1	A Fortran-Python Interface for Integrating Machine Learning Parameterization into
2	Earth System Models
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14 Abstract

15 Parameterizations in Earth System Models (ESMs) are subject to biases and uncertainties arising from 16 subjective empirical assumptions and incomplete understanding of the underlying physical processes. 17 Recently, the growing representational capability of machine learning (ML) in solving complex problems 18 has spawned immense interests in climate science applications. Specifically, ML-based parameterizations 19 have been developed to represent convection, radiation and microphysics processes in ESMs by learning 20 from observations or high-resolution simulations, which have the potential to improve the accuracies and 21 alleviate the uncertainties. Previous works have developed some surrogate models for these processes 22 using ML. These surrogate models need to be coupled with the dynamical core of ESMs to investigate 23 the effectiveness and their performance in a coupled system. In this study, we present a novel Fortran-24 Python interface designed to seamlessly integrate ML parameterizations into ESMs. This interface 25 showcases high versatility by supporting popular ML frameworks like PyTorch, TensorFlow, and Scikit-26 learn. We demonstrate the interface's modularity and reusability through two cases: a ML trigger function 27 for convection parameterization and a ML wildfire model. We conduct a comprehensive evaluation of 28 memory usage and computational overhead resulting from the integration of Python codes into the 29 Fortran ESMs. By leveraging this flexible interface, ML parameterizations can be effectively developed, 30 tested, and integrated into ESMs.

32 Plain Language

33 Earth System Models (ESMs) are crucial for understanding and predicting climate change. However, they 34 struggle to accurately simulate the climate due to uncertainties associated with parameterizing sub-grid 35 physics. Although higher-resolution models can reduce some uncertainties, they require significant 36 computational resources. Machine learning (ML) algorithms offer a solution by learning the important 37 relationships and features from high-resolution models. These ML algorithms can then be used to develop 38 parameterizations for coarser-resolution models, reducing computational and memory costs. To 39 incorporate ML parameterizations into ESMs, we develop a Fortran-Python interface that allows for 40 calling Python functions within Fortran-based ESMs. Through two case studies, this interface 41 demonstrates its feasibility, modularity and effectiveness.

42 1. Introduction

43 Earth System Models (ESMs) play a crucial role in understanding the mechanism of the climate system 44 and projecting future changes. However, uncertainties arising from parameterizations of sub-grid 45 processes pose challenges to the reliability of model simulations (Hourdin et al., 2017). Kilometer-scale 46 high-resolution models (Schär et al., 2020) can potentially mitigate the uncertainties by directly resolving 47 some key subgrid-scale processes that need to be parameterized in conventional low-resolution ESMs. Another promising method, superparameterization - a type of multi-model framework (MMF) (D. 48 Randall et al., 2003; D. A. Randall, 2013), explicitly resolves sub-grid processes by embedding high-49 50 resolution cloud-resolved models within the grid of low-resolution models. Consequently, both high-51 resolution models and superparameterization approaches have shown promise in improving the 52 representation of cloud formation and precipitation. However, their implementation is challenged by 53 exceedingly high computational costs. 54

55 In recent years, machine learning (ML) techniques have emerged as a promising approach to improve parameterizations in ESMs. They are capable of learning complex patterns and 56 57 relationships directly from observational data or high-resolution simulations, enabling the 58 capture of nonlinearities and intricate interactions that may be challenging to represent with 59 traditional parameterizations. For example, Zhang et al. (2021) proposed a ML trigger function 60 for a deep convection parameterization by learning from field observations, demonstrating its 61 superior accuracy compared to traditional CAPE-based trigger functions. Chen et al. (2023) 62 developed a neural network-based cloud fraction parameterization, better predicting both spatial

63	distribution and vertical structure of cloud fraction when compared to the traditional Xu-Randall
64	scheme (Xu & Randall, 1996). Krasnopolsky et al. (2013) prototyped a system using a neural
65	network to learn the convective temperature and moisture tendencies from cloud-resolving
66	model (CRM) simulations. These tendencies refer to the rates of change of various atmospheric
67	variables over one time step, diagnosed from particular parameterization schemes. These studies
68	lay the groundwork for integrating ML-based parameterization into ESMs.
69	
70	However, the aforementioned studies primarily focus on offline ML of parameterizations that do
71	not directly interact with ESMs. Recently, there have been efforts to implement ML
72	parameterizations that can be directly coupled with ESMs. Several studies have developed ML
73	parameterizations in ESMs by hard coding custom neural network modules, such as O'Gorman
74	& Dwyer (2018), Rasp et al. (2018), Han et al. (2020) and Gettelman et al. (2021). They
75	incorporated a Fortran-based ML inference module to allow the loading of the pre-trained ML
76	weights to reconstruct the ML algorithm in ESMs. The hard-coding has limitations. When a
77	trained ML model is incorporated into ESMs, it is frozen and cannot be updated during runtime.
78	Recently, Kochkov et al. (2024) introduced the NeuralGCM, an innovative approach that enables
79	the ML model to be updated during runtime with a differentiable dynamical core. This allows for
80	end-to-end training and optimization of the interactions with large-scale dynamics. However, the
81	hard-coding coupling method does not support such capability.
82	

