

# Context and Aims of the Aqua-Planet Experiment

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## **Abstract**

The Aqua-Planet Experiment (APE) was first proposed by Neale and Hoskins (2000a) as a benchmark for atmospheric general circulation models (AGCMs) on an idealised water-covered Earth. The experiment and its aims are summarised, and its context within a modelling hierarchy used to evaluate complex models and to provide a link between realistic simulation and conceptual models of atmospheric phenomena is discussed. The simplified aqua-planet configuration bridges a gap in the existing hierarchy. It is designed to expose differences between models and to focus attention on particular phenomena and their response to changes in the underlying distribution of sea surface temperature.

## 45    **1. Introduction**

46        The Aqua-Planet Experiment (APE) was proposed by Neale and Hoskins (2000a) as a  
47        coordinated comparison of atmospheric general circulation model (AGCM) simulations on a  
48        water-covered Earth. Eight idealised distributions of sea surface temperature (SST) are  
49        prescribed to explore the climate of a *CONTROL* case and the response to variation of the  
50        latitudinal profile of SST and to localised and global-scale tropical SST anomalies. A  
51        particular focus is the organisation of rainfall over tropical oceans. The idealised  
52        configuration is designed to expose differences in the circulation simulated by different  
53        models.

54  
55        APE is intended to be one component of a modelling hierarchy - a hierarchy of increasing  
56        complexity, of the models themselves and of the experimental configuration to which they  
57        are applied. The hierarchy has two distinct but overlapping roles. On the one hand it  
58        provides a suite of benchmark experiments to test complex models and their components.  
59        This can be considered an *evaluation framework*. On the other hand it provides a link  
60        between theory, observation and complex models in meteorology, the need for which has  
61        been stressed by Hoskins (1983) and Held (2005). This can be considered a *conceptual*  
62        *framework*. Without the full range of models, from the simple 'back-of-the-envelope'  
63        models to the complex, state-of-the-art, computer intensive models, theory tends to  
64        proceed with little contact with data from the real atmosphere and results from complex

65 models. In consequence, the framework for interpreting observations and the results from  
66 complex models, and also for improving the complex models themselves, can become  
67 fossilised. Held expressed the need for a modelling hierarchy to link the twin goals of  
68 simulation and understanding. There is a degree of overlap between the evaluation and  
69 conceptual frameworks, and we will argue that APE has the potential to fulfil a critical role at  
70 this interface.

71

72 Before describing the APE proposal in section 4, it is first justified by providing some  
73 historical, theoretical and modern modelling context in sections 2 and 3. Future  
74 development and use of APE within the modelling hierarchy is discussed in section 5.

75

## 76 **2. Historical and Theoretical Context**

77 The earliest theories of atmospheric circulation, by Halley in the 17<sup>th</sup> century and Hadley  
78 in the 18<sup>th</sup> century, were no doubt influenced in their focus on the Trade winds and the  
79 tropical convergence regions by the maritime interests of their country during those times.  
80 Their discussion and that of Dove in the 19<sup>th</sup> century was in terms of a planet on which the  
81 zonal asymmetries and continents were of secondary importance. The zonally averaged  
82 motion remained the framework for the majority of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and in particular in the  
83 superb monograph of Lorenz (1967) which summarised the contribution of Halley, Hadley  
84 and many others. The zonally averaged state and eddy fluxes were at that time

85 synonymous with the general circulation of the atmosphere. Zonal asymmetries per se  
86 were not high on the agenda and their impact was through eddy terms.

87

88 One episode soon after Hadley's work is particularly relevant in the present context. As  
89 discussed by Egger and Pelkowski (2008), in 1746 the Academy of Prussia made the  
90 subject of its annual prize the determination of "*the order and the law which winds would*  
91 *have to observe if the Earth were surrounded everywhere by an ocean, so as to find at all*  
92 *times the direction and the velocity of the wind for every place*". The responses to the  
93 competition are perhaps of limited relevance to the APE proposal considered here,  
94 because the Academy intended a solution based on the theory of tides and specifically  
95 excluded the effects of radiative heating. Nevertheless, the motivation, of better  
96 understanding through considering a simplified problem, mirrors the motivation for APE  
97 described in the introduction. Egger and Pelkowski consider the responses published by  
98 the Academy to be the first mathematical models in dynamic meteorology.

99

100 Theories of the Hadley circulation have advanced in recent decades, beginning with a  
101 numerical model by Schneider (1977) and an elegant analytic model by Held and Hou  
102 (1980). In this theory the Hadley Cell exists when the thermal state in moist equilibrium  
103 with the underlying zonal SSTs has a thermal wind that is inconsistent with angular  
104 momentum conservation from rest at the equator. The Hadley Cell then exists and acts to

105 reduce the interior temperature gradient below that implied by the SSTs. According to the  
106 model this occurs only if the tropical profile with latitude is steeper than quartic. Later,  
107 Lindzen and Hou (1988) showed sensitivity of the relative amplitudes of the Cells in the two  
108 hemispheres to the SST maximum being displaced from the equator. Displacement of the  
109 solar heating by as little as  $2^\circ$  produces a much stronger circulation than the equatorial  
110 case, with a dominant Cell crossing the equator into the winter hemisphere, more  
111 consistent with the observed seasonal cycle and intensity of the annual mean circulation.  
112 Realism may be further enhanced by including a simple representation of latent heating by  
113 convection, either heuristically (Held and Hou, 1980) or by numerical solution (Schneider,  
114 1977). In this “moist” Hadley Cell model, broad-scale descent is similar to that in the dry  
115 solution but ascent becomes stronger and confined in a narrow region, more like the  
116 observed inter-tropical convergence zone (ITCZ).

