

Application of the AI2 Climate Emulator to E3SMv2's global atmosphere model, with a focus on precipitation fidelity

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Abstract

Can the current successes of global machine learning-based weather simulators be generalized beyond two-week forecasts to stable and accurate multiyear runs? The recently developed AI2 Climate Emulator (ACE) suggests this is feasible, based upon 10-year simulations trained on a realistic global atmosphere model using a grid spacing of approximately 110 km and forced by a repeating annual cycle of sea-surface temperature. Here we show that ACE, without modification, can be trained to emulate another major atmospheric model, EAMv2, run at a comparable grid spacing for at least ten years with similarly small climate biases. ACE accurately reproduces EAMv2's frequency distribution of daily-mean precipitation, its time-mean spatial pattern of precipitation, and its space-time structure of tropical precipitation, including the Madden-Julian Oscillation. Moreover, ACE's climate biases with respect to EAMv2 are substantially smaller than EAMv2's own biases compared to the observed historical average surface precipitation rate and top-of-atmosphere radiative fluxes.

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12 **Key Points:**

- 13 • The ACE weather-climate emulator yields an accurate climate when trained on
14 EAMv2, E3SMv2’s global atmosphere model.
- 15 • Time-mean biases vs. EAMv2 in diverse atmospheric fields are similar to those
16 seen before for ACE applied to the FV3GFS atmospheric model.
- 17 • ACE captures the space-time organization of EAMv2 precipitation well, with a
18 much smaller time-mean bias than EAMv2’s observational bias.

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 21 eralized beyond two-week forecasts to stable and accurate multiyear runs? The recently
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 29 space-time structure of tropical precipitation, including the Madden-Julian Oscillation.
 30 Moreover, ACE’s climate biases with respect to EAMv2 are substantially smaller than
 31 EAMv2’s own biases compared to the observed historical average surface precipitation
 32 rate and top-of-atmosphere radiative fluxes.

33 Plain Language Summary

34 Traditional methods to predict the weather use mathematical models of the Earth’s at-
 35 mosphere that are costly to run. However, “data-driven” weather prediction methods,
 36 which learn to predict future weather directly from data on past weather, have come to
 37 match or even beat traditional methods and do so with much less running cost. In con-
 38 trast to weather prediction where the goal is to predict the weather in the near future,
 39 in *climate modeling* the goal is to study the Earth’s long-term weather trends under dif-
 40 ferent possible future scenarios for many years into the future. Until the introduction
 41 of the AI2 Climate Emulator (ACE), a recent data-driven method for climate modeling,
 42 no data-driven method could match traditional climate models. In this work we test ACE’s
 43 climate modeling skills and find that it is able to faithfully mimic a traditional model
 44 of the climate when looking at patterns of rainfall around the globe and in the tropics.
 45 With ACE, we can study the potential future of Earth’s climate under many more sce-
 46 narios and with much lower cost than ever before.

47 1 Introduction

48 In recent years, the field of numerical weather prediction has undergone a significant trans-
 49 formation, with researchers and institutions worldwide embracing machine learning (ML)
 50 based techniques to make weather forecasts (Pathak et al., 2022; Lam et al., 2023; Bi
 51 et al., 2023; Ben-Bouallegue et al., 2023). Notably, the European Centre for Medium-
 52 Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) unveiled an Artificial Intelligence based Forecast-
 53 ing System (AIFS) as a new companion to their physics-based numerical weather pre-
 54 diction model (IFS). The shift from solely physics-based numerical weather prediction
 55 to integrating ML-based systems has sparked considerable excitement within the scien-
 56 tific community. While most studies have focused on short to medium-range weather fore-
 57 casts (up to 14 days), the AI2 Climate Emulator (ACE) has demonstrated the ability
 58 to emulate an existing global atmosphere model, FV3GFS, at climate timescales (Watt-
 59 Meyer et al., 2023) by accurately simulating weather variability and deriving climate from
 60 the statistics of the simulated weather, as do conventional global climate models. For
 61 this reason we call ACE a weather-climate emulator, to distinguish it from much sim-
 62 pler surrogate models that bypass weather simulation. Such models can instead be based
 63 on global or large-scale budget equations, e.g. the Model for the Assessment of Greenhouse-
 64 Gas Induced Climate Change (MAGICC) (Meinshausen et al., 2011) used in IPCC as-
 65 sessment reports (e.g. Sec. 8.8.2 of IPCC (2013)), in which a few parameters are tuned
 66 to give the same climate sensitivity, ocean heat uptake, and other salient global prop-
 67 erties as a target global climate model. Alternatively, ML-based surrogate models such
 68 as ClimaX (Nguyen et al., 2023) directly predict monthly climate evolution.

ACE approximately conserves mass and moisture, and accurately predicts the climatology of key variables throughout the depth of the atmosphere. ACE can make a decade-long simulation in one hour of wall clock time of one A100 GPU, making it 100 times faster and more energy-efficient than FV3GFS run at a similar grid spacing.

Inspired by the achievements of ACE, in this paper we investigate its generalizability to emulating a different global atmosphere model, the E3SM Atmosphere Model version 2 (EAMv2). EAMv2 is the atmospheric component of the U.S. Department of Energy’s Energy Exascale Earth System Model version 2 (E3SMv2) (Golaz et al., 2022). As configured for this study, EAMv2 fluid dynamics uses a grid spacing of approximately 110 km, like the FV3GFS implementation used for ACE. While FV3GFS is based on a finite-volume dynamical core with 64 vertical layers, EAMv2 uses a spectral-element approach with 72 layers while other processes use a finite-volume grid that divides each element into 2×2 cells of equal size, giving a horizontal resolution of 165 km (Hannah et al., 2021). The physical parameterizations of EAMv2 are also substantially different than those of FV3GFS.

We also analyze the emulation of precipitation in more detail than Watt-Meyer et al. (2023), including its time-mean geographic distribution, its frequency distribution of daily variability, and its organization in the tropics. A final goal of this work is to bring awareness of ACE and ML-based climate emulation into the traditional climate modeling literature.

2 Data and Methods

2.1 EAMv2 Dataset

Our training data is derived from 6-hourly outputs of a 73-year simulation of EAMv2, a model described in detail in Section 2.1 of Golaz et al. (2022). The simulation is configured to run with the “F2010” component set¹, forcing the model with perpetual 2010 greenhouse gas concentrations and emissions of aerosols and precursors, along with an annually repeating cycle of sea surface temperature and sea ice derived from the observed 2005-2014 average. The initial 11 years are discarded as spinup because the EAMv2 stratosphere is equilibrating; the following 42 years are used for training; the subsequent 10 years are used for validation; and the final 10 years are reserved for evaluating EAMv2’s internal decadal variability. This simulation is performed on the E3SM Chrysalis cluster, achieving 24 simulated years per day using 30 nodes. See Text S2 for a comparison of the computational efficiencies of EAMv2 and ACE.

We make several other design choices following ACE (Watt-Meyer et al., 2023). First, we perform a conservative regridding from the native EAMv2 output to a 1° Gaussian grid to ensure compatibility with the underlying Spherical Fourier Neural Operator (SFNO) architecture (Bonev et al., 2023). Second, we filter the data with a spherical harmonic transform (SHT) round-trip to help eliminate artifacts in the high latitudes. Third, to reduce the emulator’s memory footprint, we coarsen the vertical model-level coordinate from the native 72 down to 8 layers. For more details see Table S2.

2.2 ACE Training Overview

As described by Watt-Meyer et al. (2023), ACE is a modified version of NVIDIA’s open-source FourCastNet global atmospheric emulator (Pathak et al., 2022) that employs the SFNO architecture for efficient spatial information exchange (Bonev et al., 2023). Much as traditional physics-based numerical models of atmospheric dynamics recursively step forward the atmospheric state X_t at time t , ACE is trained to autoregressively gener-

¹ <https://acme-climate.atlassian.net/wiki/spaces/DOC/pages/961250902/F2010C5-CMIP6-LR>

ate predictions of the atmospheric state at time $t + \delta t$: $\hat{X}_{t+\delta t}$. We use $\delta t = 6$ hours and minimize the average “one-step” loss over a random batch \mathcal{B} of initial condition times t :

$$\frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}|} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{B}} \frac{\|\hat{X}_{t+\delta t} - X_{t+\delta t}\|_2}{\|X_{t+\delta t}\|_2}$$

110 Whereas FourCastNet uses identical input and output variables and trains a separate
 111 model to predict diagnostic variables (Pathak et al., 2022), ACE uses a set of prognos-
 112 tic variables which are both inputs and outputs, a set of specified forcing input variables
 113 such as insolation and sea surface skin temperature which are exogenous to the dynam-
 114 ical system, and a set of diagnostic variables which are incorporated in the training loss
 115 but are output-only. This and a variety of other improvements enable ACE, unlike past
 116 weather emulators, to produce stable, skillful, more interpretable multiyear emulations
 117 of the target model. For more details see Table S3, Watt-Meyer et al. (2023), and Bonev
 118 et al. (2023).

119 3 Results

120 Watt-Meyer et al. (2023) provide a holistic evaluation of ACE’s physical consistency when
 121 trained on 100 years of FV3GFS simulation outputs in terms of physical budgets and
 122 time- and global-mean biases and pattern errors.

123 Section 3.1 shows a similar analysis of ACE’s global- and time-mean absolute bias and
 124 root mean square error (RMSE) metrics on EAMv2. This analysis shows that ACE pro-
 125 duces a similarly high-quality emulation of the climatology of EAMv2 as for FV3GFS,
 126 demonstrating that ACE’s training methodology generalizes across reference models of
 127 comparable grid resolution with different dynamical cores and physical parameterizations.
 128 In the remainder of Section 3, we present some key metrics of how well ACE emulates
 129 EAMv2’s precipitation variability over the 10 year validation period, a topic not docu-
 130 mented in detail by Watt-Meyer et al. (2023).

