

Coupling climate and hydrological models: Interoperability through Web Services



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ABSTRACT

Understanding regional-scale water resource systems requires understanding coupled hydrologic and climate interactions. The traditional approach in the hydrologic sciences and engineering fields has been to either treat the atmosphere as a forcing condition on the hydrologic model, or to adopt a specific hydrologic model design in order to be interoperable with a climate model. We propose here a different approach that follows a service-oriented architecture and uses standard interfaces and tools: the Earth System Modeling Framework (ESMF) from the weather and climate community and the Open Modeling Interface (OpenMI) from the hydrologic community. A novel technical challenge of this work is that the climate model runs on a high performance computer and the hydrologic model runs on a personal computer. In order to complete a two-way coupling, issues with security and job scheduling had to be overcome. The resulting application demonstrates interoperability across disciplinary boundaries and has the potential to address emerging questions about climate impacts on local water resource systems. The approach also has the potential to be adapted for other climate impacts applications that involve different communities, multiple frameworks, and models running on different computing platforms. We present along with the results of our coupled modeling system a scaling analysis that indicates how the system will behave as geographic extents and model resolutions are changed to address regional-scale water resources management problems.

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1. Introduction

Projections of the Earth's climate by models provide the primary information for anticipating climate-change impacts and evaluating policy decisions. Changes in the water cycle are expected to have impacts on, for example, public health, agriculture, energy generation, and ecosystem services (Parry et al., 2007). The integration of information from climate-model projections with the tools used by practitioners of water management is a core interest of those developing strategies for adaptation to climate change (Raucher, 2011). Often a hydrological model that is formally separated from a climate model is used in these applications (Graham et al., 2007). In this paradigm, climate projections may be used as a forcing function to drive the decoupled hydrologic simulation model. These applications assume there is no significant feedback from the land surface to the climate system (either regional or global), and while this assumption may be true for small

Software availability

The code for this system and instructions to reproduce our results is available at: <http://esmfcontrib.cvs.sourceforge.net/viewvc/esmfcontrib/HydroInterop/>.

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watersheds, as hydrologists continue to scale their models up to river basin and regional systems, this assumption of no feedback loop will need to be addressed. Therefore both intuitively and theoretically, we expect hydrological models to perform better when they are coupled in some way to a global or regional climate model (Xinmin et al., 2002; Yong et al., 2009).

A second paradigm for the coupling of hydrological models into global climate systems is to allow two-way communication, so that simulating feedback loops is possible. There are scientific and software challenges posed by either form of coupling. The difference in spatial scales provide an intrinsic challenge when coupling climate and watershed-scale hydrologic models. For a hydrological model used in agricultural decision-making, intrinsic scales must adequately represent the drainage of the streams, the specifics of the land and vegetation in the watershed, surface topography at accuracies of less than a meter, and the surface type of the built environment. Even with the highest resolution climate models likely to be viable in the next five years which promise grid cells on the order of 100 km², there are differences of several orders of magnitude in the spatial scales. Transference of information in a physically meaningful way across these scales, large-to-small and small-to-large, is neither scientifically nor algorithmically established.

The work described here is forward looking in that we explore loose coupling of a climate model and a hydrological model with two-way communication between the models using Web Services. This type of coupling might be viewed as a first step toward linking climate models to real-world applications. With the full realization that, from an Earth-science perspective, the spatial resolution of the climate model might not justify the coupling at this time, we propose that there are scientific and algorithmic challenges that are worth addressing. Rather than waiting until the climate models are at some undefined state of readiness to start the coupling, then begin to develop the coupling strategies, we are co-developing the coupling with the models. This will help both to define the scientific foundation of the coupling and to evolve the algorithms in concert with the scientific investigation. This work is related to activities in the computational steering community (e.g., Parker et al., 1998; Malakar et al., 2011) in that we use Web Services to pass data between desktop and climate and weather models. As we move past exploratory and prototyping work, we believe that work related with this field will help to define both the scientific foundation of the coupling and evolve the algorithms in concert with the scientific investigation.