83 Fortran-Keras Bridge (FKB; Ott et al. (2020)) and C Foreign Function Interface (CFFI;

84 https://cffi.readthedocs.io) are two packages that support two-way coupling between Fortran-based ESM

and Python based ML parameterizations. FKB enables tight integration of Keras deep learning models but

- is specifically bound to the Keras library, limiting its compatibility with other frameworks like PyTorch
- 87 and Scikit-Learn. On the other hand, CFFI provides a more flexible solution that in principle supports
- 88 coupling various ML packages due to its language-agnostic design. Brenowitz & Bretherton (2018)
- 89 utilized it to enable the calling of Python ML algorithms within ESMs. However, the CFFI has several
- 90 limitations. When utilizing CFFI to interface Fortran and Python, it uses global data structures to pass
- 91 variables between the two languages. This approach results in additional memory overhead as variable
- 92 values need to be copied between languages, instead of being passed by reference. Additionally, CFFI
- 93 lacks automatic garbage collection for the unused memory within these data structures and copies.
- 94 Consequently, the memory usage of the program gradually increases over its lifetime. In addition, when

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103 using CFFI to call Python functions from a Fortran program, the process involves several steps such as 104 registering variables into a global data structure, calling the Python function, and retrieving the calculated 105 result. These multiple steps can introduce computational overhead due to the additional operations 106 required. 107 108 Additionally, Wang et al. (2022) developed a coupler to facilitate two-way communication between ML 109 parameterizations and host ESMs. The coupler gathers state variables from the ESM using the Message 110 Passing Interface (MPI) and transfers them to a Python-based ML module. It then receives the output 111 from the Python code and returns them to the ESM. While this approach effectively bridges Fortran and 112 Python, its use of file-based data passing to exchange information between modules carries some 113 performance overhead relative to tighter coupling techniques. Optimizing the data transfer, such as via 114 shared memory, remains an area for improvement to fully leverage this coupler's ability to integrate 115 online-adaptive ML parameterizations within large-scale ESM simulations, which is the main goal for this 116 study. 117 118 In this study, we investigate the integration of ML parameterizations into Fortran-based ESM 119 models by establishing a flexible interface that enables the invocation of ML algorithms in 120 Python from Fortran. This integration offers access to any Python codes from Fortran, including 121 a diverse range of ML frameworks, such as PyTorch, TensorFlow, and Scikit-learn, which can 122 effectively be utilized for parameterizing intricate atmospheric and other climate system 123 processes. The coupling of the Fortran model and the Python ML code needs to be performed for 124 thousands of model columns and over thousands of timesteps for a typical model simulation. 125 Therefore, it is crucial for the coupling interface to be both robust and efficient. We showcase the 126 feasibility and benefits of this approach through case studies that involve the parameterization of 127 deep convection and wildfire processes in ESMs. The two cases demonstrate the robustness and 128 efficiency of the coupling interface. The focus of this paper is on documenting the coupling 129 between the Fortran ESM and the ML algorithms and systematically evaluating the 130 computational efficiency and memory usage of different ML frameworks (such as Pytorch and 131 TensorFlow), different ML algorithms, and different configuration of a climate model. The 132 assessment of the scientific performance of the ML emulators will be addressed in follow-on 133 papers. The showcase examples emphasize the potential for high modularity and reusability by 134 separating the ML components into Python modules. This modular design facilitates independent

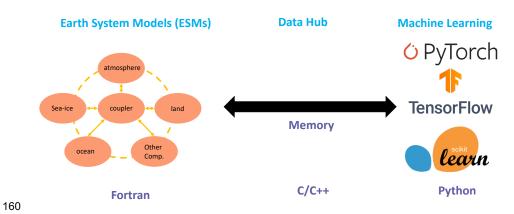
135	development and testing of ML-based parameterizations by researchers. It enables easier code
136	maintenance, updates, and the adoption of state-of-the-art ML techniques with only minimal
137	disruption to the existing Fortran infrastructure. Ultimately, this advancement will contribute to
138	enhanced predictions and a deeper comprehension of the evolving climate of our planet. It is
139	important to note that the current interface only supports executing deep learning algorithms on CPUs and
140	does not support running them on GPUs.

