\right),$$
 (10)

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

$$m_k^{(max)} = \max\left(m_k^{(pg)} + \Delta t f_k^{(pg)}, \left\{m_{k\ell}^{(nc)} | \ell = 1, nc^2\right\}\right),\tag{11}$$

- 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, $f_{\ell}^{(\hat{nc})} =$ $f_k^{(pg)} = cnst \ \forall \ell.$

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

2.2 Algorithm

In the pg2 configuration, mapping the fields to and from the quadrature grid and pg2 grid is identical to that described in HL18. As discussed above above, 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



Figure 1. Make captions stand-alone while being concise

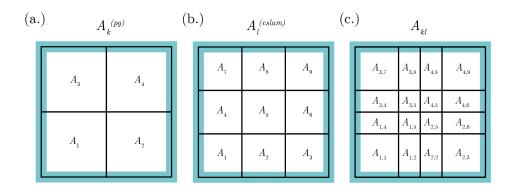


Figure 2. Indice notation for the (a) pg2 grid, (b), pg3 grid and (c) their exchange grid.

in HL18). The Lagrange interpolation 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 is solved on the pg3 grid (hereafter referred to as the CSLAM grid). Preserving linear correlations in mapping to and from the CSLAM and pg2 grids requires additional considerations; one such problem is depicted schematically in Figure 1. Consider a single element of CSLAM control volumes, containing only a single cell with mixing ratio 1.0, and 0.0 everywhere else (m_l ; Figure 1a). Assume that the mixing ratios mapped to the pg2 grid (m_k ; Figure 1b) result in a negative tracer tendency from the physics (f_k ; Figure 1c). The non-zero values of the tendencies for pg2 areas overlapping CSLAM grid cells originally containing a value of zero ($f_{k,l}$; Figure 1d), are driven negative by the mapped tendency (Figure 1e). Preserving linear correlations is therefore difficult since the mapping between CSLAM and pg2 is not reversible. Simulations performed without addressing this artifact were found to be in serious error.

3 Results

A plethora of grids are developed for CAM-SE-CSLAM, and used to understand the sensitivity to physics grid resolution, across a wide range of spectral-element grid resolutions. A hierarchy of idealized model configurations are presented (available from



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

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 can result in 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, as in Herrington et al. [in revision]. Figure 3 (middle panel) shows the vertical pressure velocity, ω , averaged over two years, over the Andes and Himalayan region at two different levels in the mid-troposphere, and using the ne30pg3 grid. The fields are displayed as a raster plot on the physics grid, so that individual extrema, which characterize the flow over the Andes between about $10^{\circ} - 20^{\circ}$ S, and the Himalayas between $20^{\circ} - 30^{\circ}$ N, may be identified as spurious.

As discussed in *Herrington et al.* [in revision], grid imprinting over mountainous terrain tend to occur in regions of weak gravitational stability, causing extrema to extend through the full depth of the troposphere as resolved updrafts and downdrafts. Thus, grid

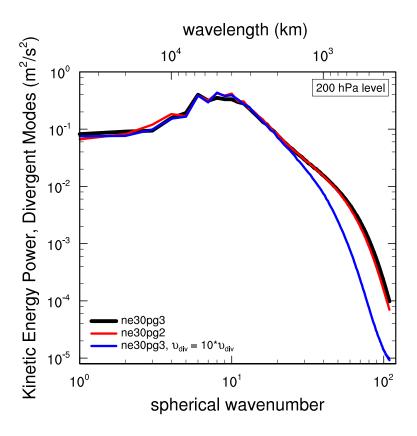


Figure 4. Kinetic energy power spectrum arising from divergent modes in ne30pg3, ne30pg2 and ne30pg3 with the divergence damping coefficient increased by an order of magnitude, in the Held-Suarez with topography simulations. Spectra computed from five months of six-hourly winds.

imprinting over mountains may be alleviated through increasing the divergence damping in the model. The spectral element method is not implicitly dissipative, so fourth-order hyperviscosity operators are applied to the prognostic variables [Lauritzen et al., 2018]. Figure 3 (right panel) repeats the ne30pg3 simulation through increasing the hyperviscous divergence damping coefficient by an order of magnitude. The spurious noise over the Andes and the Himalayas are damped, and grid point extrema tend to diffuse 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 ne30pg3 simulation.