The work advances on existing work in Earth System Modeling Framework (ESMF) and standards by exploring how two existing modeling frameworks, ESMF and the OpenMI Configuration Editor (OmiEd), can be integrated for cross-framework simulations. By leveraging a service-oriented architecture, we show that a climate model implemented within ESMF can be made available as a Web Service, and that an OpenMI-based client-side component can then wrap the ESMF service and use it within an OmiEd configuration. We selected OmiEd (which adopts the OpenMI standard) as the client application in our work because of past work to create ESMF services that could be brought into OmiEd. This work builds on the proposed concept of modeling water resource systems using service-oriented architectures (Laniak et al., 2013; Goodall et al., 2011; Granell et al., 2010) and extends the work to leverage ESMF models in a personal computer-based integrated model configuration. It extends on this work by specifically exploring coupling across modeling frameworks, in particular modeling frameworks that target different communities (climate science and hydrologic science) that have different models, best practices, and histories for building computer-based model simulation software. By using a service-oriented, loose-coupling approach, we are able to maintain

state-of-the-art community supported models within the integrated modeling system.

There are other aspects of this work that address the use of climate projections in decision making. As discussed by Lemos and Rood (2010) and others, there are many research questions to be answered in bridging scientists' perceptions of the usefulness of climate information and practitioners' perceptions of usability. Co-generation of knowledge and methodology has been shown to be an effective way to address these questions; discipline scientists, software specialists, and practitioners learn the constraints that each must face. This improves the likelihood of successful use of climate information. In the development that we are pursuing, we will be using a hydrological model that is widely used in agricultural decision-making. Thus, we are not only coupling Earth science models implemented for different spatial scales, but we are laying the foundation for diverse communities of experts to interact in a way they have not done previously by enabling bidirectional coupling of distributed models outside the scope of a single integrated climate model.

Given this motivation, the first objective of our research was to design a system capable of coupling widely used models in the atmospheric and hydrologic communities in a way that maintains the original structure and purpose of each model but provides coupling of flux and state variables between the two models. The second objective was to assess the applicability of the approach by conducting a scaling analysis experiment. The purpose of the scaling analysis was to quantify the performance of the coupled hydro/climate model in terms of the hydrology model execution time, the climate model execution time, and time required for transferring data between the two models. We present the methodology for addressing these two study objectives in the following section. We then present the results of the scaling analysis, and discuss our findings for the applicability of our proposed approach for model coupling.

2. Methodology

Our methodology consists of two main tasks. First, we designed an overall system to consist of three components: a hydrological model, an atmospheric climate model, and the driver application. The design of this system, which we refer to as the Hydro-Climate Modeling System, is described in the first subsection and a prototype implementation of the system is described in the second subsection. Second, we devised a series of experiments with the goal of estimating how the Hydro-Climate Modeling System would scale as the size of the study region increases. These experiments are meant to provide an approximate measure of scaling that will aid in optimizing performance of the system and improve understanding of the applicability of the approach for simulating regional-scale hydrologic systems. Details of the scaling analysis design are presented in the third and final subsection of this methodology section.

2.1. Hydro-Climate Modeling System design

Within this general service-oriented framework, the target of our prototype is a two-way coupled configuration of the Community Atmosphere Model (CAM) and the hydrological model Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) that captures the coupled nature of the physical system. The intent of our coupling was not to produce realistic simulations, but to explore the behavior of a technical solution spanning high performance computing and Web Services. Thus the specifics of the configuration matter here only insofar as they represent a scientifically plausible exchange, and serve as a starting point for design decisions and for exploring the behavior and scaling of the coupled system. We fully expect that the models used, and the specifics of the coupling, may change as our investigation continues and new models and resources become available. The use of models with structured component interfaces facilitates such exploration because of the "plug-and-play" functionality provided through component interface standardization.

In the chosen configuration, CAM supplies to SWAT a set of five fields (surface air temperature, wind speed, precipitation, relative humidity, and solar radiation) for each 30 min interval of the model simulation. SWAT passes one field, evaporation, back to CAM also on a 30 min interval. CAM was run in a Community Earth System Model (CESM) configuration that included active atmosphere, land, and ice model components, as well as a data ocean representation (in place of an active ocean

component). Issues related to how best to incorporate output from the SWAT model into the CAM model (e.g., regridding of data exchanges) were not addressed through this work. Instead our focus was on the technical issues related on data transfers between the coupled models. Proof of concept runs were performed with CAM at 1° resolution and SWAT for the Eno Basin in North Carolina (171 km²). Following this proof of concept, a scaling analysis was performed and used to explore resolutions of CAM spanning 1 to 1/4° and SWAT for a set of domains ranging in size from 171 km² to 721,000 km². This technical implementation and scaling analysis is described in more detail in following subsections.