- 141
- 142 The rest of this manuscript is organized as follows: Section 2 presents the detailed interface that
- 143 integrates ML into Fortran-based ESM models. Section 3 discusses the performance of the
- 144 interface and presents its application in two case studies. Finally, Section 4 provides a summary
- 145 of the findings and a discussion of their implications.

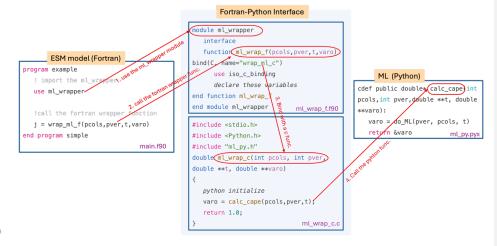
146 2. General design of the ML interface

- 147 2.1 Architecture of the ML interface
- 148 We developed an interface using shared memory to enable two-way coupling between Fortran and Python
- 149 (Figure 1). The ESM used in the demonstration in Figure 1 is the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE)
- 150 Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM; Golaz et al., 2019, 2022). Because Fortran cannot directly
- 151 call Python, we utilized C as an intermediary since Fortran can call C functions. This approach leverages
- 152 C as a data hub to exchange information without requiring a framework-specific binding like KFB. As a
- 153 result, our interface supports invoking any Python-based ML package such as PyTorch, TensorFlow, and
- 154 scikit-learn from Fortran. While C can access Python scalar values through the built-in
- 155 PyObject_CallObject function from the Python C API, we employed Cython for its ability to transfer
- 156 array data between the languages. Using Cython, multidimensional data structures can be efficiently
- 157 passed between Fortran and Python modules via C, allowing for flexible training of ML algorithms within
- 158 ESMs.

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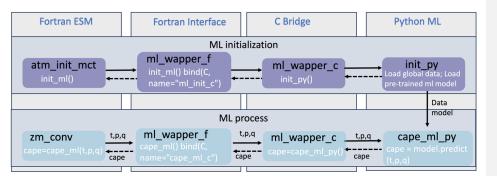


- Figure 1. The interface of the ML bridge for two-way communication via memory between Fortran ESMand Python ML module.
- 163 2.2 Code structure
- 164 Figure 2 illustrates how the framework operates using <u>a</u> toy code example. The Fortran-Python interface
- comprises a Fortran wrapper and C wrapper files, which are bound together. The Fortran-based ESM first
- 166 imports the Fortran wrapper, allowing it to call wrapper functions with input and output memory
- $167 \qquad \text{addresses. The interface then passes these memory addresses to the Python-based ML module, which}$
- 168 performs the ML predictions and returns the output address to the Fortran model.



170	Figure 2. Toy code illustrating the Fortran-Python interface. It is noted that a fleshed-out, compliable	
171	version of this toy example exists in the linked GitHub repository.	
172		
173	When coupling the Python ML module with the Fortran, model using the interface, additional steps should	
174	be considered: 1. The ML module should remain active throughout the model simulations, without any	
175	Python finalization calls, ensuring it is continuously available. 2. The Python module should load the	
176	trained ML model and any required global data only once, rather than at each simulation step. This one-	
177	time initialization process improves efficiency and prevents unnecessary repetition. On the Fortran ESM	
178	side, the init_ml() function is called within the atm_init_mct module to load the ML model and global	
179	data (shown in Figure 3). Then, similar to the toy code, we call the wrapper function, pass input variables	
180	to Python for ML predictions, and return the results to the Fortran side. 3. When compiling the complex	
181	system, which includes Python, C, Cython, and Fortran code, the Python path should be specified in the	
182	CFLAGS and LDFLAGS. It is important to note that without the position-independent compiling flag (-	
183	fPIC), the hybrid system will only work on a single node and may cause segmentation faults on multiple	
184	nodes. Including it can resolve this issue, allowing multi-node compatibility.	
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- 190
- 191 In traditional ESMs, sub-grid scale parameterization routines such as convection parameterizations are
- 192 often calculated separately for each vertical column of the model domain. Meanwhile, the domain is
- 193 typically decomposed horizontally into 2D chunks that can be solved in parallel using MPI processes.
- 194 Each CPU core/MPI process is assigned a number of chunks of model columns to update asynchronously
- 195 (Figure 4). Our interface takes advantage of this existing parallel decomposition by designing the ML

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Figure 3. The code structure of the ML bridge interface using the ML closure in deep convection as anexample.

