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1 Ambitious partnership needed for reliable climate prediction

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10 Summary

11 Current global climate models struggle to represent precipitation and related extreme events, with

12 serious implications for the physical evidence base to support climate actions. A leap to kilometre-

13 scale models could overcome this shortcoming but requires collaboration on an unprecedented

14 scale.

15 Introduction

16 Water is Earth's life blood and fundamental to our future. Hydro-meteorological extremes (storms,

17 floods and droughts) are among the costliest impacts of climate change, and changes in the

18 seasonality and natural variability of precipitation can have profound effects on many living systems,

19 in turn threatening our food security, water security, health, and infrastructure investments. Yet the

20 current generation of global climate models struggle to represent precipitation and related extreme

21 events, especially on local and regional scales^{1,2}. The model precipitation biases are substantial in

22 both space and time, and in the Tropics, they overwhelm the projected signal of climate change³.

23 Despite decades of enormous efforts by the community, these biases have remained stubbornly

24 intractable^{1,2} (Box 1). Consequently, future scenarios of precipitation remain very uncertain in the

25 IPCC Assessments to date⁴. As water is an essential resource for humans and ecosystems, these

26 shortcomings complicate efforts to effectively adapt to climate change, particularly in the global

27 south, and to assess the risk of catastrophic regional changes.

28 There are, however, even more fundamental reasons to be concerned about these biases. The heat

29 released when tropical precipitation is formed is a fundamental driver of the global circulation –

30 from the Hadley and Walker Circulations to the position and variability of mid-latitude jet streams

31 and related weather patterns. So, these precipitation biases have impacts throughout the climate

32 system. For example, latent heat release plays a key role in spreading the effects of El Niño globally,

33 with consequences for regional climate and weather regimes across the world⁵ (Box 1).

34 The global precipitation biases of current models cannot be ignored. They affect many parts of our

35 physical climate science evidence base, from mitigation through to adaptation and climate risk

36 assessment. If the water cycle and global circulation patterns are affected, then so may be cloud

37 feedbacks, contributing to ongoing uncertainties in climate sensitivity. Likewise, the regional-to-

38 local downscaling methods that underpin our climate change impact assessments are also likely to 39

be compromised. Regional models cannot correct the inherent biases in the weather and climate 40

systems fed from the global models. Consequently, future statistics of local extreme events, on 41 which the design of adaptation measures rely strongly, come with significant uncertainties.

42

With advancements in our understanding of climate processes and modelling, and with new 43

supercomputing and data management technologies, the pieces are falling into place to make a step 44 change in our ability to address these challenges.

45 The case for k-scale modelling 46 These fundamental shortcomings in simulating precipitation can be overcome. The solution lies in

47 representing, explicitly, the nature of rain-bearing systems. For many parts of the world, these are

48 dominated by mesoscale convective systems (MCSs) or complexes (Box 2). MCSs account for much

49 of Earth's precipitation⁶, they generate severe weather events and flooding, and they affect the

50 evolution of the larger-scale regional and global circulation.

51 The organization, structure and maintenance of MCSs are governed firstly by the basic ingredients

52 for deep convection (moisture, instability and lift), but more importantly, by how vertical wind shear

53 interacts with convective updrafts, downdrafts and related cold pools⁷ (Box 2). This symbiotic

54 relationship between thermodynamic heating and the kinematics of the system is crucial for the

55 growth and intensity of MCSs. Yet this occurs at scales finer than can be explicitly represented by

current global (and many regional) models that form the basis of our present climate informationsystem.

58 The traditional approach of using parametrization to represent deep convection is not proving to be

59 a tractable approach for capturing MCSs, nor is it any longer an approximation borne of necessity. k-

60 scale limited-area models have already demonstrated that a step-change to these scales

61 revolutionises the simulation of local precipitation and its spatial and temporal characteristics,

62 including extreme events, by explicitly representing the kinematics of MCSs^{8,9}. Moreover, we now

63 have access to global climate impact models, such as flood and water resource models, which are

64 ready to ingest k-scale precipitation to determine the future impact of water cycle changes on

65 humanity with much greater confidence¹⁰.