The technical design of the Hydro-Climate Modeling System emphasizes the loose coupling of models through data exchanges over a standard interface. Fig. 1 provides a high-level description of the system architecture. The hydrological model SWAT runs on a Windows-based personal computer and had already been integrated with the Open Modeling Interface (OpenMI) by the UNESCO/IHE group (Betrue et al., 2011). The atmospheric/climate model CAM runs on a high-performance computing (HPC) platform and an OpenMI wrapper is used to provide the standard interface on the Windows personal computer while providing access to the climate model via a Web Service-based interface. Communication between the two models is driven by the OmiEd, which provides a Graphical User Interface (GUI) that is used to define the link (data inputs and outputs) between the two models and then execute the model run. The approach taken could be generalized for other HPC component interfaces, other Web Service interfaces, or other simulation models. Details of the system components follow.

2.1.1. The watershed hydrology model

SWAT is a watershed-scale hydrologic model developed to quantify the impact of land management practices in large, complex watersheds over long time periods (e.g., multiple years or decades) (Arnold and Allen, 1996). SWAT can be characterized as a semi-distributed model where a watershed is divided into subbasins, and then further into Hydrologic Response Units (HRUs). Each HRU is a lumped unit with unique soil, land use and slope characteristics. Subbasins are connected through stream topology into a network, however HRUs are not spatially located within a subbasin. SWAT was selected for this project because it is a widely used watershed model for rural watersheds (Gassman et al., 2007), it is under active development, and it is open source. Also, as previously mentioned, past work has resulted in an Open Modeling Interface (OpenMI)-compliant version of SWAT that was leveraged in this work (Betrue et al., 2011).

Specific submodels within SWAT used for the analysis were the Penman–Monteith method for evapotranspiration, the Green–Ampt model for infiltration, and a variable storage method for channel routing. We used Green–Ampt because the climate model is able to provide weather input data on a 30 min-time step. The

SWAT model internal time step was set to 30 min due to the availability of climate information. This model design was used to construct three different watershed models, chosen in order to quantify how SWAT computational scales with increasing watershed area: the Eno Watershed (171 km²), the Upper Neuse Watershed (6210 km²), and the Neuse River Basin (14,300 km²). Additional detail on these SWAT models is provided in the **Scaling Analysis** section.

The OpenMI standard defines a sequential approach to communicate between models that provides a detailed view of the method calls for the system (Fig. 2). The OpenMI Software Development Kit (SDK) is a software library that provides the hydrological community with a standardized interface that focuses on time dependent data transfer. It is primarily designed to work with systems that run simultaneously, but in a single-threaded environment. Regridding and temporal interpolation are also part of the OpenMI SDK (Gregersen et al., 2007), although they were not leveraged through this work. An OpenMI implementation must follow these fundamental steps of execution: initialization and configuration, preparation, execution, and completion. These steps correspond to methods in what OpenMI refers to as a LinkableComponent interface: Initialize, Prepare, GetValues, and Finish/Dispose. Climatological input exchange items to SWAT include air temperature, precipitation, relative humidity, solar radiation data, and wind speed data on each model time step (Gassman et al., 2007).

2.1.2. The atmospheric general circulation model

The atmospheric general circulation model used in this system, the Community Atmosphere Model (CAM), is a component of the Community Earth System Model (CESM). The most recent release of CAM, version 5, is documented in Neale et al. (2010). This model is widely used and well documented, with state-of-the-art scientific algorithms and computational performance. CAM also supports several dynamical cores, grid resolutions and grid types, including newer grids such as HOMME (Dennis et al., 2005) that can be run at resolutions that begin to approach local hydrological scales. The CAM model is distributed with standard ESMF interfaces, described in more detail in the next section. This combination of attributes and a community-anchored, known development path make CAM a suitable choice for our research and development.

The high performance computing platform selected for the climate model was kraken, a CRAY XT5 system with 112,896 cores located at the National Institute for Computational Sciences (NICS), a joint project between the University of Tennessee and Oak Ridge National Laboratory. The kraken machine is part of the NSF Extreme Science and Engineering Discovery Environment (XSEDE), which is an interconnected set of heterogeneous computing systems. We chose this platform because the XSEDE environment offered a less onerous security environment than other supercomputers for the Web Service prototyping work, as described later in this section.