197	calls to operate over all	l columns simultaneously	within each chunk	, rather than invoking	the ML scheme
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198 individually for each column. This allows the coupled model-ML system to leverage parallelism in the

199 neural network computations. If the ML were called separately for every column, parallel efficiencies

200 would not be realized. By aggregating inputs over the chunk-scale prior to interfacing with Python,

- 201 performance is improved through better utilization of multi-core and GPU-based ML capabilities during
- 202 parameterization calculations.
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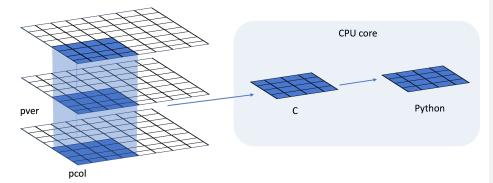


Figure 4. Data and system structure. The model domain is decomposed into chunks of columns. pver
 refers to number of pressure vertical levels. A chunk contains multiple columns (up to pcol). Multiple

207 chunks can be assigned to each CPU core.

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210 3. Results

211 The framework explained in the previous section provides seamless support for various ML

- 212 parameterizations and various ML frameworks, such as PyTorch, Tensorflow, and Scikit-learn. To
- 213 demonstrate the versatility of this framework, we applied it in two distinct case applications. The first
- 214 application replaces the conventional CAPE-based trigger function in a deep convection parameterization
- 215 with a machine-learned trigger function. The second application involves a ML-based wildfire model that
- 216 interacts bidirectionally with the ESM. We provide a brief introduction to these two cases. Detailed
- 217 descriptions and evaluations will be presented in separate papers.
- 218

219	The framework's performance is influenced by two primary factors: increasing memory usage and
220	increasing computational overhead. Firstly, maintaining the Python environment fully persistent in
221	memory throughout model simulations can impact memory usage, especially for large ML algorithms.
222	This elevated memory footprint increases the risk of leaks or crashes as simulations progress. Secondly,
223	executing ML components within the Python interpreter inevitably introduces some overhead compared
224	to the original ESMs. The increased memory requirements and decreased computational efficiency
225	associated with these considerations can impact the framework's usability, flexibility, and scalability for
226	different applications.

227

228 To comprehensively assess performance, we conducted a systematic evaluation of various ML

229 frameworks, ML algorithms, and physical models. This evaluation is built upon the foundations

230 established for evaluating the ML trigger function in the deep convection parameterization.

231 3.1 Application cases

232 3.1.1 ML trigger function in deep convection parameterization

233 In General Circulation Models, uncertainties in convection parameterizations are recognized to be closely 234 linked to the convection trigger function used in these schemes (Bechtold et al., 2004; Xie et al., 2004, 235 2019; Xie & Zhang, 2000; Lee et al., 2007). The convective trigger in a convective parameterization 236 determines when and where model convection should be triggered as the simulation advances. In many 237 convection parameterizations, the trigger function consists of a simple, arbitrary threshold for a physical 238 quantity, such as convective available potential energy (CAPE). Convection will be triggered if the CAPE 239 value exceeds a threshold value. 240 241 In this work, we use this interface to test a newly developed ML trigger function in E3SM. The ML 242 trigger function was developed with the training data originating from simulations performed using the

kilometer-resolution (1.5 km grid spacing), Met Office Unified Model Regional Atmosphere 1.0

configuration (Bush et al., 2020). Each simulation consists of a limited area model (LAM) nested within a

245 global forecast model providing boundary conditions (Walters et al., 2017; Webster et al., 2008). In total

246 80 LAM simulations were run located so as to sample different geographical regions worldwide. Each

247 LAM was run for 1 month, with 2-hourly output, using a grid-length of 1.5 km, a 512 x 512 domain, and

a model physics package used for operational weather forecasting. The 1.5 km data is coarse-grained to

several scales from 15 to 144 km.

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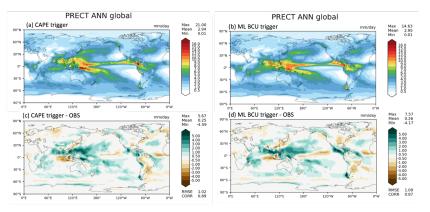
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252 A two-stream neural network architecture is used for the ML model. The first stream takes profiles of 253 temperature, specific humidity and pressure across 72 levels at each scale as inputs and passes them 254 through a 4-layer convolutional neural network (CNN) with kernel sizes of 3, to extract large scale 255 features. The second stream takes mean orographic height, standard deviation of orographic height, land 256 fraction and the size of the grid-box as inputs. The outputs of the two streams are then combined and fed 257 into a 2-layer fully connected network to allow the ML model to leverage both atmospheric and surface 258 features when making its predictions. The output is a binary variable indicating whether the convection 259 happens, based on the condition of buoyant cloudy updrafts (BCU, e.g. Hartmann et al., 2019; Swann, 260 2001). If there are 3 contiguous levels where the predicted BCU is larger than 0.05, the convection 261 scheme is triggered. Once trained, the CNN is coupled to E3SM and thermodynamic information from 262 E3SM is passed to it to predict the trigger condition. Then, the predicted result is returned to E3SM. 263 264