117

118 Alongside this tropic-wide theory, a number of studies have been motivated by the  
119 question of whether SST or a dynamical mechanism primarily determines the location of  
120 the ITCZ, based on observational evidence that it remains off the equator even in regions  
121 with an equatorial SST maximum. A simple thermodynamic argument predicts that the  
122 ITCZ and its boundary layer convergence will be coincident with the latitude of maximum  
123 SST: ubiquitous deep convection produces the warmest air in depth here, with low pressure  
124 at the surface and high pressure aloft driving the horizontal branches of a thermally direct

125 meridional overturning circulation. Dynamical processes may then give a preference for  
126 convergence on or off the equator. This leads to the possibility that the ITCZ will be  
127 located above a strongly peaked equatorial SST but move off the equator for a weaker  
128 tropical SST gradient, with a double ITCZ for weakly peaked SSTs that are symmetric about  
129 the equator or, as observed in the eastern Pacific, in the presence of an equatorial  
130 minimum in SST. The first dynamical theory, by Charney (1971), applied the concept of  
131 conditional instability of the second kind (CISK) to the zonally symmetric tropical flow. In  
132 this model, frictionally induced convergence increases with latitude in the cyclonic shear of  
133 the easterly trade winds, counteracting a decreasing efficiency of moisture convergence  
134 with decreasing SST away from the equator. The resulting tension between SST and the  
135 Coriolis force in this CISK model results in a preferred latitude for the ITCZ. Waliser and  
136 Somerville (1994) and Tomas et al. (1999) used momentum balance considerations to  
137 suggest that, close to the equator (within about a Rossby radius), low level meridional  
138 inflow to an ITCZ is determined frictionally rather than geostrophically, allowing enhanced  
139 convergence and feedback with mid-level heating for an ITCZ located around 4-12° from  
140 the equator. However, these studies generally impose part of the solution, either the  
141 latitudinal structure of the heating or the pressure field, so it can be argued that they are  
142 primarily diagnostic consistency arguments. Other latitudinally varying influences on the  
143 ITCZ have been proposed, including the occurrence of inertia gravity waves and friction  
144 (e.g. Chao and Chen, 2004).

145

146       It was recognised early in the development of these theories that ITCZ convection is far  
147       from zonally symmetric. Charney's CISK model implies that ITCZ structure is determined  
148       by the 2D zonally symmetric dynamics, and that this then determines the dominant tropical  
149       disturbances (Charney, 1971, 1974). Conversely, Holton et al. (1971) and Holton (1974)  
150       used theory to suggest that the disturbances should set the ITCZ structure.

151

152       Zonally asymmetric circulations have since been increasingly studied. The response to  
153       tropical heating in a longitudinally confined region, perhaps associated with an SST  
154       anomaly there, was analysed by Gill (1980) in terms of a specified deep vertical structure  
155       and the equatorial wave modes first discussed by Matsuno (1966). The interpretation of  
156       the observed response to such forcing in terms of equatorial Rossby waves to the west and  
157       a Kelvin wave to the east has since become a fundamental concept. Hoskins and Karoly  
158       (1981) showed that such a tropical response can initiate a stationary Rossby wave that  
159       propagates in an almost great circle path to influence higher latitudes. The same  
160       equatorial waves can exist as free modes in a dry atmosphere and many studies (e.g.  
161       Wheeler and Kiladis, 1999; Yang et al., 2007) have looked at the relevance of equatorial  
162       waves and other processes to observed organisation of tropical convection.

163

164       Much of the research on extra-tropical storm-tracks has also been done in the context of



165 a longitudinally symmetric basic state modelled on that over the ocean basins. In  
166 particular, this was the case for the theoretical models of baroclinic instability of Charney  
167 (1947) and Eady (1949), and the baroclinic wave life-cycle experiments of Simmons and  
168 Hoskins (1978).

169

170 Early in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Jeffreys (1926) recognised the role of eddies in maintaining both  
171 the trade winds and the mid-latitude westerlies against friction through a poleward transport  
172 of angular momentum. The westerly momentum sink in the regions of the subtropical jets  
173 due to the eddies is important in the angular momentum budget of the Hadley Cells,  
174 reducing the jet speeds far below those implied by angular momentum conservation.  
175 Recently, Shutts (2006) has emphasised the sensitivity of the Hadley Cell circulations in  
176 equatorial  $\beta$ -plane simulations to the magnitude of momentum sink imposed in his model.  
177 Lorenz (1955) quantified both the thermal and mechanical impacts of eddies on the zonally  
178 averaged flow in his global energy cycle of Available Potential Energy and Kinetic Energy.

179

180 Later, recognition of the conditions under which eddies do and do not influence the  
181 zonally averaged flow, by Eliassen and Palm (1961) and Charney and Drazin (1961), led to  
182 development of a generalised wave mean-flow interaction theory by Andrews and McIntyre  
183 (1976) and Boyd (1976), in which the total forcing of the zonally averaged flow by eddies is  
184 characterised by the convergence of a flux of wave activity in the meridional plane, the

185 Eliassen-Palm or EP flux. This combination of the eddy heat and momentum fluxes,  
186 together with a residual meridional circulation, then describes the forcing and evolution of  
187 the zonally averaged state in a Transformed Eulerian Mean framework (Edmon et al., 1980).  
188 This theoretical and diagnostic framework remains ideally suited to idealised modelling  
189 studies with zonally symmetric boundary conditions and forcing.

190

### 191 **3. Modern Modelling Context**

#### 192 *3.1. The conceptual role of aqua-planet configurations*

193 Many of the theoretical studies discussed so far used numerical models, including  
194 AGCMs, to test the theory and explore the expected behaviour in comparison with  
195 observations. By the nature of the theories being tested, many of these were aqua-planet  
196 models. In fact many early numerical studies were conceived as aqua-planet models,  
197 despite their representation of moist processes being so simplified that interaction with an  
198 underlying ocean was implicit rather than directly modelled. Phillips' (1956) pioneering  
199 experiment to investigate the growth of mid-latitude baroclinic disturbances and their role in  
200 maintaining the zonally averaged flow used a 2-layer quasi-geostrophic beta-plane model  
201 with zonally symmetric boundary conditions and forcing. Bates (1970) used the same  
202 dynamical formulation with Charney's CISK representation of tropical convection to study a  
203 zonally symmetric ITCZ and the nature of disturbances on it. The model produced a  
204 strong ITCZ at 14° latitude, despite a reference temperature with an equatorial maximum

205 and a quadratic profile with latitude, which Held and Hou's later theory predicts should  
206 produce a Hadley Cell with equatorial ascent. This was perhaps an early indication of the  
207 dependence of simulated tropical behaviour on modelling choices, particularly that of  
208 convective parameterization, found in later modelling studies.

209

210 Hayashi and Sumi (1986) were the first to use a full primitive equation AGCM in an  
211 idealised study on a water-covered Earth, introducing the term "aqua-planet" to describe  
212 the configuration. They found spontaneous organisation of equatorial convection into slow  
213 eastward propagating "super-clusters" that were modulated on the planetary scale in a  
214 similar way to the observed 30-60 day intraseasonal oscillation. Their model also  
215 produced a double ITCZ with a rainfall minimum on the equator, even with an equatorial  
216 maximum of SST. This seminal work spawned an increasing number of idealised  
217 modelling studies of tropical convection that continue to today.

