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Scientific Paper No. 26

## Some issues in numerical methods for the next generation of NWP and climate models

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October 1994

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## 1 Introduction

The U.K. Meteorological Office has used the same atmospheric model for all forecasting and climate simulation applications since 1992, Cullen (1993). This is both a result of the need to provide a large range of forecast and advisory services efficiently, and also because of the belief that the same scientific methods of simulating atmospheric behaviour will be appropriate regardless of the application. The need for such 'universal methods' is widely recognised and is even more essential when considering models which have large resolution variation within a single run, such as the stretched grid ARPEGE system, Courtier and Geleyn (1988).

In this paper we discuss the numerical methods used in this 'unified' model. We first summarise the methods used in the first version of the model, and the reasons for the choices. Though the model was introduced operationally in 1991-2, the choices of formulation to be used had to be largely finalised in 1989. Since then, there has been a great deal of development of improved numerical algorithms. An example is the greatly increased acceptance of the semi-Lagrangian method for treatment of advection. In this paper we therefore discuss the numerical techniques proposed for the next major upgrade of the 'unified' model. The two main themes are seeking improved model performance by more accurate treatment of the balanced part of the flow, and increasing the applicability of the model to small scales by including non-hydrostatic effects. The resulting design is

described in section 3 , and idealised tests of some aspects of it illustrated in section 4.

## 2 The current unified model integration scheme

Any integration scheme used for a forecast model has to be very efficient, because timeliness is a key factor, and the benefits of high horizontal and vertical resolution have been frequently demonstrated. In climate modelling, accuracy at low resolution is very important. Conservation properties are also desirable, both to ensure satisfactory long-term integration behaviour, and to allow proper studies of the thermodynamic and energy budgets from control and perturbation runs in climate change experiments. The integration scheme used in the initial version of the unified model was chosen to be as close to the existing methods used in the U.K. Meteorological Office as possible, while meeting the above requirements. Thus the model used finite difference methods, with a latitude-longitude grid. The algorithm was based on the very efficient split-explicit scheme of Gadd (1978) which was already used for global and limited area forecasting. This was adapted to meet climate model requirements by making it conservative. The key steps were to compute the gravity wave terms, including vertical advection of a basic state potential temperature profile, in short timesteps, and using the average mass-weighted velocity from the short timesteps in calculating the advection terms. Time-smoothing is

applied to the fields within the sequence of short timesteps. The advection terms are approximated by a two step second or fourth order Heun scheme. The method is described in detail by Cullen and Davies (1991). Fourier filtering is used to keep the model stable at high latitudes. This is done conservatively by filtering mass-weighted increments to the thermodynamic variables and mass-weighted velocity fields. A conservative diffusion term is used to remove small scale noise. The use of a deformation dependent nonlinear diffusion scheme of the form  $\frac{1}{\mu} \nabla \cdot \mu K(\underline{u}) \nabla$ ,

where  $\mu$  is a mass-weighting term, was found to be insufficiently scale selective for use at low resolution, and a scale selective form  $(\frac{1}{\mu} \nabla \cdot \mu \nabla)^n$ , where  $n$  is usually chosen to be 2 or 3, was

used instead. In order to increase the accuracy, particularly of global climate integrations, the more accurate form of the primitive equations discussed by White and Bromley (1995) was used.

The performance of the combined advection, diffusion and filtering scheme is illustrated on one of the test problems introduced by Williamson et al. (1992). The fourth order approximation to advection is used. The advection scheme used on its own generates large oscillations if the advecting velocity is not parallel to a line of latitude, but it is the combination of the schemes that is actually approximating the transport in the full numerical model. Fig. 1 compares the performance of the

scheme with the alternative of using a 'monotone' advection scheme, Morton and Sweby (1987), and a semi-Lagrangian advection scheme (Bates et al. (1990)) where the advecting velocity is at an angle of  $15^\circ$  to the lines of latitude. A  $96 \times 73$  grid has been used. Fig.2 shows the variation of the r.m.s. error with diffusion coefficient. Note that the error for the optimum range of diffusion coefficient is lower than that given by the monotone scheme. The unified model scheme performs better than the others in retaining peak amplitude, but is the worst in the distortion of the shape and requires a timestep much lower than that required for linear stability. However, when the scheme is used in the complete model, dispersion of noise by gravity waves allows the full expected timestep to be used and there is no evidence that the performance is significantly improved by reducing the timestep below the value needed for stability. The use of the fourth order Heun scheme is essential to obtain results of this quality in the test problem. However, the sensitivity of the complete model to the choice between second and fourth order schemes at forecast resolutions (grid lengths less than 100km) has been slight.

The performance of the unified model is found to be remarkably insensitive to horizontal resolution in many respects. Fig. 3 illustrates the simulation of the southern hemisphere circumpolar jet from 10 year integrations using  $96 \times 73$  and  $288 \times 217$  grids as compared with a climatology derived from U.K. operational analyses. Many other large scale aspects of the model

performance, such as the zonal mean temperature cross-sections, are similarly insensitive. This suggests that in seeking further improvements to the model performance it is necessary to review the numerical methods and the physical parametrizations, as well as increasing the resolution further to allow more detail to be simulated.

### 3 Issues for the proposed new integration scheme

#### a *Overall requirements*

The purpose of the new scheme is to improve the performance of the model and to increase its scope by including non-hydrostatic effects. Noting the limited sensitivity of the high resolution versions of the model to the simulation of advection, a major attempt is made to improve the simulation of the balanced part of the flow, in particular of the geostrophic adjustment process. As well as improving the model's performance in forecast mode, it is hoped that the performance of the data assimilation will be improved as well, since much forecast error results from inaccurate analyses. Both requirements lead to the use of semi-implicit integration schemes. It is then natural to consider the use of semi-Lagrangian advection. This allows the maximum timestep to be used commensurate with accuracy, and as illustrated in section 2, reduces distortion of the advection when the flow is not aligned with the grid. There have been doubts about the accuracy of semi-Lagrangian methods when applied in low resolution models. However, the detailed investigation

reported by Williamson and Olson (1994) shows that these losses in accuracy have resulted from using insufficiently accurate interpolation procedures within the method, usually in order to save computer time. In addition, it has been shown, for instance by Priestley (1993), that it is possible to modify the methods so that they satisfy the conservation properties important for climate modelling.

b *Treatment of balanced flow*

There has been considerable study of the finite difference treatment of the geostrophic adjustment process using the shallow water equations, for instance Arakawa and Lamb (1977). This shows that, for non-time staggered schemes and provided the grid length is less than the Rossby radius of deformation, the 'C' grid arrangement of variables is best, followed by the 'B' grid. Schemes based on vorticity and divergence are at least as good in this respect. There has been much less study of the appropriate treatment of variables in the vertical, because of the tendency to think of a three-dimensional model as a set of shallow water models generated by a decomposition into vertical eigenmodes. However, recent studies such as Arakawa and Moorthi (1987) and Leslie and Purser (1992) have shown that the geostrophic adjustment properties of the 'Charney-Phillips' vertical arrangement of variables are superior to those of the 'Lorenz' arrangement, Fig.4. This is illustrated by the problem, important in data assimilation, of calculating height increments to balance wind increments. Fig. 5 illustrates the

error made if we convert wind increments to geostrophically consistent height increments, using a best fitting algorithm on the Lorenz grid, and then recalculating the wind increments geostrophically from the height increments, (P.Andrews, private communication). Errors of up to 50% result. On the Charney-Phillips grid this process can be carried out without error.

Though the use of the 'C' grid is well established in finite difference models, the Charney-Phillips grid has been unfashionable recently. One exception is the new Canadian regional model, Tanguay et al. (1990). The reasons are the difficulty of ensuring energy conservation, important in climate modelling, and the more awkward interface to the physics calculations because different variables are held at different places in the vertical column. In particular, the calculations within the boundary layer parametrization may require extra averaging. A method of solving the energy conservation problem is described below and idealised tests of the boundary layer representation are illustrated in section 4.

Cullen (1989) described and validated numerical methods for the semi-geostrophic equations in a vertical cross-section. This work should be a guide to other aspects of numerical methods important in treating balanced flow accurately. The use of the Charney-Phillips vertical grid was found essential to obtain stable results. Because the equations were implicit in some variables, a semi-implicit method had to be used. Within the method an elliptic equation for a pressure correction was derived

and solved, and the results substituted back to complete the update of the other variables. It was necessary to use flow dependent coefficients in the terms treated implicitly, rather than extracting a constant coefficient problem in the usual way. The coefficients had to be selected to maximise the ellipticity of the pressure correction equation. In addition, accurate treatment of all the components of the pressure gradient term within the implicit step was found necessary to obtain satisfactory solutions over orography. In the two-dimensional problems solved in that paper it was sufficient to solve the variable coefficient elliptic equation by iterating a constant coefficient solver. However, this might not be adequate in a three dimensional problem.

c *Non-hydrostatic integration schemes*

A number of atmospheric models have recently been extended to include non-hydrostatic effects. Techniques where a pressure-based coordinate is retained have been popular, because the conversion job is easier, Dudhia (1993), Laprise (1992). The 'unified' model currently uses a hybrid pressure-based coordinate from which the pressure at each level has to be recalculated every timestep. Since it is more natural to use a height based vertical coordinate, especially if the full compressible Navier-Stokes equations are used and since pressure and height are then both available at all points, the interface to the physics routines does not need radical change to accommodate this. An area of difficulty, however, is the use of two time-level

schemes. In the unified model, a two time level scheme is used with great advantage, as different timesteps can easily be employed for different processes, and coupling the atmosphere to other models is also simpler because a single time level of data provides a well-defined interface. Skamarock and Klemp (1992) demonstrated and analysed instabilities in many two time level split schemes for the non-hydrostatic equations. Golding (1992) used such a scheme successfully, but found it necessary to use a basic state temperature profile in the semi-implicit method very close to the actual state. This would not be practical in a global model. It is therefore proposed that a basic state profile is not used when selecting those parts of the equations to be treated implicitly. This requires the use of a variable coefficient solver for the implicit equations.

d *Implementation aspects*

Both requirements that the new scheme seeks to satisfy lead to the need to solve a variable coefficient elliptic equation. Efficient solution methods for these are therefore necessary. One of the most robust efficient method for use in computational fluid dynamics is considered to be the multigrid method. Application of this to meteorological problems is discussed by Fulton (1986). However, there are still doubts about its robustness for problems such as flow over orography, and other methods may yet prove superior.

The use of this type of semi-implicit method provides a way of satisfying the energy conservation requirement on the Charney-

Phillips grid. Proof of energy conservation requires that the updates to the variables comprising the equation of state are calculated consistently. On the Charney-Phillips grid, the vertical staggering of the potential temperature from the pressure and density causes the difficulty. The solution is to generate the pressure correction equation by using an estimate of the vertically averaged potential temperature at the new time level calculated as

$$\overline{\theta}^{n+1z} = \overline{\theta}^{nz} + \underline{u} \cdot \nabla \overline{\theta}^z \quad (1)$$

rather than

$$\overline{\theta}^{n+1z} = \overline{\theta}^{nz} + \overline{u^z} \cdot \nabla \overline{\theta}^z \quad (2)$$

The update of  $\theta$  using the corrected pressure and consequential corrected winds is made using the normal (semi-lagrangian) advection. Further mathematical details are outside the scope of this paper.

#### 4 Tests of the proposed scheme

The scheme is being tested on the full suite of shallow water test problems described by Williamson et al. (1992) and various published test problems which address the performance of the scheme in the vertical. We first describe results to test the proposed use of the Charney-Phillips vertical grid staggering.

In order to take advantage of published results, these tests were carried out within the non-hydrostatic model of Golding (1992). This uses most of the features of our proposed integration scheme, except that it uses a fixed reference temperature profile in the semi-implicit integration scheme.

a *Eady wave test*

This is a simulation of the Eady-wave model of cyclogenesis in which a growing wave forms from a finite perturbation to a baroclinically unstable atmosphere. The experiment is similar to that of Nakamura and Held (1989). Their results were obtained using a hydrostatic primitive equation model, and were chiefly concerned with the process of equilibration which occurs after the magnitude of the wave peaks at around day 7. The process of equilibration is complex and in a recent paper, Nakamura (1994), it is suggested that the details are dependent on the form of horizontal diffusion. Since a semi-Lagrangian model has no added diffusion (and different intrinsic diffusion associated with the interpolation scheme), we compare results only for the first seven days of the simulation.