131 3.1 Global- and time-mean biases and RMSE

132 In Figure 1, we compare ACE’s climatological skill to that of an unseen EAMv2 refer-
 133 ence dataset, years 64–73 of the EAMv2 simulation run. Both ACE and the reference
 134 are evaluated against the validation target years 54–63. The reference values give a ‘noise
 135 floor’ estimate, computed as the difference of time means from a single pair of ten-year
 136 segments of the reference simulation. Different pairs of ten-year periods would give dif-
 137 ferent estimates for each output, with a scatter of positive-definite RMSEs and zero-centered
 138 biases. For every output variable, we compute global-mean bias and spatial RMSE as
 139 in Watt-Meyer et al. (2023) equations (6) and (7), respectively. Figure 1 also includes
 140 the previously reported values for ACE trained and evaluated on FV3GFS simulation
 141 outputs.

142 ACE’s time-mean RMSEs are comparable to the estimated noise floors for the reference
 143 set, falling within a factor of two for many important lower-tropospheric fields and within
 144 the same order of magnitude in all but a handful of cases. Global- and time-mean bi-
 145 ases are also quite small in real terms and fall within one to two orders of magnitude of
 146 the single-pair estimates of the EAMv2 reference dataset biases, with some noted excep-
 147 tions such as surface pressure (top row in Figure 1). Global-mean surface pressure is the
 148 sum of dry air mass (which should be conserved) and a much lesser water mass (which
 149 is exchanged with the underlying ocean and land surface). In EAMv2, the 10-year mean
 150 of this quantity is tightly constrained, varying little between different decadal samples
 151 (i.e. small absolute bias in Figure 1). The current version of ACE does not enforce ex-
 152 act global conservation equations for dry air and water and this causes larger temporal
 153 drifts in global mean surface pressure when emulating both EAMv2 and FV3GFS. Nev-

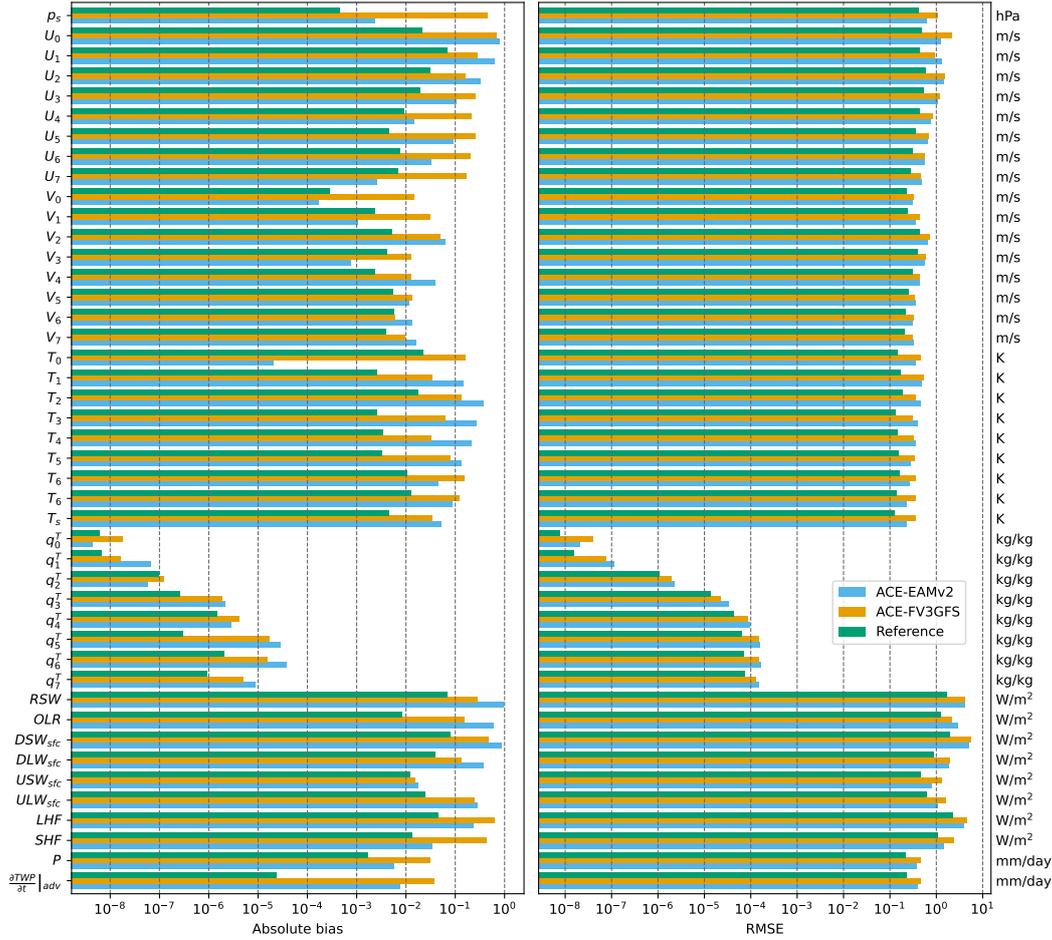


Figure 1. Global- and time-mean absolute bias (left panel) and RMSE (right panel) metrics for all output variables, averaged over the 10 year validation period. From top to bottom, prognostic variables are listed first with diagnostic variables starting with *RSW*. Metrics computed on ACE EAMv2 outputs (“ACE-EAMv2”) are compared against: equivalent metrics for the “ACE-FV3GFS” model of (Watt-Meyer et al., 2023) with respect to the 10-year FV3GFS validation set; the best-case scenario EAMv2 metrics (“Reference”), as in Figure 3. Metrics are plotted with log scaling and units are given on the right margin for clarity.

154 ertheless, ACE produces a realistic time-mean map of surface pressure (not shown). With
 155 a 10 year global-time-mean of -11 Pa the magnitude of ACE’s surface pressure bias is
 156 only around 0.01% of the typical surface pressure on Earth.

157 Overall, we find that with 42 years of training data, ACE is able to learn a representa-
 158 tion of EAMv2 in terms of these metrics that is of similarly high quality to the results
 159 obtained for FV3GFS using 100 years of training data. In what follows, we analyze the
 160 frequency distribution of daily precipitation and time-mean spatial bias patterns of pre-
 161 cipitation together with highly correlated top-of-atmosphere radiative fluxes. Then we
 162 examine the spectrum and temporal evolution of tropical precipitation variability be-
 163 tween 15°S and 15°N .

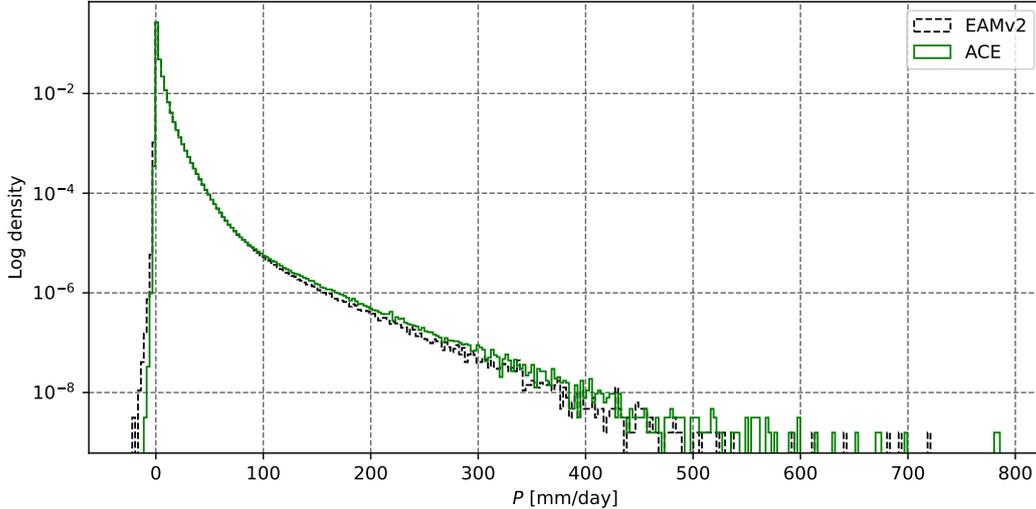


Figure 2. Frequency distribution of daily mean precipitation across all grid points over 10 years.

164 3.2 Precipitation density and spatial bias patterns

165 Establishing the precipitation extremes possible under various forcing scenarios is an im-
 166 portant task for any climate model. Changes in the spatial distribution of time-mean
 167 precipitation under a range of possible future climate scenarios also inform many aspects
 168 of water-resource planning. Below, we examine ACE’s ability to match EAMv2 in terms
 169 of (1) the frequency distribution of precipitation and (2) patterns of spatial bias in time-
 170 mean precipitation and strongly associated top-of-atmosphere fluxes.

171 Figure 2 shows the frequency distribution of daily precipitation in EAMv2 (black, dashed
 172 line) and ACE, including all grid points, over the 10 year validation period. Note that
 173 both the target and generated precipitation fields have a small number of negative val-
 174 ues due to the spherical harmonic transform round-trip applied to the data, an impor-
 175 tant data preprocessing step that removes polar artifacts as explained in Watt-Meyer
 176 et al. (2023). Overall, we see that ACE captures EAMv2’s precipitation distribution well,
 177 including at the extreme upper quantiles. ACE’s ability to capture precipitation extremes
 178 is an encouraging sign of the usefulness of deep learning GCM emulation for downstream
 179 climate science tasks.