218

219 Sumi (1992), using an even simpler AGCM configuration of globally uniform SST and  
220 radiative cooling, still found spontaneous organisation of tropical convection. Tropical  
221 rainfall was banded with a single or double maximum about the equator, but much weaker  
222 than the ITCZ obtained with a more realistic SST profile. Sumi concluded that convective  
223 organisation is dependent on equatorial waves dynamics, and therefore on planetary  
224 rotation rate. Hess et al. (1993) used a number of idealised zonally symmetric SST

225 profiles, reproduced in **Fig.1**, ranging from one with an equatorial minimum through flat in  
226 the tropics to sharply peaked, with SST symmetric or asymmetric about the equator.  
227 Different convective parameterizations in the same model were found to produce  
228 qualitatively different tropical circulations, both for the mean flow and transients for a  
229 standard SST case, and different sensitivities to SST profile. Hess et al. concluded that  
230 GCM simulations are likely to be sensitive to parameterization in tropical regions which  
231 have relatively weak SST gradients, something that has been borne out in subsequent  
232 studies. However, simulations have proved to be sensitive to many model processes and  
233 choices. For example, Numaguti (1993) and Chao and Chen (2004) obtained a single or  
234 double ITCZ by disabling specific physical interactions in their models, including the  
235 dependence of surface evaporation on wind speed, and Williamson and Olson (2003)  
236 found a marked sensitivity to time step in the NCAR model.

237

238 At the same time, coupled atmosphere-ocean GCM simulations of present-day Earth  
239 climate have persistently exhibited an unrealistic double ITCZ in the tropical Pacific  
240 (Mehoso et al., 1995; Lin, 2007). Such a structure is observed in boreal Spring in the  
241 east Pacific, but models generally exaggerate and extend the equatorial SST cold-tongue  
242 and off-equator deep convection across the Pacific basin in all seasons. Lin (2007)  
243 compared coupled and prescribed-SST simulations from phase 3 of the Coupled Climate  
244 Intercomparison Project (CMIP3, Meehl et al., 2007). Consistent with an earlier analysis

245 of two coupled models by Schneider (2002), Lin deduced that the double-ITCZ arises  
246 through ocean-atmosphere coupling, but originates in biased precipitation and circulation  
247 responses to realistic SSTs that are intrinsic to the uncoupled AGCMs. In the CMIP3  
248 AGCMs, excessive tropical precipitation and Pacific trade winds lead to biased surface  
249 stress and surface heat flux. This generates excessive equatorial upwelling and SST  
250 errors in the coupled models, giving rise to a feedback that splits the ITCZ.

251

252 Aqua-planet simulations could be used to investigate the underlying AGCM precipitation  
253 biases, by characterising ITCZ behaviour in a controlled context, for a range of idealised  
254 zonally symmetric and zonally varying SSTs. This would also provide a link to the  
255 conceptual models discussed earlier, which predict splitting of a single equatorial ITCZ as  
256 the tropical SST profile flattens. The surface stress associated with easterly trade winds  
257 implies that coupling to an ocean could destabilise an equatorial ITCZ, with excessive  
258 trades exaggerating the effect. Differences in ITCZ splitting and latitudinal profiles of  
259 zonal wind stress produced by different AGCMs could be used to compute implied  
260 variations in equatorial upwelling, and these could be compared to the upwelling produced  
261 when each aqua-planet AGCM is coupled to a dynamical tropical ocean.

262

263 Aqua-planet AGCMs have also been used to study aspects of the mid-latitude storm  
264 tracks, including the behaviour of baroclinic wave packets (Lee and Held, 1993), wave

265 breaking (Lee and Feldstein, 1996) and variability of the westerly jet (Feldstein and Lee,  
266 1996). Idealised modelling of annular variability has received increasing attention,  
267 including further studies using aqua-planets (e.g. Cash et al., 2002). Aqua-planets have  
268 been used to study sensitivity of idealised storm tracks to the underlying latitudinal SST  
269 structure (Brayshaw et al., 2008, Lu et al., 2010).

270

271 With increasing computer power, Cloud System Resolving Models (CSRMs) have  
272 recently been applied to large aqua-planet domains, generally non-rotating with constant  
273 SST to investigate the spontaneous organisation of convection in radiative convective  
274 equilibrium (Bretherton et al., 2005; Stephens et al., 2008). These studies have found a  
275 “self-aggregation” of deep convection into one or more clusters that depends on cloud  
276 radiative and/or surface flux feedbacks. In the work mentioned above, Shutts (2006) used  
277 a form of CSRMs on an equatorial  $\beta$ -plane aqua-planet with varying SST to investigate the  
278 large scale tropical circulation.

279

### 280 3.2. *The evaluation role of aqua-planet configurations*

281 It is clear from the preceding discussion that aqua-planet configurations have provided  
282 both a simplified context to understand more complex observed and model behaviour and a  
283 link to theory and simpler models. This is the conceptual role of the modelling hierarchy  
284 discussed earlier. However, a number of such studies also highlight a dependence of the

285 simulated circulation, particularly in the tropics, on modelling choices. Moreover, the  
286 variety of GCM behaviour seen in realistic simulations appears more starkly in aqua-planet  
287 simulations. This suggests an evaluation role for aqua-planet configurations in the AGCM  
288 modelling hierarchy.

289

290 The present hierarchy of AGCMs includes at the simpler end baroclinic models of varying  
291 complexity. A further simplification which retains prognostic divergent motion is the  
292 shallow water equations. A benchmark suite of test cases has been developed to  
293 evaluate different numerical formulations of the nonlinear shallow water equations on the  
294 sphere (Williamson et al., 1992). Baroclinic dynamical cores are used with only internal  
295 diffusion for baroclinic life-cycle simulations (Simmons and Hoskins, 1978) and for  
296 simulating the direct impact of tropical heating (Hoskins and Karoly, 1981). Deterministic  
297 initial-value test cases of baroclinic instability have been proposed for these primitive  
298 equations models (Polvani et al., 2004; Jablonowski and Williamson, 2006). Following  
299 James and Gray (1986) and Held and Suarez (1994), long-period experiments have been  
300 performed in which temperature is relaxed towards a prescribed 2-D field, with the  
301 Held-Suarez configuration designed as a further benchmark test case. A related test was  
302 proposed by Boer and Denis (1997), in which the thermodynamic forcing combines a  
303 dominant specified time-independent heating function with a weak linear relaxation towards  
304 a specified zonal climatology.