The ability to remotely interface with CAM was made possible by the integration of ESMF with CAM. ESMF provides an architecture for composing complex, coupled modeling systems and utilities for developing individual models (Hill et al., 2004). ESMF is generally used to wrap model representations of large physical domains (atmosphere, ocean, etc.) with standard calling interfaces. These interfaces have the same structure for each component, and enable the components to be updated or exchanged more easily than *ad hoc* calling interfaces. A Web Services module is included as part of the ESMF distribution and provides the ability to remotely access the calling interfaces of ESMF components. This is a new feature of ESMF and this project is one of the first applications that has leveraged the ESMF Web Service interfaces.

ESMF component interfaces are supported for all major components in CESM, including CAM. Each component is split into one or more initialize, run, and finalize phases. Data is passed between components using container classes called States, and synchronization and timekeeping is managed by a Clock class. The interfaces are straightforward, and for an atmospheric model the “initialize” phase would be expressed as

```
subroutine myAtm_Init(gridComp, importState, exportState,
clock, rc)
```

where *gridComp* is the pointer to the atmospheric component, *importState* contains the fields being passed in, *exportState* contains the output fields, and the *clock* object contains information about the timestep and start and stop times.

States may contain a variety of different data classes, including ESMF Arrays, ArrayBundles, Fields, FieldBundles, and nested States. ESMF Arrays store multi-dimensional data associated with an index space. The ESMF Field includes a data Array along with an associated physical grid and a decomposition that specifies how data points in the physical grid are distributed across computing resources. ArrayBundles and FieldBundles are groupings of Arrays and Fields, respectively.

The ESMF Web Services module provides the tools to enable remote access to any ESMF compliant component using standard web protocols. This module, as part of the ESMF library, is comprised of several pieces: a Fortran interface to a Component Server class, a Process Controller application, a Registrar application, and a set of Simple Object Access Protocol (SOAP) services that, when installed with Apache/Tomcat and Axis2, provide web access to the Process Controller.

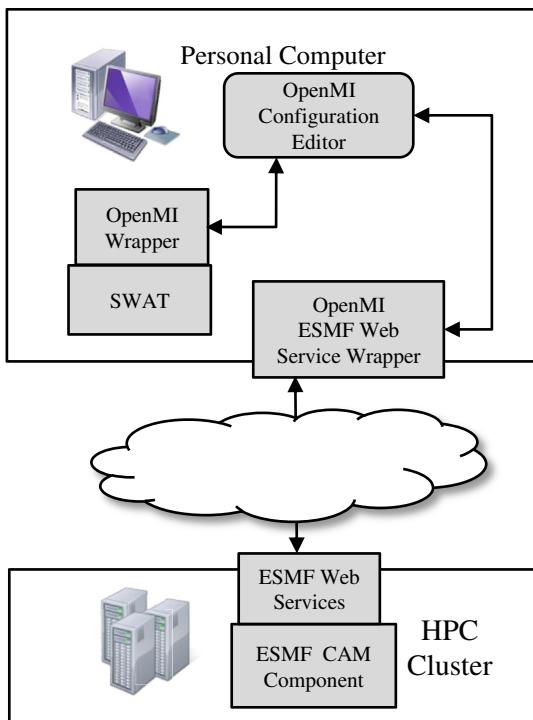


Fig. 1. Diagram of the Hydro-Climate Modeling System showing the components on the personal computer and the components on the HPC system as well as their interactions.