The non-hydrostatic equations are solved in a vertical  $(x, z)$  cross section on an  $f$ -plane at  $45^\circ\text{N}$ . All the variables are periodic in  $x$  with the domain length equal to the wavelength of the initial disturbance. The basic state is the same as that in Williams (1967) and consists of vertically sheared zonal flow in thermal wind balance with potential temperature. The pressure

field is in hydrostatic balance with the temperature. All fields are assumed independent of  $y$  (the north-south coordinate) except for the basic state potential temperature and pressure.

The domain size was 4000km in length and 10km deep. The grid lengths used in the simulation were 31.25km in  $x$  and 240m in  $z$ . The basic state satisfies  $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} = -10^{-5}$ ,  $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = 3.9 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $f = 10^{-4}$ . The

perturbation to the basic state coincides with the fastest growing eigenmode, as in Williams (1967). A short timestep of 100s was required at the end of the evolution when the gradients and velocities associated with the wave were very large.

The solutions on the two vertical grids were very similar for the first five days, when the fields are quite smooth. Fig 6 compares the results after 6 and 6.25 days, which are illustrative of the differences during days 5 to 7. There is considerably more noise in the Lorenz grid solution, especially near the upper boundary. The vertical velocity results (not shown) show stronger gravity wave activity on the Lorenz grid just below the upper boundary. The increased gravity wave activity is typical of the Lorenz grid solutions throughout the latter stages of the evolution. By day 7 the solution on the Charney-Phillips grid is also beginning to suffer from noise. The results support those of Arakawa and Moorthi (1987), also showing that their conclusions apply to non-hydrostatic models.

#### *b Boundary layer treatment*

A possible disadvantage of the Charney-Phillips grid is the

implementation of the boundary layer scheme. Since the velocities are held at different levels from the thermodynamic variables, extra interpolations are required in implementing most standard parametrization schemes. Tests have therefore been carried out to assess whether these interpolations degrade the simulations.

The boundary layer scheme tested is based on that used by Golding (1993). The scheme calculates a turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) with the shear  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$  and vertical stability  $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}$  acting as the

main generating factors. The tests used both the version of the scheme with prognostic and diagnostic TKE, only the latter is illustrated. On the Charney-Phillips grid, the vertical shear and vertical stability are naturally calculated at different levels. There is a choice as to at which of these levels to hold the TKE, determining whether velocity or temperature variables have to be interpolated in calculating the generation terms. Both choices were tested.

The first experiment illustrated is a one-dimensional simulation of the evolution of the boundary layer at Wangara following data taken on 16 August 1967. This is a standard test bed for boundary layer parametrizations, e.g. Yamada and Mellor (1975), Golding (1993). Simulations using the Lorenz grid are compared with the two methods of implementation on the Charney-Phillips grid.

The integration is initialised at 0600LST. Potential temperature, TKE, and u velocity were inspected at regular

intervals up to 2400LST, illustrated in Fig. 7. The experiment shows the response of the boundary layer as the solar heating of the land surface produces TKE and a subsequently well-mixed boundary layer. The land surface then cools and the TKE dies away, allowing a shallow inversion approximately 10 metres deep to form. At this point there is a little TKE above the immediate surface generated by wind shear.

All the integrations give similar results up to 1800LST. After this time the Charney-Phillips integration which interpolates the velocity variables retains more TKE giving too much mixing and failure to form an inversion. The integration interpolating temperature variables gives similar results to the Lorenz grid.

A second experiment illustrates the interaction of the boundary layer scheme with the dynamics in a two-dimensional simulation. The simulation is of the development of fog at Perth (Western Australia) on the 27th of April 1990. The domain represents a cross section normal to the coast, with an idealised representation of the orography. The coast is 60km from the western boundary, with 30km of flat plain at 1m above sea level to its east. This is terminated by a 10km wide scarp rising linearly to a plateau at 300m. The horizontal resolution used was 5km. Experiments were performed using the vertical resolution of Golding (1993) (Appendix 1). North-south derivatives are ignored except for a fixed pressure gradient term in the y-momentum equation. The synoptic situation and surface roughness and

moisture availability are as described by Golding. The radiative forcing was, however, simplified to use constant prescribed day and night-time heating rates.

The simulations are initiated at 1900LST. Nine hours of simulated nocturnal cooling is represented by a fixed rate of downward radiative flux of  $314\text{Wm}^{-2}$ . The downward radiative flux is then increased linearly over one hour to  $1000\text{Wm}^{-2}$  at which it is held for a further two hours as a representation of dawn and daytime heating. Golding describes the nocturnal evolution as follows: 'Winds coming off the sea are approximately westerly with speed  $8\text{ms}^{-1}$ . The rough land surface rapidly decelerates the near-surface air allowing the surface temperature to drop. A highly turbulent boundary layer has developed on the scarp together with a weak easterly drainage flow that locally raises wind speed and temperatures and reduces humidity where it flows out onto the plain. These effects are diluted by surface cooling as it spreads onto the plain, but the enhanced shear generates turbulence. Between westerly winds from the sea and the easterly drainage flow, a stagnation point has formed with associated weak uplift connected to the main scarp-driven ascent. This localised reduction in horizontal wind, and the associated drop in turbulent mixing, allow saturation to occur in the lowest model layers. At the same time, the upward motion associated with the convergent wind flow assists in deepening the saturated layer.'

Fig.8 shows the wind and potential temperature cross-sections using the Charney-Phillips grid with temperature

variables interpolated and the Lorenz grid at 4.00LST. At this time the drainage flow is reaching a maximum. The differences are small. The area of descent is slightly greater if the Charney-Phillips grid is used. It is not possible to state which solution is preferable. A similar conclusion applies at other times. If the Charney-Phillips grid is used with momentum variables interpolated (not shown), there are considerable differences, including large vertical oscillations in the TKE. This is consistent with the results from the one-dimensional tests.

It is felt that these results show that the boundary layer simulation is not degraded by using the Charney-Phillips grid.

*c One dimensional behaviour of compressible model*

The proposed implementation of the integration scheme recommended in section 3 uses a different way of constructing the semi-implicit scheme from that of Golding (1992), in particular working from a residual in the equation of state. The test described by Golding is thus repeated, in which perturbations to a vertical column of air 16km high are simulated with a grid of 40 points and rigid upper and lower boundary conditions. The column is initially at rest in hydrostatic balance and is perturbed with a steady fractional mass source of  $0.001s^{-1}$  at the 10th point above the bottom. This source corresponds to major diabatic forcing. A 60s timestep was used for the integrations. The steady state response is an almost universally increasing pressure, with a slight gradient required to support the vertical

motion required to redistribute the mass. On this are superposed the sound waves from the initial start-up. In the atmosphere the sound wave transients would not be of significant amplitude, and the open upper boundary condition would prevent resonance which is possible in this model.

Figures 9a) and b) show results comparable to Figure 2 (right hand pair of profiles) of Golding (1992). The vertical velocity field is shown at three consecutive timesteps. With centred implicit time differencing oscillations similar to those of Golding occur, but there is no tendency for them to amplify. With backward weighted time differencing ( $\alpha=0.7$ ) the transients disappear. Figure 9c) shows the results with centred time differencing using a mass source 10 times larger. There is again no unstable behaviour.

These results suggest that the basic structure of the time differencing scheme should be satisfactory.

## 6 Summary

We have presented a non-hydrostatic integration scheme which should be suitable for all applications of the unified model. Tests of some of the less usual aspects have been presented, giving satisfactory results. Further standard idealised tests are in progress and will be reported in due course.

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## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Solutions for advecting a cosine bell once round a sphere at an angle of  $15^\circ$  to the equator. The initial maximum value is 2000 units. (a) Fourth order Heun scheme with Fourier filtering and fourth order Laplacian diffusion, coefficient  $1.2 \times 10^8$ . (b) TVD scheme with Superbee limiter. (c) Semi-Lagrangian scheme.

Figure 2 Root mean square error after one revolution using different diffusion coefficients in the problem of Fig. 1. The dotted line indicates the error of the Superbee scheme.

Figure 3. Cross-section of the difference in zonal wind between multiyear climate model integrations and climatology obtained from UK Meteorological Office analyses. (a) High resolution,  $288 \times 217$  grid. (b) Standard resolution  $96 \times 73$  grid.

Figure 4. Position of the variables on the Charney-Phillips and Lorenz grids. ( $\pi$  = Exner pressure).

Figure 5. Comparison of retransformed geopotential increment field with wind derived geopotential increment field. The original geopotential field is derived from non-surface wind observations. The percentage error is determined by dividing the rms difference between the two fields by the rms value of the

original field, and multiplying by 100%. Note that a model eta level of 1 corresponds to the surface, and of zero to outer space.

Figure 6. Y velocity components in Eady wave integration. a) Lorenz grid at 6 days, b) Charney-Phillips grid at 6 days, c) Lorenz grid at 6<sup>1</sup>/<sub>4</sub> days, d) Charney-Phillips grid at 6<sup>1</sup>/<sub>4</sub> days.

Figure 7. Vertical profiles of; a) x-velocity, b) potential temperature, c) turbulent kinetic energy at 24.00 (LST). Charney-Phillips grid with velocity variables interpolated (dashed line), the Charney-Phillips grid with temperature variables interpolated (dotted line) and Lorenz grid (continuous line).

Figure 8. Results from the Perth fog simulation experiment at 4.00 (LST); a) Charney-Phillips grid, b) Lorenz grid. Horizontal wind velocity and direction (arrows), vertical velocity (light contours and zero contour dashed), potential temperature (heavy contours).

Figure 9. Vertical velocity profiles in perturbed columns. (a) with backward implicit weighting. (b) no damping. (c) with initial perturbation 10 times larger. Superimposed curves are for successive timesteps.

Heun + diffusion, 12 days  
 $\alpha = 15^\circ, k = 1.2 \times 10^8$

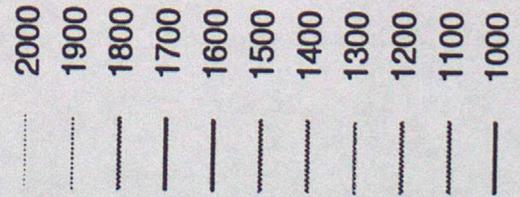
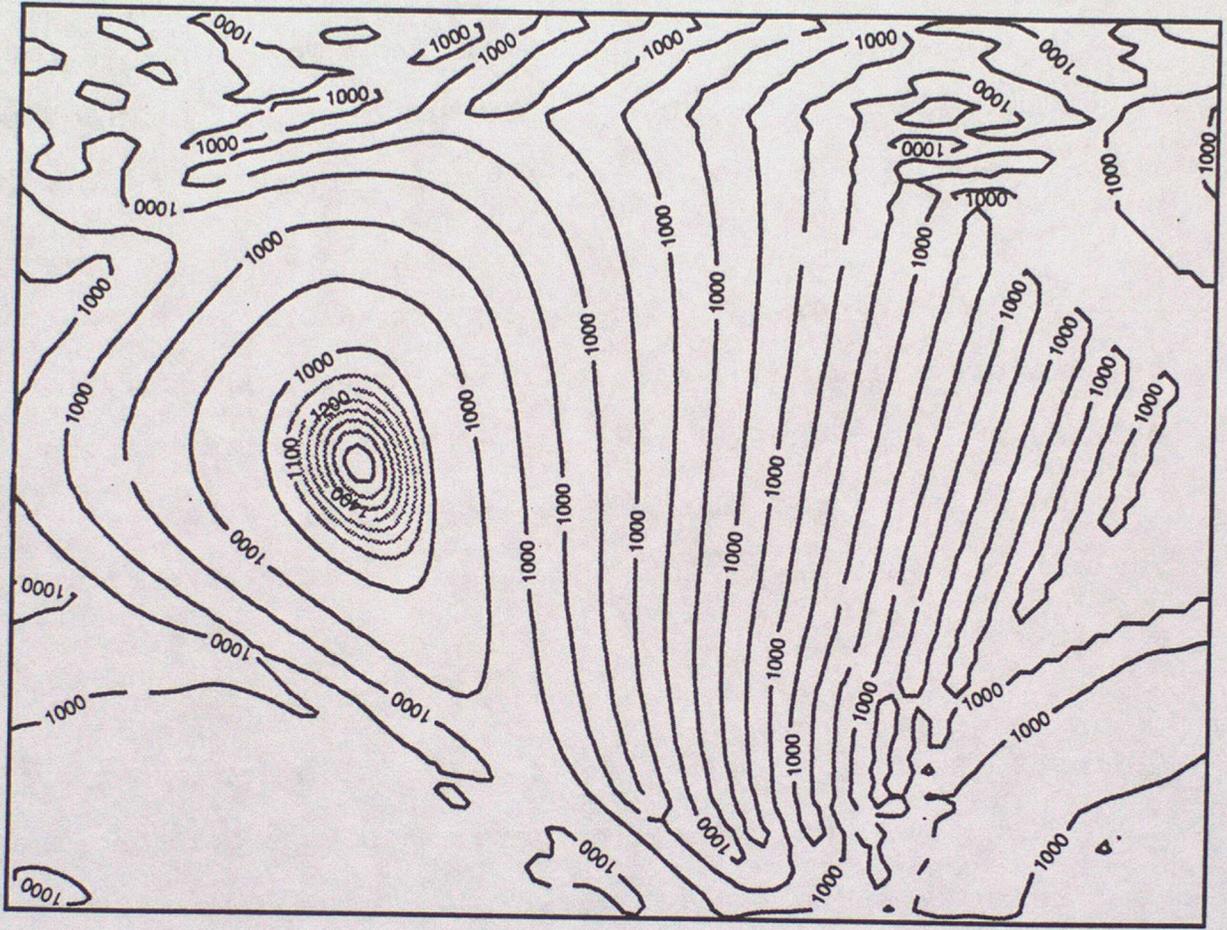