305

306     The Newtonian-relaxed dynamical cores have proved extremely useful in many  
307 experiments aimed at understanding basic aspects of observed atmospheric structure and  
308 variability. Following James and Gray (1986), this configuration with zonally symmetric  
309 forcing has been used extensively to study low frequency variability of the zonally averaged  
310 flow and baroclinic disturbances (e.g. Robinson, 1991; James and James, 1992, Yu and  
311 Hartmann, 1993 and Akahori and Yoden, 1997 and subsequently) and the impact of  
312 stratospheric perturbations on the troposphere (e.g. Polvani and Kushner, 2002; Kushner  
313 and Polvani, 2004; Haigh et al., 2005 and subsequently). Dynamical cores have also  
314 been used to interpret the sensitivity of AGCMs to numerical formulation, in some cases by  
315 showing the importance of an explicit representation of moist processes in such sensitivities.  
316 For example, the introduction of semi-Lagrangian dynamical cores corrected or significantly  
317 reduced the polar tropopause cold bias seen historically in AGCM climate simulations, but  
318 this impact was not seen when the same models were applied to the Held-Suarez test case  
319 (Chen and Bates, 1996; Chen et al., 1997; Williamson and Olson, 1998; Williamson et al.,  
320 1998). Clearly the different responses are associated with the very different  
321 parameterizations of physical processes.

322

323     At the complex end of the hierarchy, next to Earth System Models and Coupled  
324 Ocean-Atmosphere GCMs, AGCMs with their full package of physical parameterizations



325 are used with prescribed SSTs. This configuration has proved stimulating in consideration  
326 of the response to realistic SST and sea-ice anomalies, and has been used widely in model  
327 intercomparisons such as the Atmospheric Model Intercomparison Project (AMIP, Gates,  
328 1992; Gates et al., 1999). However, often the interpretation of the experiments has proved  
329 difficult and firm conclusions frustratingly elusive because of the complexity of the  
330 simulations.

331

332 There is therefore a large gap in the hierarchy between, on the one hand, atmospheric  
333 dynamical cores with Newtonian relaxation and idealised configurations and, on the other  
334 hand, the AGCMs with their dynamical cores plus full physics packages and complex  
335 geography and prescribed SSTs. In this gap can be placed full physics AGCMs but with  
336 much simplified lower boundary conditions, in particular a water-covered Earth with simple  
337 SSTs, the aqua-planet configuration introduced by Hayashi and Sumi (1986). Other ways  
338 of filling portions of this gap have been tried. Simple moist and radiative physics can be  
339 added to baroclinic wave simulations (e.g. Hoskins, 1978; Gutowski et al., 1992) or can be  
340 used to replace complex parameterization suites of AGCMs in aqua-planet configurations  
341 (e.g. Frierson et al., 2006). This latter approach, which we will call an Idealised Moist Core,  
342 will be developed further in the discussion in section 5. Numerical weather prediction  
343 provides a continuous evaluation of operational models, and has been proposed as a  
344 method to evaluate AGCMs used for climate studies (Phillips et al., 2004), as also has

345 seasonal prediction (Palmer et al., 2008).

346

347 The preceding range of models and test cases may be considered as one branch of a  
348 wider modelling hierarchy used for AGCM evaluation, represented schematically in **Fig. 2**.

Fig.2

349 With the exception of the shallow water model, in this branch the AGCM dynamical core is  
350 fixed at its most complex and the representation of physical (as opposed to dynamical)  
351 processes increases in complexity. A parallel branch exists in which the complex physical  
352 parameterization package is fixed and coupled to a range of dynamical models. The  
353 simplest such configuration is a single column model (SCM), used widely to test AGCM  
354 parameterizations. However, the large scale dynamics is prescribed in an SCM, with very  
355 limited possibility for interaction between the physics and dynamics to expose feedbacks  
356 and sensitivities. More complex formulations couple an SCM to a reference column  
357 (Sobel and Bretherton, 2000), or couple two SCMs with simplified dynamics (e.g. Nilsson  
358 and Emanuel, 1999; Raymond and Zeng, 2000). Beyond this, a range of intermediate  
359 dynamics and configurations is possible, up to use of the complete AGCM in idealised  
360 configurations such as aqua-planets and finally realistic configurations. The aqua-planet  
361 is notable for being the simplest experimental configuration in which the complete  
362 dynamical and physical parameterization components of an AGCM are coupled together.

363

#### 364 **4. APE Proposal and Aims**

365 The foregoing review emphasises the need for a systematic analysis of AGCM behaviour,  
366 on both conceptual and evaluation grounds, to improve our understanding and simulation  
367 of key components of the atmospheric circulation. Aqua-planet configurations have  
368 already proved useful in this regard, highlighting specific atmospheric phenomena,  
369 providing a link with conceptual models of those phenomena, and bridging a gap between  
370 complete AGCMs in realistic configurations and simpler models in both branches of the  
371 existing modelling hierarchy. A benchmark experiment or suite of experiments has been  
372 devised for each existing member of the hierarchy and the Aqua-Planet Experiment (APE)  
373 was proposed by Neale and Hoskins (2000a) to fulfil that role for the aqua-planet  
374 configuration.

375

#### 376 4.1. The Proposal

377 Neale and Hoskins proposed a suite of eight simulations, each comprising an idealised  
378 distribution of SST and forced by perpetual equinoctial insolation. The SSTs are defined in  
379 the Appendix for completeness. Five SSTs, shown in **Fig.3**, are zonally symmetric profiles  
380 and the first 4 of these are also symmetric about the equator. They have varying curvature  
381 in the tropics, from a *PEAKED* profile in which the mid-latitude SST gradient continues to  
382 the equator, through a *CONTROL* with  $\sin^2(\varphi)$  variation and *QOBS* which is closer to the  
383 observed profile in the Pacific, to a  $\sin^4(\varphi)$  profile, denoted *FLAT*, which is the limiting  
384 thermodynamic profile for the existence of a Hadley circulation in the Held and Hou model.

Fig.3

385 The fifth profile, *CONTROL5N*, is asymmetric about the equator, moving the maximum SST  
386 in the *CONTROL* case to 5°N. These zonally symmetric profiles systematise those used  
387 by Hess et al. (1993), and explicitly test the relevance of the theoretical limit of the Held and  
388 Hou model to AGCMs. A further 3 SST distributions, shown in **Fig.4**, add tropical  
389 anomalies to the *CONTROL* profile. *1KEQ* and *3KEQ* add a localised equatorial warm  
390 anomaly of 1 K and 3 K respectively, while *3KW1* adds a global scale anomaly of 3 K  
391 amplitude with wavenumber 1 variation in longitude.