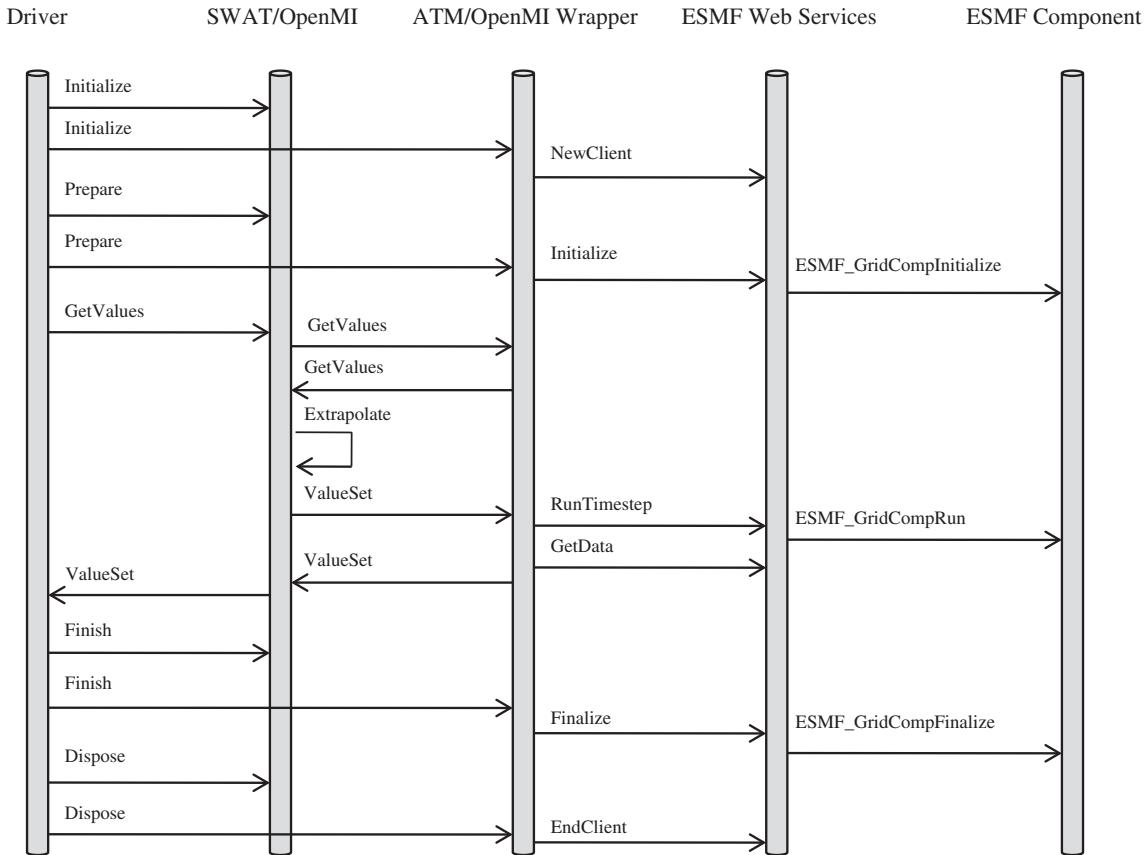


Fig. 2. The method calling sequence for the entire Hydro-Climate Modeling System.

For a climate model to be integrated with ESMF and have ESMF Components, it first must be integrated with ESMF and have ESMF Components. Integration of a climate model with ESMF Web Services involves modifying the driver code to enter a service loop (provided as part of the library) instead of executing the initialize, run and finalize routines. In addition, also using the library routines, the climate model is modified to read and/or write data values for each timestep. Finally, the climate model needs to be modified to accept specific command line arguments that are passed to the ESMF Web Services library routines. This integration completes the creation of a Component Service. To execute this component service on a High Performance Computing (HPC) platform using a job scheduler, there are some UNIX shell script files that need to be modified to execute the appropriate job scheduler commands to start, status, and stop a batch job.

The remaining integration with ESMF Web Services involves software installation and configuration. The Process Controller and Registrar need to be installed on the login nodes. These are generic applications and do not require any code modifications to work with the climate model. Configuration files and command line arguments are used to customize these applications for the specific platform (providing hostname and port numbers, for example). Finally, the SOAP Services package needs to be installed in the appropriate Axis2 services directory on the host that provides the web server.

When looking for an HPC platform to host this prototype, we ran into security concerns from systems and security administrators. The primary issue was our need to open a port (via POSIX sockets) on the HPC/compute host. While this was considered a potentially risky approach, the XSEDE team was willing to work with our team to determine where the risks were and to find ways to work around them. The first step was to protect the HPC host from unwanted access. The host we used, kraken, already protected its compute nodes by restricting access to them from only the login nodes. The Process Controller ran as an independent application and could remotely access the Component Server. By running the Component Server on the compute node and the Process Controller on the login node, we were able to comply with the access restriction that only login nodes could access the compute nodes.

Access to the login nodes was also restricted, but to a wider domain; only nodes within the XSEDE network could have direct access to the login nodes. To work with this restriction, the XSEDE team provided a gateway host (a virtual Linux platform) within the XSEDE network. This host was able to access the Process Controller socket port opened on the kraken login node, as well as provide access to the XSEDE

network from the Internet using standard and known web technologies. Therefore, by breaking down the prototype software into multiple, remotely accessible processes that could be installed across multiple platforms, we were able to work with the security restrictions and provide an end-to-end solution.