Fig 1(a)

TVD (superbee) 12 days

$\alpha = 15^\circ$

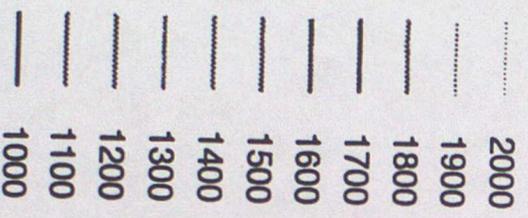
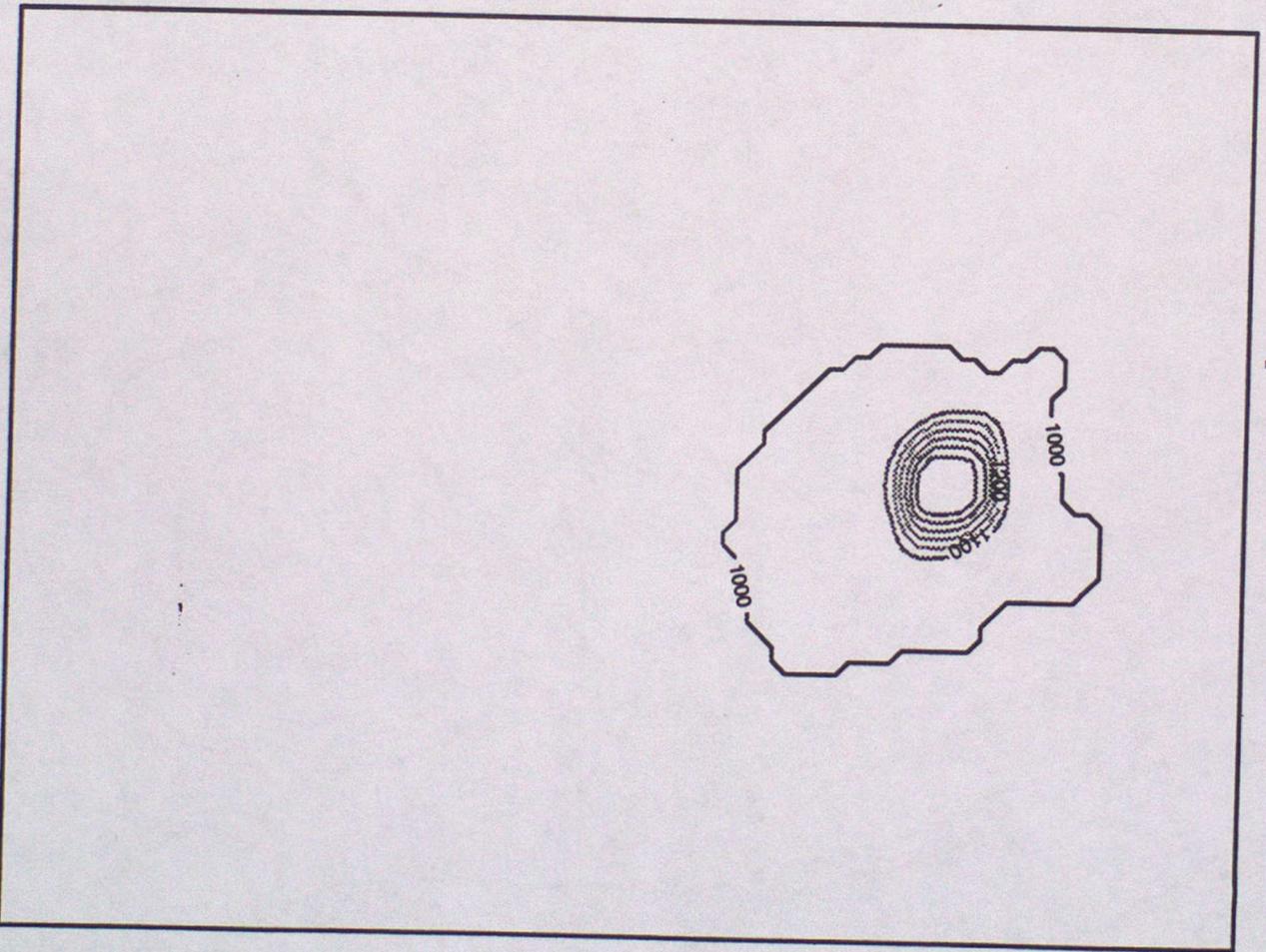


Fig 1(b)

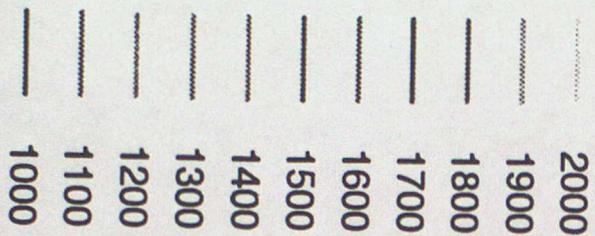
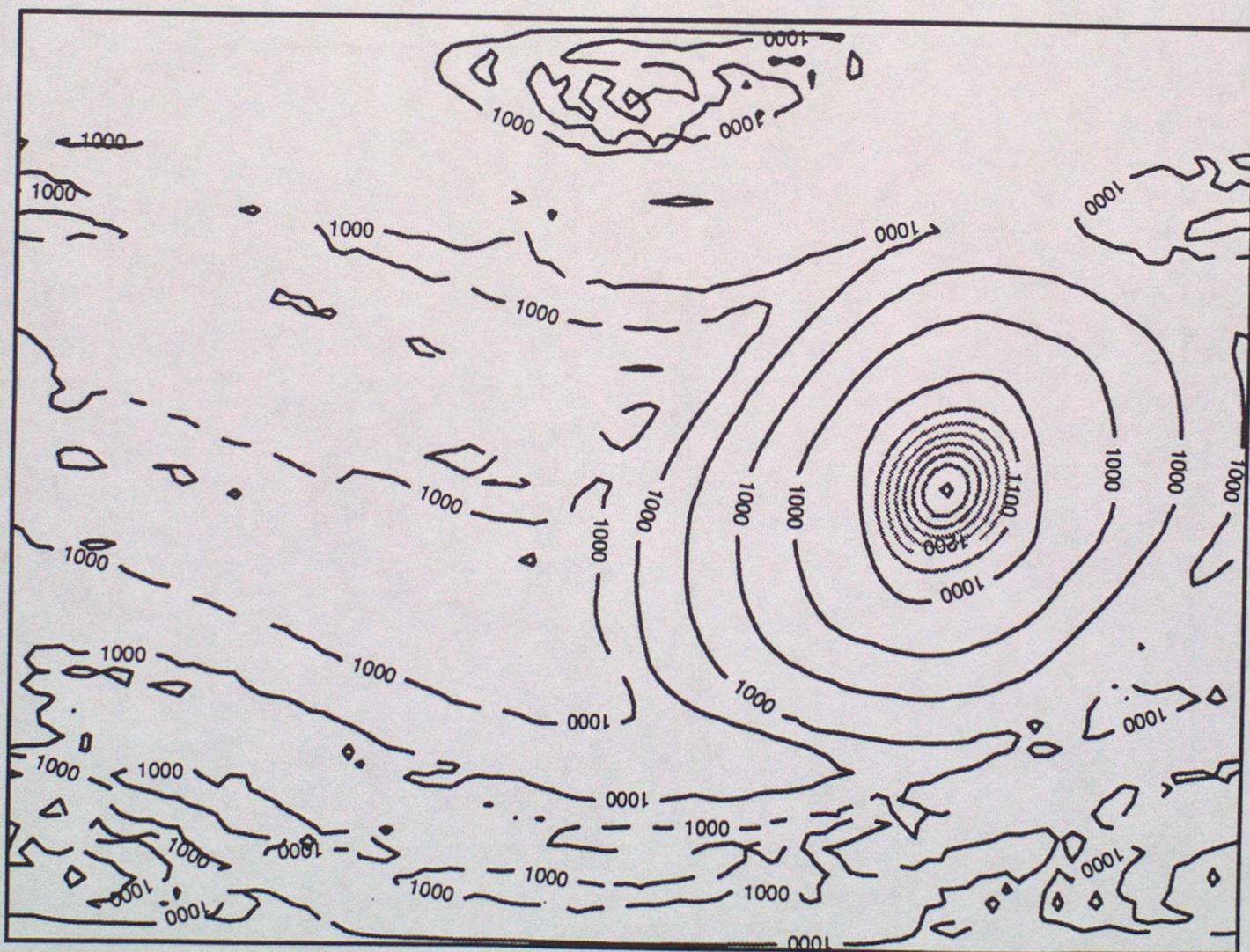
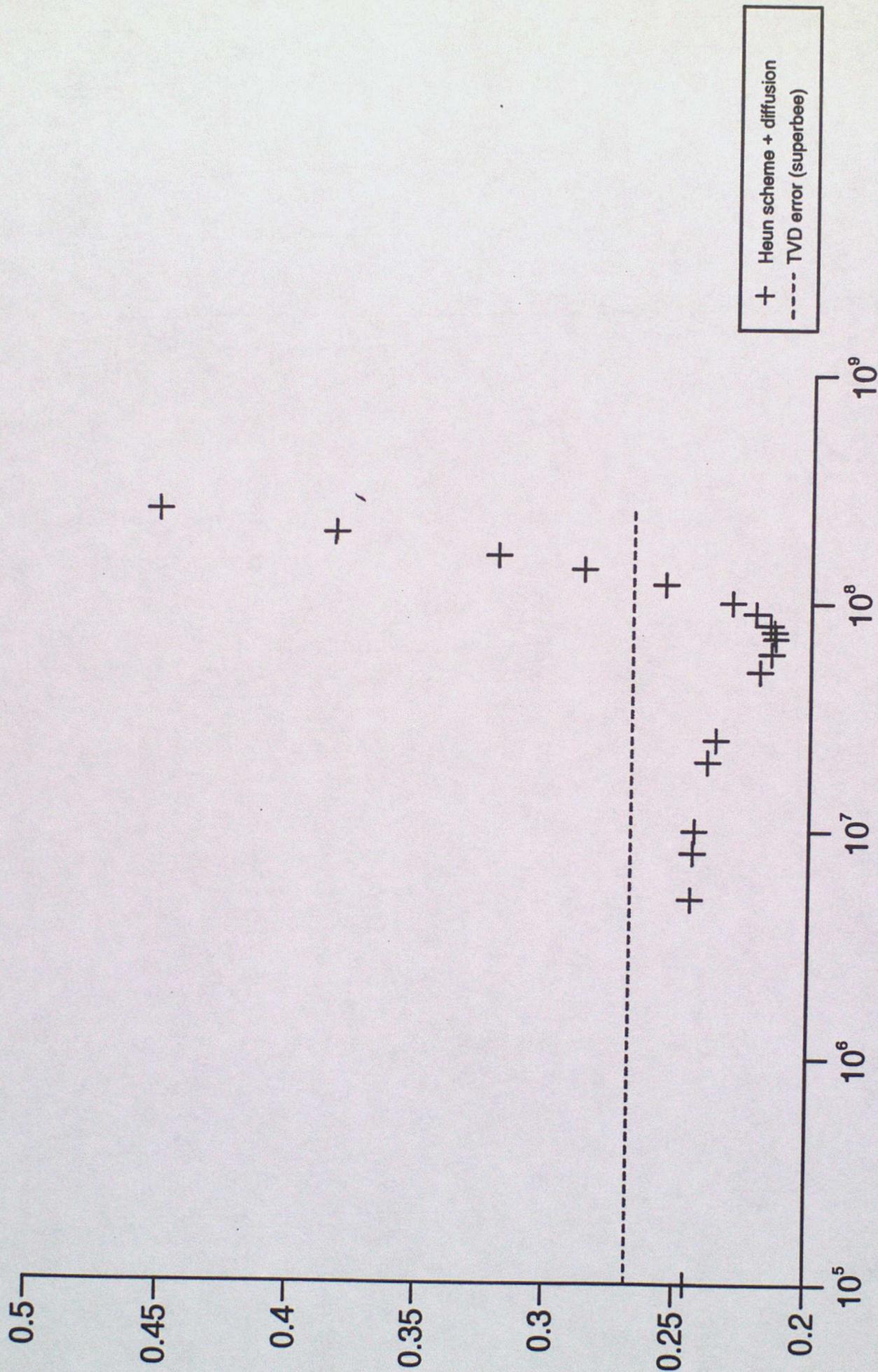