Fig.4

392  
393 The experimental design has been further developed to ensure as far as possible a  
394 precise configuration for the systematic comparison of AGCMs. This is summarised in the  
395 Appendix and is described in detail in Williamson et al. (2012). In addition to the 8 SST  
396 distributions, the design defines the insolation and a zonally symmetric ozone climatology,  
397 both of which are precisely symmetric about the equator, plus the concentrations of  
398 well-mixed greenhouse gases, aerosols and the geophysical constants. All simulations  
399 should be spun-up to equilibrium for at least 6 months, before an experimental period of 3  
400 years. With perpetual equinox insolation, this was found to be adequate to achieve  
401 convergence of many climate statistics.

## 403 4.2. Aims

404 A general justification has already been given for APE as a component of the modelling

405 hierarchy. The specific aims of the experiment can be expressed in terms of the  
406 evaluation and conceptual roles of the hierarchy.

407

#### 408 Evaluation Aims

409 \* APE is intended to be an idealised benchmark experiment for AGCMs.

410 \* The idealised configuration is designed to expose differences in the circulation  
411 simulated by different models. In particular, forcing of the circulation is zonally symmetric  
412 in 5 of the 8 experiments, apart from inclusion of the diurnal cycle of insolation. All  
413 eddying motion must then arise spontaneously, either by dynamical instability or by  
414 interaction of the resolved fluid dynamics and parameterized physical processes.

415 \* It aims to stimulate research to understand the causes of inter-model differences,  
416 arising from different subgrid-scale parameterization suites, different dynamical cores, and  
417 different methods of coupling the two.

418

#### 419 Conceptual Aims

420 \* The simplified configuration focuses attention on the distribution and variability of  
421 convection in the tropics and on the storm-tracks in mid-latitudes.

422 \* Phenomena are cleanly separated into a zonally averaged state and eddies. This aids  
423 interpretation, by allowing established diagnostic frameworks to be applied and links to be  
424 made to simpler models and theory.

425       \* The symmetric SST experiments can be repeated in a 2D framework, in the absence of  
426       zonal asymmetries. The resulting circulation relates more closely to conceptual models of  
427       the Hadley circulation and ITCZ discussed in section 2.

428       \* The experiments can also be performed in more idealised models, allowing clean  
429       comparison with complex AGCMs and, at the same time, closer links to conceptual models.

430

#### 431   4.3. *Specific Goals*

432       Not all the goals listed below are explored in the initial coordinated model  
433       intercomparison, reported in other papers in this Special Issue. But all are longer term  
434       goals for APE.

435       \* Quantify the variation among models of key components of atmospheric circulation, and  
436       compare this modelling uncertainty with that in SST-forced Earth-climate (AMIP)  
437       simulations by the same models.

438       \* Explore AGCM simulation of the expected breakdown of the Hadley circulation and  
439       equatorial ITCZ as the SST profile is flattened in the tropics.

440       \* Compare the response of the tropical circulation to displacement of the SST maximum  
441       into a “summer” hemisphere with conceptual models. These predict an intensification of  
442       an asymmetric Hadley circulation into the “winter” hemisphere.

443       \* Compare AGCM simulations of tropical variability and its projection onto the spectrum  
444       of equatorially trapped waves. Unlike the extra-tropics, where dynamical instability is the

445 dominant source of eddy variability in the aqua-planet configuration, tropical variability  
446 arises from interaction of the dynamics and physical (moist, radiative) processes that must  
447 be parameterized in AGCMs. Tropical variability is therefore expected to vary more widely  
448 among models.

449 \* Determine the extra-tropical response to changes in SST profile, and how these are  
450 related to changes in the tropical circulation.

451 \* Determine the circulation response to a localised anomaly in tropical SST, what  
452 processes determine the local and global responses, and how these vary between models.

453 \* Determine the circulation response to a planetary scale anomaly in tropical SST. This  
454 involves the generation and propagation of planetary-scale Rossby waves, their  
455 longitudinal modulation of the extra-tropical storm-track and their impact on meridional  
456 transports.

457

458 A number of these aspects were investigated for a single AGCM by Neale and Hoskins  
459 (2000b). A coordinated model intercomparison will reveal the range of behaviour and  
460 circulation responses in a number of models. Sensitivity studies in individual models will  
461 reveal dependences on specific modelling choices.

462

## 463 **5. Discussion**

464 Context has been provided for the Aqua-Planet Experiment, first proposed as a

465 benchmark for AGCMs on a water-covered Earth by Neale and Hoskins (2000a). The  
466 experiment and its aims have been described. APE bridges a gap in the existing  
467 modelling hierarchy that is used to evaluate complex models and to provide a link between  
468 realistic simulation and conceptual models of atmospheric phenomena. The simplified  
469 aqua-planet configuration is designed to expose differences between models due to the  
470 interaction of modelled physics and dynamics and to focus attention on particular  
471 phenomena and their response to changes in the underlying distribution of sea surface  
472 temperature.

473

474 Other papers in this Special Issue describe a first coordinated intercomparison of AGCM  
475 simulations using the APE configuration. Certain aspects, including the mid-latitude storm  
476 track and its response to changes in SST and tropical circulation, remain to be explored in  
477 depth.

478

479 APE is intended to be used and developed in a number of ways, covering the various  
480 contexts described in this paper. This first APE intercomparison is a benchmark of current  
481 model behaviour and is intended to stimulate ongoing evaluation of AGCMs using the APE  
482 configuration. In the immediate future, one of the APE experiments, *QOBS*, is included in  
483 CMIP5 (Taylor et al., 2009), alongside the AMIP benchmark and coupled  
484 ocean-atmosphere experiments.



485

486       In contrast to realistic simulation in weather prediction and climate, there is no verification  
487       for APE to determine the fidelity and accuracy of individual models. APE simulations may  
488       therefore be best evaluated in conjunction with parallel AMIP simulations, which also use  
489       prescribed SSTs but which can be evaluated against observations. The same argument  
490       can be applied to experiments for simpler models in the hierarchy, including the  
491       Held-Suarez dynamical core benchmark experiment, for which there is no reference  
492       solution or independent knowledge of “truth”. It is instructive to consider what might  
493       constitute a reference solution for APE or the dynamical core. One approach is  
494       investigation of the possible convergence of model climate with increasing resolution. If  
495       multiple models were to converge towards a unique solution for a given benchmark  
496       experiment, and there is no guarantee that they would, there might be some confidence  
497       that this was indeed the “true” climate. In a dynamical core, the climate forcing is specified  
498       analytically, with parameter settings independent of resolution, but the explicit numerical  
499       damping is tuned for each resolution, in a way that depends on each model's numerical  
500       scheme. As a result, convergence of multiple models towards a unique climate is not  
501       guaranteed. However, in APE the tuning and even choice of physical parameterization  
502       schemes is resolution dependent. This is particularly true of convection schemes, which  
503       must either be switched off or be designed to switch off gradually as convective scale  
504       motions become resolved. Such resolution dependence renders the possibility of

505 convergence of multiple moist AGCMs towards a unique climate significantly less likely  
506 than for dynamical cores. However, the approach of increasing model resolution could, at  
507 the least, reduce modelling uncertainty.