66 Beyond precipitation, k-scale global models will solve many of the problems standing in the way of

67 reliable predictions of regional and local climate change. The realism afforded by these systems will

68 inform future changes in climate and weather regimes, in damaging local weather events, in the

69 interactions between landscape management and the climate, in ocean currents and the take up of

70 heat and carbon, along with the consequences for marine and terrestrial biospheres. The benefits

71 will go far beyond just the future of our water to tell us about other societally relevant issues such as

72 coastal inundation, habitat loss, disease spread, wildfire risk, air quality, crop, fishery and forest

73 yields, and renewable energy potential.

74 The way forward

75 The scientific case for moving to k-scale global climate modelling is irrefutable, but the task is

formidable. Nevertheless, the scientific and technological advances are within our grasp^{11,12}, with

prototype systems already demonstrating the realism of k-scale simulations (Fig. 1)¹³. The

78 international scientific workforce now needs to be mobilized to bring together the intellectual

79 firepower and the computational resources to achieve this quantum leap.

80 We therefore call for a new level of international collaboration that optimises our resources around

81 this common goal - to build, at pace, a new generation of k-scale global ensemble prediction systems

82 that can provide reliable and regularly updated predictions of our evolving physical climate risks,

83 embracing everything from daily weather to decadal climate variability, conditioned by global

84 warming trends.

85 The steps to realising this grand ambition require the creation and resourcing of a federated group

86 of leading modelling centres, linked to state-of-the-art Exascale computing and data facilities,

87 providing a shared environment in which the development and evaluation of this new generation of

88 models can be accelerated beyond current national efforts. There needs to be a shared R&D

89 programme designed around the goal of delivering timely, detailed, consistent and actionable k-

90 scale global climate predictions within 5 years.

91 As a rough estimate, based on experience with current k-scale simulations, expected technological

92 advances and other evidence¹², moving from 100km to k-scale climate model horizontal grids implies

93 of order 2²⁰ increase in compute power. Machines with that level of capability are being built¹⁴, but

- 94 they are general purpose machines, not dedicated solely to climate prediction. Thus, climate
- 95 simulations compete with other applications for computing resources on these machines, meaning
- 96 that they are not able to reach their full potential. Only with dedicated machines that are able to
- 97 deliver the capability to optimally schedule and perform the diverse range of workflows (e.g.
- 98 executing physics-based model simulations alongside a variety of machine-learning
- 99 training/application suites) will the quantum leap to k-scale predictions be achievable within the
- 100 near future when it matters most.
- 101 **Fig. 1** Simulation of clouds in a global k-scale climate model¹³.
- 102 The challenge is not just one of computational throughput, however. The avalanche of data from k-
- 103 scale models will also mean a profound shift in how users will interact with the predictions. The
- 104 applications will need to be taken to the data, and this will mean using new hard and soft
- 105 technologies, such as federated data management, advanced visualisation and machine learning.
- 106 New data platforms and data management techniques, to store the data and provide the tools to
- 107 extract information from the model output, will need to be part of this endeavour. These break-
- $108\,$ $\,$ through predictions will be an invaluable resource for the global community to take the necessary $\,$
- 109 measures to adapt to and mitigate climate change. They are effectively the first and fundamental
- 110 steps towards building digital twins of the Earth's physical climate system¹⁵ and its interaction with
- 111 human behaviour.
- 112 So how much will this all cost? Considering current costs of experiments with k-scale models and
- 113 assumptions on future computing systems, we estimate that such a project would cost a sustained
- 114 investment of \$200M/year in computational and data technologies, and a further \$50M/year in
- 115 dedicated human resources. This investment must be weighed against the cost of not doing it. The
- 116 world already bears huge human and financial losses from weather and climate events, and these
- 117 will only grow as climate changes. At COP26 the call to at least double finance for adaptation was
- 118 welcomed by the Parties, taking it to 50% of the pledge to provide 100 billion dollars annually from
- 119 developed to developing countries. We have the responsibility to ensure that these investments are
- 120 spent wisely, based on the best possible climate evidence base. Observed through such a lens, the
- 121 benefits of this initiative outweigh the investment by many orders of magnitude.
- 122
- 123