2.1.3. The driver

The system driver controls the application flow and is implemented using the OpenMI Configuration Editor (OmiEd). The Configuration Editor is provided as part of the version 1.4 OpenMI distribution, runs on a Windows-based personal computer platform, and provides the GUI and tools to link and run OpenMI compliant models. The version of SWAT used in this system was provided as an OpenMI compliant model, but the CAM model needed to be wrapped with an OpenMI interface. This was accomplished by implementing the OpenMI classes on the Windows platform that, upon execution, dynamically accesses the ESMF Web Services interface for the CAM Component Service. The ESMF Web Services provide the bridge between the Windows personal computer and the HPC platform.

The Configuration Editor works by loading the models as defined in OpenMI configuration files (OMI files). A Trigger is created to kick off the run, and Links are used to define the data exchanged between the models. When a model is loaded into the Configuration Editor, its input and output exchange items are defined. The user then specifies how models exchange data by mapping output exchange items in one model to input exchange items in the other model, and the Configuration Editor and the OpenMI SDK provide the tools to handle the translation between the exchange items.

OpenMI and ESMF were the interface standards used for this project because they each provide a standard interface for their respective model communities – ESMF for climate models and OpenMI for hydrological models. Bridging these two standards was at the heart of this coupling challenge; the ability to control execution of each model at the timestep level was critical to providing a common exchange mechanism. In addition, each standard provided features that allowed us to bridge the platform gap; ESMF supporting access via Web Services and OpenMI supporting a wrapper construct to access external services such as ESMF Web Services. Finally, the ability of each interface to allow the implementor to define the data input and output formats allowed us to use the OpenMI Configuration Editor to translate the formats between the two models. The features and tools of both ESMF and OpenMI provided us with the ability to couple the climate and hydrological models while maintaining the models' native environments.

2.2. Hydro-Climate Modeling System proof-of-concept implementation

The use of an HPC environment within a distributed, service-oriented architecture presented some unique technical and programmatic challenges that we had to overcome. As discussed before, security was a challenge because access to the login and compute nodes of an HPC platform are typically very restricted. In addition, resource utilization is of primary concern to the system administrators, and they need to be confident that the compute nodes are not unnecessarily tied up. Finally, running applications on HPC platforms typically requires the use of a batch job scheduler, and running an interactive application from a job scheduler in a batch environment adds another level of complexity that must be addressed.

The kraken platform that we used for this work utilizes the Moab job scheduler in combination with the Portable Batch System (PBS). Fig. 3 shows the architecture of the software for the service portion of the CAM implementation. The HPC platform is comprised of a set of compute nodes, on which the CAM Component Service is run, as well as a set of login nodes, from which we can access the Service. Because the HPC administrators preferred to not have a web server running on the HPC platform, a separate virtual host within the XSEDE environment was created for this purpose.

The Process Controller and Registrar, both daemons that run on a login node, are critical for managing the CAM Component Services within an HPC environment. The Process Controller provides all access to the CAM Component Services, including startup and shutdown; all communication to these Services is handled through the Process Controller. The Process Controller is also responsible for handling resource utilization by ensuring that a CAM Component Service does not sit idle for too long; it terminates the Service if the client has not accessed it within a specified period of time.

The Registrar is needed in order to determine the state of a CAM Component Service at all times. When the Process Controller starts a CAM Component Service, it registers the new Service with the Registrar and sets the state to WAITING TO START. When the job scheduler starts the CAM Component Service, the Service updates its registration in the Registrar to indicate that it is READY to receive requests. As the Service enters different states (i.e., initializing, running, etc.), it updates its information with the Registrar. All requests for the status of a CAM Component Service are handled by the Process Controller and retrieved from the Registrar.

A user of the system would complete the following steps in order to run a model simulation. First, the prerequisite for a user to run the system is that the Web server (Apache/Tomcat), the Process Controller and the Registrar must all be running. These are all daemon applications and, in an operational system, would be running at all times. The first step for a user in running the system is to start up the OpenMI Configuration Editor and load the simulation configuration file. This file defines the SWAT and CAM models, a Trigger to kick off the run, and the Links between all of the parts. The Links contain the mappings between the input and output exchange items of the two models. The CAM OpenMI interface contains all of the information needed to access the ESMF Web Services, so the user does not need to enter any information. To start the simulation, the user simply needs to execute the Run command from the Configuration Editor.