Fig 1(c)



# $l_2$ error vs diffusion coefficient



+ Heun scheme + diffusion  
---- TVD error (superbee)

Fig 2

High resolution climate model minus UK analysis climatology 1983-94  
Westerly component of wind for DJF

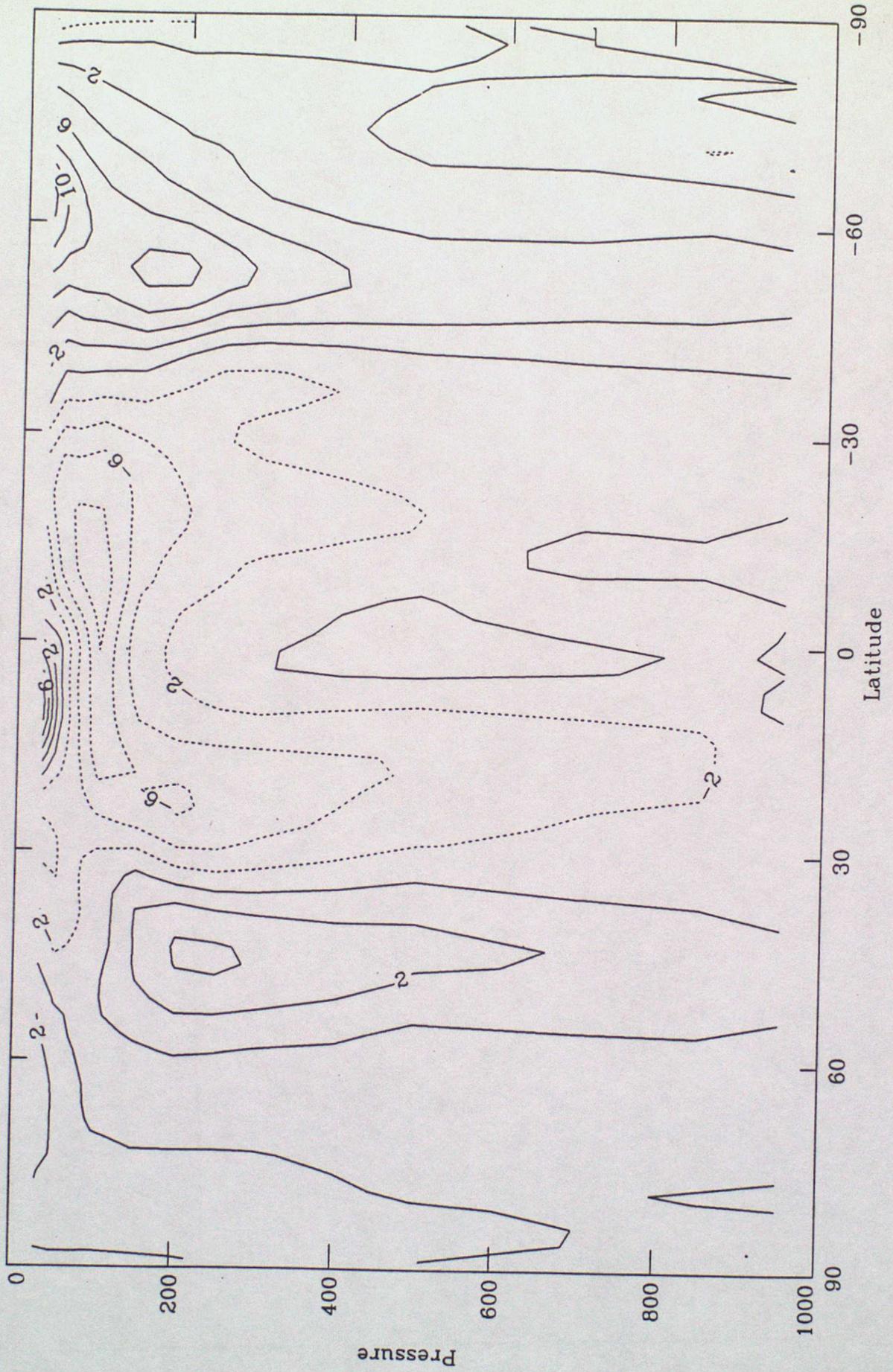


Fig 3(a)

2nd Climate version minus UK analysis climatology 1983-94  
Westerly component of wind for DJF

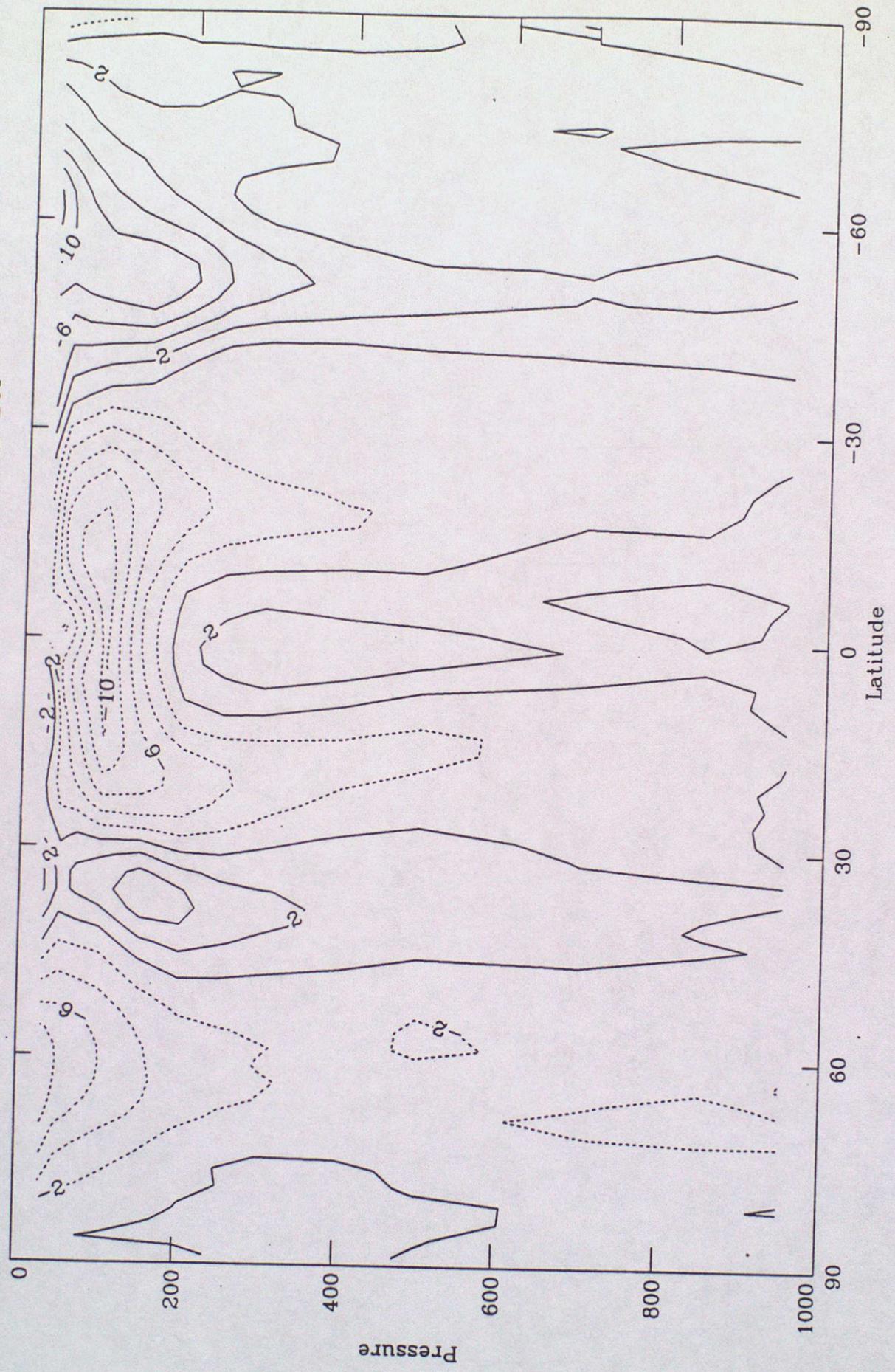


Fig 3(b)