180 Figure 3 shows 10 year time-mean spatial bias patterns of precipitation and two highly
 181 correlated fields: top-of-atmosphere upward short- and longwave radiative fluxes. The
 182 left column labeled “EAMv2 vs. observation” displays the bias patterns observed when
 183 comparing the EAMv2 simulation temporal mean over the validation years 54–63 to his-
 184 torical observations. The observed precipitation comes from the Global Precipitation Cli-
 185 matology Project (GPCP) (Huffman et al., 2023) version 3.2 and corresponds to the pe-
 186 riod 1983–2021. The observed fluxes are from Clouds and the Earth’s Radiant Energy
 187 System (CERES) Energy Balanced and Filled (EBAF) (Loeb et al., 2018) version 4.1,
 188 over the period 2001–2018. In the right column, the corresponding validation target em-
 189 ulation outputs from ACE, initialized from the first timepoint of year 54, are compared
 190 against EAMv2. This way we can get a sense of the magnitude of ACE’s emulation bi-
 191 ases relative to EAMv2’s observational biases.

192 The time-mean precipitation biases of ACE vs. EAMv2 range from -2.5 to 3.7 mm/day
 193 depending on location. The global spatial RMSE of time-mean precipitation is a remark-

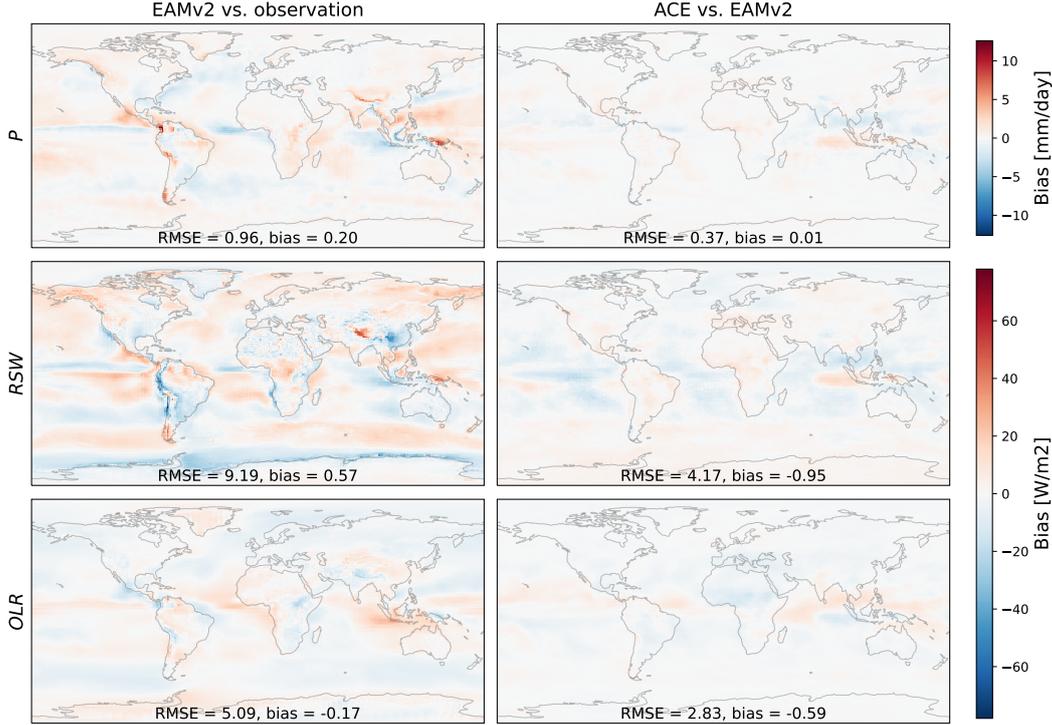


Figure 3. Temporal average of biases for surface precipitation rate (top row), outgoing top-of-atmosphere shortwave (RSW, middle row) and longwave (OLR, bottom row) radiative fluxes. The right column shows the mean spatial distribution of ACE biases vs. EAMv2, comparing the generated 6-hourly outputs to the corresponding simulation targets for the same timestep. The left column compares EAMv2 to the observed temporal mean (from GPCP for precipitation and CERES-EBAF for radiation; see main text.)

ably small 0.37 mm/day, which is comparable to the value of 0.46 reported in Watt-Meyer et al. (2023). EAMv2 observational biases lie between -6.5 and 12.6 mm/day (Figure 3) with a RMSE of 0.96 mm/day. Thus ACE emulates EAMv2 precipitation patterns much better than EAMv2 can simulate them.

OLR biases follow an expected inverse relationship with precipitation biases, a good sign of ACE’s ability to emulate the radiative effects of precipitating cloud systems with cold cloud tops. Their spatial pattern RMSE is only 2.8 W/m², with a global-mean bias of -0.59 W/m². ACE’s shortwave biases are larger, with a spatial pattern RMSE of 4.2 W/m² and a global-mean bias of -0.95 W/m². They are not just associated with deep precipitating cloud systems, but also ‘dim’ subtropical trade cumulus regimes, ‘bright’ Southern Ocean clouds, and excessive reflected shortwave radiation over Antarctica. As with precipitation, these emulation biases are small in comparison to EAMv2’s observational biases. See Table S1 for additional summary metrics.

3.3 Tracking tropical precipitation and the MJO

Most tropical precipitation falls from organized deep convective systems, including tropical cyclones, the Madden Julian Oscillation (MJO), and diverse convectively-coupled waves. Thus it is important that global atmospheric models accurately represent the space-

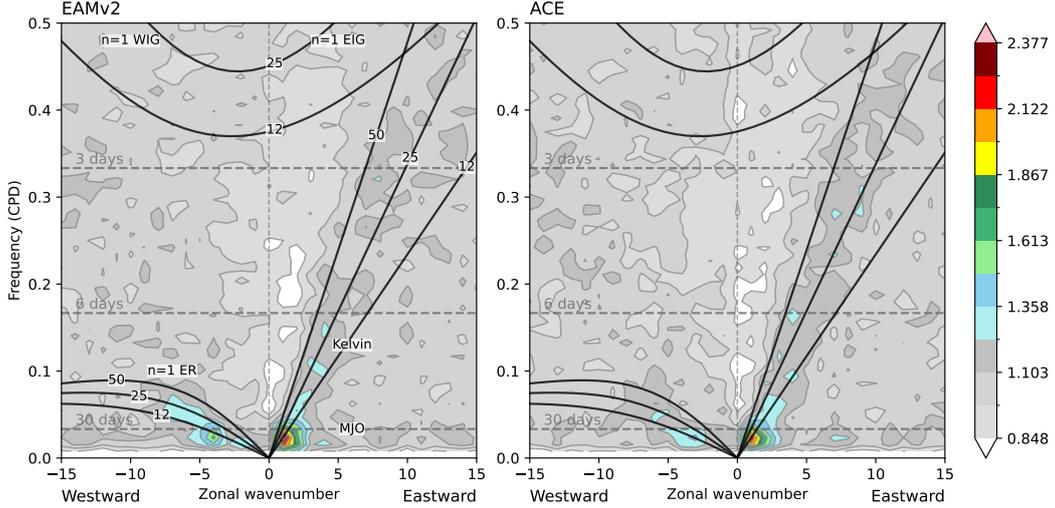


Figure 4. Normalized symmetric component of the wavenumber-frequency spectrum of daily-mean precipitation over a 10 year period for (left) withheld EAMv2 simulation output and (right) corresponding outputs from ACE. As with Figure 17 of Golaz et al. (2022), we label prominent wave types in the left panel and plot shallow water dispersion curves for equivalent depths 12, 25, and 50 m as solid black lines. ER = equatorial Rossby; EIG = eastward inertia-gravity; WIG = westward inertia-gravity.

211 time organization of tropical precipitation, and that an emulator of such a model repli-
 212 cates the organization of its tropical precipitation.

213 The wavenumber-frequency spectrum (Wheeler & Kiladis, 1999) of daily-mean precipi-
 214 tation meridionally averaged over 15°S - 15°N is a widely used diagnostic of the large-
 215 scale organization of tropical precipitation. In Figure 4, we plot the normalized symmet-
 216 ric component of this wavenumber-frequency spectrum over the 10 year validation pe-
 217 riod for the target EAMv2 simulation data and the corresponding outputs from ACE.
 218 EAMv2’s spectrum is the appropriate ground truth against which to evaluate ACE, and
 219 the emulator broadly captures EAMv2’s precipitation variability.

220 Some minor discrepancies include slightly reduced power in the MJO and the equato-
 221 rial Rossby wave, the latter also peaking at a lower wavenumber in ACE compared to
 222 EAMv2. Figure S2 provides a closer look at these features. As noted by Golaz et al. (2022),
 223 compared to satellite retrievals of the historical period, EAMv2’s spectrum has weaker
 224 normalized spectral power in the wavenumber-frequency bands corresponding to the MJO
 225 and the equatorial Rossby wave and severely underestimates precipitation variability as-
 226 sociated with Kelvin and westward inertia-gravity waves. By construction, a perfect em-
 227 ulator should inherit these biases.

228 The Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO) is a convectively-coupled Earth-spanning atmo-
 229 spheric oscillation that is characterized by a large eastward-propagating band of anom-
 230 alous precipitation in the tropics (Madden & Julian, 1971; Zhang, 2005). It is the most
 231 regular and predictable sub-seasonal oscillation of the Earth’s atmosphere and affects
 232 many aspects of tropical and extratropical weather (Waliser et al., 2009; Zhang et al.,
 233 2020). Thus, a good emulator of an atmospheric model should replicate the statistical
 234 characteristics of its MJO.