Figure 5 shows the comparison of annual mean precipitation between the control run using the traditional
CAPE-based trigger function and the run using the ML BCU trigger function. The ML BCU scheme
demonstrates reasonable spatial patterns of precipitation, similar to the control run, with comparable rootmean-square error and spatial correlation. Additional experiments exploring the definition of BCU and

268 varying the thresholds along with an in-depth analysis will be presented in a follow-up paper.





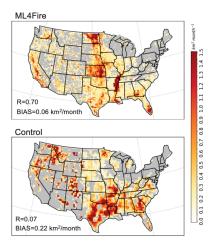


271 Figure 5. Comparison of annual mean precipitation between the control run using the CAPE-based

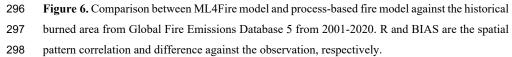
272 trigger function (a, c) and the run using the ML BCU trigger function (b, d).

273 3.1.2 ML learning fire model

274 Predicting wildfire burned area is challenging due to the complex interrelationships between fires, 275 climate, weather, vegetation, topography, and human activities (Huang et al., 2020). Traditionally, 276 statistical methods like multiple linear regression have been applied, but are limited in the number and 277 diversity of predictors considered (Yue et al., 2013). In this study, we develop a coupled fire-land-278 atmosphere framework that uses machine learning to predict wildfire area, enhancing long-term burned 279 area projections and assessing fire impacts by enabling simulations of interactions among fire, 280 atmosphere, land cover, and vegetation. 281 282 The ML algorithm is trained using a monthly dataset, which includes the target variable of burned area, as 283 well as various predictor variables. These predictors encompass local meteorological data (e.g., surface 284 temperature, precipitation), land surface properties (e.g., monthly mean evapotranspiration and surface 285 soil moisture), and socioeconomic variables (e.g., gross domestic product, population density), as 286 described by Wang et al. (2022). In the coupled fire-land-atmosphere framework, meteorology variables 287 and land surface properties are provided by the E3SM. We use the eXtreme Gradient Boosting algorithm 288 implemented in Scikit-Learn to train the ML fire model. Figure 6 demonstrates that the ML4Fire model 289 exhibits superior performance in terms of spatial distribution compared to process-based fire models, 290 particularly in the Southern US region. Detailed analysis will be presented in a separate paper. The 291 ML4Fire model has proven to be a valuable tool for studying vegetation-fire interactions, enabling 292 seamless exploration of climate-fire feedbacks. 293

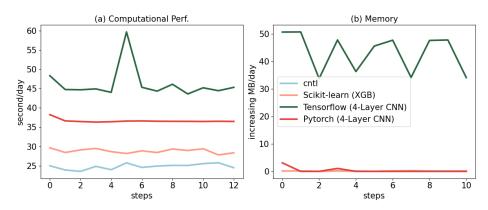






299 3.2 Performance of different ML frameworks

300 The Fortran-Python bridge ML interface supports various ML frameworks, including PyTorch, 301 TensorFlow, and scikit-learn. These ML frameworks can be trained offline using kilometer-scale high-302 resolution models (such as the ML trigger function) or observations (ML fire model). Once trained, they 303 can be plugged into the ML bridge interface through different API interfaces specific to each framework. The coupled ML algorithms are persistently resident in memory, just like the other ESM components. 304 305 During each step of the process, the performance of the full system is significantly affected by memory 306 usage. If memory consumption increases substantially, it may lead to memory leaks as the number of time 307 step iteration increases. In addition, Python, being an interpreted language, is typically considered to have 308 slower performance compared to compiled languages like C/C++ and Fortran. Therefore, incorporating 309 Python may decrease computational performance. We examine the memory usage and computational 310 performance across various ML frameworks based on implementing the ML trigger function in E3SM. 311 The ML algorithm is implemented as a two-stream CNN model using Pytorch and TensorFlow 312 frameworks, as well as XGBoost using the Scikit-learn package. It should be noted that XGBoost, a 313 boosting tree-based model, is a completely different type of ML model compared to the CNNs, which are 314 the type of deep neural network.