508

509 Further ahead, it may be possible to use global CSRMs and then Cloud Resolving  
510 Models (CRMs) to simulate the equilibrated APE climate. Such fine scale models have  
511 already proved useful for evaluating AGCM parameterizations in observed and idealised  
512 case studies, so it is possible that multiple CRMs may show a higher degree of  
513 convergence than AGCMs, thereby further reducing uncertainty as to the target in APE.  
514 These issues are discussed in the light of the AGCM simulations of the APE *CONTROL*  
515 case by Blackburn et al. (2013).

516

517 APE may also be used to investigate internal atmospheric variability and the response to  
518 external forcing in an idealised context. This has arguably been the main use of the  
519 Held-Suarez configuration since its introduction in 1994, with numerous studies perturbing  
520 the Newtonian reference state and investigating the resulting changes in mean state and  
521 variability. In contrast to Held-Suarez, the idealised APE climate includes realistic moist  
522 and radiative feedbacks to any imposed forcing. As an example, Kodama and Iwasaki  
523 (2009) perturbed the APE *CONTROL* SSTs globally and regionally to investigate aspects of  
524 the atmospheric response to increased greenhouse gases. CMIP5 includes a global +4 K

525 SST perturbation and a 4xCO<sub>2</sub> version of the APE QOBS experiment, allowing components  
526 of the climate change response to be investigated in a simplified framework.

527

528 APE is also a basis for more complex configurations to understand aspects of global  
529 circulation. For example Brayshaw et al. (2009) and Saulière et al. (2012) have added  
530 idealised continents and SST anomalies to investigate the “building blocks” of the observed  
531 north Atlantic and north Pacific storm-track climate respectively. Xie and Saiki (1999)  
532 looked at summer monsoon development when an idealised Asia is added. Idealised  
533 geographical configurations could also have an evaluation role, particularly to investigate  
534 the land-sea distribution of tropical precipitation in different AGCMs without resorting to  
535 realistic geography.

536

537 Further development of the modelling hierarchy has already been discussed. An  
538 additional possibility is simplification of APE, since each AGCM retains its unique dynamical  
539 core and suite of parameterizations in APE, which makes it difficult to attribute differences  
540 in model behaviour to particular modelling choices. Studies in individual models help to  
541 elucidate such sensitivities, while simplification of model processes in multiple models  
542 reduces differences between their formulations. Simpler models also relate more closely  
543 to conceptual models of particular phenomena. Options for simplifying the dynamics,  
544 while retaining the AGCM parameterizations, are probably limited, beyond imposing zonal

545 symmetry. Of the parameterizations, radiative processes could be simplified by switching  
546 off the radiative effects of cloud, or by using a single water vapour climatology or grey body  
547 approximation for clear-sky radiation, or even by using a prescribed cooling. These  
548 simplifications would constrain forcing of convection and turbulence in different models.  
549 Ultimately, a single simplified parameterization suite could be used in all AGCMs, what  
550 might be called an Idealised Moist Core. This would be a moist equivalent of the  
551 Held-Suarez configuration, and could be used to explore atmospheric phenomena and  
552 sensitivities to model numerics in the presence of switchable moist feedbacks. The  
553 simplified model of Frierson et al. (2006) could be seen as one such model.

554

555 Discussion of the modelling hierarchy has so far been restricted to atmosphere-only  
556 models. However, prescribing insolation and SST in an AGCM simulation such as APE or  
557 AMIP does not in general produce an internally consistent circulation. The planet is not in  
558 global energy balance, since the prescribed SST acts as an infinite heat source or sink, and  
559 the resulting atmospheric circulation is not constrained to be consistent with the ocean  
560 circulation that is implied by spatial variations of the net surface energy flux (Held, 2001).  
561 To obtain an internally consistent idealised climate, Lee et al. (2008) proposed an  
562 aqua-planet benchmark experiment in which the AGCM is coupled to a global mixed layer  
563 ocean. The resulting equilibrated climate includes internally determined SSTs in the  
564 absence of oceanic transport. Kang et al. (2008) imposed an inter-hemispheric ocean

565 heat transport on this configuration, to study the response of the ITCZ to extratropical  
566 thermal forcing. Experimental configurations such as these allow climate sensitivity to be  
567 studied in an energetically consistent model, but the ocean-atmosphere coupling increases  
568 the diversity of model responses. Coupled and uncoupled APE configurations therefore  
569 have distinct uses, highlighting the importance of varying complexity in the modelling  
570 hierarchy.

571

572 It is hoped that the APE experiments, analyses and comparisons described in the papers  
573 that follow in this Special Issue will encourage those in the community who develop and  
574 modify AGCMs to use this framework as a standard evaluation component in their future  
575 research.

576

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580 and an anonymous reviewer for their comments, which helped to significantly improve the  
581 manuscript.

582

## 583 **Appendix: Experimental Design**

584 The experimental design for APE is summarised here for completeness. It is fully

585 specified in Williamson et al. (2012) using the SST distributions originally defined by Neale  
586 and Hoskins (2000a). A recommended set of standard diagnostics to be collected from  
587 each experiment is also specified in Williamson et al. (2012). The experiment is specified  
588 in a similar manner to the second phase of AMIP, using a set of requirements and  
589 recommendations.

590

## 591 Requirements

### 592 1. Surface Boundary Conditions.

593 SST is prescribed for the 8 experiments according to formulae in the **Box**. The 5 zonally  
594 symmetric profiles and 3 tropical anomalies are shown in Fig.3 and Fig.4. There is no sea  
595 ice (minimum SST is 0°C).

Box. 1
--------

### 596 2. Radiative forcing and orbital parameters.

597 Fixed equinoctial insolation, symmetric about the equator but including the diurnal cycle,  
598 is prescribed in all experiments. The solar constant is  $1365 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . This is achieved by  
599 modifying the Earth orbit parameters, setting eccentricity and obliquity to zero, to give a  
600 circular equinoctial orbit. The distribution of solar irradiance is then independent of the  
601 calendar.

