

Earth Virtualization Engines (EVE)

A draft concept paper for public comment

Conveners of the Berlin Summit for EVE*

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1 Preface

2 This document is being shared for [community input](#) in advance of the [Berlin Summit for EVE](#),
3 to be held from 3–7 July 2023. It was developed through the course of weekly virtual meetings
4 of the core author team, starting in January 2023. The road here began for many of us with
5 the World Modelling Summit for Climate Prediction, hosted by ECMWF fifteen years ago [1].
6 Ideas first articulated there subsequently developed and were expanded in what became the
7 Flagship proposal for Extreme Earth, and later Destination Earth (or DestinE). EVE builds on
8 the recommendation of the Scientific Advisory Board of the World Meteorological Organization
9 to form an ‘International Climate Science and Service Centre’, and the Royal Society Brief on
10 *Next Generation Climate Models* prepared for COP26. In bringing specificity to our thinking
11 we draw on input from many recent workshops organized under the auspices of the WCRP,
12 most directly the virtual workshop on the Future of Climate Modelling held in March (2022), a
13 workshop on Ultra-high-resolution Modelling held in Boulder (2022), and from the development
14 of the IS-ENES ”Infrastructure Strategy for Earth-system Modelling for 2024-2033” document.
15 We also organized our own workshops to gain input on particular questions, notably the Lorentz
16 Center Workshop on [Digital Twin Earth](#), held in Leiden, NL (13–16 Feb 2023), the Yamanakako
17 Workshop on global storm resolving models held in Yamanaka JP (12–13, May 2023), the Global
18 Earth Observations Workshop held in Hyttiälä, FI (8–10 May 2023), and meetings organized by
19 the Institute for Atmospheric Physics in Beijing. Our vision continues to be influenced by the
20 emergence of a new generation modelling capability, as illustrated by projects in Japan, national
21 projects such as [WarmWorld](#) (DE) and [EXCLAIM](#) (CH), the Horizon2020 Project [NextGEMS](#),
22 as well as modelling initiatives across several US agencies.

23 In writing this document our goal has been to capture the imagination of the climate science
24 community to engage them in thinking about how we can work better together to advance science
25 in the service of society during a time of profound change. As such this document is intended
26 to provide a basis for identifying key issues and points of tension to be discussed at the [Berlin
27 Summit for EVE](#). A revised document will be prepared based on this input and shared in advance
28 of the WCRP [Open Science Conference](#) in Kigali, Rwanda, in October 2023. After this final round
29 of input a final document will be prepared for presentation at the COP28 in Dubai UAE at the
30 end of this year.

31 We wish to emphasize that EVE is still a developing idea, drawing on ever-expanding yet ever-
32 limited input. In our attempt to imagine and motivate this idea many contributions will have
33 been left out, citations will be incomplete, and important initiatives and programmes will have
34 been insufficiently credited or even omitted. More important than the un-honoured authority,
35 or priority, claims is that many ideas that could strengthen our ambition may remain untapped.
36 Hence we ask you, readers, to approach the document in the constructive spirit in which it is
37 offered. If after reading the document you are motivated and able to join us in Berlin, please let
38 us know how you wish to help, and we will do our best to accommodate your participation.

1 The changing need for climate information

1.1 The emerging picture of global climate change

Never before in paleoclimate records going back millions of years has our planet warmed so rapidly as today. The short and long-term consequences of this warming on humanity and the Earth-system as a whole are still largely unknown. A deeply-concerning manifestation of this change is the world's recent and repeated exposure to unprecedented weather events that has resulted in increasingly frequent, tragic and expensive natural disasters. Record-breaking heatwaves, forest and bush fires, riverine and coastal floods, droughts and sea level rise, to name only a few, are now threatening our present and future. Communities worldwide expect timely and accurate guidance to inform and support the response to imminent events and mitigate and adapt to expected changes in high-impact weather conditions in the decades and century to come. Everyone wants to know what is to be expected.

Since the 19th century, the scientific community has worked at understanding and forecasting weather, marine, and more recently climatic conditions. In the latter half of the last century, a growing understanding of the forces influencing weather and climate was complemented by the ability to observe and compute their effects, resulting in successively more physically consistent and more skillful model predictions of weather and more insightful projections of global climate change. By combining theory, observations and models, scientists have been able to document unexpected and profound changes in the global climate, and to show that we, humans, are responsible for these changes [2]. This progress was made possible by an unprecedented international effort¹ to coordinate, support and disseminate scientific work in different sectors. Community modelling efforts, such as [CMIP](#) [3, 4] and [CORDEX](#), have been instrumental in the development and evaluation of scenarios of future change, and for modelling their impacts on a wide variety of scales. Programmes like the [Global Framework for Climate Services](#) [5] are exemplary of how to better integrate local knowledge and strengthen expertise in vulnerable sectors to build resilience to climate change. Ambitious initiatives like [Copernicus Climate Services](#) have been launched and help support the assimilation and dissemination of data from a growing observational network, notably satellites, and environmental research infrastructures. Together, such activities are greatly increasing the global human capacity to receive, critically process, and evaluate climate change information.

Thanks to these and other efforts, it is now well understood and has become widely accepted, that global warming is caused by human activities. This consensus is giving rise to policies and practices designed to limit these harmful activities, for instance by curbing greenhouse gas emissions. However, as we begin to develop programmes to confront the reality of global warming, we increasingly realize that we lack a specific understanding of what the future might hold, particularly in the Global South where long data-records are sparse, the capacity to adapt is more limited and exposure to weather and climate hazards is high. We also realize that often extreme events and their impacts are severely underestimated in their extent, or unexpected in their location of occurrence and thus, in spite of our very advanced climate science and modelling capabilities, unpleasant surprises are frequent and disruptive.

1.2 The knowledge deficit hindering adaptation and risk assessment

As changes in high-impact weather become tangible, and speculation about the potential for more catastrophic changes becomes widespread, demands for continuously updated and improved

¹Notably, by international institutions such as the WCRP, WMO, UNEP and IPCC

1 information are mounting. Just last year, COP27² highlighted:

2 “the need to enhance coordination of the activities by the systematic observation
3 community and the ability to provide useful and actionable climate information for
4 mitigation, adaptation and early warning systems, as well as information to enable
5 understanding of adaptation limits and of attribution of extreme events”.

6 This need is easier stated than met. While in some cases we have a general idea of what factors
7 influence extremes, quantifying changes in ways that can help guide action has proven challenging
8 [6]. Limitations in our ability to project how extremes will change with warming are partly
9 intrinsic to a chaotic system, but a reliance on models designed for other purposes, or built
10 with past limitations in computational capacity in mind, is a more immediate and surmountable
11 obstacle. For instance, climate models that simulate decadal changes (whether that be regionally
12 or globally) necessarily exclude the influence of processes most directly associated with many
13 extremes, including convective storms, tidal surges, rogue waves, dust storms, riverine floods,
14 avalanches and ice sheet disintegration. An inability to represent these and related processes
15 means that users of such models must often contend with large systematic biases, and drifts
16 on regional and local scales. These can be orders of magnitude larger than the changes being
17 addressed [7, 8], and together with an absence of information on the scale of impacts, make the
18 models ill-suited for assessing many forms of risk or for guiding action. Because adaptation efforts
19 are costly, the remaining choice, which would be to prepare for everything, is simply not an option
20 for all but a few.

21 Confronted with this knowledge gap, some countries are beginning to run and compare global
22 climate scenarios drawing from scores of traditional global climate models, to produce legions of
23 simulations to better identify signals of change. Others are working to develop a new generation
24 of computationally intensive models, in the expectation, based on NWP and km-scale regional
25 climate models, that their enhanced physical content can beat back systematic biases and better
26 represent the local granularity of global weather and climate. Yet others, including a growing
27 number of privately funded initiatives, are exploring the capabilities of AI (more specifically ML)
28 to better compensate for biases of existing models, or even provide purely empirically based
29 assessments of future hazards. These activities, as laudable as each may be on its own terms,
30 are mostly distributed as blue-sky research efforts across a large number of research laboratories,
31 or private companies. They are accompanied by high levels of redundancy, leading to siloed
32 workflows and a lack of standardization, and most crucially, spreads precious talent thinly. The
33 problem is simply too important, too urgent, and too challenging not to be approached together.

34 **1.3 The impetus for EVE**

35 The sense that we are better together, is the underlying impetus to EVE. In the following, we
36 build on this impetus to identify the information needs arising from the imperative to sustainably
37 and equitably manage our planet, and the opportunities available to address these needs. We
38 end with a vision, or blueprint for EVE, as a coordinated global effort to tap into the potential
39 of technology and human ingenuity to best meet the challenges identified and those yet to come.