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143 Author contributions

- 144 JS led the writing of the manuscript, drawing on expertise from all the authors; she also contributed
- expert knowledge of tropical convection and its role in the global climate system. PBates provided
- expertise in hydrological modelling; PBauer provided expertise in exascale computing and digital
- 147 technologies; SB provided evidence of the impact of k-scale regional climate projections; TP
- 148 provided expertise on multi-scale atmospheric dynamics and climate predictability; GS provided 149 expertise on clouds and Earth Observation: BS contributed pioneering global k-scale simulations; TS
- expertise on clouds and Earth Observation; BS contributed pioneering global k-scale simulations; TS
 provided expertise in IPCC climate evidence base; GT provided supporting evidence for k-scale
- 151 models based on climate applications. All authors reviewed, revised and approved the final version.
- 152 **Competing Interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.
- 153

154 Box 1: The fundamental role of tropical precipitation in driving the global circulation.

- 155 **Box Fig. 1.** Response to tropical convection and the impact of model biases. **a** Schematic showing the
- 156 circulation anomalies generated by deep heating from tropical convection⁵. **b** Observed average
- 157 tropics-wide precipitation response (mm/day) to a El Nino, and as simulated by climate models for
- $158 \qquad \text{the current climate in successive IPCC Assessments}^1.$
- 159
- 160 The warm oceans of the Indonesian region supply an abundance of moisture to the atmosphere,
- 161 turning the whole region into an atmospheric "boiler box". Deep convective clouds release huge
- 162 amounts of energy into the atmosphere through condensation. This heat source drives giant,
- 163 overturning circulations in the atmosphere, the Hadley and Walker cells, which feed into the jet
- streams and lead to weather and climate changes far downstream⁵ (Box Fig. 1a). The circulation
- 165 anomalies generated by deep heating from tropical rainfall excite Rossby waves that perturb the

166 jetstream and create conditions that favour high impact weather situations in the extra-tropics.

167 These global teleconnections are therefore fundamental to predicting regional climate change.

168 Consequently, variations in these warm ocean temperatures, such as El Nino, can drive large shifts in

169 tropical rainfall with profound worldwide consequences¹.

170

171 The observed, average rainfall response to El Nino events (Box Fig. 1b) shows large reductions in

172 rainfall over Indonesia and a tropics-wide pattern of reduced and enhanced rainfall. Climate model

173 average rainfall biases for simulated El Nino events across successive IPCC assessments demonstrate

174 an inverse pattern of similar magnitude to the observed signal (Box Fig. 1b), which has remained

175 largely unchanged for over 2 decades¹. The failure of models to capture the observed rainfall

176 response limits confidence in predictions of the current and future impacts of El Nino and may 177 disproportionately affect regions of the world where population growth is largest and the needed

178 capital for adaptation is the scarcest.

179

180 Box 2: Mesoscale Convective Systems (MCSs)

181 Box Fig. 2 Structure of MCSs and their importance for precipitation. a International Space Station 182 image of typical MCSs. **b** Conceptual model of an MCS⁷. **c** Percentage of MCS precipitation to total 183 precipitation⁶.

184 Mesoscale Convective Systems (MCSs) describe important organized groupings of convective storms

185 in the tropics and mid-latitudes (Box Fig. 2a). The conceptual model of an MCS shows the flows of

186 air through the system and how they contribute to intensification of the updraft along the storm

187 front (Box Fig. 2b)⁷. Medium and dark shading indicate regions of intense precipitation. The spatial

188 extent of the whole MCS is typically 100km or larger, but the updrafts that generate the intense

189 precipitation are typically less than 10km.

190 MCSs dominate precipitation over many parts of the world (Box Fig. $2c)^6$. They generate severe

191 weather events and flooding, and they affect the evolution of the larger-scale regional and global

192 circulation. Over the Great Plains of the US, MCSs account for around 50% of the annual warm

193 season rainfall, and also drive tornado development. Over West Africa nearly all the rainfall is

194 associated with MCSs, and it is these systems that form the embryos of Atlantic hurricanes.

195

196 Much of the extreme rainfall in mid-latitude land areas also comes from MCSs, often causing deadly 197

and destructive flash flooding, as was the case in summer 2021 in the severe floods in Germany, the 198

inundation of New York from Storm Ida, and the staggering amounts of rain that fell in Liguria,

199 northern Italy (181 mm of rainfall in just 1 hour and over 900 mm in 24 hours). In all cases, the most 200 intense downpours were associated with clusters or lines of MCSs.

201

202