### 602 3. Well-mixed radiatively active gases.

603 CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio is 348 ppmv, as in AMIP II.

### 604 4. Ozone.

605 A zonally symmetric latitude-height distribution of ozone is specified, symmetrised about  
606 the equator, corresponding to the annual mean climatology used in AMIP II. The data are  
607 available from the APE website (<http://climate.ncas.ac.uk/ape/>).

#### 608 5. Simulation period.

609 All simulations should be spun-up to equilibrium for at least 6 months, before an  
610 experimental period of 3 years. Each experiment should be started from a  
611 model-simulated state, obtained from either a real-Earth or previous aqua-planet integration.  
612 The 6-month spin-up should be checked to establish that equilibration was achieved during  
613 this period.

614

#### 615 Recommendations

616 1. Recommended values of the geophysical constants and parameters are given in  
617 Williamson et al. (2012).

618 2. Well-mixed radiatively active gas concentrations follow AMIP II recommendations.

619 CH<sub>4</sub>: 1650 ppbv; N<sub>2</sub>O: 306 ppbv. Halocarbon concentrations should yield  $\sim 0.24 \text{ W m}^{-2}$   
620 radiative forcing. Use of an "equivalent" CO<sub>2</sub> is not recommended.

621 3. Aerosols.

622 There should be no radiatively active aerosol. Any aerosol specification for cloud  
623 condensation should use an oceanic distribution which is fixed in time, zonally symmetric  
624 and symmetric about the equator.

#### 4. Atmospheric Mass.

The initial dry mass of the atmosphere should be equivalent to a global mean surface pressure of 101080 Pa. This is 101325 Pa minus 245 Pa, which corresponds to a global moisture content of 25.006 kg m<sup>-2</sup> using the recommended value for surface gravity. Dry mass should be conserved throughout the integration. There is no topography.

#### 5. Calendar.

A 365 or 360 day year, with variable- or fixed-length months respectively, should be used. The 3.5 year integration length means that a realistic calendar can be used if integrations are started in March of a leap year. Insolation does not follow the calendar.

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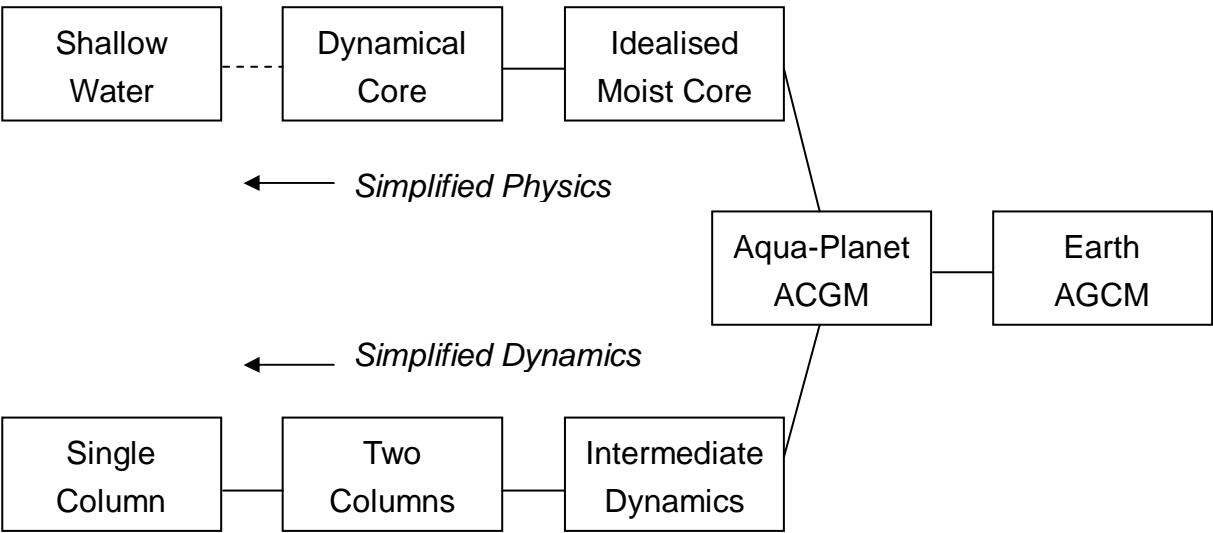
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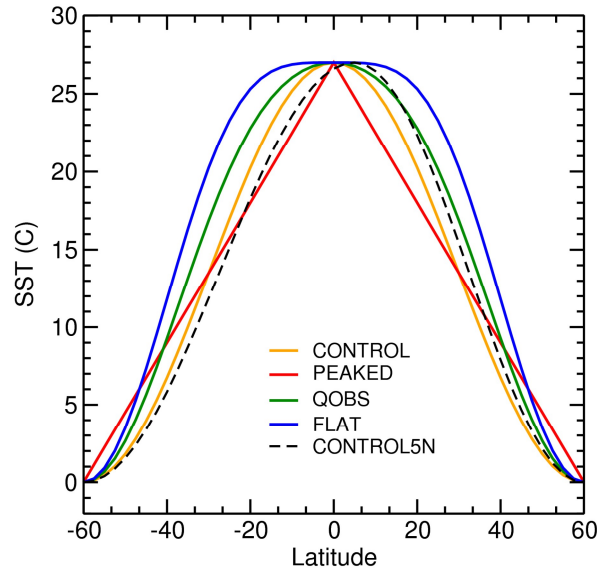
Scheme for Convection ↓	Sea Surface Temperature						
	Flat	Std	Oct	Feb 1	Feb 2	Peq	Poeq
Kuo	Kuo - Flat	Kuo - Std	Kuo - Oct	Kuo - Feb 1	Kuo - Feb 2	Kuo - Peq	Kuo - Poeq
Kuo		KuoNwv-Std					
Kuo90		Kuo90 - Std					
MCA		MCA - Std	MCA - Oct				
Schematic of Each Meridional SST Distribution ⇒							