40 **2 New needs and a new urgency for climate information**

41 EVE’s goal is to facilitate the design and implementation of frontier climate information systems
42 which society needs to answer critical questions. Those systems will require major advances in at

²Decision CP.27, Sharm el-Sheikh Implementation Plan

1 least three areas: i) simulating fundamental phenomena in the Earth-system which are key
2 for decision-making but inadequately represented, or even missing, from current/past generations
3 of climate models, ii) fusing global models and observations with local granularity, using data
4 assimilation systems designed to represent the global to local state of the climate, and iii) bringing
5 interactivity to the application of impact models to quantitative projections of climate change.

6 EVE is needed to inform both mitigation and adaptation. Here *mitigation* refers to actions
7 taken to limit climate change. *Adaptation* refers to actions taken to reduce vulnerability to
8 climate-change-related natural hazards, to shifting weather and climate patterns, and changes in
9 seasonality. Mitigation usually implies collective, even global, measures enacted in the form of
10 public policy, for instance by regulating energy production, solar-radiation management or other
11 forms of geoengineering. Adaptation often involves more local measures, for instance by greening
12 cities to reduce the local effect of global warming, building local sea defences to manage rising sea
13 levels, or by diversifying investments to reduce correlated risks. Additional and improved climate
14 information is most lacking at regional and local scales, where adaptation efforts are primarily
15 undertaken. This should not obscure important information needs related to mitigation – for
16 instance to design new energy systems, assess high-end risks for physical and biological subsys-
17 tems, or more generally inform public opinion. In addition to these ongoing traditional needs for
18 climate information, new needs associated with managing claims of loss and damage, informing
19 development aid, assessing capital risk, and measuring compliance with climate agreements, are
20 emerging. These and other use-cases for climate information are discussed in more detail below.

21 **2.1 Protecting lives and livelihoods**

22 Every day, infrastructural or planning decisions are being made at local, regional, or national
23 levels, in ways that risk unnecessarily exposing people and property to climate-related damages,
24 wasting limited resources on unnecessary or even harmful efforts. Minimizing these risks requires
25 understanding how climate will, or could, change, on the scale of the infrastructures being con-
26 templated. Energy and water resources are vulnerable to changes in precipitation locally, on
27 time scales that vary from minutes to decades. Ensuring food security becomes easier, or more
28 economical and sustainable, given an understanding of changes on the watershed level in both
29 the net amount and the temporal distribution of precipitation. Shifting rain from the growing to
30 the fallow season has large implications for agriculture, and changes in the intensity distribution
31 have ramifications for flooding, urban water management, and crop pest proliferation.

32 Those tasked with making adaptation decisions must first understand what they are adapting
33 to. They also require an ability to assess the impact their proposed measures will have on the lives
34 and livelihoods they aim to protect. In many, if not most cases, climate information is inadequate
35 for informing decisions. Even when such information is available, its utility is often limited by
36 an inability to work with it interactively to comprehend complex and indirect ramifications,
37 which makes it difficult to explore the overall efficacy and cost-effectiveness of interventions. The
38 difficulty of establishing standards, and the absence of procedures for certifying a greater provision
39 of information by the private sector, hinders action and increases vulnerability. As companies are
40 called on to disclose their risk to climate-related damages, how can due diligence in such reporting
41 be certified?

42 Our degree of unpreparedness is highlighted by the recent initiative of the WMO which re-
43 ports³ that

44 “one third of the world’s people, mainly in least developed countries and small island
45 developing states, are still not covered by early warning systems.”

³Early Warning and Early Action

1 If, despite tremendous progress in numerical weather prediction [9], such a large fraction of the
2 world remains so poorly informed about the threats as they emerge on the immediate horizon,
3 how well prepared and informed are they about what climate change portends? More directly, and
4 as the WMO points out, designing effective early warning requires climate information, which
5 depending on the infrastructure in question, may require information on decadal, even centennial
6 time scales. Without EVE, early warning activities will be unable to address their mandate to
7 also account for climate change.

8 **2.2 Measuring and monitoring**

9 Climate change poses new challenges for measuring and monitoring. On one hand, and as al-
10 luded to below, assessing the quality and trust to be given to future projections will depend on
11 the ability of the same systems to explain the past. Likewise, as countries and companies enter
12 into contractual agreements to manage their interactions with the Earth-system, processes will
13 be required to assess their compliance. A particular focus is the need to manage compliance with
14 promised emission reductions, by linking measurements of greenhouse gases to purported emis-
15 sions. Other examples include the ability to track reforestation initiatives or other interventions
16 in land management, to assess the feasibility of potential geoengineering efforts, to identify and
17 follow marine extreme events, or to track pollutants through the global ocean. These introduce
18 new modelling requirements, and put a premium on understanding and quantifying the historical
19 and evolving state of the Earth-system and making this information available to all.

20 Today there is an ever more urgent need to consistently integrate data from the past through
21 the periodic reanalysis of (mostly) meteorological data. These reanalyses use physical models
22 to assimilate observations in a way that allows one to reconstruct a physically consistent and
23 complete description of the atmosphere (and, increasingly, surface and subsurface land and ocean)
24 on the basis of data collected in the past. Reanalyses are, however, presently developed from
25 data assimilation systems based on physical models developed to provide the best possible initial
26 conditions for weather forecasts. The demands placed on an analysis (data assimilation) system in
27 terms of monitoring the Earth-system and for verifying measures taken to mitigate climate change
28 are different and more diverse, in particular as they must integrate local information in ways that
29 present reanalysis systems cannot do. EVE can help ongoing activities to improve re-analyses to
30 better introduce constraints from slowly evolving climatic variables, or to incorporate more local
31 knowledge and data, or through access to better models more adept at using high-performance
32 computing. This would be a boon for climate information.

33 **2.3 Informing policy and public opinion**

34 A deficit of specific information as to how climate will change, particularly in ways that are
35 tangible to citizens, hinders the effort to develop a degree of consensus that is required to craft
36 effective policies. Simply being able to better assess, anticipate, or even eventually explain,
37 unprecedented changes will be crucial for building the needed consensus.

38 By creating tools that allow the public to better contextualize, for themselves, the nature of
39 changes, and to better understand the connectivity of the world they live in, EVE offers a powerful
40 means of advancing a global consciousness, and strengthening the ability of humans to manage
41 the Anthropocene. Data interactivity is needed to allow users – educators, journalists, etc. – to
42 explore possible futures and pasts, and to themselves assess the quality of information. An ability
43 to compare projections of the past to measurements, or across independently developed models,
44 helps assess the utility of information sources. Open and easy access to information facilitates its
45 dissemination and encourages innovation in its use, further increasing its penetration into civil

1 society. Open and easy-to-use systems also enable feedback to identify errors and thereby more
2 rapidly improve. Virtualization leverages the intuition everyday people have for many of the
3 quantities of interest, and thus builds on people’s ability to relate changes to their experiences.
4 Development and design of such systems will need to involve institutions from the national to
5 local level, in particular in the Global South, where connectivity remains limited to cellular access
6 at best.

7 **2.4 Exploring unintended consequences**

8 Expanding the frontiers of knowledge narrows the space for speculation. As climate changes, and
9 Earth begins to enter uncharted territory, speculation, fear, and even desperation risk becoming
10 a source of social instability. Improved scientific understanding of the potential risks of specific
11 warming levels is needed, not just to buttress decision making, but also to better assess unan-
12 ticipated or catastrophic changes to the Earth system [10]. Even the existential risk of warming
13 imperiling the Earth’s capacity to sustain humanity is not known.

14 An essential resource for scientists in their endeavor to increase knowledge is their ability to
15 generate new empiricism. Programmes devoted to better documenting the past; from proxies
16 for the deep past, to records of the recent past, from monitoring of the present, to new forms
17 of experimentation with chemical, biological, and/or built systems, are ongoing and essential
18 in addressing this need. A growing gap is forming in the use of computational technology to
19 increase the pseudo-empiricism from simulations [11]. While the systematics of the existing class
20 of climate models, suited to older generations of computers, are by now well sampled, new classes
21 of simulations – which allow important processes in the ocean, ice sheets, land, and atmosphere,
22 to be represented physically, rather than empirically – will introduce new systematics, increasing
23 the empiricism, deepening the well of facts that science can draw from. As the challenge of fully
24 using modern high-performance computers to perform such simulations outpaces the capabilities
25 of almost all research labs, these powerful machines are, from the point of view of climate science,
26 sitting idle. It is a little-known fact that today’s climate projections rely on computational
27 throughput that lags the state-of-the-art capabilities by a dozen years or more, and this gap is
28 growing. How can it be that our most powerful technologies, ones with a long track record of
29 moving climate science forward, are no longer being effectively used for this purpose?