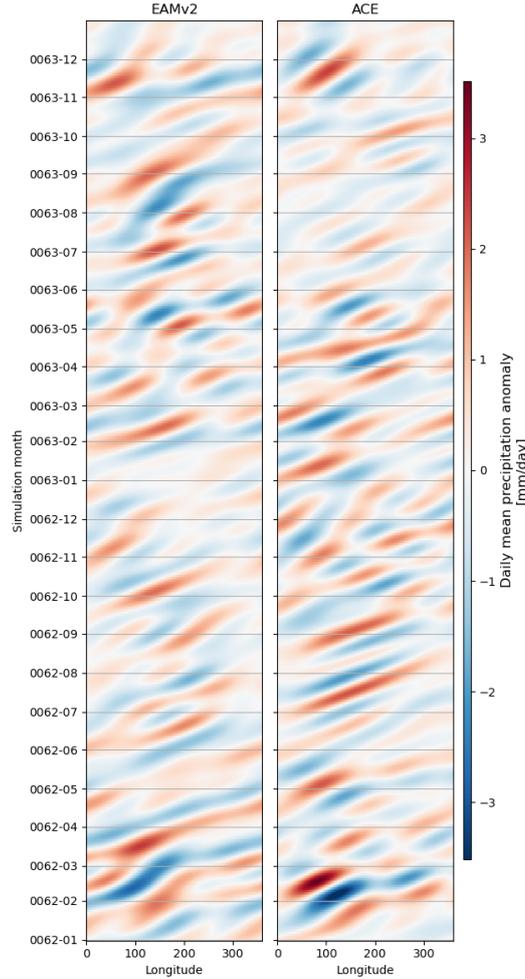


Figure 5. Hovmöller diagrams of daily mean tropical-mean precipitation over two typical years, bandpassed to retain 20-100 day periods. Both EAMv2 and ACE show patterns of eastward propagating tropical precipitation anomalies that last around 30 to 90 days.

235 Figure 4 suggests that ACE captures key statistical characteristics of EAMv2’s simulated
 236 MJO. This skill is more directly verified by isolating the MJO frequency band with a 20-
 237 100 day bandpass filter to daily- and meridional-mean (15°S - 15°N) tropical precipita-
 238 tion anomalies. Figure 5 shows longitude-time Hovmöller diagrams of a typical two year
 239 segment from ACE and EAMv2 simulations of the 10-year validation period. The band-
 240 pass filter drives the roughly 50-day period of the features. It is nevertheless impressive
 241 that ACE (right panel) accurately captures the amplitude and eastward propagation of
 242 the MJO spatiotemporal evolution simulated by EAMv2 (left panel).

243 4 Conclusions

244 With approximately the same training and testing protocol, ACE emulates EAMv2 with
 245 excellent skill similar to the FV3GFS model on which ACE was originally trained, as mea-
 246 sured using 10-year time-mean climatological biases of geographically varying fields such
 247 as precipitation, near-surface and upper-tropospheric temperature and precipitable wa-
 248 ter. This suggests that ACE could easily be trained to also emulate other global atmo-
 249 sphere models.

250 ACE emulates diverse characteristics of EAMv2-simulated precipitation encouragingly
 251 well. The emulator nearly matches the EAMv2 frequency distribution of daily precip-
 252 itation out to its extreme-precipitation tail. A Wheeler-Kiladis spectral analysis of trop-
 253 ical convectively coupled waves also shows good consistency between ACE and EAMv2,
 254 including in the simulated Madden-Julian Oscillation. That is, ACE captures the space-
 255 time organization of precipitation simulated by EAMv2.

256 These results were obtained for the important special case of annually-repeating clima-
 257 tological sea-surface temperatures. It remains to be seen how ACE will fare when faced
 258 with more realistic time-varying forcing or observational data. Over the longer term, we
 259 envision integrating future versions of ACE with other conventional or machine-learned
 260 Earth system components, such as a dynamical ocean, as part of the E3SM ecosystem
 261 and other climate and earth system models. This would enable coupled climate simu-
 262 lations or simulation ensembles with greatly reduced computational cost. We also en-
 263 vision using ACE to emulate finer-grid global atmosphere models, such as DOE’s SCREAM
 264 (Caldwell et al., 2021), using ML to affordably translate the enhanced fidelity of such
 265 models into more reliable centennial climate simulations.

266 Open Research

267 Data Availability Statement

268 ACE model weights (2.5 GB) and the EAMv2 10-year validation set (165 GB) are avail-
 269 able to download over HTTP from the E3SM project’s NERSC science gateway at [https://](https://portal.nersc.gov/archive/home/projects/e3sm/www/e3smv2-fme-dataset)
 270 portal.nersc.gov/archive/home/projects/e3sm/www/e3smv2-fme-dataset. Doc-
 271 umentation, inference code, and an example configuration for running ACE are avail-
 272 able in the following repository: <https://github.com/ai2cm/ace> (Watt-Meyer et al.,
 273 2023).

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 282 EAMv2 simulations were performed using a high-performance computing cluster (Chrysalis)
 283 provided by the BER Earth System Modeling program and operated by the Laboratory
 284 Computing Resource Center at Argonne National Laboratory. ACE data preprocessing,
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1 **Application of the AI2 Climate Emulator to E3SMv2’s**
2 **global atmosphere model, with a focus on precipitation**
3 **fidelity**

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12 **Key Points:**

- 13 • The ACE weather-climate emulator yields an accurate climate when trained on
14 EAMv2, E3SMv2’s global atmosphere model.
- 15 • Time-mean biases vs. EAMv2 in diverse atmospheric fields are similar to those
16 seen before for ACE applied to the FV3GFS atmospheric model.
- 17 • ACE captures the space-time organization of EAMv2 precipitation well, with a
18 much smaller time-mean bias than EAMv2’s observational bias.

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19 Abstract

20 Can the current successes of global machine learning-based weather simulators be gen-
 21 eralized beyond two-week forecasts to stable and accurate multiyear runs? The recently
 22 developed AI2 Climate Emulator (ACE) suggests this is feasible, based upon 10-year sim-
 23 ulations trained on a realistic global atmosphere model using a grid spacing of approx-
 24 imately 110 km and forced by a repeating annual cycle of sea-surface temperature. Here
 25 we show that ACE, without modification, can be trained to emulate another major at-
 26 mospheric model, EAMv2, run at a comparable grid spacing for at least ten years with
 27 similarly small climate biases. ACE accurately reproduces EAMv2’s frequency distribu-
 28 tion of daily-mean precipitation, its time-mean spatial pattern of precipitation, and its
 29 space-time structure of tropical precipitation, including the Madden-Julian Oscillation.
 30 Moreover, ACE’s climate biases with respect to EAMv2 are substantially smaller than
 31 EAMv2’s own biases compared to the observed historical average surface precipitation
 32 rate and top-of-atmosphere radiative fluxes.

33 Plain Language Summary

34 Traditional methods to predict the weather use mathematical models of the Earth’s at-
 35 mosphere that are costly to run. However, “data-driven” weather prediction methods,
 36 which learn to predict future weather directly from data on past weather, have come to
 37 match or even beat traditional methods and do so with much less running cost. In con-
 38 trast to weather prediction where the goal is to predict the weather in the near future,
 39 in *climate modeling* the goal is to study the Earth’s long-term weather trends under dif-
 40 ferent possible future scenarios for many years into the future. Until the introduction
 41 of the AI2 Climate Emulator (ACE), a recent data-driven method for climate modeling,
 42 no data-driven method could match traditional climate models. In this work we test ACE’s
 43 climate modeling skills and find that it is able to faithfully mimic a traditional model
 44 of the climate when looking at patterns of rainfall around the globe and in the tropics.
 45 With ACE, we can study the potential future of Earth’s climate under many more sce-
 46 narios and with much lower cost than ever before.

47 1 Introduction

48 In recent years, the field of numerical weather prediction has undergone a significant trans-
 49 formation, with researchers and institutions worldwide embracing machine learning (ML)
 50 based techniques to make weather forecasts (Pathak et al., 2022; Lam et al., 2023; Bi
 51 et al., 2023; Ben-Bouallegue et al., 2023). Notably, the European Centre for Medium-
 52 Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) unveiled an Artificial Intelligence based Forecast-
 53 ing System (AIFS) as a new companion to their physics-based numerical weather pre-
 54 diction model (IFS). The shift from solely physics-based numerical weather prediction
 55 to integrating ML-based systems has sparked considerable excitement within the scien-
 56 tific community. While most studies have focused on short to medium-range weather fore-
 57 casts (up to 14 days), the AI2 Climate Emulator (ACE) has demonstrated the ability
 58 to emulate an existing global atmosphere model, FV3GFS, at climate timescales (Watt-
 59 Meyer et al., 2023) by accurately simulating weather variability and deriving climate from
 60 the statistics of the simulated weather, as do conventional global climate models. For
 61 this reason we call ACE a weather-climate emulator, to distinguish it from much sim-
 62 pler surrogate models that bypass weather simulation. Such models can instead be based
 63 on global or large-scale budget equations, e.g. the Model for the Assessment of Greenhouse-
 64 Gas Induced Climate Change (MAGICC) (Meinshausen et al., 2011) used in IPCC as-
 65 sessment reports (e.g. Sec. 8.8.2 of IPCC (2013)), in which a few parameters are tuned
 66 to give the same climate sensitivity, ocean heat uptake, and other salient global prop-
 67 erties as a target global climate model. Alternatively, ML-based surrogate models such
 68 as ClimaX (Nguyen et al., 2023) directly predict monthly climate evolution.