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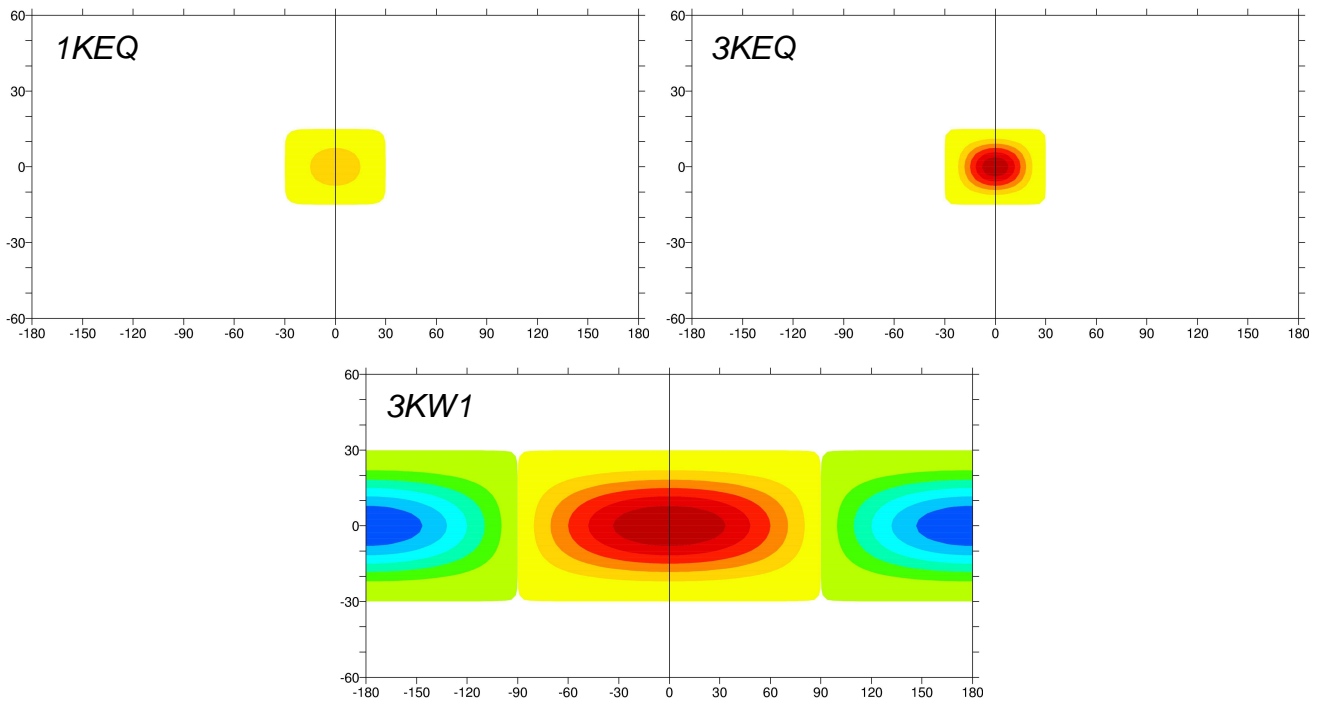




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889 Fig. 3. Five zonally symmetric sea surface temperature profiles prescribed in APE.

890



891

892 Fig. 4. Three tropical sea surface temperature anomalies added to the APE *CONTROL*  
893 case. Shading interval 0.5°C.

894

### APE Sea Surface Temperatures

1. CONTROL: 
$$T_{S1}(\lambda, \phi) = \begin{cases} 27 \left( 1 - \sin^2 \left( \frac{3\phi}{2} \right) \right) ^\circ C & ; \quad -\frac{\pi}{3} < \phi < \frac{\pi}{3} \\ 0^\circ C & ; \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

2. PEAKED: 
$$T_{S2}(\lambda, \phi) = \begin{cases} 27 \left( 1 - \frac{3|\phi|}{\pi} \right) ^\circ C & ; \quad -\frac{\pi}{3} < \phi < \frac{\pi}{3} \\ 0^\circ C & ; \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

3. FLAT: 
$$T_{S3}(\lambda, \phi) = \begin{cases} 27 \left( 1 - \sin^4 \left( \frac{3\phi}{2} \right) \right) ^\circ C & ; \quad -\frac{\pi}{3} < \phi < \frac{\pi}{3} \\ 0^\circ C & ; \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

4. QOBS: 
$$T_{S4}(\lambda, \phi) = (T_{S1} + T_{S3})/2$$

5. CONTROL-5N: 
$$T_{S5}(\lambda, \phi) = \begin{cases} 27 \left( 1 - \sin^2 \left( \frac{90}{55} \left[ \phi - \frac{\pi}{36} \right] \right) \right) ^\circ C & ; \quad \frac{\pi}{36} < \phi < \frac{\pi}{3} \\ 27 \left( 1 - \sin^2 \left( \frac{90}{65} \left[ \phi - \frac{\pi}{36} \right] \right) \right) ^\circ C & ; \quad -\frac{\pi}{3} < \phi < \frac{\pi}{36} \\ 0^\circ C & ; \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

6. 1KEQ: 
$$T'_{S6}(\lambda, \phi) = \begin{cases} \chi \cos^2 \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \frac{\lambda - \lambda_0}{\lambda_d} \right] \right) \cos^2 \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \frac{\phi}{\phi_d} \right] \right) ^\circ C & ; \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\lambda_0 - \lambda_d) < \lambda < (\lambda_0 + \lambda_d) \\ -\phi_d < \phi < \phi_d \end{array} \right. \\ 0^\circ C & ; \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

7. 3KEQ: 
$$T'_{S7}(\lambda, \phi) = \begin{cases} \chi \cos^2 \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \frac{\lambda - \lambda_0}{\lambda_d} \right] \right) \cos^2 \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \frac{\phi}{\phi_d} \right] \right) ^\circ C & ; \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\lambda_0 - \lambda_d) < \lambda < (\lambda_0 + \lambda_d) \\ -\phi_d < \phi < \phi_d \end{array} \right. \\ 0^\circ C & ; \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

8. 3KW1: 
$$T'_{S8}(\lambda, \phi) = \begin{cases} \chi \cos(\lambda - \lambda_0) \cos^2 \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \frac{\phi}{\phi_d} \right] \right) ^\circ C & ; \quad -\phi_d < \phi < \phi_d \\ 0^\circ C & ; \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$\chi = 1^\circ C$  ( $T'_{S6}$ ) ;  $\chi = 3^\circ C$  ( $T'_{S7}$ ;  $T'_{S8}$ ) : Maximum magnitude of SST anomaly

$\lambda_0 = 0^\circ E$  ;  $\lambda_d = 30^\circ$  ;  $\phi_d = 15^\circ$  : 1KEQ, 3KEQ: longitude of maximum anomaly; half widths.

$\lambda_0 = 0^\circ E$  ;  $\phi_d = 30^\circ$  : 3KW1: longitude of maximum anomaly; half width.