315

Figure 7. Computational and memory overhead as the simulation progresses for coupling the ML trigger function with the E3SM model. The x-axis represents the simulated time step. The y-axis of (a) represents the simulation speed measured in seconds per day (indicating the number of seconds required to simulate one day). The y-axis of (b) represents the relative increase in memory usage for Scikit-learn, TensorFlow, and PyTorch compared with CNTL. CNTL represents the original simulation without using the ML framework.

323 Figure 7 illustrates the computational and memory overhead associated with the ML parameterization 324 using different ML frameworks. It shows that XGBoost only exhibits a 20% increase in the simulation 325 time required for simulating one day due to its simpler algorithm. For more complex neural networks, 326 PyTorch incurs a 52% overhead, while TensorFlow's overhead is almost 100% - about two times as much 327 as the overhead by PyTorch. In terms of memory usage, we use the highwater memory metric (Gerber & 328 Wasserman, 2013), which represents the total memory footprint of a process. Scikit-learn and PyTorch do 329 not show any significant increase in memory usage. However, TensorFlow shows a considerable increase 330 up to 50MB per simulation day per MPI process element. This is significant because for a node with 48 331 cores, it would equate to an increase of around 2GB per simulated day on that node. This rapid memory 332 growth could quickly lead to a simulation crash due to insufficient memory during continuous 333 integrations, preventing the use in practical simulations. Our findings show that the TensorFlow 334 prediction function does not release memory after each call. Therefore, we recommend using PyTorch for 335 complex deep learning algorithms and Scikit-learn for simpler ML algorithms to avoid these potential 336 memory-related issues when using TensorFlow. 337 338 Previous work, such as Brenowitz & Bretherton (2018, 2019) has utilized the CFFI package to establish

- 339 communication between Fortran ESM and ML Python. As described in the Introduction, while CFFI
- 340 offers flexibility in supporting various ML packages, it does have certain limitations. To pass variables

341	from Fortran to Python, the approach relies on global data structures to store all variables, including both
342	the input from Fortran to Python and the output returning to Fortran. Consequently, this package results in
343	additional memory copy operations and increasing overall memory usage. In contrast, our interface takes
344	a different approach by utilizing memory references to transfer data between Fortran and Python,
345	avoiding the need for global data structures and the associated overhead. This allows for a more efficient
346	data transfer process.
347	
348	In Figure 8, we present a comparison between the two frameworks by testing the different number of

elements passed from Fortran to Python. The evaluation is based on a demo example that focuses solely 349 350 on declaring arrays and transferring them from Fortran to Python, rather than a real E3SM simulation. 351 Figure 8a illustrates the impact of the number of passing elements on the overhead of the two interfaces. 352 As the number of elements exceeds 10⁴, the overhead of CFFI becomes significant. When the number 353 surpasses 10⁶, the overhead of CFFI is nearly ten times greater than that of our interface. Regarding 354 memory usage, our interface maintains a stable memory footprint of approximately 60MB. Even as the 355 number of elements increases, the memory usage only shows minimal growth. However, for CFFI, the 356 memory usage starts at 80MB, which is 33% higher than our interface. As the number of elements 357 reaches 10⁶, the memory overhead for CFFI dramatically rises to 180MB, twice as much as our interface. 358

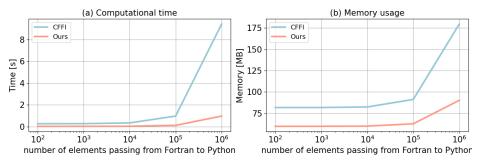


Figure 8. Comparison of our framework and the CFFI framework in terms of computational time
and memory usage. The x-axis represents the number of elements transferred from Fortran to
Python, while the y-axis displays the total time (a) and total memory usage (b) for a

363 demonstration example. The evaluations presented are based on the average results obtained

- 364 from 5 separate tests.
- 365

366 3.3 Performance of ML algorithms of different complexities

367 ML parameterizations can be implemented using various deep learning algorithms with different levels of 368 complexity. The computational performance and memory usage can be influenced by the complexity of 369 these algorithms. In the case of the ML trigger function, a two-stream four-layer CNN structure is 370 employed. We compare this structure with other ML algorithms such as Artificial Neural Network (ANN) 371 and Residual Network (ResNet), whose structures are detailed in Table 1. We selected these three ML 372 algorithms because they are commonly used in previous ML parameterization approaches, such as 373 (Brenowitz & Bretherton, 2019; Han et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022). Systematically evaluating the hybrid 374 system with these ML methods using our interface can help identify bottlenecks and improve the system 375 computational performance. These algorithms are implemented in PyTorch. The algorithm's complexity 376 is measured by the number of parameters, with the CNN having approximately 60 times more parameters 377 than ANN, and ResNet having roughly 1.5 times more parameters than CNN.