ACE approximately conserves mass and moisture, and accurately predicts the climatology of key variables throughout the depth of the atmosphere. ACE can make a decade-long simulation in one hour of wall clock time of one A100 GPU, making it 100 times faster and more energy-efficient than FV3GFS run at a similar grid spacing.

Inspired by the achievements of ACE, in this paper we investigate its generalizability to emulating a different global atmosphere model, the E3SM Atmosphere Model version 2 (EAMv2). EAMv2 is the atmospheric component of the U.S. Department of Energy’s Energy Exascale Earth System Model version 2 (E3SMv2) (Golaz et al., 2022). As configured for this study, EAMv2 fluid dynamics uses a grid spacing of approximately 110 km, like the FV3GFS implementation used for ACE. While FV3GFS is based on a finite-volume dynamical core with 64 vertical layers, EAMv2 uses a spectral-element approach with 72 layers while other processes use a finite-volume grid that divides each element into 2×2 cells of equal size, giving a horizontal resolution of 165 km (Hannah et al., 2021). The physical parameterizations of EAMv2 are also substantially different than those of FV3GFS.

We also analyze the emulation of precipitation in more detail than Watt-Meyer et al. (2023), including its time-mean geographic distribution, its frequency distribution of daily variability, and its organization in the tropics. A final goal of this work is to bring awareness of ACE and ML-based climate emulation into the traditional climate modeling literature.

2 Data and Methods

2.1 EAMv2 Dataset

Our training data is derived from 6-hourly outputs of a 73-year simulation of EAMv2, a model described in detail in Section 2.1 of Golaz et al. (2022). The simulation is configured to run with the “F2010” component set¹, forcing the model with perpetual 2010 greenhouse gas concentrations and emissions of aerosols and precursors, along with an annually repeating cycle of sea surface temperature and sea ice derived from the observed 2005-2014 average. The initial 11 years are discarded as spinup because the EAMv2 stratosphere is equilibrating; the following 42 years are used for training; the subsequent 10 years are used for validation; and the final 10 years are reserved for evaluating EAMv2’s internal decadal variability. This simulation is performed on the E3SM Chrysalis cluster, achieving 24 simulated years per day using 30 nodes. See Text S2 for a comparison of the computational efficiencies of EAMv2 and ACE.

We make several other design choices following ACE (Watt-Meyer et al., 2023). First, we perform a conservative regridding from the native EAMv2 output to a 1° Gaussian grid to ensure compatibility with the underlying Spherical Fourier Neural Operator (SFNO) architecture (Bonev et al., 2023). Second, we filter the data with a spherical harmonic transform (SHT) round-trip to help eliminate artifacts in the high latitudes. Third, to reduce the emulator’s memory footprint, we coarsen the vertical model-level coordinate from the native 72 down to 8 layers. For more details see Table S2.

2.2 ACE Training Overview

As described by Watt-Meyer et al. (2023), ACE is a modified version of NVIDIA’s open-source FourCastNet global atmospheric emulator (Pathak et al., 2022) that employs the SFNO architecture for efficient spatial information exchange (Bonev et al., 2023). Much as traditional physics-based numerical models of atmospheric dynamics recursively step forward the atmospheric state X_t at time t , ACE is trained to autoregressively gener-

¹ <https://acme-climate.atlassian.net/wiki/spaces/DOC/pages/961250902/F2010C5-CMIP6-LR>

ate predictions of the atmospheric state at time $t + \delta t$: $\hat{X}_{t+\delta t}$. We use $\delta t = 6$ hours and minimize the average “one-step” loss over a random batch \mathcal{B} of initial condition times t :

$$\frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}|} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{B}} \frac{\|\hat{X}_{t+\delta t} - X_{t+\delta t}\|_2}{\|X_{t+\delta t}\|_2}$$

110 Whereas FourCastNet uses identical input and output variables and trains a separate
 111 model to predict diagnostic variables (Pathak et al., 2022), ACE uses a set of prognos-
 112 tic variables which are both inputs and outputs, a set of specified forcing input variables
 113 such as insolation and sea surface skin temperature which are exogenous to the dynam-
 114 ical system, and a set of diagnostic variables which are incorporated in the training loss
 115 but are output-only. This and a variety of other improvements enable ACE, unlike past
 116 weather emulators, to produce stable, skillful, more interpretable multiyear emulations
 117 of the target model. For more details see Table S3, Watt-Meyer et al. (2023), and Bonev
 118 et al. (2023).

119 3 Results

120 Watt-Meyer et al. (2023) provide a holistic evaluation of ACE’s physical consistency when
 121 trained on 100 years of FV3GFS simulation outputs in terms of physical budgets and
 122 time- and global-mean biases and pattern errors.

123 Section 3.1 shows a similar analysis of ACE’s global- and time-mean absolute bias and
 124 root mean square error (RMSE) metrics on EAMv2. This analysis shows that ACE pro-
 125 duces a similarly high-quality emulation of the climatology of EAMv2 as for FV3GFS,
 126 demonstrating that ACE’s training methodology generalizes across reference models of
 127 comparable grid resolution with different dynamical cores and physical parameterizations.
 128 In the remainder of Section 3, we present some key metrics of how well ACE emulates
 129 EAMv2’s precipitation variability over the 10 year validation period, a topic not docu-
 130 mented in detail by Watt-Meyer et al. (2023).

131 3.1 Global- and time-mean biases and RMSE

132 In Figure 1, we compare ACE’s climatological skill to that of an unseen EAMv2 refer-
 133 ence dataset, years 64–73 of the EAMv2 simulation run. Both ACE and the reference
 134 are evaluated against the validation target years 54–63. The reference values give a ‘noise
 135 floor’ estimate, computed as the difference of time means from a single pair of ten-year
 136 segments of the reference simulation. Different pairs of ten-year periods would give dif-
 137 ferent estimates for each output, with a scatter of positive-definite RMSEs and zero-centered
 138 biases. For every output variable, we compute global-mean bias and spatial RMSE as
 139 in Watt-Meyer et al. (2023) equations (6) and (7), respectively. Figure 1 also includes
 140 the previously reported values for ACE trained and evaluated on FV3GFS simulation
 141 outputs.

142 ACE’s time-mean RMSEs are comparable to the estimated noise floors for the reference
 143 set, falling within a factor of two for many important lower-tropospheric fields and within
 144 the same order of magnitude in all but a handful of cases. Global- and time-mean bi-
 145 ases are also quite small in real terms and fall within one to two orders of magnitude of
 146 the single-pair estimates of the EAMv2 reference dataset biases, with some noted excep-
 147 tions such as surface pressure (top row in Figure 1). Global-mean surface pressure is the
 148 sum of dry air mass (which should be conserved) and a much lesser water mass (which
 149 is exchanged with the underlying ocean and land surface). In EAMv2, the 10-year mean
 150 of this quantity is tightly constrained, varying little between different decadal samples
 151 (i.e. small absolute bias in Figure 1). The current version of ACE does not enforce ex-
 152 act global conservation equations for dry air and water and this causes larger temporal
 153 drifts in global mean surface pressure when emulating both EAMv2 and FV3GFS. Nev-



Figure 1. Global- and time-mean absolute bias (left panel) and RMSE (right panel) metrics for all output variables, averaged over the 10 year validation period. From top to bottom, prognostic variables are listed first with diagnostic variables starting with *RSW*. Metrics computed on ACE EAMv2 outputs (“ACE-EAMv2”) are compared against: equivalent metrics for the “ACE-FV3GFS” model of (Watt-Meyer et al., 2023) with respect to the 10-year FV3GFS validation set; the best-case scenario EAMv2 metrics (“Reference”), as in Figure 3. Metrics are plotted with log scaling and units are given on the right margin for clarity.

154 ertheless, ACE produces a realistic time-mean map of surface pressure (not shown). With
 155 a 10 year global-time-mean of -11 Pa the magnitude of ACE’s surface pressure bias is
 156 only around 0.01% of the typical surface pressure on Earth.

157 Overall, we find that with 42 years of training data, ACE is able to learn a representa-
 158 tion of EAMv2 in terms of these metrics that is of similarly high quality to the results
 159 obtained for FV3GFS using 100 years of training data. In what follows, we analyze the
 160 frequency distribution of daily precipitation and time-mean spatial bias patterns of pre-
 161 cipitation together with highly correlated top-of-atmosphere radiative fluxes. Then we
 162 examine the spectrum and temporal evolution of tropical precipitation variability be-
 163 tween 15°S and 15°N .