Mitigating grid-imprinting through increasing the divergence damping coefficient 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 a handful of free-parameters in CAM-SE to tune the kinetic energy spectrum to match 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 appear to have been entirely eliminated. This improvement in grid imprinting is due to the consistent numerical properties of the control volumes in the pg2 configuration discussed in Section 1. The divergent modes are slightly damped relative to the ne30pg3 simulations only at large wavenumbers (greater than 50), and much less damped compared to the simulation with large divergence damping (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).

3.3.1 Low Resolution

When the physics and dynamics grids are of a different resolution, it is not clear which grid determines the resolved scales of motion. This may be tested through comparing ne30pg2, which has a physics grid spacing of approximately 166.8km, to a simulation with a ne20pg3 grid, in which the physics and the dynamics both have an approximate grid spacing of 166.8km (see Table 1). The probability density function (PDF) of upward ω everywhere in the simulations is shown in Figure 5b. While in practice the model state 'lives' on the physics grid, ω here is shown on the GLL grid. It is clear that larger magnitude ω is more frequent in ne30pg2, as compared with ne20pg3, and in fact is remarkably similar to the ne30pg3 distribution.

To further understand the changes in vertical motion between the simulations, the concept of forcing scale is introduced. If one considers a cylinder of height, H, diameter, D, and constant Archimedean buoyancy, B_0 , throughout, the vertical velocity scale due to the buoyancy, W, may be derived from the Poission equation at hydrostatics scales, $W = B_0 * H/D$ [Herrington and Reed, 2018]. The buoyancy is determined primarily by the temperature tendencies provided by the physics (e.g., latent heating due to cloud formation), and hereafter referred to as the forcing. In global atmospheric models, where the unresolved scales are both important and vast, the horizontal forcing scale, or D, is related to the resolution the grid is able to support [see Supplementary Figure 1 in Herrington and Reed, 2018].

Figure 5a shows the wave-number power spectrum of the forcing on the GLL grid in the middle-to-upper troposphere, where stratiform heating is common due to detrainment of moisture by the deep convections scheme [Zhang and McFarlane, 1995]. The variance is larger for higher wavenumbers in ne30pg3 and ne30pg2, as compared with ne20pg3, supporting the notion that D is larger in ne20pg3. The larger D in ne20pg3 is consistent with the scale analysis in that the frequency of large magnitude ω is lower, compared with the ne30pg2 and ne30pg3 simulations.

The ne30pg2 spectra is remarkably similar to the ne30pg3 spectra (Figure 5a), consistent with their similar distribution of large magnitude ω in Figure 5b. These figures suggest that D is very similar in ne30pg2 and ne30pg3. This can be further illustrated through scaling the PDF's,

$$P(\omega_s) = \alpha \times P(\omega/\alpha),\tag{12}$$

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. Using the scale equation for W, and assuming that D is linearly related to the grid-spacing, and that B_0 and H are unchanged or compensating, $\alpha = \Delta x_{target}/\Delta x$, where Δx is the grid spacing and Δx_{target} is the grid spacing of the target resolution. Here, Δx_{target} refers to the ne30pg3 grid.

If D is in fact determined by the physics grid spacing, Δx_{phys} , then one sets $\Delta x = \Delta x_{phys}$ in α for the ne30pg2 simulation. This scaled PDF, however, severally overestimates the frequency of upward ω of the target resolution, ne30pg3 (Figure 5c), and it is clear that the similarity of the un-scaled PDF's indicate that D is determined by the dy-

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

namics grid spacing, Δx_{dyn} . The scaled ne20pg3 PDF agree's quite well with the ne30pg3 distribution, suggesting that the scale parameter α explains the difference in vertical motion between the two simulations.