30 **2.5 EVE – a necessary tool for managing the anthropocene**

31 The above arguments point out that climate change poses enormous challenges for society. It
32 threatens lives and livelihoods, influences international relations, creates new forms of liability,
33 and imperils our ability to envision a positive future. Fundamentally, these challenges arise from a
34 lack of specific information about what global warming portends. Existing tools won’t help fill this
35 gap, they weren’t designed for that. We need new tools. Through a concerted effort to harness
36 the most creative minds, the most advanced technologies, and integrate these with a growing
37 observational capacity, EVE can be such a tool, and help humans manage the Anthropocene to
38 ensure a sustainable future for our species and our planet.

39 **3 Developing a digital infrastructure for EVE**

40 Impressive gains in information technology are making it possible to contemplate completely
41 different approaches to the delivery of climate information. These and their implications for EVE
42 are elaborated below.

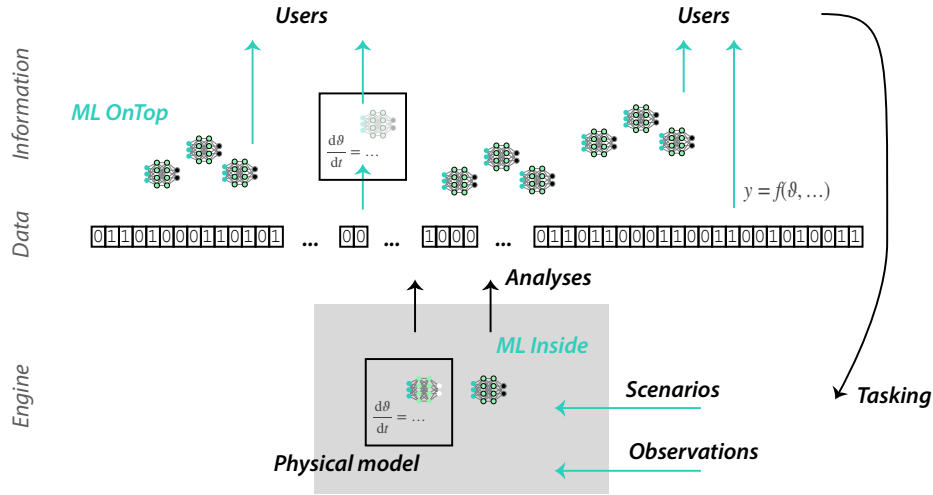


Figure 1: Schematic showing the symbiosis between ML and physical modelling, and illustrating the distinction between ML OnTop and ML Inside. Adapted from [14].

1 3.1 The technology landscape

2 3.1.1 Machine learning

3 Machine learning (ML), which includes deep learning among other methods, has emerged as an
 4 attractive way to create empirical models, or to calibrate otherwise poorly constrained parameters
 5 in physical models. Given sufficient training data, ML can often out-perform physical models in
 6 the space spanned by the data, especially for specific tasks. Physical models have the advantage
 7 of generalizing, which allows them to be used outside of the bounds of existing data and hence
 8 beyond the current climate state. This property allows them to be used to explore counterfactuals,
 9 such as a world without greenhouse gas forcing. The use of models as laboratories through
 10 numerical experimentation, when combined with their inherent physical ‘consistency’, makes
 11 them indispensable tools for creating knowledge.

12 Recently ML has been applied to weather forecasting, and for some quantities has already
 13 shown superior skill compared to traditional, physically-based, modelling, and at greatly reduced
 14 cost [12, 13]. Because ML is trained on *Analyses*⁴ of past weather, this suggests that weather
 15 trajectories are well spanned by the evolution of previously observed weather, for new forecasts
 16 to remain in-sample. This, however, does not render physical models and observation (data)
 17 obsolete. They remain essential to provide high-quality training and initial data, as this is what
 18 ultimately will determine the skill of ML-based forecasts [14].

19 In a nuanced way, a similar symbiosis between physical models and ML is becoming apparent
 20 for questions related to climate. In this case, because we cannot assimilate future observations,
 21 or counterfactual climates, physical models are required to project how the system evolves under
 22 given scenarios (in the form of time-evolving boundary conditions, or for different parameter
 23 settings or model formulations). This then provides the training data that ML needs to help
 24 users interactively explore the space of simulated climates.

⁴The word *Analyses* is used in a more general sense than might be familiar to those who associate it with the ‘analysis’ of observations, for weather forecasting. Our usage is clarified in the glossary and italicized as a reminder of this distinction throughout.

1 For both weather and climate, the emulation of specific sub-processes whose behavior can be
2 well constrained a priori, can help accelerate physical models [15]. In a similar vein ML can be
3 used, and has long been used, to help assimilate observations. Although less explored, ML is also
4 attractive as a way to compress the enormous information content produced by physical models.
5 The more familiar use of ML, to aid in the assimilation of observations, or help more efficiently
6 project climate trajectories following a certain scenario, we call ML-Inside. It stands in contrast
7 to the use of ML to explore the information content of the resultant *Analyses* or projections,
8 something we call ML-OnTop.

9 Distinguishing between ML-OnTop and ML-Inside helps articulate the separation of concerns
10 between the provision of training data and the use of the data to create information and knowl-
11 edge. ML-OnTop scales across what is envisioned to be an effectively unbounded application
12 sector. ML-Inside, must be harmonized with the physical models used to assimilate observa-
13 tions, project scenarios, or structure output, and doesn't scale beyond a few expert communities.
14 ML-OnTop puts a premium on the quality of the physical models, the hand that feeds them,
15 and ML-Inside helps provide this quality as efficiently as possible. Most importantly, ML-OnTop
16 resolves Borges paradox⁵, to enable interactivity with what would otherwise be overwhelming
17 amounts of information. In addition to the user "pull" described in the previous section, ML-
18 OnTop is an additional structuring element of EVE.

19 3.1.2 High-performance computing

20 High-performance Computing (HPC) recently crossed a threshold that now enables global km-
21 scale climate simulations – long used to enable more fundamental process-based studies of weather
22 systems, and ocean circulation regionally or separately – to be used to study Earth's climate
23 globally [16].

24 Models exploiting this scale of HPC are being prototyped in a few labs across the world.
25 Performance benchmarks (Table 1) demonstrate that at their strong-scaling limit⁶ a simulation
26 throughput of 1 SYPD – a benchmark for climate studies – can be achieved using 1 PF (HPCG)
27 are possible, on near 1 km meshes – what we refer to as km-scale. The world's most powerful
28 computer, Fugaku, on real applications, can sustain 16 PF (HPCG) while using just under 30 MW
29 of power. As an example, a facility that dedicated this capacity to climate studies could produce
30 small (8 member) ensembles of 30-year ICON simulations on a 2.5 km grid, on a monthly basis
31 using just half of the machine, matching the throughput commonly associated with much coarser
32 resolution models.

33 Today, growth in computational throughput is mainly limited by limits on power consumption
34 and by memory bandwidth, which grows slowly. While practical (HPCG) computing capacity
35 can be expected to continue to grow, it is hard to imagine global simulations being able to
36 access more than a factor of four increase as compared to Fugaku in the coming decade. On the
37 model algorithmic side, dedicated engineering efforts show the potential for similar performance
38 gains in the above-benchmarked codes. Taken together, a tenfold increase in throughput from a
39 single facility is an ambitious, but not unrealistic, expectation for the coming decade. A facility
40 with this capacity (160 PF(HPCG)) could generate 6000 simulated years at a 1.5 km horizontal
41 grid-spacing, per year of operation, or closer to 30 000 simulated years at a 2.5 km horizontal grid-
42 spacing, using just half of its computational cycles. This would enable a formidable exploration
43 of the space of possible future climates.

⁵In 'On Exactitude in Science' (1946) Jorge Luis Borges explores the paradox of a map so detailed that it occupies more space than it describes.

⁶Which means that distributing the computation over a larger computer will no longer accelerate its time to solution.

Model	Δx	N_z	SYPD	PF (HPCG)
ICON	2.50 km	90/75	1	1
NICAM	3.50 km	78	1	4
NICAM	1.74 km	78	0.25	8
NICAM	0.22 km	78	0.0008	8

Table 1: Throughput from state-of-the-art global models as measured against the high-performance conjugate gradient (HPCG) benchmarks (which better account for memory bandwidth limitations). N_z denotes the number of levels in the atmosphere (and ocean when applicable).