The following steps describe what happens when the system is run. Fig. 2 provides a high-level sequence diagram that also describes these steps. The first step in the OpenMI interface is to call the Initialize method for each model. For the CAM model, this involves calling the NewClient interface to the ESMF Web Services, which, via the Process Controller, instantiates a new CAM Component Service by requesting that the job scheduler add the Service to the startup queue. Each client is uniquely identified and is assigned to its own Component Service; no two clients can access the same Component Service. When the job scheduler does eventually start the CAM Component Service, it registers itself with the Registrar as ready to receive requests. At this point, the Configuration Editor continues by calling the Prepare method for each model. For the CAM model, this involves calling the Initialize Web Service interface, which in turn makes an Initialize request to the CAM Component Service via the Process Controller.

Once the models are initialized, the Configuration Editor time steps through the models. For each timestep, the SWAT model requests input data from the CAM model using the OpenMI GetValues method. This call triggers the CAM OpenMI wrapper to timestep the CAM Component Service (using the RunTimestep interface) and then retrieve the specified data values using the GetData interface. This process is repeated for each of the timesteps in the run. With two-way coupling implemented, the initial OpenMI GetValues call is made to both of the models, creating a deadlock. In order to break this deadlock, one of the models (the SWAT model, in our prototype) extrapolates the initial data values and provides this data as input to the other model. This model then uses the extrapolated data to run its initial timestep and return data for the first model. The process then continues forward with the timesteps alternating between the models and the data exchanged for each of the timesteps (see Elag and Goodall (2011) for details). Fig. 4 provides a graphical description of the data exchange process.

At the end of the run, the Configuration Editor cleans up the models by calling the OpenMI Finish method, which is passed on to the CAM Component Service using the Finalize interface. Finally, the OpenMI Dispose method is called which causes the CAM OpenMI wrapper to call the EndClient interface and the CAM Component Service application to be terminated.

The current prototype waits for updates using a polling mechanism; the client continually checks the status of the server until the server status indicates the desired state. This is not ideal because it requires constant attention from the client. In addition, it uses up resources by requiring network traffic and processing time for each status check. Ideally, this mechanism will be replaced in the future with a notification mechanism. Using this approach, the client can submit its request and will be notified when the server is ready. The client can then handle other tasks and the system will not be burdened again until the server is ready to proceed.

2.3. Scaling analysis

A scaling analysis was performed in order to understand the current behavior of the coupled system, to inform the technical design, to predict ways in which the evolution of models and computational environment would be likely to change the behavior of the coupled system over time, and to identify the categories of scientific

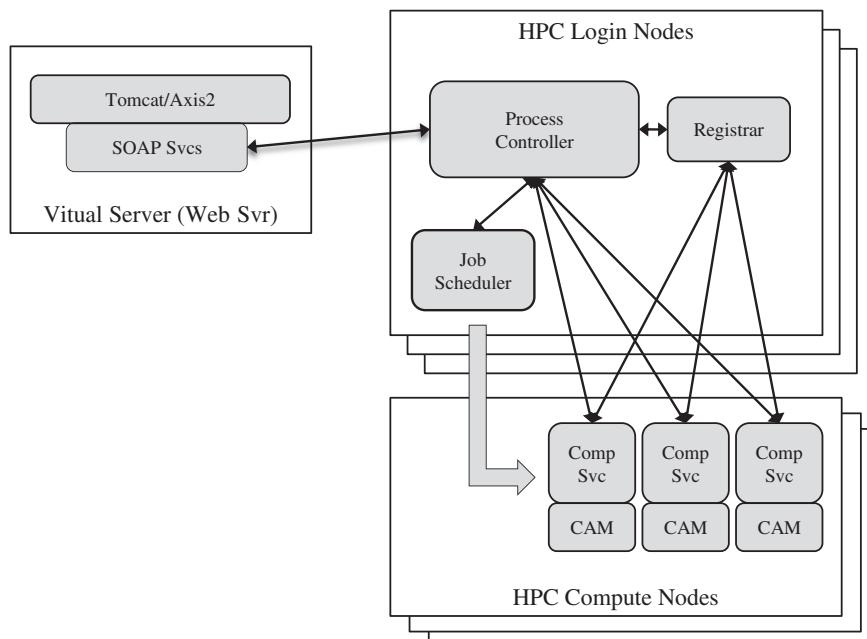


Fig. 3. Architecture of the software for the service portion of the CAM component.