The authors have determined that their are two reasons D is determined by the dynamics grid, and not the physics grid, in ne30pg2. The first reason, is that the hyperviscosity coefficients are a function of Δx_{dyn} , and therefore the same in the pg2 and pg3 simulations. The fourth-order hyperviscosity is rather scale selective, targeting near grid-scale features more so than a second-order operator. The difference in Δx_{phys} between pg2 and pg3 are small enough (a factor of 1.5) that the hyperviscosity renders this distinction somewhat ambiguous. The second reason D is determined by Δx_{dyn} , is that high-order mapping of the forcing terms from pg2, to the higher-resolution GLL and CSLAM grids helps to reconstruct scales that the pg2 grid cannot support.

The left panel of Figure 6a shows a close-up of the wave-number power spectrum of the forcing on the physics grid (dotted) and the GLL grid (solid). In ne30pg3 the, variance is similar, and even damped at higher wavenumbers (larger than 65) on the GLL grid relative to the physics grid. Through using high-order mapping in ne30pg2, the variance on the GLL grid is actually larger than on the pg2 grid, matching the variance of the ne30pg3 forcing on the GLL grid, as discussed earlier. Since ω is determined (albeit diagnostically) from the dynamics, the similar forcing variance on the GLL grid in ne30pg2 and ne30pg3 is consistent with the similar PDFs of ω on the GLL grid in the two simulations (see Figure 6, right panel). Repeating the ne30pg2 simulation, but using low-order mapping, i.e., piecewise constant mapping from pg2 to CSLAM and bilinear mapping from pg2 to GLL, the forcing variance on the GLL grid is similar, and even slightly less at high wavenumbers than the pg2 grid. Following suit, the frequency of large magnitude ω on the GLL grid in the low-order run is less compared to the default ne30pg2 simulation (Figure 6, right panel).

Through using the low-order mapping in ne30pg2, and by increasing the hyperviscosity coefficients to match the ne20pg3 simulation, the simulation more closely resembles the ne20pg3 run (Figure 5). In this case, D is more accurately determined by Δx_{phys} , since the scaled PDF matches the ne30pg3 simulation quite well. Therefore, at low resolution, our default ne30pg2 configuration does not indicate that the scales of motion are aliased to resolution of the coarser resolution physics grid, as they more closely resemble the ne30pg3 simulation.

3.3.2 High Resolution

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].

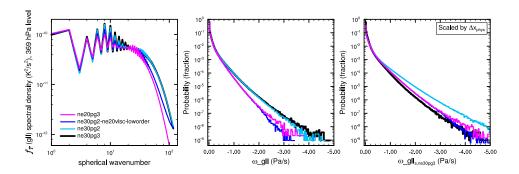


Figure 5. (Left) Wavenumber-power spectrum of the temperature tendencies from the moist physics, near the 369 hPa level, (Middle) probability density distribution and (Right) the scaled probability density distribution of upward ω everywhere in the model. The scaled distributions are scaled to ne30pg3 using Δx_{phys} .

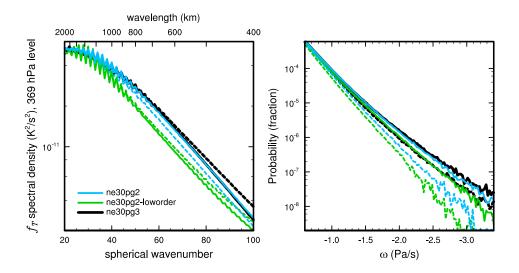


Figure 6. (Left) Wavenumber-power spectrum of the temperature tendencies from the moist physics, near the 369 hPa level, and (right) probability density distribution of upward ω , everywhere in the model, for three year-long aqua-planet simulations. Solid lines refer to values of on the dynamics grid, and dashed lines, the values on the physics grid. See text for details regarding the three simulations.

3.3.3 Across Resolutions

4 Conclusions

References

Dennis, J. M., J. Edwards, K. J. Evans, O. Guba, P. H. Lauritzen, A. A. Mirin, A. St-Cyr, M. A. Taylor, and P. H. Worley (2012), CAM-SE: A scalable spectral element dynamical core for the Community Atmosphere Model, *Int. J. High. Perform. C.*, 26(1), 74–89, doi:10.1177/1094342011428142.