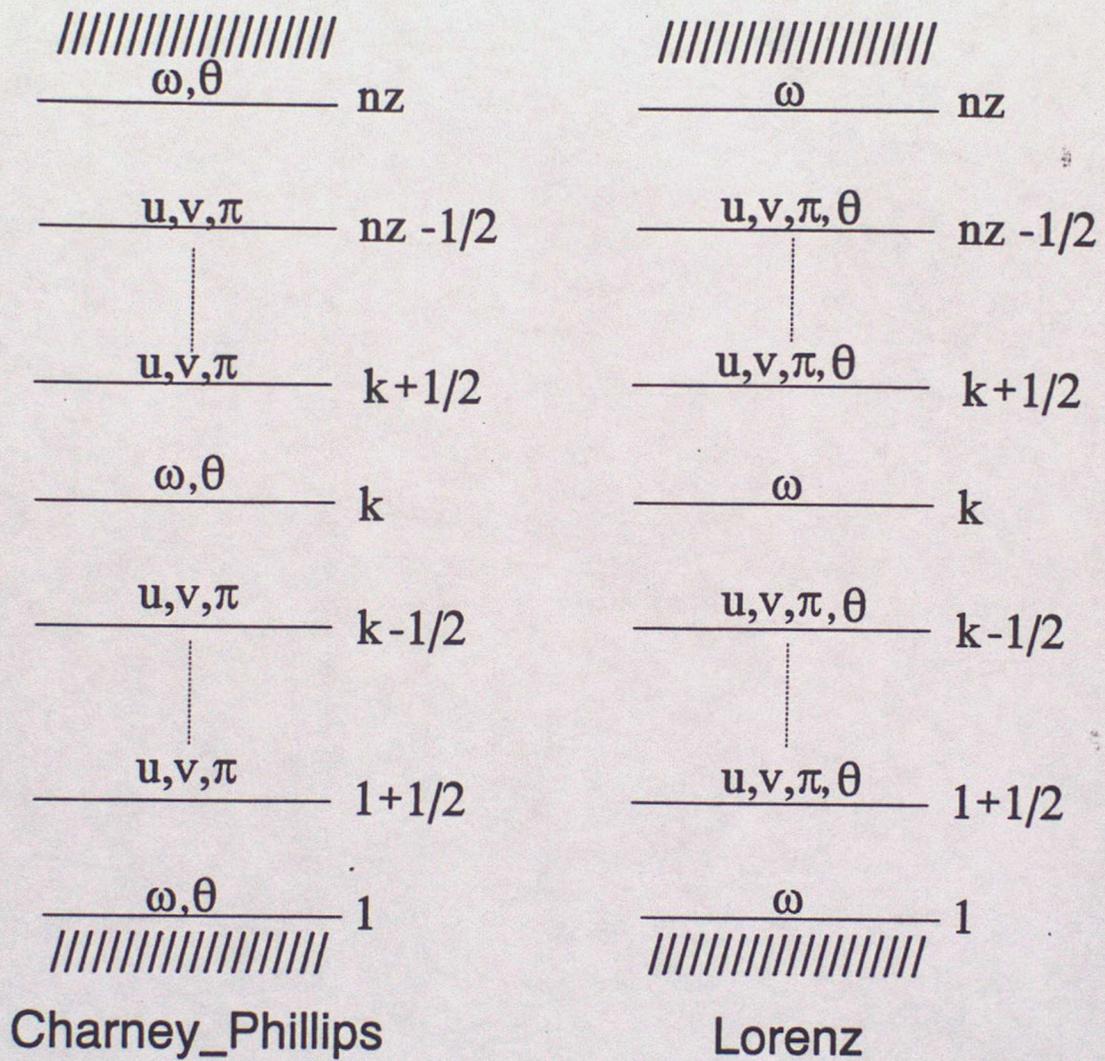


Fig 4

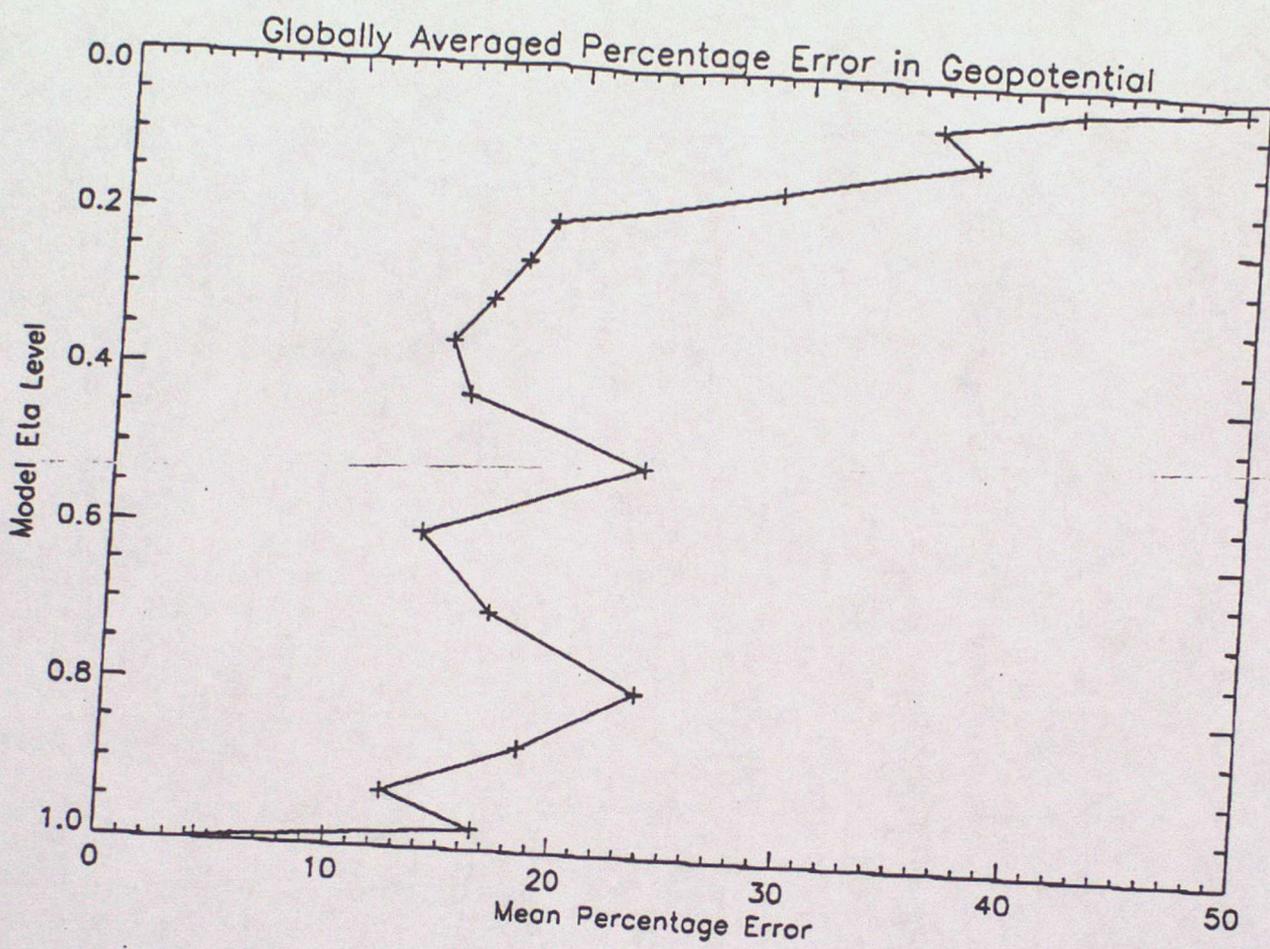


Fig 5

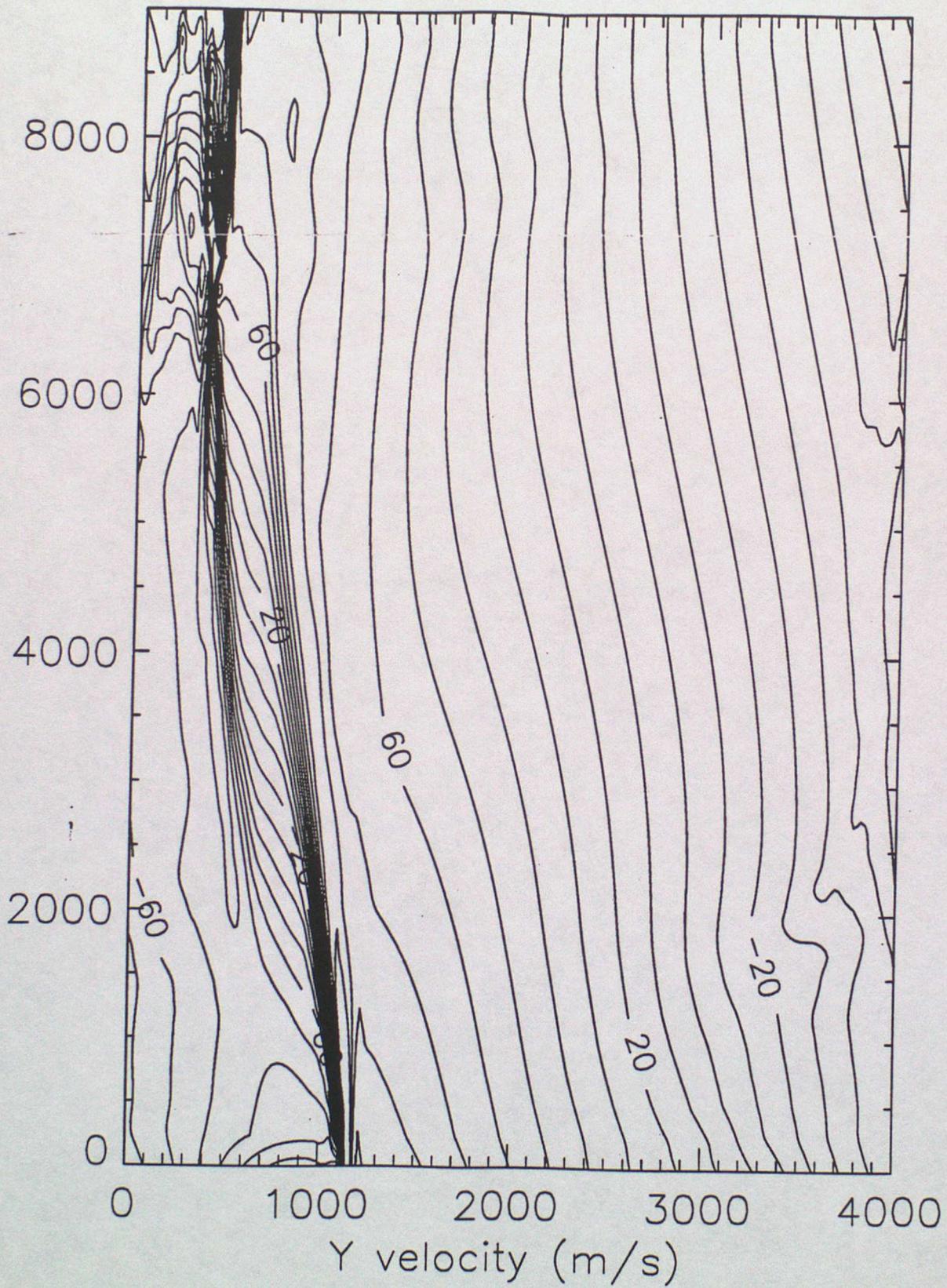


Fig 6(a)

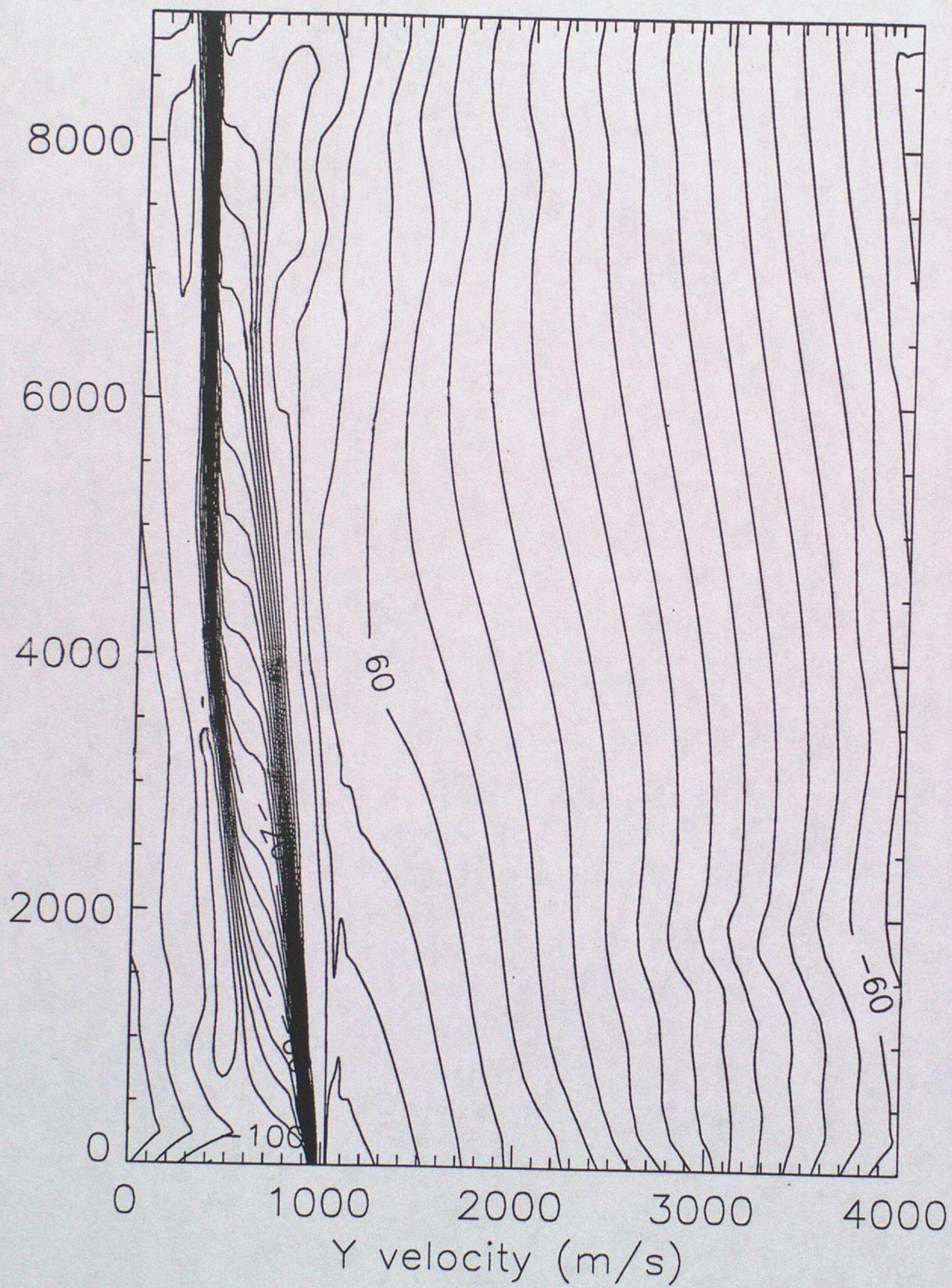


Fig 6(b)