1 Even finer mesh computations will still be possible but, because present simulations operate
2 at the limit of strong-scaling, this will come at the cost of reduced throughput. As a practical
3 matter this means that regionalization repeated widely to cover all nations (which, unfortunately,
4 is a common national perspective) no longer confers any advantage in accelerating the time to
5 solution. Even assuming that only some regions are to be downscaled, while it saves power, and
6 enables larger ensembles of simulations to sample natural variability, decoupling the large scales
7 from the evolution of the fine scales, comes at the cost of considerable information loss where
8 it is most needed [17, 18], and ignores the fact that regional models cannot eliminate the gross
9 large-scale biases in the global driving model.

10 3.1.3 The data layer

11 Exploiting HPC gains to provide training data, and designing systems that can make this data
12 usable for ML-OnTop, will require substantial innovation in managing workflows and data. To
13 appreciate the scope of the challenge, consider that a 4-byte (10 variable) state-vector of a 1 km
14 model with 200 levels (through the atmosphere, land and ocean) is about 0.004 PB. Saving it
15 every fifteen minutes for a year results in 150 PB of storage, equivalent to the total storage of the
16 lustre file systems at a leading climate or weather center. Even if the data could be stored, it
17 would be too vast to be used, creating a second version of Borges' paradox.

18 Resolving this paradox will require greatly reduced representations of the data, for instance
19 using standard techniques like careful selection and compression, and novel methods including
20 ML-inside, regeneration, and on-the-fly learning. Even then data volumes on the order of an
21 exabyte are to be expected, and while it is one matter to store the data, it is another to do so in
22 a way that makes it easy to access and use [19].

23 In addition, to minimize the expense of moving data, co-proximate compute and storage
24 facilities will be necessary, albeit in ways that enable efficient operation across a handful of such
25 facilities. These needs, many of which are at the scientific frontier, emphasize that EVE must
26 have a strong component of research and development in the fields of computer science, applied
27 mathematics, and computer engineering.

28 3.2 Information needs of users

29 The demand for km-scale simulations is rooted in the global need for local information, at greater
30 fidelity, both to advance scientific understanding as well as to link to impacts and better integrate
31 local knowledge, including observations. Hence EVE must serve an incredible spectrum of users,
32 from neophytes exploring its information content, to experienced application users, to technical

1 and scientific experts.

2 To mitigate against the dangers from a full-throttled implementation of HPC and km-scale
3 simulations interpreted by ML-OnTop EVE needs to develop mechanisms to support critical
4 inquiry and public access. Becoming overly reliant on ML-OnTop, or becoming misled by the
5 apparent realism of simulations that too narrowly represent uncertainty, is a real danger however.
6 Transparency in data provision is the best guard against this, and emphasises the need for EVE
7 to provide open access to *usable* data and models. Emphasizing usability recognizes that the
8 accessibility of data and models is much less of a bottleneck than the ability to use the data or
9 implement the models that operate on them.

10 By opening access to training data (from simulation and assimilation) and building on the
11 expertise and experience the community has gained through the Copernicus, CMIP and other
12 similar global programmes, EVE would create a platform for innovation in ways that can more
13 fully engage external entities (e.g., from the private sector, universities, agencies, non-profits)
14 with EVE, to scale the provision of climate information. However, opening access to tools that
15 only a few are able to effectively use risks increasing the inequities that open data was intended to
16 resolve. For this reason, and to retain responsiveness to users' needs, it will be essential that those
17 responsible for creating the training data remain in close contact with those using the data, i.e.,
18 that the small number of data providers vertically integrate across the different layers of concerns
19 in Fig. 1, and that a degree of public access is given to both EVE's computing and storage
20 prowess. Realizing this vertical integration will require EVE to include, as a substantial and
21 empowered component of its staff, domain experts and boundary workers at the critical interface
22 between EVE scientists and external user communities. Training and integration programs will be
23 required to ensure that these experts and interfacial workers are truly representative of the global
24 community and thus ensure that the tools meet the needs of all regions in the north and south.
25 These boundary workers will bring local and specialized expertise to guide the selection, provision,
26 and interpretation of the climate data, including the implementation of ML-OnTop. This will
27 necessitate capacity building – with the positive side effects of accelerating the development
28 of digital competencies across the breadth of humanity, and endowing the effort with global
29 legitimacy.

30 **3.3 EVE – the technology case**

31 EVE's technical ambition, its data challenge, and the requirement that it be vertically integrated
32 to support public access will require co-proximate compute and storage at large and dedicated
33 facilities. The need to integrate local knowledge, sample uncertainty through complementary
34 efforts, maintain access to a truly global talent pool, and establish global legitimacy, can likely
35 only be met through regional or super-regional facilities. This suggests that EVE is best realized
36 through up to a handful of Tier-0 facilities, distributed globally, each with co-proximate compute
37 and storage facilities, co-located with hyperscaling data centers. This presents challenges for
38 system design. For instance, methods must be developed to ensure that models are portable
39 across infrastructures, including generic (or cloud) compute resources. Likewise, training data
40 must be standardized and globally accessible. Implementing co-proximate methods that work
41 across the federation, and protect intellectual property implemented at and across even a small
42 federation, raises additional challenges that EVE must surmount.

43 This points out how EVE, as a grand technical challenge, is also a tremendous opportunity.
44 In creating virtual Earths EVE will spur technological innovation, its data provision will nurture
45 new economies, and its use will strengthen digital competencies.

4 Advancing the science to support adaptation and mitigation

As climate change unfolds, climate science is struggling to keep up with societies' growing need for information. Modelling has, and continues to be, a motive force for science, with progress most limited by the inability of models to resolve key Earth-system processes. However, many of these processes can now be resolved in km-scale climate models offering breakthroughs in major and long-standing scientific challenges. Examples include quantifying the changing frequency and intensity of extreme events; the effects of storm clustering on Earth's radiant energy budget [20, 21], how precipitation is distributed in space, time, and intensity; the impacts from representing the full spectrum of precipitation as they reverberate through the Earth-system [22, 23]; the nature of interactions between Earth-system components [24–26]; and the likelihood of tipping points. This gives urgency to the need to fully develop and apply such models to the study of climate change [27].

4.1 The scientific case for km-scale Earth-system models

Higher resolution is not an elixir, but when it comes to improving Earth-system modelling, nothing comes closer. This has been evident in the CMIP process, whereas a subset of models have slowly edged toward scales of tens of kilometers, their systematic biases have been reduced [28–31] and important new sources of predictive skill have been identified [26, 32]. There is mounting evidence that further substantial improvements will arise from the systematic application of yet finer, km-scale, models. Kilometer-scale models have shown a capability to better represent the global tropics, from eliminating the double peak in tropical convection [5, 33], to improving the simulation of tropical wind patterns [34], to capturing major modes of tropical variability that conventional models miss [33, 35]. In the extra-tropics fine scales improve the representation of the storm tracks [36], better represent orographic drag [37], and reduce precipitation biases [38]. Across Earth, km-scale models improve the representation of precipitation amount, intensity, duration, and phase [39], consistent with their better resolution of precipitation extremes [40, 41], and are beginning to identify responses to warming not seen in lower resolution models [42].

Discussions of resolution often focus on the atmosphere, because the scale and speed of processes operating there make it computationally demanding. This means that it is the atmosphere that limits the application of higher resolution to other components of the climate system. This focus sometimes obscures what practitioners have long known, which is how important high resolution also is for the other components of the Earth-system, both individually and as part of the coupled system. Kilometer-scale simulations have been shown to resolve the erroneous simulation of freshwater storage in snow [43, 44] and ice [45], which is important for hydrology. They improve land-atmosphere coupling [24, 25], and the impact of sub-surface hydrology on extremes [46]. Ocean-atmosphere coupling is likewise sensitive to km-scale processes [26], and even in the absence of an atmosphere, meso-scale eddies captured by km-scale ocean models strongly influence how the southern ocean responds to changes in wind-stress [47]. Along with smaller eddies and fronts, they have been highlighted as being "key" for how the ocean and cryosphere evolve under climate change [18, 48]. Links between the land biosphere and ocean biogeochemistry are influenced by riverine elemental inputs, shelf carbon dynamics, and sub-mesoscale circulation whose transient dynamics require km-scale resolution to be represented [49]. The stability of ice sheets has been shown to depend on km-scale features in its grounding line [50], and in the representation of the surrounding ocean [51].