Grinstein, F. F., L. G. Margolin, and W. J. Rider (Eds.) (2007), *Implicit Large Eddy Simulation: Computing turbulent fluid dynamics*, Cambridge University Press.

Herrington, A., and K. Reed (2018), An idealized test of the response of the community atmosphere model to near-grid-scale forcing across hydrostatic resolutions, *J. Adv. Model. Earth Syst.*, 10(2), 560–575.

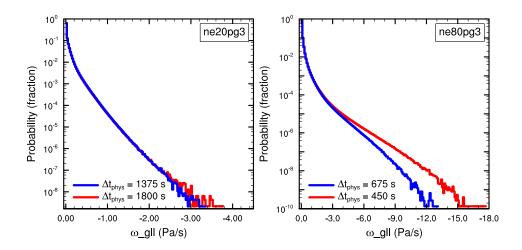


Figure 7. Probability density distribution of upward ω everywhere in the model in the aqua-planets for the ne20pg3 grid (Left) and the ne80pg3 grid (Right). Figure computed for one year of 6-hourly data. The different colors indicate the physics time-steps used in the runs.

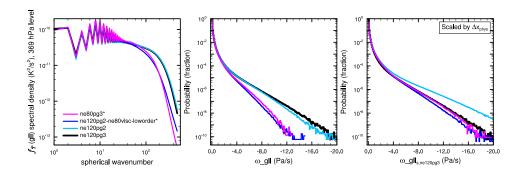


Figure 8. As in Figure 5, but for the high resolution simulations. Asterisks indicate that the physics timestep in these simulations are $\Delta t_{phys} = 675 s$, which is larger than those used in the default ne120 grid of $\Delta t_{phys} = 450 s$ (see Table ??).

Herrington, A., P. Lauritzen, M. A. Taylor, S. Goldhaber, B. E. Eaton, J. Bacmeister, K. Reed, and P. Ullrich (in revision), Physics-dynamics coupling with element-based high-order galerkin methods: quasi equal-area physics grid, *Mon. Wea. Rev.*

Herrington, A. R., and K. A. Reed (2017), An explanation for the sensitivity of the mean state of the community atmosphere model to horizontal resolution on aquaplanets, *J. Climate*, *30*(13), 4781–4797, doi:10.1175/jcli-d-16-0069.1.

Jablonowski, C., and D. L. Williamson (2011), The pros and cons of diffusion, filters and fixers in atmospheric general circulation models., in: P.H. Lauritzen, R.D. Nair, C. Jablonowski, M. Taylor (Eds.), Numerical techniques for global atmospheric models, *Lecture Notes in Computational Science and Engineering, Springer, 2010, in press.*, 80.

Lander, J., and B. Hoskins (1997), Believable scales and parameterizations in a spectral transform model, *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, *125*, 292–303., doi:10.1175/1520-0493.

Lauritzen, P., and J. Thuburn (2012), Evaluating advection/transport schemes using interrelated tracers, scatter plots and numerical mixing diagnostics, *Quart. J. Roy. Met. Soc.*, 138(665), 906–918, doi:10.1002/qj.986.

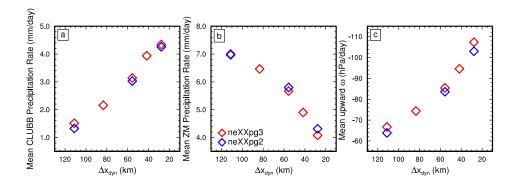


Figure 9. Year long mean values, averaged over $\pm 10^{\circ}$ latitude.