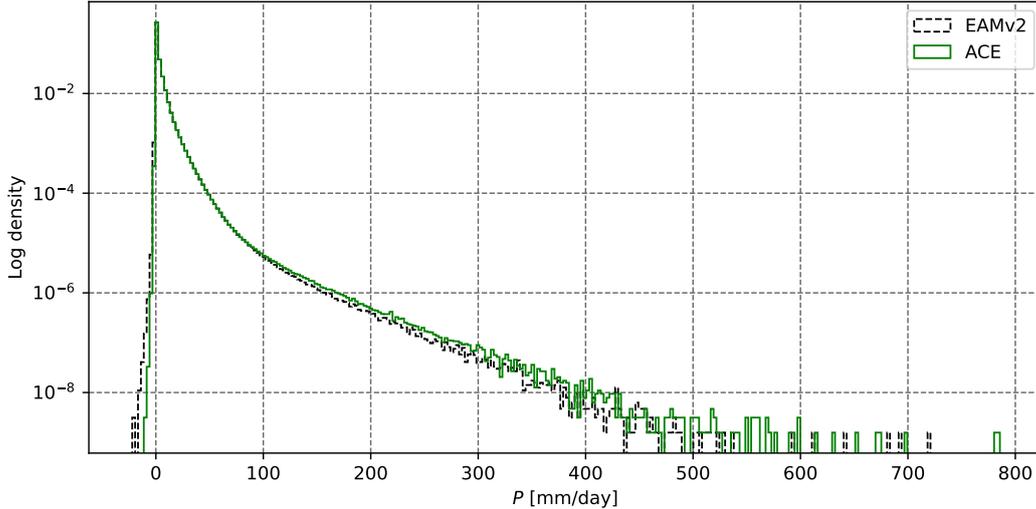


Figure 2. Frequency distribution of daily mean precipitation across all grid points over 10 years.

3.2 Precipitation density and spatial bias patterns

Establishing the precipitation extremes possible under various forcing scenarios is an important task for any climate model. Changes in the spatial distribution of time-mean precipitation under a range of possible future climate scenarios also inform many aspects of water-resource planning. Below, we examine ACE’s ability to match EAMv2 in terms of (1) the frequency distribution of precipitation and (2) patterns of spatial bias in time-mean precipitation and strongly associated top-of-atmosphere fluxes.

Figure 2 shows the frequency distribution of daily precipitation in EAMv2 (black, dashed line) and ACE, including all grid points, over the 10 year validation period. Note that both the target and generated precipitation fields have a small number of negative values due to the spherical harmonic transform round-trip applied to the data, an important data preprocessing step that removes polar artifacts as explained in Watt-Meyer et al. (2023). Overall, we see that ACE captures EAMv2’s precipitation distribution well, including at the extreme upper quantiles. ACE’s ability to capture precipitation extremes is an encouraging sign of the usefulness of deep learning GCM emulation for downstream climate science tasks.

Figure 3 shows 10 year time-mean spatial bias patterns of precipitation and two highly correlated fields: top-of-atmosphere upward short- and longwave radiative fluxes. The left column labeled “EAMv2 vs. observation” displays the bias patterns observed when comparing the EAMv2 simulation temporal mean over the validation years 54–63 to historical observations. The observed precipitation comes from the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP) (Huffman et al., 2023) version 3.2 and corresponds to the period 1983–2021. The observed fluxes are from Clouds and the Earth’s Radiant Energy System (CERES) Energy Balanced and Filled (EBAF) (Loeb et al., 2018) version 4.1, over the period 2001–2018. In the right column, the corresponding validation target emulation outputs from ACE, initialized from the first timepoint of year 54, are compared against EAMv2. This way we can get a sense of the magnitude of ACE’s emulation biases relative to EAMv2’s observational biases.

The time-mean precipitation biases of ACE vs. EAMv2 range from -2.5 to 3.7 mm/day depending on location. The global spatial RMSE of time-mean precipitation is a remark-

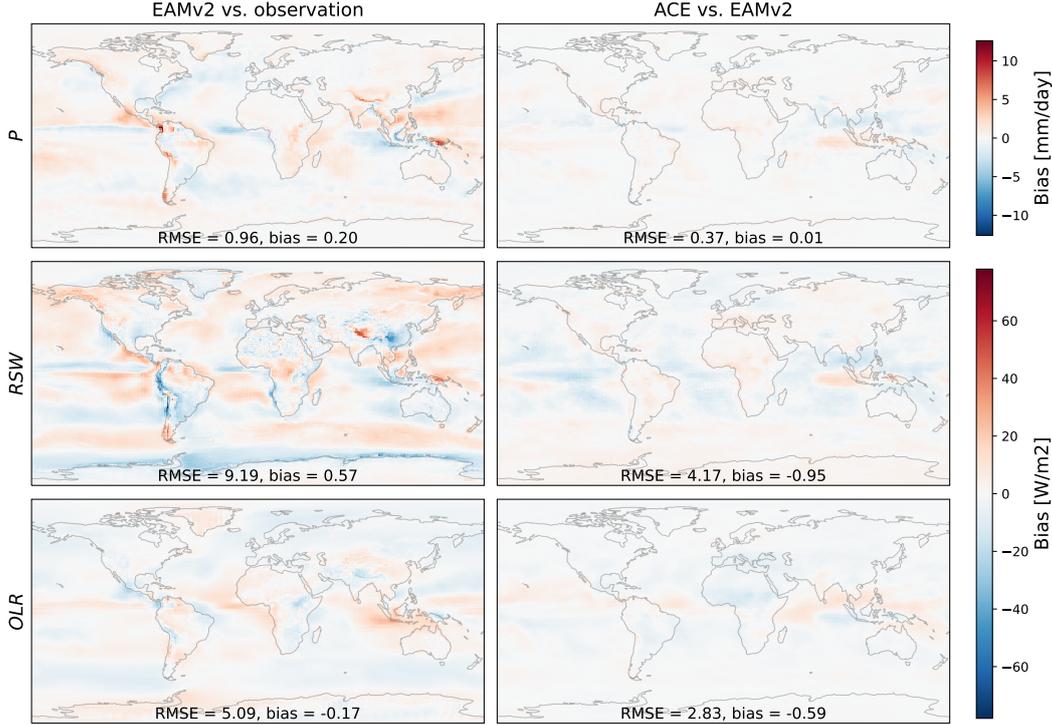


Figure 3. Temporal average of biases for surface precipitation rate (top row), outgoing top-of-atmosphere shortwave (RSW, middle row) and longwave (OLR, bottom row) radiative fluxes. The right column shows the mean spatial distribution of ACE biases vs. EAMv2, comparing the generated 6-hourly outputs to the corresponding simulation targets for the same timestep. The left column compares EAMv2 to the observed temporal mean (from GPCP for precipitation and CERES-EBAF for radiation; see main text.)

ably small 0.37 mm/day, which is comparable to the value of 0.46 reported in Watt-Meyer et al. (2023). EAMv2 observational biases lie between -6.5 and 12.6 mm/day (Figure 3) with a RMSE of 0.96 mm/day. Thus ACE emulates EAMv2 precipitation patterns much better than EAMv2 can simulate them.

OLR biases follow an expected inverse relationship with precipitation biases, a good sign of ACE’s ability to emulate the radiative effects of precipitating cloud systems with cold cloud tops. Their spatial pattern RMSE is only 2.8 W/m², with a global-mean bias of -0.59 W/m². ACE’s shortwave biases are larger, with a spatial pattern RMSE of 4.2 W/m² and a global-mean bias of -0.95 W/m². They are not just associated with deep precipitating cloud systems, but also ‘dim’ subtropical trade cumulus regimes, ‘bright’ Southern Ocean clouds, and excessive reflected shortwave radiation over Antarctica. As with precipitation, these emulation biases are small in comparison to EAMv2’s observational biases. See Table S1 for additional summary metrics.

3.3 Tracking tropical precipitation and the MJO

Most tropical precipitation falls from organized deep convective systems, including tropical cyclones, the Madden Julian Oscillation (MJO), and diverse convectively-coupled waves. Thus it is important that global atmospheric models accurately represent the space-

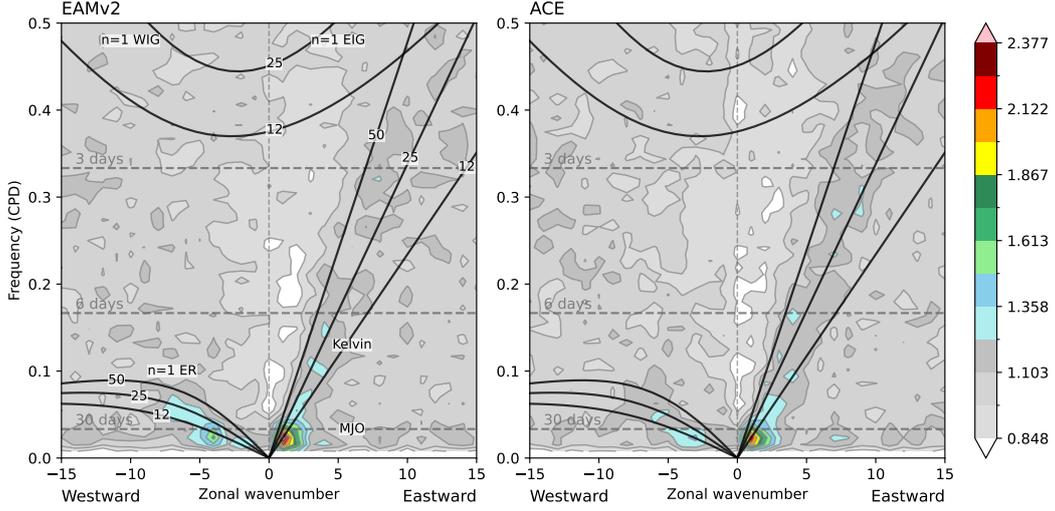


Figure 4. Normalized symmetric component of the wavenumber-frequency spectrum of daily-mean precipitation over a 10 year period for (left) withheld EAMv2 simulation output and (right) corresponding outputs from ACE. As with Figure 17 of Golaz et al. (2022), we label prominent wave types in the left panel and plot shallow water dispersion curves for equivalent depths 12, 25, and 50 m as solid black lines. ER = equatorial Rossby; EIG = eastward inertia-gravity; WIG = westward inertia-gravity.

211 time organization of tropical precipitation, and that an emulator of such a model repli-
 212 cates the organization of its tropical precipitation.