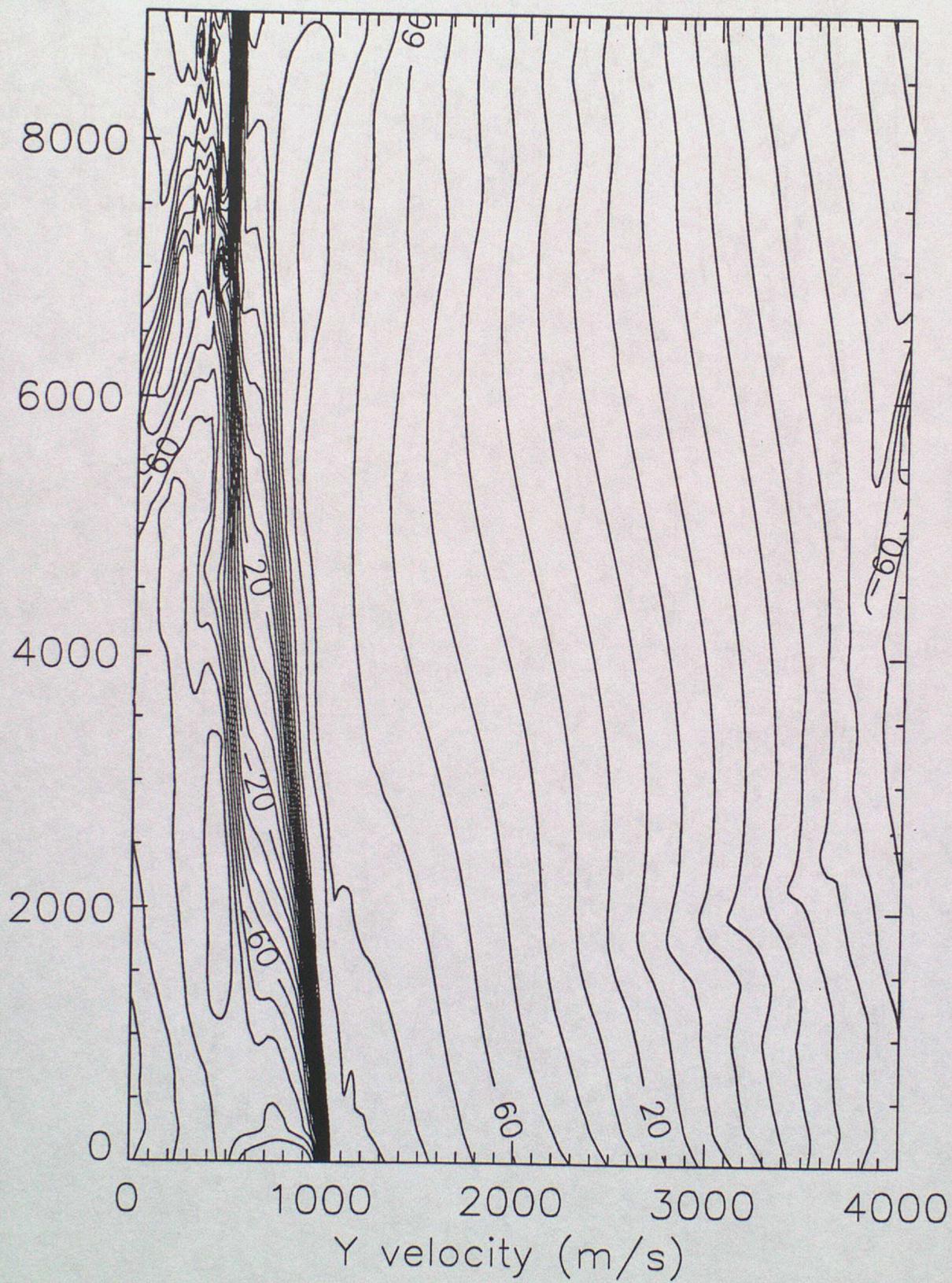


Fig 6(c)

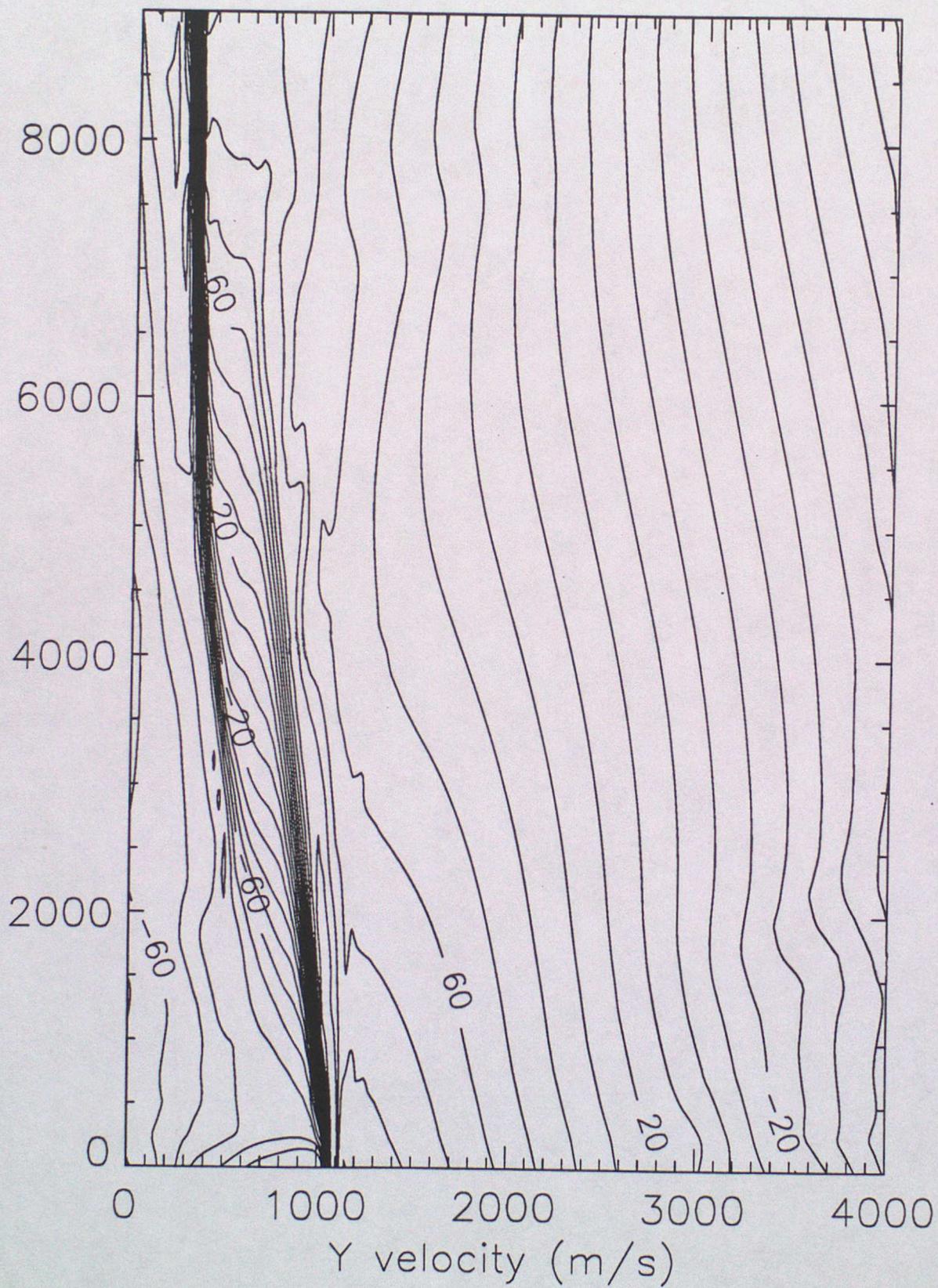


Fig 6(d)

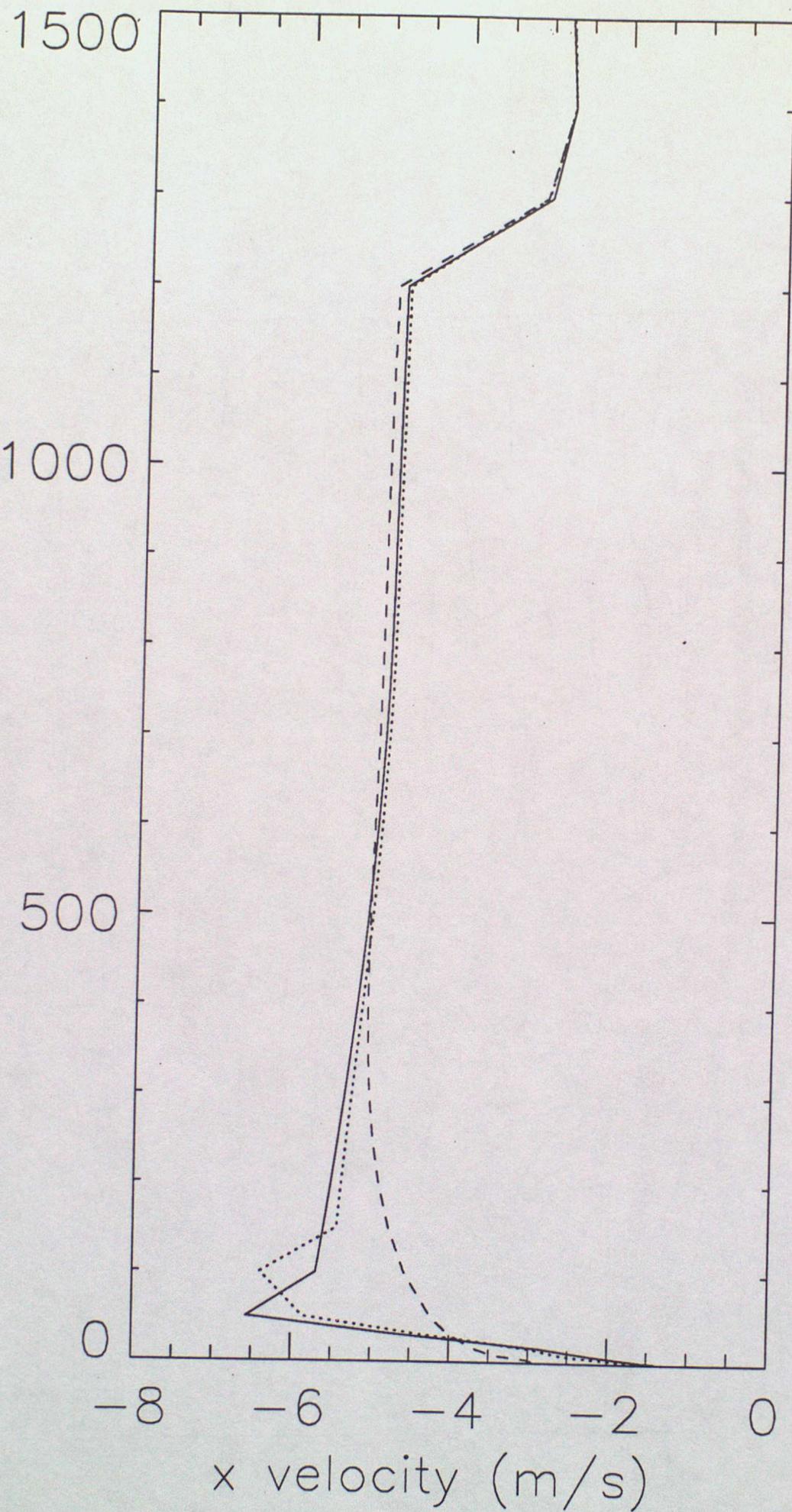


Fig 7(a)