- Lauritzen, P. H., J. T. Bacmeister, P. F. Callaghan, and M. A. Taylor (2015), Ncar global model topography generation software for unstructured grids, *Geoscientific Model Development Discussions*, 8(6), 4623–4651, doi:10.5194/gmdd-8-4623-2015.
- Lauritzen, P. H., M. A. Taylor, J. Overfelt, P. A. Ullrich, R. D. Nair, S. Goldhaber, and R. Kelly (2017), CAM-SE-CSLAM: Consistent coupling of a conservative semilagrangian finite-volume method with spectral element dynamics, *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 145(3), 833–855, doi:10.1175/MWR-D-16-0258.1.
- Lauritzen, P. H., R. Nair, A. Herrington, P. Callaghan, S. Goldhaber, J. Dennis, J. T. Bacmeister, B. Eaton, C. Zarzycki, M. A. Taylor, A. Gettelman, R. Neale, B. Dobbins, K. Reed, and T. Dubos (2018), NCAR CESM2.0 release of CAM-SE: A reformulation of the spectral-element dynamical core in dry-mass vertical coordinates with comprehensive treatment of condensates and energy, J. Adv. Model. Earth Syst., doi: 10.1029/2017MS001257.
- Medeiros, B., D. L. Williamson, and J. G. Olson (2016), Reference aquaplanet climate in the community atmosphere model, version 5, *J. Adv. Model. Earth Syst.*, 8(1), 406–424, doi:10.1002/2015MS000593.
- Neale, R. B., and B. J. Hoskins (2000), A standard test for agcms including their physical parametrizations: I: the proposal, *Atmos. Sci. Lett*, *1*(2), 101–107, doi:10.1006/asle.2000. 0022.
- Neale, R. B., C.-C. Chen, A. Gettelman, P. H. Lauritzen, S. Park, D. L. Williamson, A. J. Conley, R. Garcia, D. Kinnison, J.-F. Lamarque, D. Marsh, M. Mills, A. K. Smith, S. Tilmes, F. Vitt, P. Cameron-Smith, W. D. Collins, M. J. Iacono, R. C. Easter, S. J. Ghan, X. Liu, P. J. Rasch, and M. A. Taylor (2012), Description of the NCAR Community Atmosphere Model (CAM 5.0), NCAR Technical Note NCAR/TN-486+STR, National Center of Atmospheric Research.
- Pauluis, O., and S. Garner (2006), Sensitivity of radiative–convective equilibrium simulations to horizontal resolution, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 63(7), 1910–1923.
- Randall, D., M. Khairoutdinov, A. Arakawa, and W. Grabowski (2003), Breaking the cloud parameterization deadlock, *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 84(11), 1547–1564.
- Shutts, G. (2005), A kinetic energy backscatter algorithm for use in ensemble prediction systems, *Quart. J. Roy. Meteorol. Soc.*, 131, 3079–3102.
- Skamarock, W. (2011), Kinetic energy spectra and model filters, in: P.H. Lauritzen, R.D. Nair, C. Jablonowski, M. Taylor (Eds.), Numerical techniques for global atmospheric models, *Lecture Notes in Computational Science and Engineering, Springer*, 80.
- Skamarock, W. C., S.-H. Park, J. B. Klemp, and C. Snyder (2014), Atmospheric kinetic energy spectra from global high-resolution nonhydrostatic simulations, *Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences*, 71(11), 4369–4381, doi:10.1175/JAS-D-14-0114.1.

- Taylor, M., J. Edwards, and A. St-Cyr (2008), Petascale atmospheric models for the community climate system model: new developments and evaluation of scalable dynamical cores, *J. Phys.: Conf. Ser.*, 125, doi:10.1088/1742-6596/125/1/012023.
- Wedi, N. P. (2014), Increasing horizontal resolution in numerical weather prediction and climate simulations: illusion or panacea?, *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences*, 372(2018), doi: 10.1098/rsta.2013.0289.
- Williamson, D. L. (1999), Convergence of atmospheric simulations with increasing horizontal resolution and fixed forcing scales, *Tellus A*, *51*, 663–673, doi:10.1034/j. 1600-0870.1999.00009.x.
- Zhang, G., and N. McFarlane (1995), Sensitivity of climate simulations to the parameterization of cumulus convection in the canadian climate center general-circulation model, *ATMOSPHERE-OCEAN*, 33(3), 407–446.