Because of computational limitations, km-scale models have mostly been applied to regional domains, or to global grids for short time periods, and with limited coupling of Earth-system components [52]. Leveraging the full advantages of km-scale models will require these efforts to

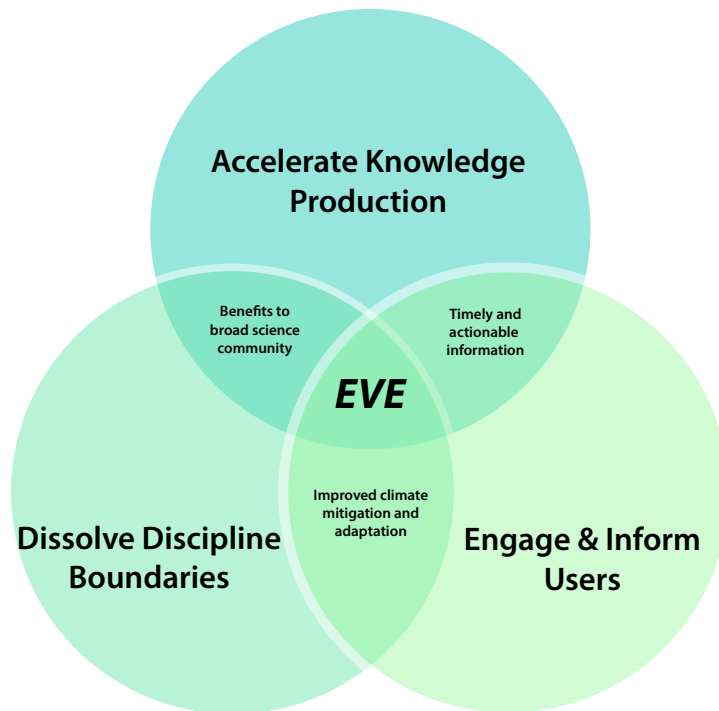


Figure 2: Successfully realizing EVE will 1) accelerate scientific discovery and digital innovation; 2) lead to new discoveries by dissolving boundaries across research disciplines; and 3) revolutionize our ability to inform and engage with users on a global scale.

1 be accelerated and extended. This is generating considerable excitement, or anticipation, as since
 2 the dawn of climate modeling, each addition of a new class of numerical model to the existing
 3 hierarchical suite has produced a step change in our ability to understand and simulate the climate
 4 system. Today, by representing the full spectrum of interactions from the convective scale to the
 5 mesoscale to the planetary scale, across all components of the climate system, km-scale models
 6 promise needed breakthroughs in climate science, and can reshape the field in three important
 7 ways (Fig. 2).

8 1. **Accelerate knowledge production:** Kilometer scale models will introduce new empiri-
 9 cism, and facts. These will stimulate scientific activity. The new paradigms that EVE must
 10 develop to run the models, distribute and analyze their data will also greatly advance digital
 11 competency.

12 2. **Dissolve boundaries:** By working on the same spatial scales as our sensor footprints,
 13 and as studied by national meteorological, hydrological, and environmental agencies EVE
 14 will dissolve long-standing boundaries between these fields. New discoveries will emerge
 15 from the ability to explore the coupling between Earth-system components (riverine carbon
 16 transports and ocean biogeochemistry, land-surface and sub-surface interactions, ice-sheet
 17 interactions with grounding lines, etc.) globally.

18 3. **Engage users:** By describing Earth's climate on the scale of transient dynamics that
 19 people experience, EVE will open new opportunities to engage and inform existing users,
 20 and at the same time begin to engage a much broader user community, generating new
 21 knowledge economies [14].

1 4.2 The scientific challenge of km-scale

2 To capitalize on EVE’s potential will require solving not only large technical, but also scientific,
 3 challenges. While EVE can make initial progress by leveraging and further developing existing
 4 modeling systems, it will need to nurture and sustain an ongoing programme of model develop-
 5 ment tailored to the scale of the problems and the breadth of the user communities that it is
 6 targeting.

7 4.2.1 Model building

8 The necessity of developing km-scale models should also not hide the scientific challenges that this
 9 poses. Experience in the development of regional (as opposed to global) km-scale models suggests
 10 that, despite immediate and significant progress in simulating many aspects and phenomena of
 11 the Earth-system, challenges will inevitably arise in simulating other aspects [53, 54], an area,
 12 where if carefully formulated in ways that generalize, is proving amenable to the combination
 13 of bursts of finer scale simulations and ML [55, 56]. Improvements in many model components,
 14 (e.g., land surface processes and hydrology) will require expertise from communities previously
 15 only marginally engaged in Earth-system modelling. Model deficiencies due to imperfect repre-
 16 sentations of sub-km scale physical and chemical processes (e.g., cloud processes, atmospheric and
 17 oceanic turbulence, ice-fracture), and from representations of biological processes (marine ecosys-
 18 tems, and the terrestrial biosphere) at all scales, will need to be addressed with the appropriate
 19 level of precision. Solving these problems, by bringing expertise in modelling, information theory,
 20 observations and theory together to work on societally relevant scales, will accelerate knowledge
 21 production and transferability.

22 4.2.2 Uncertainty estimation

23 EVE offers new opportunities to better sample uncertainty. Model diversity is presently under-
 24 stood in terms of differences that arise from different implementations of essentially the same
 25 model.⁷ By creating a new class of models, EVE makes a major contribution to diversifying our
 26 epistemological basis. Moreover, as a base-funded and coordinated activity, EVE can strategically
 27 sample how its own implementation strategies affect the systematics of its model ensemble. At
 28 present, this must be addressed in a much more ad hoc fashion, which introduces large inefficien-
 29 cies.

30 It is sometimes feared that the computational intensity of km-scale models will limit the ability
 31 to sample scenario uncertainty, or natural variability. To the extent existing models sample this
 32 well, km-scale models will simply correct the large biases in their low-order statistics. If existing
 33 (CMIP) models do not realistically sample the higher-order statistics of the climate system,
 34 EVE will introduce a new way to do so. At the same time it introduces the needed training
 35 data (empiricism) to make ML-based ensemble inflation techniques [57] more effective, and the
 36 technical foundation for exploring more novel methodologies.

37 4.3 EVE – the science case

38 Like the Apollo project, EVE must harness tremendous technical and scientific capability to
 39 provide a specific service, and in doing so, help us see the world in new ways.

⁷Traditional climate models are all based on fundamental and common assumptions, namely that the intermedi-
 ate scales play no role in climate, that the small scales couple directly to the large scales. While these assumptions
 are known to be incorrect, the premise is that deficiencies that arise can be overcome using different ways of
 compensating for the errors, which is the basis for large multi-model ensembles.

1 To be successful EVE must maintain and support a focused research and development pro-
2 gramme, both to improve and implement models and to understand how and why they behave as
3 they do. These must have strong connections to external efforts, perhaps through the sponsorship
4 of blue-sky research on selected topics at external laboratories. In addition to a strong scientific
5 focus, EVE must support basic advances in technical fields, such as informatics, numerical math-
6 ematics, and especially AI. Doing so will ensure that EVE stimulates science, and knowledge
7 gains to maintain pace with our changing world.

8 While primarily intended as a telescope looking into the future of our own planet, EVE can
9 also help us see ourselves through the lens of other planets. For instance, as on Earth mesoscale
10 processes appear to also play a fundamental role in planetary atmospheres (e.g., Mars [58], Venus
11 [59], Saturn [60], Titan). Kilometer-scale modeling can thus help to prepare space missions and
12 exploration, and to interpret new observations of the solar system and of exoplanets. To enable
13 this the EVE science and infrastructure should be coordinated in ways that facilitate its use by
14 the planetary science community.

15 5 Optimal Earth-system data integration and monitoring

16 Coordinated and open Earth observations enable decision-makers around the world to better un-
17 derstand the issues they face, and better shape policies. Together with simulation, observational
18 data is fundamental for advancing Earth-system science.

19 A feature that distinguishes observational data from model output is its heterogeneity. For
20 Earth observations, intrinsic heterogeneity, across dimensions like type, quality level, redundancy,
21 and sampling, is convolved with the space-time heterogeneity of the Earth-system itself. It is what
22 makes standardizing access and enabling interoperability of observations and software especially
23 challenging. Initiatives like the FAIR Data Principles [61], address some of these issues, but in
24 so far as they apply to the use of data, they overlook a much larger problem. Most data is not
25 used.

26 Insufficient, or inadequate, use of data is partly a distribution problem, but even in cases
27 where, after a tremendous effort, data is made readily accessible, its effective use is far from
28 guaranteed. Of the more than 100 million daily observations coming into most advanced oper-
29 ational NWP centers, less than 1/3 is assimilated. Reasons for the non-use of data are varied,
30 and can be due to economies produced from dealing with instrument and sampling uncertainties,
31 challenges of maximizing information content of quantities of interest, as well as major difficulties
32 in interpreting complicated observations. Our present state-of-the-art assimilation approaches
33 are built around a linearized, large-scale, balanced view of the atmosphere and are ill-suited to
34 ingest nonlinear, high density, remotely sensed measurements at the km-scale. EVE will need
35 to support the science to move effectively towards such km-scale assimilation systems that can
36 leverage the observation network to its full potential. At the source of many of these challenges
37 are limitations in the realism of the models used within the data assimilation system. As scientific
38 instruments are becoming more sophisticated and measurement devices become easier to deploy
39 – from commodity devices in cities, farms, cars and mobile phones and increases in connectivity
40 aided by *in situ* learning, e.g., tinyML – the problem of non-use, and the lost opportunities that
41 come with it, are fast-increasing (Fig 3).