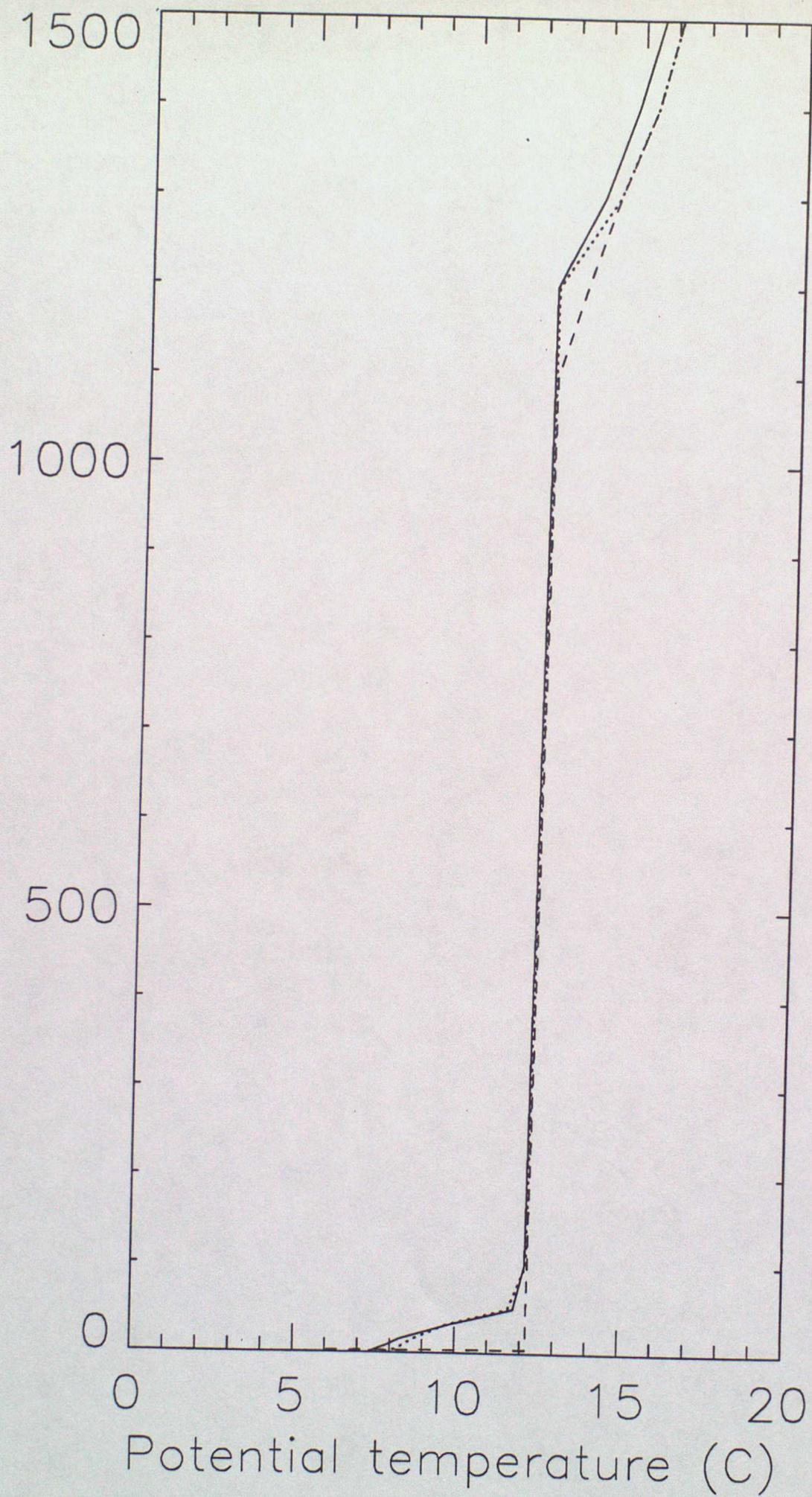


Fig 7(b)

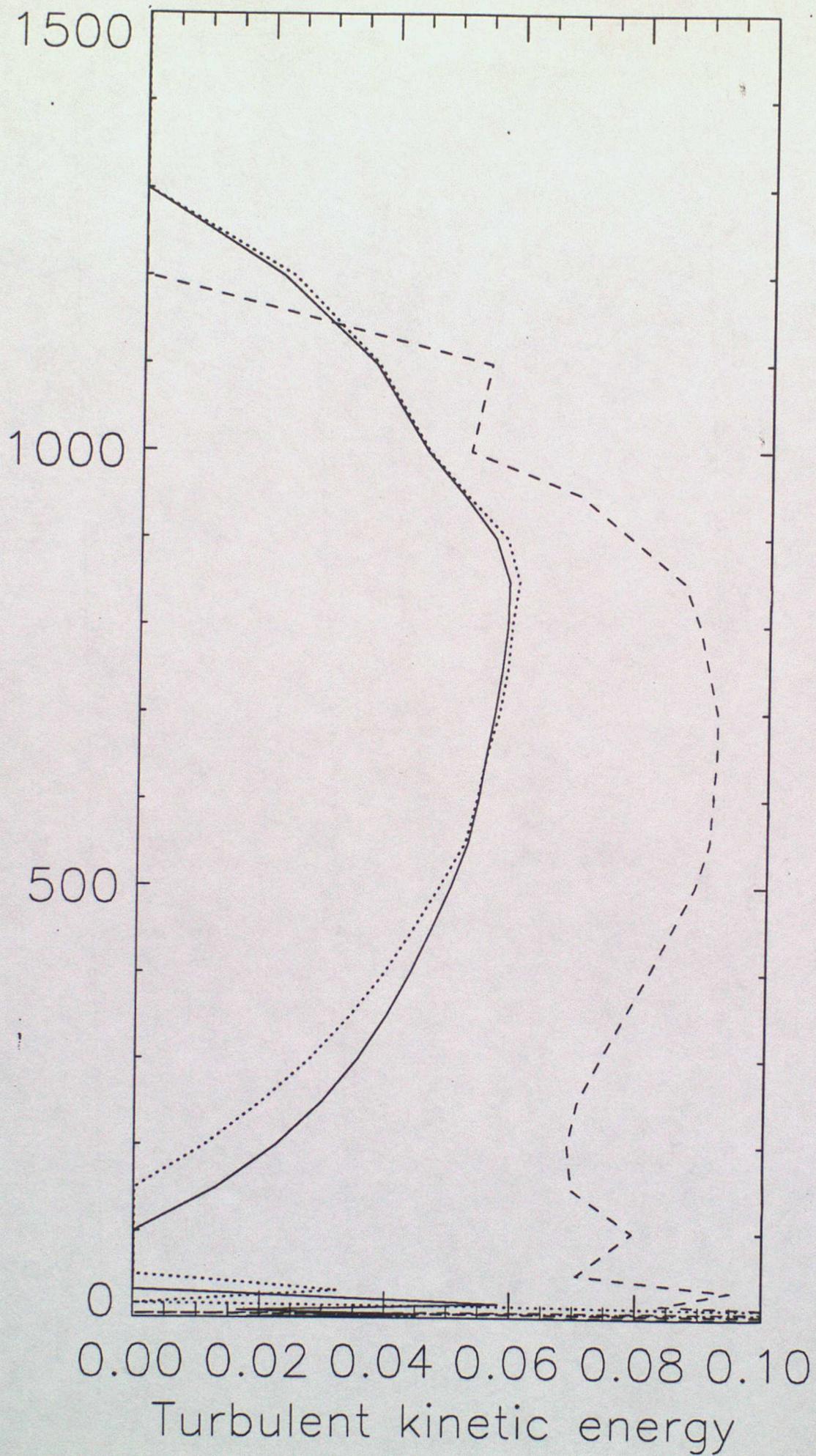


Fig 7 (c)

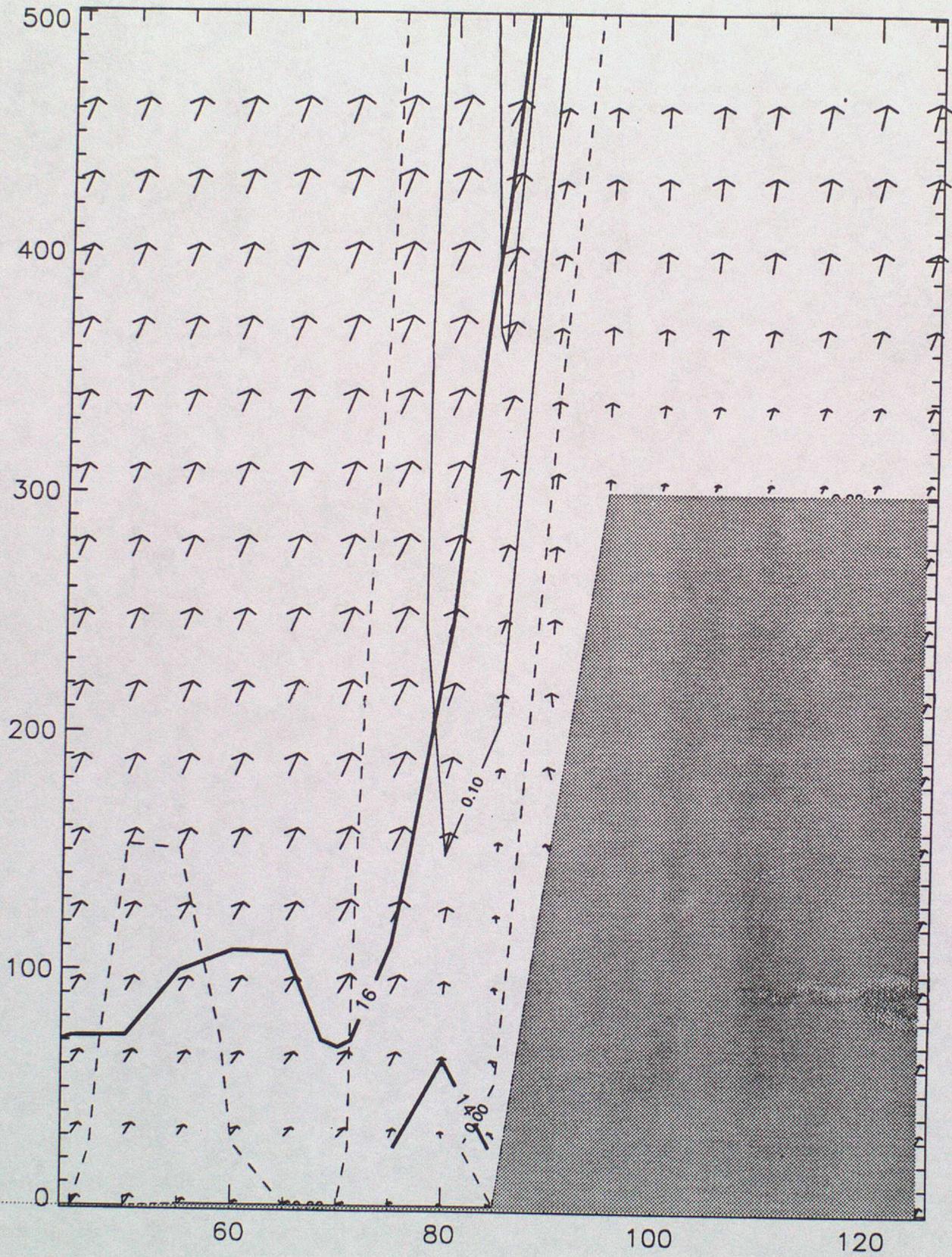


Fig 8(a)

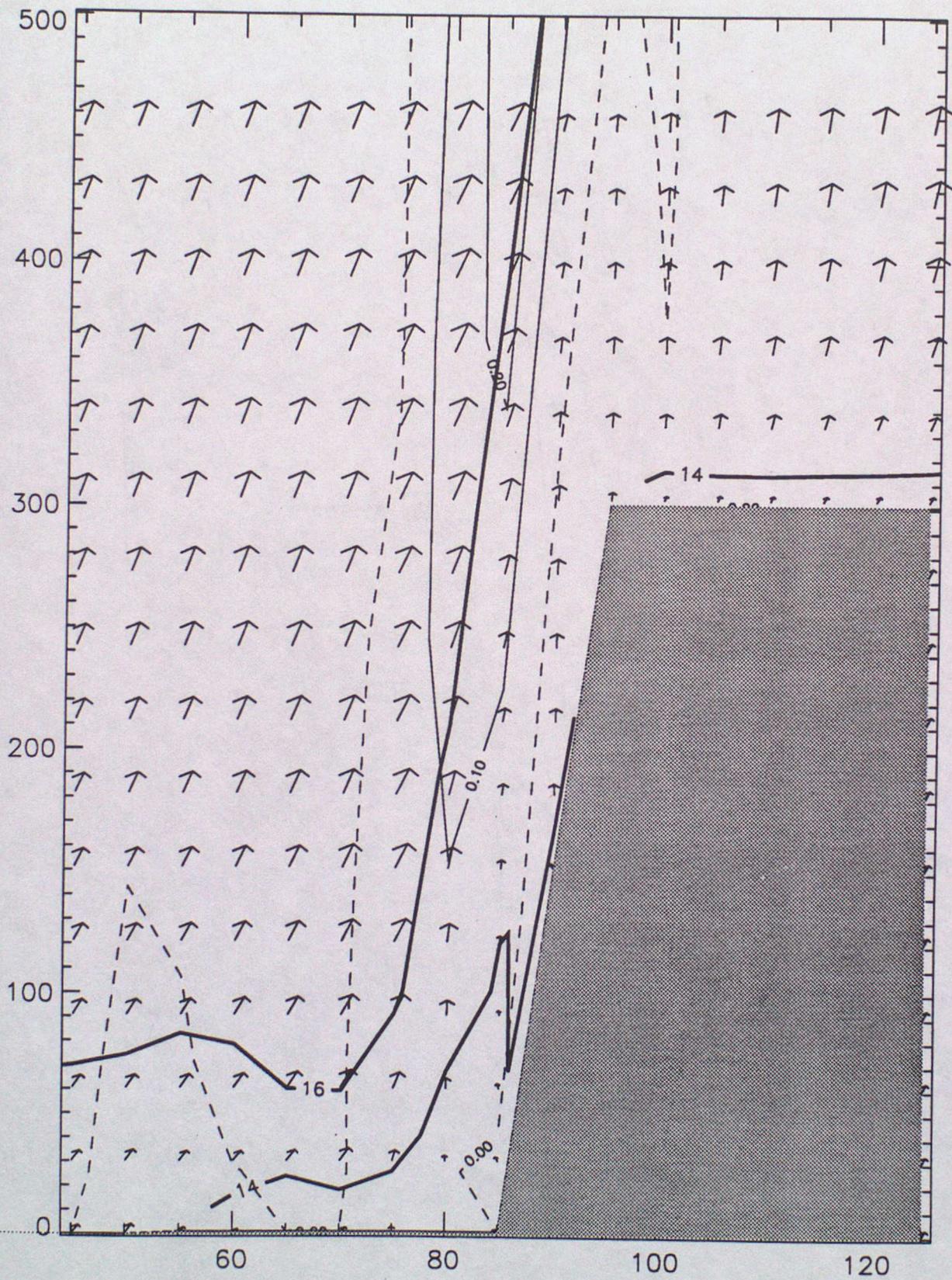


Fig 8(b)