213 The wavenumber-frequency spectrum (Wheeler & Kiladis, 1999) of daily-mean precipi-
 214 tation meridionally averaged over 15°S - 15°N is a widely used diagnostic of the large-
 215 scale organization of tropical precipitation. In Figure 4, we plot the normalized symmet-
 216 ric component of this wavenumber-frequency spectrum over the 10 year validation pe-
 217 riod for the target EAMv2 simulation data and the corresponding outputs from ACE.
 218 EAMv2’s spectrum is the appropriate ground truth against which to evaluate ACE, and
 219 the emulator broadly captures EAMv2’s precipitation variability.

220 Some minor discrepancies include slightly reduced power in the MJO and the equato-
 221 rial Rossby wave, the latter also peaking at a lower wavenumber in ACE compared to
 222 EAMv2. Figure S2 provides a closer look at these features. As noted by Golaz et al. (2022),
 223 compared to satellite retrievals of the historical period, EAMv2’s spectrum has weaker
 224 normalized spectral power in the wavenumber-frequency bands corresponding to the MJO
 225 and the equatorial Rossby wave and severely underestimates precipitation variability as-
 226 sociated with Kelvin and westward inertia-gravity waves. By construction, a perfect em-
 227 ulator should inherit these biases.

228 The Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO) is a convectively-coupled Earth-spanning atmo-
 229 spheric oscillation that is characterized by a large eastward-propagating band of anom-
 230 alous precipitation in the tropics (Madden & Julian, 1971; Zhang, 2005). It is the most
 231 regular and predictable sub-seasonal oscillation of the Earth’s atmosphere and affects
 232 many aspects of tropical and extratropical weather (Waliser et al., 2009; Zhang et al.,
 233 2020). Thus, a good emulator of an atmospheric model should replicate the statistical
 234 characteristics of its MJO.

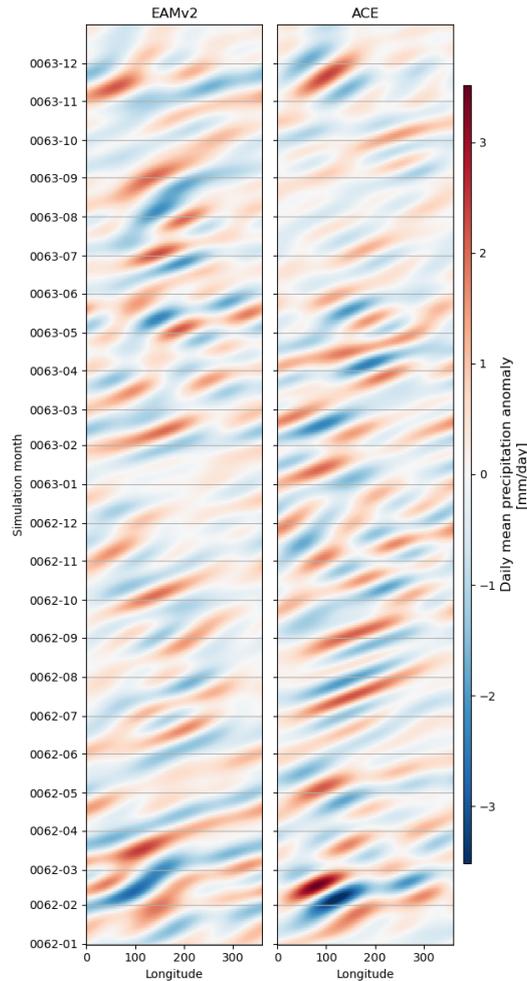


Figure 5. Hovmöller diagrams of daily mean tropical-mean precipitation over two typical years, bandpassed to retain 20-100 day periods. Both EAMv2 and ACE show patterns of eastward propagating tropical precipitation anomalies that last around 30 to 90 days.

235 Figure 4 suggests that ACE captures key statistical characteristics of EAMv2’s simulated
 236 MJO. This skill is more directly verified by isolating the MJO frequency band with a 20-
 237 100 day bandpass filter to daily- and meridional-mean (15°S - 15°N) tropical precipita-
 238 tion anomalies. Figure 5 shows longitude-time Hovmöller diagrams of a typical two year
 239 segment from ACE and EAMv2 simulations of the 10-year validation period. The band-
 240 pass filter drives the roughly 50-day period of the features. It is nevertheless impressive
 241 that ACE (right panel) accurately captures the amplitude and eastward propagation of
 242 the MJO spatiotemporal evolution simulated by EAMv2 (left panel).

243 4 Conclusions

244 With approximately the same training and testing protocol, ACE emulates EAMv2 with
 245 excellent skill similar to the FV3GFS model on which ACE was originally trained, as mea-
 246 sured using 10-year time-mean climatological biases of geographically varying fields such
 247 as precipitation, near-surface and upper-tropospheric temperature and precipitable wa-
 248 ter. This suggests that ACE could easily be trained to also emulate other global atmo-
 249 sphere models.

250 ACE emulates diverse characteristics of EAMv2-simulated precipitation encouragingly
 251 well. The emulator nearly matches the EAMv2 frequency distribution of daily precip-
 252 itation out to its extreme-precipitation tail. A Wheeler-Kiladis spectral analysis of trop-
 253 ical convectively coupled waves also shows good consistency between ACE and EAMv2,
 254 including in the simulated Madden-Julian Oscillation. That is, ACE captures the space-
 255 time organization of precipitation simulated by EAMv2.

256 These results were obtained for the important special case of annually-repeating clima-
 257 tological sea-surface temperatures. It remains to be seen how ACE will fare when faced
 258 with more realistic time-varying forcing or observational data. Over the longer term, we
 259 envision integrating future versions of ACE with other conventional or machine-learned
 260 Earth system components, such as a dynamical ocean, as part of the E3SM ecosystem
 261 and other climate and earth system models. This would enable coupled climate simu-
 262 lations or simulation ensembles with greatly reduced computational cost. We also en-
 263 vision using ACE to emulate finer-grid global atmosphere models, such as DOE’s SCREAM
 264 (Caldwell et al., 2021), using ML to affordably translate the enhanced fidelity of such
 265 models into more reliable centennial climate simulations.

266 Open Research

267 Data Availability Statement

268 ACE model weights (2.5 GB) and the EAMv2 10-year validation set (165 GB) are avail-
 269 able to download over HTTP from the E3SM project’s NERSC science gateway at [https://](https://portal.nersc.gov/archive/home/projects/e3sm/www/e3smv2-fme-dataset)
 270 portal.nersc.gov/archive/home/projects/e3sm/www/e3smv2-fme-dataset. Doc-
 271 umentation, inference code, and an example configuration for running ACE are avail-
 272 able in the following repository: <https://github.com/ai2cm/ace> (Watt-Meyer et al.,
 273 2023).

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 284 Computing Resource Center at Argonne National Laboratory. ACE data preprocessing,
 285 training, and inference runs used NERSC’s Perlmutter system. In addition, we thank
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Supporting Information for “Application of the AI2 Climate Emulator to E3SMv2’s global atmosphere model, with a focus on precipitation fidelity”

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Contents of this file

1. Text S1 to S2
2. Figures S1 to S2
3. Tables S1 to S3

Introduction

In this Supporting Information, we give additional metrics related to ACE’s climatological skill and supplementary figures which provide additional perspectives on the figures of the main text. We also provide further details on the computational efficiency of ACE, the vertical coarsening of raw EAMv2 simulations outputs, and the optimization hyperparameters employed during ACE training.

Text S1. Another perspective on ACE’s emulation biases

Figure S1 compares ACE’s emulation biases to EAMv2’s internal variability. The left column labeled “EAMv2 reference vs. EAMv2” displays the bias patterns observed when comparing EAMv2 to itself, which serves as an ‘oracle’ emulator with the highest climate skill possible in terms of faithfulness to the original simulation, given natural variability due to weather fluctuations. These biases are computed by comparing the unseen reference set, years 64–73 of the EAMv2 simulation run, against the validation target years 54–63. The column labeled “ACE vs. EAMv2” visualizes the same data as the right column of Figure 3 of the main text. Table S1 provides additional bias and RMSE metrics for these variables when evaluating ACE and EAMv2 internally (i.e., against EAMv2 simulation outputs) as in Figure S1 and against historical observations as in the left column of Figure 3.

Text S2. Computational efficiency of ACE

We carried out the 73 year EAMv2 simulation on the Chrysalis supercomputer at Argonne National Laboratory, which is a dedicated E3SM machine¹. Using 30 CPU nodes on Chrysalis, each of which has 2×32 -core AMD EPYC 7532 CPUs, the simulation achieved 24 simulated years per day, or about 10 seconds per simulation day. After training, we ran

ACE inference using a single NVIDIA A100 40 GB GPU on Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory’s Perlmutter supercomputer with a wall clock time of 1 second per simulation day, an approximate 10x speedup. The discrepancy with the 100x speedup found in Watt-Meyer et al. (2023) is explained by the much larger number of cores used for the EAMv2 simulation compared to the FV3GFS simulation, which used a total of 96 cores across two higher-efficiency AMD EPYC 7H12 CPUs. We estimate the energy consumption of 1 second on 1 A100 GPU at maximum power consumption of 400 W is 0.4 kJ, while 10 seconds on 60 total EPYC 7532 CPUs at 200 W is approximately 120 kJ. This amounts to an approximate 300x energy savings when using ACE as a surrogate for EAMv2.