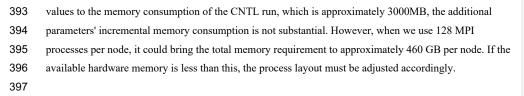
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381 Table 1. The structure and number of parameters of each ML algorithms.

Algorithms	Structure	# of parameters
ANN	3 x Linear	121,601
CNN	4 x Conv2d + 2 x Linear	7,466,753
ResNet	17 x Conv2d + 1 x Linear	11,177,025

382

383 Figure 9 presents a comparison of the memory and computational costs between the CNTL run without 384 deep learning parameterization and the hybrid run with various deep learning algorithms. The same 385 specific process-element layout (placement of ESM component models on distributed CPU cores) is used 386 for all the simulations. Deep learning algorithms incur a significant yet affordable increase in memory 387 overhead, with at least a 20% increase compared to the CNTL run (Figure 9a). This is primarily due to the 388 integration of ML algorithms into the ESM, which persist throughout the simulations. Although there is a 389 notable increase in complexity among the deep learning algorithms, their memory usage only shows a 390 slight rise. This is because the memory increment resulting from the ML parameters is relatively small. 391 Specifically, ANN requires 1MB of memory, CNN requires 60MB, and the ResNet algorithms requires 392 85MB, which are calculated based on the number of parameters in each algorithm. When comparing these



398 In terms of computational performance, the Python-based ML calls inevitably introduce some overhead.

- 399 However, as shown in Figure 9b, the performance decrease is not substantial. The simple ANN model
- reduces performance by only about 10% compared to the CNTL run, while even the more complex
- 401 ResNet model results in a 35% decrease. In contrast, Wang et al. (2022) reported a 100% overhead in
- their interface when using the ResNet model as well, which transfers parameters via files. It is worth
- 403 noting that in this study, the deep learning algorithms are executed on CPUs. To enhance computational

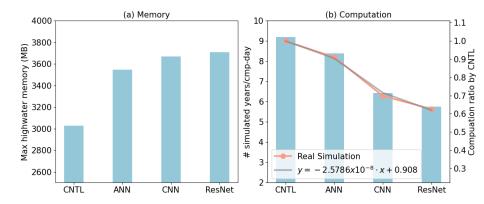
404 performance, future work could consider utilizing GPUs for acceleration.

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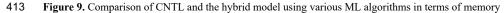
406 In addition, we develop a performance model to estimate computational performance for the hybrid

- 407 model using different ML model sizes and complexities. This performance model, based on linear
- regression, predicts the ratio of the simulated years per day of the ML-augmented run to that of the CNTL
- 109 <u>run as a function of the number of ML parameters</u>, shown in Figure 9b. It provides a simple yet effective
- 410 way to capture this relationship and serves as a valuable tool for performance prediction when



411 incorporating more complicated ML models.

Deleted: predicts the computational ratio relative to the CNTL run by taking the number of ML parameters as input



414 and computation. CNTL is the default run without ML parameterizations. In (b), the left y-axis represents

415 the actual number of simulated years per day, while the right y-axis shows the relative performance

418 compared to the CNTL run (orange line). The gray line illustrates the regression between the number of

- 419 ML parameters (x) and the relative performance of the hybrid system (y).
- 420

421 3.4 Performance for physical models of different complexities

422 ML parameterization can be applied to various ESM configurations, for example, with the E3SM

423 Atmosphere Model (EAM), we experiment with Single Column Model (SCM), the ultra low-resolution

424 model of EAM (ne4), and the nominal low resolution model of EAM (ne30) configurations. The SCM

425 consists of one single atmosphere column of a global EAM (Bogenschutz et al., 2020; Gettelman et al.,

426 2019). ne4 has 384 columns, with each column representing the horizontal resolution of 7.5°. ne30 is the

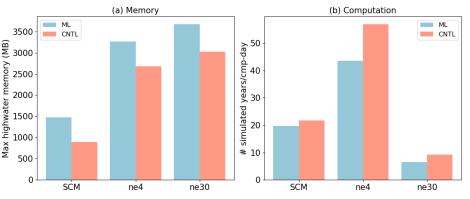
427 default resolution for EAM and comprises 21,600 columns, with each column representing the horizontal

428 resolution of 1°. In the case of the ML trigger function, the memory overhead is approximately 500MB

429 for all configurations due to the loading of the ML algorithm, which does not vary with the configuration

430 of the ESM.





432

Figure 10. Comparison of CNTL and ML for various ESMs in terms of memory and computation. The
ESM configuration include SCM, ultra-low resolution model (ne4) and nominal low-resolution model
(ne30).