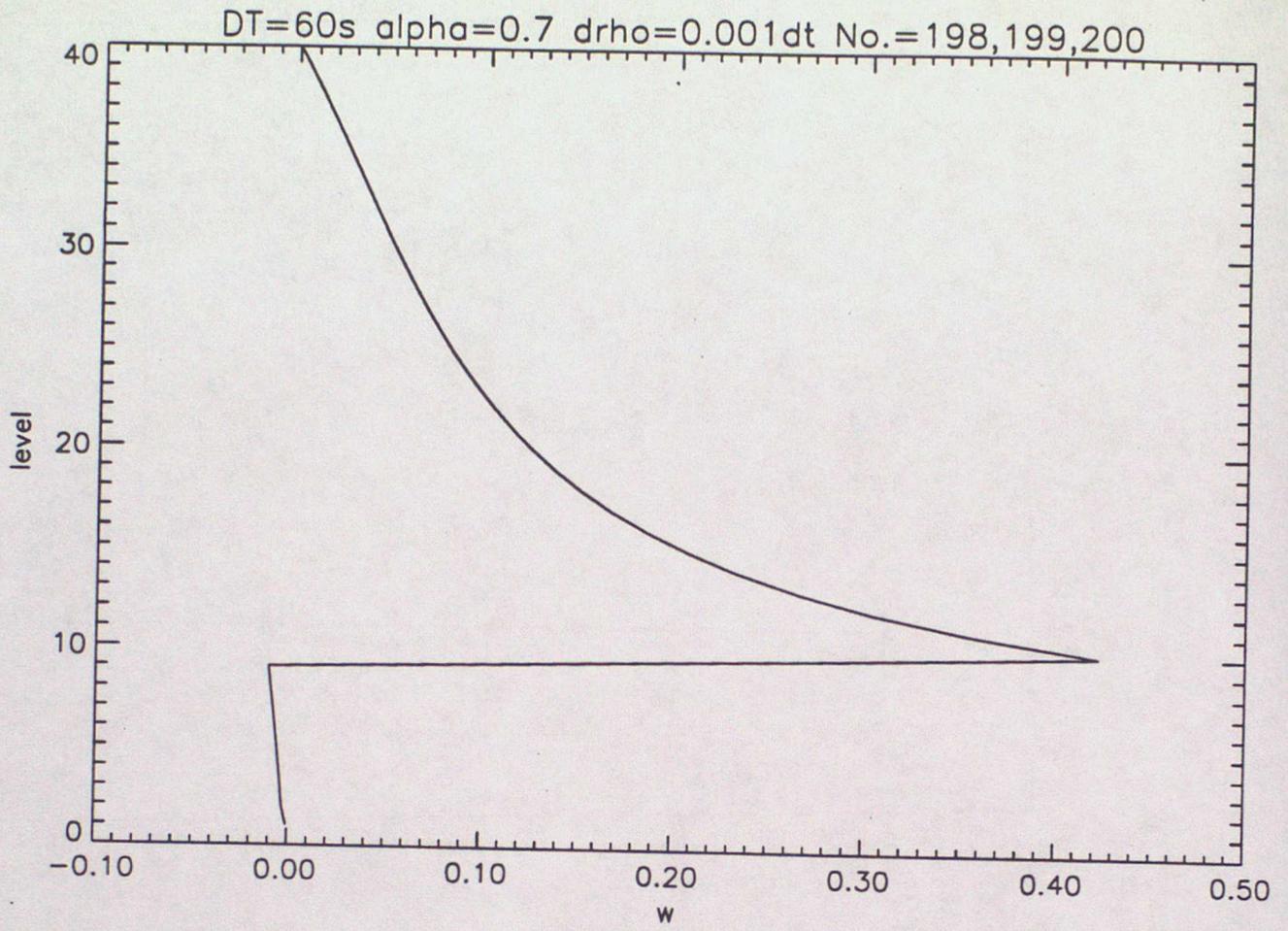


Fig 9(a)

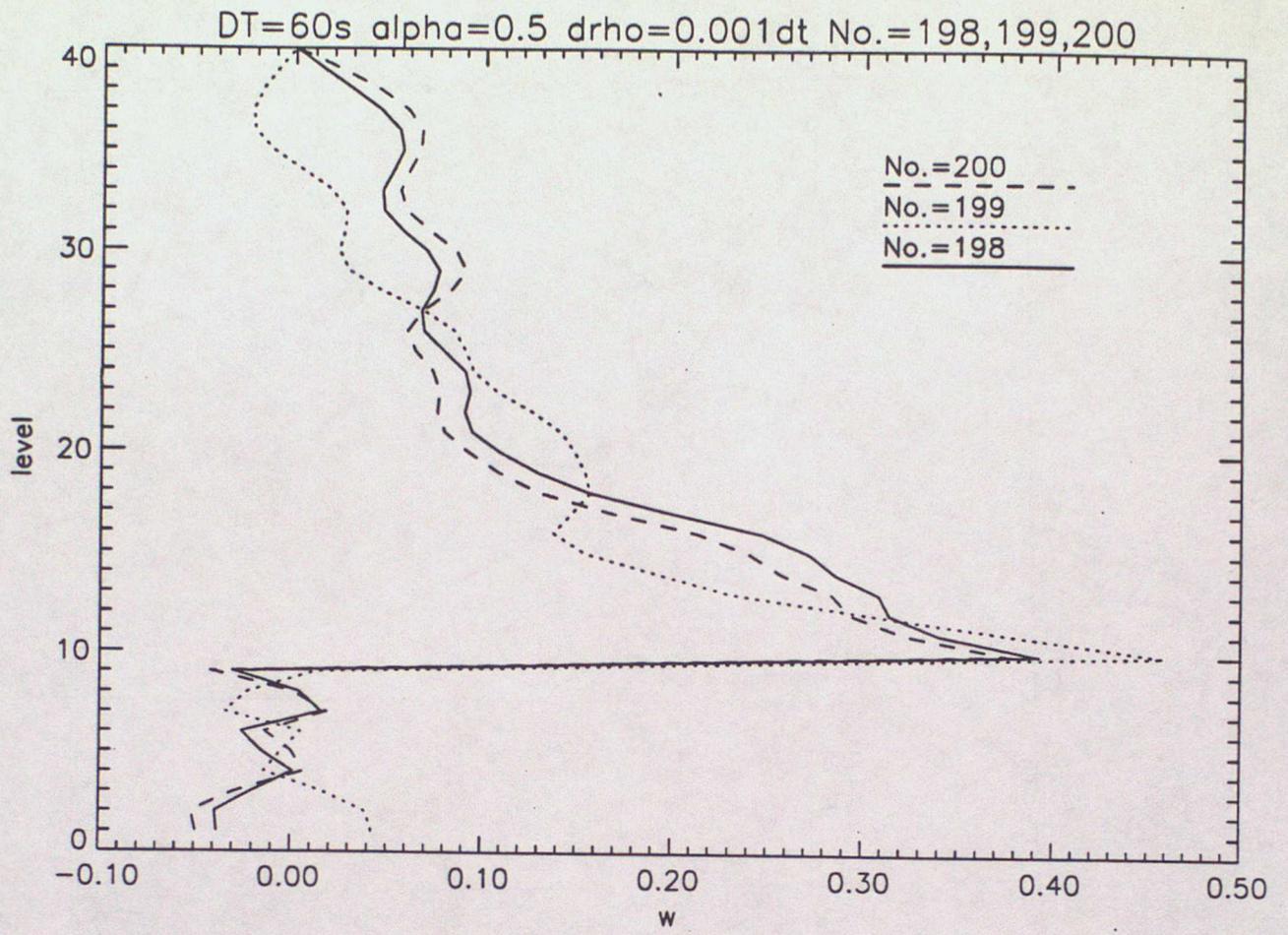


Fig 9(b)

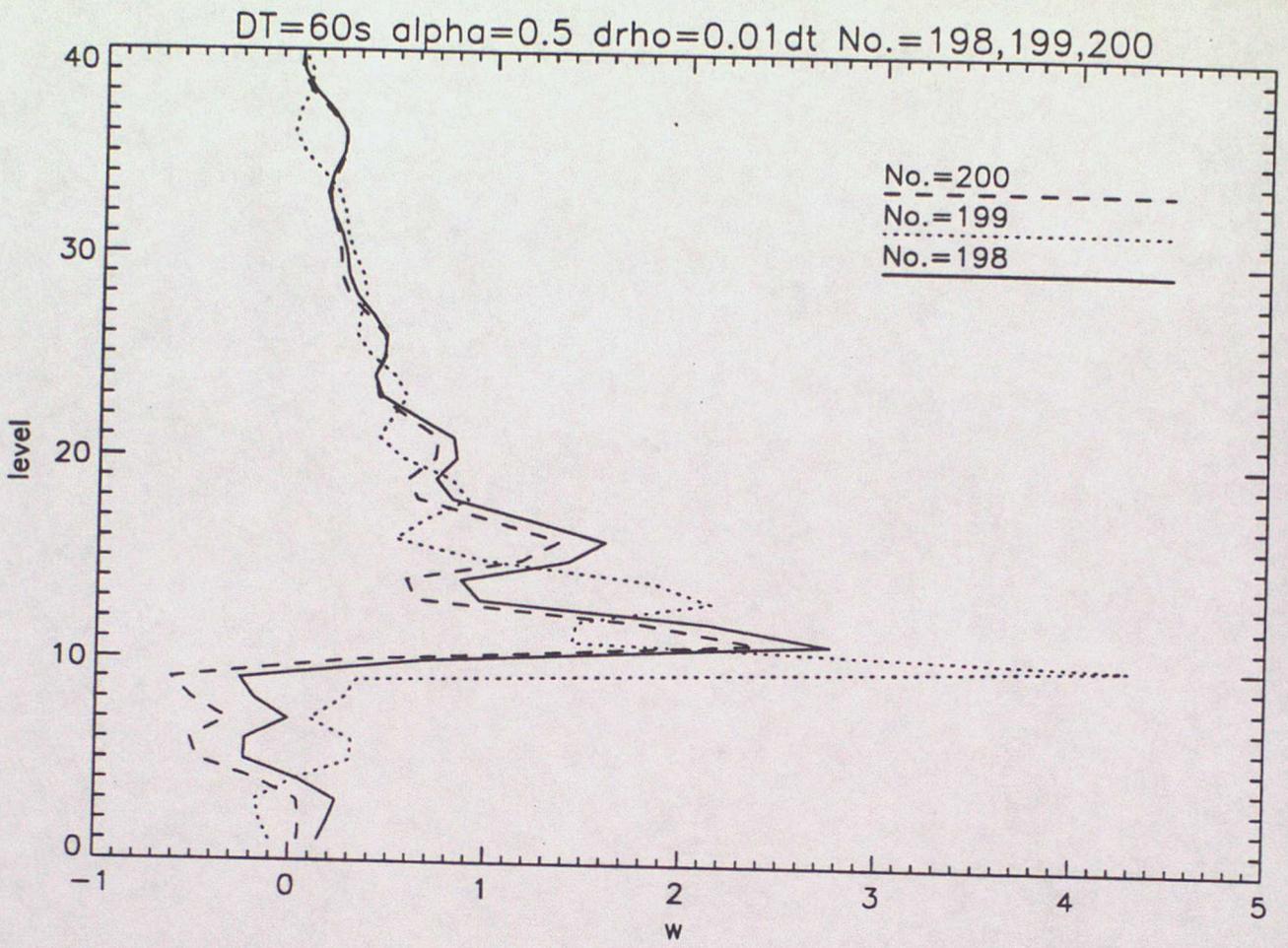


Fig 9(c)