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Notes

1. <https://climatemodeling.science.energy.gov/news/chrysalis-ready-emerge-e3sm-v2-runs>

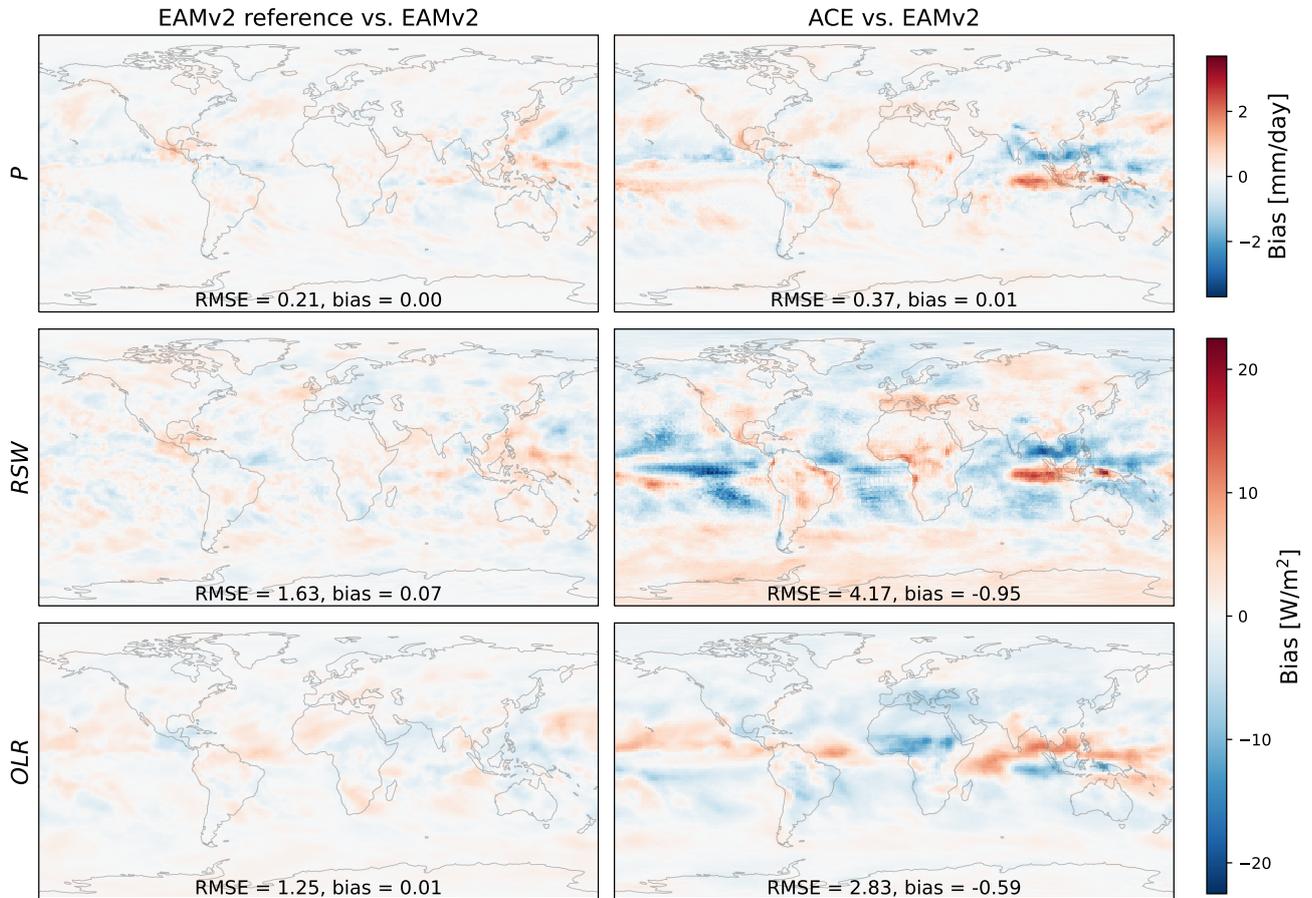


Figure S1. Time average biases (*predicted* - *target*) for precipitation (top row) and top-of-atmosphere outgoing shortwave (*RSW*, middle row) and longwave (*OLR*, bottom row) radiative fluxes. The right column (“ACE vs. EAMv2”) shows the mean spatial distribution of ACE biases, comparing the generated 6-hourly outputs to the corresponding targets for the same timestep. The left column (“EAMv2 reference vs. EAMv2”) compares EAMv2 to itself by recalculating biases using the final 10 years of the simulation set in the place of the *predicted* data, giving a best-case scenario reference.

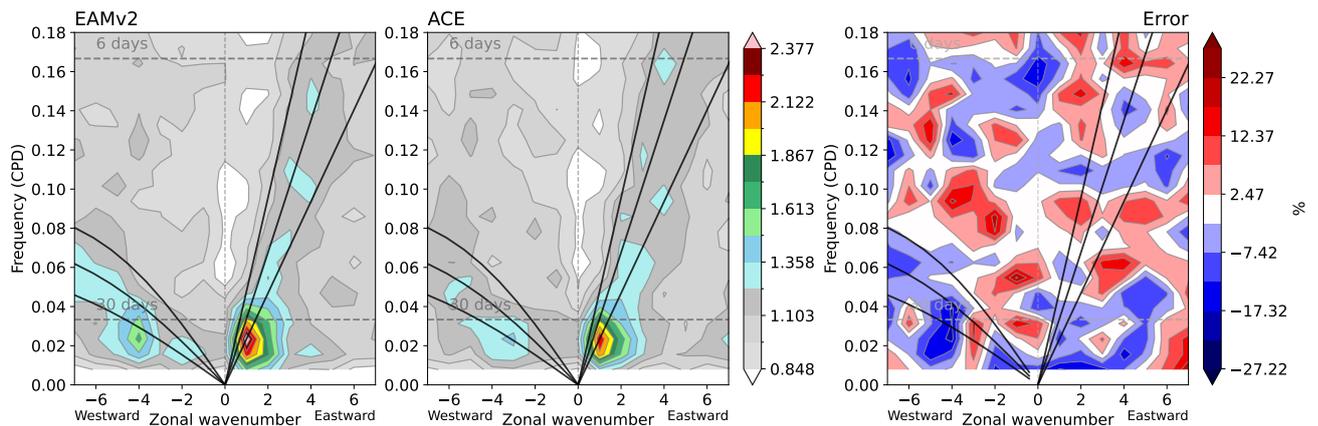


Figure S2. Same as Figure 4 of the main text but zoomed in for a closer look at the tropical spectra between wavenumbers -6 and 6 and frequencies smaller than 0.18. In addition, the third panel displays relative errors within this region, calculated as: $100 \times \frac{\text{predicted power} - \text{target power}}{\text{target power}} \%$.

Table S1. ACE and E3SMv2 biases and RMSEs with respect to various references. ACE_{int} : ACE compared against EAMv2 outputs over the 10 year validation period. $EAMv2_{int}$: EAMv2 outputs over the 10 year reference period compared against EAMv2 outputs over the 10 year validation period. ACE_{obs} : ACE compared against historical observations. $EAMv2_{obs}$: EAMv2 outputs over the 10 year validation period compared against historical observations.

Variable	ACE_{int}		$EAMv2_{int}$		ACE_{obs}		$EAMv2_{obs}$	
	Bias	RMSE	Bias	RMSE	Bias	RMSE	Bias	RMSE
P [mm/day]	5.7e-3	0.37	1.6e-3	0.21	0.20	0.93	0.20	0.96
RSW [W/m ²]	-0.95	4.17	6.7e-2	1.63	-0.38	8.87	0.57	9.19
OLR [W/m ²]	-0.59	2.83	8.5e-3	1.25	-0.77	5.64	-0.17	5.09

Table S2. EAMv2 vertical interface coordinates that were used for vertical coarsening of the raw 3D outputs, reducing the number of vertical levels from 72 to 8 for computational tractability. As in Watt-Meyer et al. (2023), we chose the 9 vertical interfaces listed below that best align with those of the SPEEDY model (Kucharski et al., 2013), in sigma coordinates, assuming a constant reference surface pressure of $p_8^{ref} = 1000$ hPa. The coarsened interfaces are indexed starting from the top of the atmosphere by k from 0 to 8, while the corresponding original EAMv2 interfaces are indexed by I_k . In each grid column, the terrain-following interfacial pressures $p_k = a_k + b_k p_s$ are computed from the hybrid coordinates a_k and b_k and the surface pressure p_s . The original model levels are vertically integrated by mass in order to preserve the total dry air and moisture budget, using the true surface pressure at each point in space and time. For further details, see Watt-Meyer et al. (2023).

k	a_k [Pa]	b_k [unitless]	I_k	p_k^{ref} [hPa]
0	10.0	0.0	0	0.1
1	4943.694	0.0	19	49.4
2	13913.118	0.0	30	139
3	16254.503	0.10464	38	267
4	12435.282	0.31152	44	436
5	8945.939	0.50053	48	590
6	5115.018	0.70804	53	759
7	2027.536	0.87529	61	896
8	0.0	1.0	72	1000

Table S3. Following Watt-Meyer et al. (2023), we employ the Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 2017) with a cosine annealing learning rate schedule decaying to zero by the end of training and use an exponential moving average of the model parameters across training steps. We conducted a thorough hyperparameter search across 29 combinations of batch size, initial learning rate, and number of epochs, arriving at the final choice of hyperparameters based upon a comparison of 10-year time-mean validation metrics, multiyear stability, and visual artifacts. See Watt-Meyer et al. (2023) for additional details on training and SFNO architectural hyperparameters.

Name	Value
Initial learning rate	3×10^{-4}
Number of epochs	50
Batch size	8