42 5.1 Strengthening data assimilation

43 Regarding the fundamental problem of combining model simulations with observations within an
44 objective framework, data assimilation has become an indispensable tool for making data usable,

1 so much so that most people interact not with data, but with the state of a model constrained by
 2 the data it assimilates — usually in the form of reanalyses. These reanalyses are extensions of the
 3 analyses used to initialize weather forecast models as they apply the same model and assimilation
 4 configurations to long periods such that the monitored variability is the sole result of weather
 5 evolution and observation availability. Reanalyses offer the opportunity to incorporate data that
 6 might not have been available within the time-critical window during which the analyses must be
 7 performed, and can therefore recycle historical data with modern methods. These are important
 8 and minor adjustments to a painstaking and labor-intensive system that has, over decades, been
 9 optimized to improve weather forecasts. They also make the data more usable for climate studies,
 10 but highlight how the assimilation of Earth-system data is often not the first priority, particularly
 11 as no agency has the mandate to build assimilation systems that are optimized around the specific
 12 needs of Earth-system monitoring or to help evaluate and improve climate models. As we strive to
 13 make better climate predictions we have come to appreciate the importance of data assimilation
 14 as a reference methodology to bridge between models and observations. At the same time, we are
 15 beginning to appreciate the importance of advanced reanalyses, and their co-provision with data
 16 that might not be assimilated, for training deep-learning methods geared at weather prediction
 17 emulation and for modelling impacts.

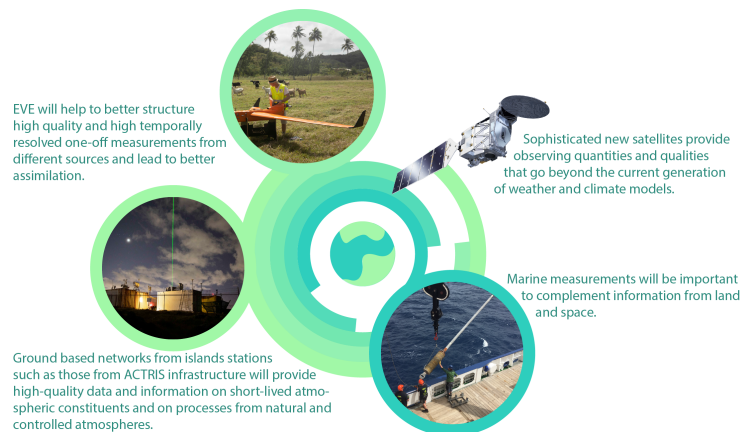


Figure 3: Observations come in many forms. EVE provides a framework for helping data providers, and providers of data *Analyses* (including re-analyses) deliver their products in ways that ensure interoperability with software simulation, and minimize barriers to their effective and equitable use.

18 EVE’s push to advance our understanding of the climate system globally, with local granular-
 19 ity, creates new opportunities to strengthen the efforts of established data providers and designers
 20 of data assimilation systems to provide improved data products, and to lower barriers to their
 21 effective and equitable use. Global models with local granularity are particularly attractive for
 22 assimilating data in complex terrain not resolved by traditional models. Combining this capabil-
 23 ity with ML and an Earth-system, rather than just meteorological, focus also widens the scope
 24 of interesting observations, (e.g., to include data from the Internet of Things, privately owned
 25 remote sensors, etc.). EVE, to the extent it encompasses an ambition to support Earth-system
 26 data assimilation (around ongoing efforts) will create new data needs, and new opportunities to
 27 make more effective use of old data.

28 As alluded to above, all data cannot and should not, or not only, be assimilated. EVE
 29 can advance the use of data, by helping provide access to primary data, for assessment and

1 verification purposes, and by ensuring the interoperability of models, data and software. Doing
2 so will add value to observations from the Internet of Things. For example, by lowering barriers
3 for linking measures quantities like crop losses from freezing rain, blowdowns of tree stands from
4 storms, images of damages within the built environment, coastal erosion from storm surges, or
5 reports of complications from asthma in association with dust storms EVE opens the door to
6 new discoveries, and to a greater and more intensive use of data. Interoperability further aids
7 virtualization and ML [62] to create powerful tools for leveraging observations from super-sites
8 to design experimental studies, better optimize the observational network, or just allow citizens
9 to virtually explore their planet’s past.

10 **5.2 Strengthening data collection and provision**

11 **5.2.1 Reinvigorating ground-based *in situ* measurement system**

12 *In situ* (ground-based, airborne, waterborne, and shipborne) measurement stations require con-
13 stant maintenance and costly infrastructure. As remotely sensed observation increase, this places
14 greater pressure on optimizing what inevitably will be a reduced amount of *in situ* measurements.
15 To meet global grand challenges (climate change; biodiversity losses; air, water and soil pollu-
16 tion; water, food and energy supply; acidification, deforestation, and pandemics to name only
17 a few) which all are very interlinked, we cannot have too much data. Often this requires the
18 types of measurements, and the coincidence of measurements, that cannot only be made from
19 space, or which might not be immediately relevant to weather and climate forecasting. During
20 recent years, global and European *in situ* Research Infrastructures have been developed. [63]. As
21 an exemplary case, SMEAR (Stations Measuring Earth surface Atmosphere Relations) concept,
22 developed since 1991, is designed to provide the capacity (data volume, number of measured
23 parameters, connections to remotely sensed observations) to answer multidisciplinary scientific
24 and societal questions, even those which do not exist or which we cannot anticipate today [64].

25 As many climate questions overlap and complement other research challenges, diverse arrays
26 of measurements will continue to be needed, new measurement systems will need to be designed,
27 and gaps in coverage will need to be identified and filled. For instance, a lack of open observations
28 throughout the Global South is crucial to fill. EVE must work with agencies across regions to
29 ensure the value of integrating existing data into EVE’s open access platforms is clear, and
30 to collaborate to ensure the tools provide demonstrable leveraging of the information for local
31 climate applications and questions. To ensure this, national research and weather agencies should
32 be integrated from the outset so that EVE pays more than mere lip-service to open data access
33 in the Global South, or that these aims are not relegated to an afterthought. At the same time, it
34 will be essential to optimize network designs, so limited resources are effectively deployed. EVE’s
35 emphasis on the interoperability of data and software, can support communities in this process
36 of optimizing ground-based data collection.

37 **5.2.2 Essential Climate Variables (ECVs)**

38 It will not be possible to observe everything everywhere but, what we observe we should make
39 usable, and what we want to observe, or perhaps think we no longer need to observe, should
40 be decided as rigorously as possible. These are questions that the Global Climate Observing
41 System addresses through its definition of Essential Climate Variables (ECVs). Ongoing activities
42 dedicated to further developing and testing ECVs, will benefit from a more seamless hierarchy
43 of stations/observations (comprehensive flagships, flux stations, low-cost sensors utilizing 5G-7G
44 networks) to assess the availability and utility of additional variables. To take full advantage of

1 these investments, however, it will be imperative to develop tools that can help maximize the use
2 of the data. This includes the FAIR principles, but as alluded to above, this is only a beginning.
3 EVE’s capability to complement these measurements with km-scale local models, and even finer
4 (dm to hm) scale simulations for local process studies can help optimize the expensive deployment
5 of research infrastructures and their associated data curation.

6 Consideration also needs to be given to unfamiliar data sources, from remote areas, which
7 may be of fundamental importance, but not immediately associated with impacts. For example,
8 sub-surface flows around ice shelves, or deep ocean heat content may have a relatively small
9 impact on weather prediction systems, or on economic productivity in the short term, but their
10 absence can leave us ignorant of changes that could portend risks, or a high potential for climate-
11 related damages. Likewise, observations should be collected based on their ability to inform error
12 estimation. By increasing the proximity between observations and model output, and ensuring
13 the interoperability of data and software, opportunities for data analytics, knowledge transfer,
14 and ultimately impact assessment will also increase.