436

437 Regarding computational performance, SCM utilizes 1 process, ne4 employs 1 node with 64 processes,

438 and ne30 utilizes 10 nodes with each node using 128 processes. In the case of SCM, the overhead

439 attributed to the ML parameterization is approximately 9% due to the utilization of only 1 process.

440 However, for ne4 and ne30, the overhead is 23% and 28% respectively (Figure 10). The increasing

Deleted: ss

442 computational overhead is primarily due to resource competition when multiple processes are used within

443 a single node. It is noted that although there is a significant computational gap between ML and CNTL

for ne4, the relative performance between ML and CNTL for ne4 is approximately 76.7%, which is closeto ne30 at 71.4%.

446

447 4. Discussion and Conclusion

448 ML algorithm can learn detailed information about cloud processes and atmospheric dynamics from 449 kilometer-scale models and observations and serves as an approximate surrogate for the kilometer-scale 450 model. Instead of explicitly simulating kilometer-scale processes, the ML algorithms can be designed to 451 capture the essential features and relationships between atmospheric variables by training on available 452 kilometer-scale data. The trained algorithms can then be used to develop parameterizations for use in 453 models at coarser resolutions, reducing the computational and memory costs. By using ML 454 parameterizations, scientists can effectively incorporate the insights gained from kilometer-scale models 455 for coarser-resolution simulations. Through learning the complex relationships and patterns present in the 456 high-resolution data, the ML-based parameterizations have the potentials to more accurately represent 457 cloud processes and atmospheric dynamics in the ESMs. This approach strikes a balance between 458 computational efficiency and capturing critical processes, enabling more realistic simulations and 459 predictions while minimizing computational resources. All these potential benefits in turn promote 460 innovative developments to facilitate increasing and more efficient use of ML parameterizations. 461 462 In this study, we develop a novel Fortran-Python interface for developing ML parameterizations. This 463 interface demonstrates feasibility in supporting various ML frameworks, such as PyTorch, TensorFlow, 464 and Scikit-learn and enables the effective development of new ML-based parameterizations to explore 465 ML-based applications in ESMs. Through two cases - a ML trigger function in convection 466 parameterization and a ML wildfire model - we highlight high modularity and reusability of the 467 framework. We conduct a systematic evaluation of memory usage and computational overhead from the 468 integrated Python codes. 469 470 Based on our performance evaluation, we observe that coupling ML algorithms using TensorFlow into 471 ESMs can lead to memory leaks. As a recommendation, we suggest using PyTorch for complex deep 472 learning algorithms and Scikit-learn for simple ML algorithms for the Fortran-Python ML interface.

474	The memory overhead primarily arises from loading ML algorithms into ESMs. If the ML algorithms are
475	implemented using PyTorch or Scikit-learn, the memory usage will not increase significantly. The
476	computational overhead is influenced by the complexity of the neural network and the number of
477	processes running on a single node. As the complexity of the neural network increases, more parameters
478	in the neural network require forward computation. Similarly, when there are more processes running
479	on a single node, the integrated Python codes introduce more resource competition.
480	
481	Although this interface provides a flexible tool for ML parameterizations, it does not currently utilize
482	GPUs for ML algorithms. In Figure 3, it is shown that each chunk is assigned to a CPU core. However, to

483 effectively leverage GPUs, it is necessary to gather the variables from multiple chunks and pass them to484 the GPUs. Additionally, if an ESM calls the Python ML module multiple times in each time step, the

485 computational overhead becomes significant. It is crucial to gather the variables and minimize the number

486 of calls. In the future, we will enhance the framework to support this mechanism, enabling GPU

487 utilization and overall performance improvement.

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498 Author contribution

- 499 TZ developed the Fortran-Python Interface. CM and JR contributed the ML model for the trigger
- $500 \qquad \text{function. YL contributed the ML model for the wire fire model. TZ and MZ assessed the performance of}$
- 501 the ML trigger function. TZ took the lead in preparing the manuscript, with valuable edits from CM, MZ,
- 502 WL, SX, YL, KW, and JR. All the co-authors provided valuable insights and comments for the
- 503 manuscript.

504 Conflict of Interest

- 505 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
- 506

507 Data Availability Statement

- 508 The Fortran-Python interface for developing ML parameterizations can be archived at
- 509 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11005103 (Zhang et al., 2024) and can be also accessed at
- 510 https://github.com/tzhang-ccs/ML4ESM. The E3SM model can be accessed at
- 511 https://zenodo.org/records/12175988. The dataset for machine learning trigger function can be accessed
- 512 at <u>https://zenodo.org/records/12205917</u>. The dataset for machine learning wild fire can be accessed at
- 513 <u>https://zenodo.org/records/12212258</u>.

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