15 **5.3 EVE – the observational perspective**

16 EVE obviously cannot substitute for the wealth of ongoing activities dedicated to data collec-
17 tion and dissemination. Through improved global models with local granularity it can, however,
18 support and strengthen ongoing efforts to improve the design of observational networks, to intel-
19 ligently choose essential climate variables, and to improve the capabilities of data assimilation.
20 Likewise, it can strengthen the use of data to improve the quality of the modelling and the ability
21 of user communities (including scientists) to assess model-based projections. Improved system
22 design and data selection will be helpful, improved assessment of projections is essential. To meet
23 these goals EVE must emphasize the co-location and standardization of data and its interoper-
24 ability with software, whereby the former includes observational data and model output; the
25 latter includes analytics, learning, and simulation systems.

26 **6 Elements of structure and governance**

27 **6.1 EVE’s climate information mandate**

28 To make a difference it will be essential that EVE is structured to continuously provide and up-
29 date climate data – *Analyses* of the past and future scenarios – in ways that minimize barriers to
30 use, and lead to the widest possible dissemination of its associated information. EVE’s primary
31 mandate must be to improve and increase the empiricism, through its improved *Analyses* scenar-
32 ios (projections), in ways that support the development of accompanying storylines or narratives,
33 to inform and motivate action. User needs should be the main driver for updating *Analyses*. En-
34 suring the data, information, and knowledge associated with these *Analyses* are rapidly, routinely,
35 and robustly delivered to society, will require operational rigor, which is something that present
36 (research-based) efforts lack.

37 The nature of this rigor can draw inspiration from numerical weather prediction, which pro-
38 duces forecasts on a schedule, and includes a regular update cycle that harmonizes new model
39 developments with HPC capacity growth, rigorous testing, and new service provision. Updated
40 weather forecasts and dissemination services are then routinely provided using updated produc-
41 tion chains to address growing and changing user needs. For EVE, update cycles need to be
42 defined by their ability to increase the empiricism of its climate data. In practice this would be
43 measured by the value updates add to what, must effectively be seen, as training data. This will
44 require coordination with other EVE nodes and the user community – as the trade-off between a

1 better sampling of uncertainty versus improved information quality is challenging to assess and
2 vexes the present provision of climate information. Critically, governance mechanisms must be
3 developed to enable the boundary workers who interface with external users to carry those users'
4 concerns back to influence the governance and scientific direction of EVE.

5 **6.2 EVE as a North-South partnership**

6 In developing regional nodes, and given the need for co-proximate compute and store facilities in
7 proximity to hyper-scaling data centers, EVE will, by definition, provide remote access for almost
8 all of its users. This creates opportunities for it to develop as a true partnership between the
9 global North and South. Partners would participate in the governance of the node, co-develop
10 and co-design tools, and have privileged access to its computing and storage resources. Access
11 to standardised tools and data, including ML and training data [14] will also help EVE dispel
12 inequities that arise from asymmetric capabilities to make use of open data. Most importantly,
13 partners would help design and staff training programmes that link to ongoing activities in the
14 region – for instance in cooperation with regional climate centers and in conjunction with the
15 regular climate outlook fora – to support capacity building and increase bandwidth amongst the
16 partners. These should also leverage existing partnerships and regional networks such as the pan-
17 African university and the WASCAL pan-west African PhD program to give two Africa-focussed
18 examples.

19 Taking advantage of the experience of many institutions and plethora of new innovate edu-
20 cational tools gained and developed during the COVID pandemic, a training programme could
21 involve the development of online courses with regional climate centers to target a very broad com-
22 munity of users and disciplinary expertise. Past experience of pan-continent projects has shown
23 that small-scale training programmes with attention focused on few individuals does not work,
24 as it leaves training vulnerable to staff movements, and can often fail to establish self-sustaining
25 local capacity. By employing high quality, massively parallel online training components as the
26 first step EVE aims to achieve strength in breadth rather than depth. From enthusiastic and
27 talented participants of the online courses, scholarships to training programmes could be offered.
28 The top graduates of these programmes would then qualify for an in situ intensive training (with
29 potential certification at masters level) at one of EVE's partner centers followed by a rotating
30 (5-year) staff position at an EVE node. This would allow a considerable fraction of the people
31 employed by EVE to be drawn from the Global South, building bandwidth among the partnering
32 institutes and strengthening their ability to make effective use of EVE's resources in the long run.

33 **6.3 'Where are the Humans?' – Ethical, legal, and social issues**

34 EVE raises profound ethical, legal and social issues. Data streams that might be intended to
35 help evaluate future projections, or which might be useful for measuring compliance, can be
36 misused to support undesired monitoring. Asymmetries in the ability to use information may,
37 through its free provision, inadvertently lead to an increase in inequality. The difficulty users
38 may have in contextualizing information about the future, or the possibility that some users will
39 manipulate this information in ways that are deliberately misleading, must be contended with.
40 As increasingly detailed information is provided across societal sectors, who bears the liability
41 for unintended consequences associated with the use of this information? How can intellectual
42 property be protected across EVE systems? How can legitimacy be established in ways that
43 allow EVE to function internationally? To address these, and many other questions, EVE must
44 meaningfully engage and continuously involve experts from the social (behavioral to political)
45 sciences.

6.4 Initial thoughts on governance

EVE’s structure should be based on a distributed framework to preserve national or multinational sovereignty, make the best use of existing infrastructures and programmes, and respond with agility to changing economic boundary conditions. Ideally, EVE is optimised for synergistic developments without creating unmanageable dependencies. The synergy must leverage the expertise and resources of multiple partners. For this, EVE needs to establish a governance framework that can quickly spin up from existing seed activities where they exist (for example DestinE in Europe) but also be responsive to new opportunities. As sufficient funding is essential to create critical mass, EVE needs to draw from existing funding programmes but stimulate substantial new funding streams at the same time. The latter will need sufficient lead time.

Governance includes science, digital technology, funding and process management aspects, most of which have inter-dependencies. The governance framework needs to be based on co-development and cooperation principles through research centres, HPC centres, operational agencies and service providers but also private entities from different countries.

The role of public-private partnerships requires specific attention, in particular for establishing EVE’s digital technology agenda including the provision of supercomputing resources. EVE is also the platform for a public-private symbiosis on AI/ML that empowers the public sector through entirely new tool sets but also enables business development in service sectors. Such a symbiosis will be instrumental for democratising software and data, and sharing and co-developing cost-effective information systems and decision-making tools for those countries that are most exposed to change and least enabled through classical prediction systems.

Governance implies a regulatory framework and multi-party agreements on roles and responsibilities, how to coordinate individual developments and transition research to production. It also needs a concerted approach to data and software licensing and management. Transparency and traceability, accessibility and sustainability of software and data are critical, and existing/accepted best practices, regulations and policies need to be ingested as much as possible. The EVE implementation plan will need a dedicated effort to assess governance options that are functional in the science-technology-policy complex and that is based on lessons learned from inter-governmental organisations like ECMWF, ITER, IRENA, and CERN, subscription-based programmes like ESA’s Earth-observation programme, and public-private partnerships, for example, created for dealing with COVID-19 with framework support from the World Bank.

7 EVE – an initial blueprint

The world is warming. This warming is expected to have catastrophic consequences for segments of humanity, but for whom and how many is unknown. Efforts to mitigate against the warming are motivating investments in the trillions of Euro to restructure economies and energy systems, similar investments are being contemplated to adapt infrastructure to increase resilience, and massive and risky interventions are being discussed, with little idea of the sustainability or efficacy of such responses. Never before have global societies faced such a profound and common threat. Yet our response remains inadequate and atomized. Yes, across agencies and institutions climate is a high priority. However, with the exception of short-term funding for academics, whose impact and efforts disproportionately target small circles of policymakers, climate change remains, at best, the second most important problem for even the most engaged agencies, and (with rare exceptions) lacks a meaningful international dimension. We must do better, and we must do better together. EVE, which is envisioned as a digital infrastructure that harmonizes the latest advances in information technology (HPC and AI) to establish and maintain a global km-scale

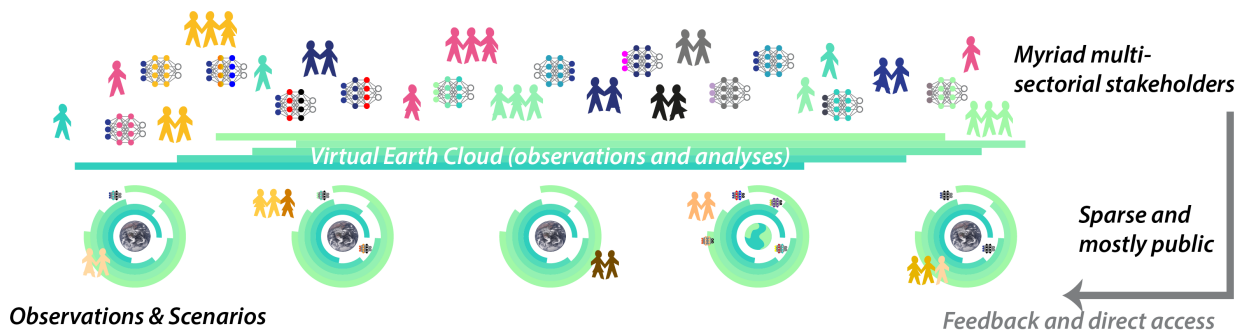


Figure 4: Schematic of EVE concept, highlighting the three layers whereby Earth Virtualization Engines (the engine in Fig. 1 create *Analyses* that, together with primary data, populate the Virtual Earth Cloud (the data layer) and make it available in ways that minimize barriers to use allowing information to penetrate society more easily.

1 climate prediction and information system — a Virtual Earth Cloud — across regional nodes,
 2 outlines how we can do so, and how in doing so we can help humanity positively engage in first
 3 imagining and then shaping its own future.

4 EVE’s climate prediction and information system would aim for three levels of information
 5 provision: (i) routine (effectively operational) provision of the best possible *Analyses* of future
 6 trajectories of the Earth-system; (ii) provide and maintain a digital infrastructure, a Virtual
 7 Earth Cloud, to enable open equitable and *effective use* of these *Analyses*; (iii) service provision
 8 to maximize stakeholder engagement and public benefit. In this context *Analyses* refers to global
 9 km-scale spatial and sub-hourly (15-30 min) temporal description of the state of the Earth-
 10 system. To provide the best possible *Analyses* will require EVE’s weather and climate data to
 11 be quality-assured, to include uncertainty quantification, and be continuously updated to reflect
 12 the evolving state of the science and digital infrastructure. *Effective use* of the Virtual Earth
 13 Cloud means enabling interactivity by minimizing barriers to exploring and using the cloud,
 14 including its primary data, e.g., observations and models upon which the secondary data is, or
 15 could conceivably be, based.

16 To address these aims EVE nodes must:

- 17 • be vertically integrated across its three levels of service provision to support user interac-
 18 tivity;
- 19 • operate dedicated Tier-0 compute and storage capabilities to deliver km-scale *Analyses*;
- 20 • engage and support under-resourced partners;
- 21 • be autonomously constituted and governed subject to minimal rules of confederation chosen
 22 to ensure a unified, and globally aligned, information system.

23 Vertical integration refers to the need to support technology development and research in tech-
 24 nical fields (computer science, computation science, computer engineering, and applied mathemat-
 25 ics); in Earth-oriented domain sciences (meteorology, oceanography, biogeochemistry, hydrology,
 26 land surface, and cryospheric processes), in application areas (agriculture, health, land and water
 27 management, urban planning, mobility, etc.), and in the boundary lands between these areas and
 28 civil society. The breadth of the required expertise cannot be maintained in a single center, but
 29 each node should aim for a critical mass that allows it to maintain its operations while engaging
 30 with experts and agencies in each of these areas.

1 Support for under-resourced communities must include programmes to identify, attract, train,
2 and eventually employ staff members from these same communities and thereby engage them as
3 active partners. As an example, an EU-initiated EVE node could be constituted as a partnership
4 between the EU, West Africa and the Caribbean to create outreach and training programmes,
5 satellite compute and data facilities, and rotating staff positions and thus give substance to this
6 partnership.

7 Tier-0 compute and storage facilities can be defined by their power envelope, which based on
8 current trends implies 30 MW or more. These centers already exist, EVE simply proposes that
9 some subset of them be dedicated to managing climate change. Concentrating compute resources
10 in a few high-power facilities makes power use more visible, but allows for more efficiency and
11 better-coordinated access to carbon-neutral sources. The facilities should be large enough to
12 provide *Analyses* with km-scale granularity while reserving at least half of their resources for
13 research, development, and application activities, e.g., uncertainty quantification, model testing
14 and calibration, training on the *Analyses*, etc.

15 Given different national circumstances, and the need to deliver local solutions to local prob-
16 lems, EVE nodes should be constituted and governed autonomously, with rules of confederation
17 kept to a minimum while ensuring the global success of the project. These rules of confederation
18 should principally concern themselves with: (i) maintaining the interoperability of models and
19 data across the Virtual Earth Cloud that they create; (ii) defining a common strategy for pop-
20 ulating the Virtual Earth Cloud with *Analyses*; and (iii) supporting the necessary exchange of
21 information to ensure the efficient development and dissemination of adaptation solutions.

22 In practical terms, we envision that EVE would be well served by a federation of 3-5 regional
23 nodes, with each node comprising a core staff of 200-300 individuals⁸ with strong and symbiotic
24 links to academia, national research laboratories and programmes, and public agencies (climate
25 services) in partner countries. We would recommend its provision of *Analyses* to focus on temporal
26 windows of 50 years about the present, with fewer centennial-scale windows to assess high-end
27 risks. A funding volume, of € 300 M per year, per node could meet these targets. With 3-5 nodes
28 this would comprise a yearly expenditure of € 0.9 B - € 1.5 B over an initial period of 7-10 years
29 with an evaluation after five years. This amounts to a global, ca € 10 B investment to enable
30 interactions with virtual Earths, to help us understand, manage, and as necessary adapt, to a
31 warming world.

⁸These would operate the backbone of an EVE node to develop the models, maintain the infrastructure, and support the application and user, obviously this could differ drastically from node to node given the individual circumstances.

1 Glossary

2 **AI** Artificial Intelligence. 2, 21

3 **Analyses** This term is historically associated with the best estimate of the state of the weather
4 based on observations, later it was generalized to include the consistency with a model.
5 We use it generically here to refer to the best description of the state of the system given
6 some conditions, i.e., a scenario of forcing, past information, consistency with a physical
7 model, etc. In our usage *Analyses* can also be performed for a scenario, in which case it is
8 synonymous with a projection. Our more general usage of the term allows us to emphasize
9 the similarity in how we might provide data for the past, present and future. 6, 7, 14, 16,
10 19, 20

11 **CERN** [European Organization for Nuclear Research](#). A research laboratory to uncover what
12 the universe is made of and how it works. 18

13 **ECMWF** [European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecasts](#) is both a research institute
14 and an operational service that is funded by member states to provide global numerical
15 weather predictions and other data. ii, 18

16 **ESA** [European Space Agency](#). Its mission is to shape the development of Europe's space capa-
17 bility and ensure that investment in space continues to deliver benefits to the citizens of
18 Europe and the world. 18

19 **HPC** High performance computing. Usually reserved for machines that are in the top forty or
20 so (Tier-0 or Tier-1) of computing power, which presently spans about 0.2 PF(HPCG) to
21 29 PF(HPCG). 7–9, 16, 18

22 **HPCG** High performance conjugate gradient, a practical performance measure for the physical
23 models used in Earth-system simulation. 7, 8, 21

24 **ICON** ICON stands for icosahedral non-hydrostatic. It refers to a coupled model of the Earth-
25 system developed by a growing consortium of European partners, with support for com-
26 ponents representing vegetation dynamics, cryospheric processes, the carbon cycle, and air
27 quality that can be run at km-scale (1.25 km) resolution globally. 7, 8

28 **IPCC** [Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change](#). A United Nations body for assessing the
29 science related to climate change. 1

30 **IRENA** [International Renewable Energy Agency](#). A global intergovernmental agency for energy
31 transformation with 137 member states plus the EU. 18

32 **ITER** [International Thermonuclear Experimental Reactor](#). A thirty-five nation collaboration
33 supporting the worlds largest fusion experiment. 18

34 **ML** Machine Learning – A specific form of AI, which for many applications exploits a specific
35 technique which is called deep learning. 2, 6–9, 12, 14, 15, 17

36 **NICAM** NICAM stands for non-hydrostatic icosahedral model. It refers to an atmospheric
37 model developed by a consortium of Japanese partners. It was the first of a new class
38 of km-scale atmospheric models, and has been used to simulate the global atmosphere at
39 220 meter scales. 8

- 1 **NWP** Numerical Weather Prediction. 13
- 2 **PB** peta (10^{15}) byte: Large data centers for weather and climate typically encompass hundreds
3 of peta-bytes of data on fast storage, and much more on tape. 8
- 4 **PF** peta (10^{15}) FLOP (floating point operations per second). 7, 8, 21
- 5 **SYPD** Simulated years per day, a measure of computational throughput. 7, 8
- 6 **UNEP** [UN Environment Programme](#). 1
- 7 **WCRP** [World Climate Research Programme](#). The WCRP is in turn sponsored by the WMO, the
8 International Science Council (ISC) and the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission
9 (IOC) of UNESCO). ii, 1
- 10 **WMO** [World Meteorological Organization](#). 1, 3, 4, 22

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