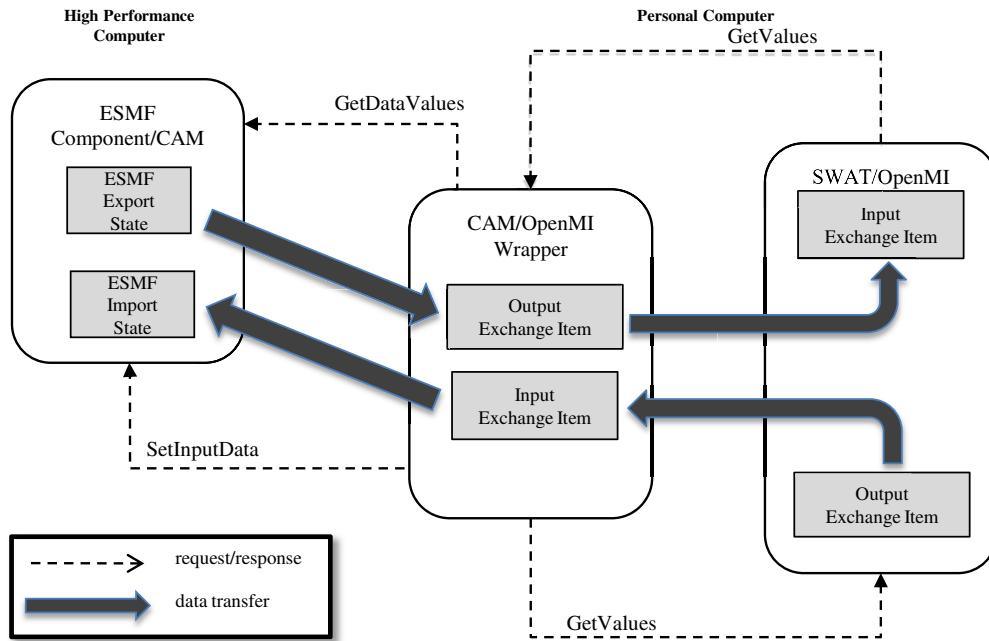


Fig. 4. The flow of data through the Hydro-Climate Modeling System from the hydrology model, the atmospheric model, and the system driver.

problems that the approach could be used to address, now and in the future. This analysis was done prior to the completed implementation of the coupled system, and used a combination of actual model execution times along with extrapolated runtime values. It should be made clear that the goal of this analysis was not to provide a precise measurement of performance for each scale, but to provide a general overall impact of scale on the system design.

2.3.1. Hydrologic model scaling analysis design

To obtain baseline runtime models for SWAT, we pre-processed the SWAT model input data using a SWAT pre-processing tool created within an open-source Geographic Information System (GIS): MapWindow SWAT (Leon, 2007; Briley, 2010). Topography data was obtained from the National Elevation Dataset at a 30 m resolution, land cover data was obtained from the National Land Cover Dataset (NLCD) at 30 m resolution, and soil data was obtained from the State Soil Geographic (STATSGO) Database at a 250 m spatial resolution. Hydrologic Response Units (HRUs) were derived from versions of land use and soil classifications generalized using 10% threshold values so that we obtained approximately 10 HRUs per subbasin as suggested in the SWAT model documentation (Arnold et al., 2011).

We did this data pre-processing work for three regions (Fig. 5). The smallest watershed considered was a portion of the Eno Watershed (171 km^2) in Orange County, North Carolina. The Upper Neuse Watershed (6210 km^2) that includes the Eno Watershed and is an 8-digit Hydrologic Unit Code (HUC) in the USGS watershed coding system, served as the second watershed. The third watershed was the Neuse River Basin ($14,300 \text{ km}^2$) which consists of 4 8-digit HUCs. SWAT is not typically used for watersheds larger than the Neuse, in part because it is a PC-based model and calibration and uncertainty analysis of the model can take days of runtime for watersheds of this size. We then performed 10 year simulations using the 2009 version of SWAT for each of the three study watersheds.

We did not calibrate any of our SWAT models because it was not necessary to do so for the aims of this study. Because we are simply interested in understanding how model execution time depends on watershed area, whether or not the model is calibrated should not significantly impact the results of the study. However, other factors such as our decisions of how to subdivide the watersheds into subbasin units, and how to subdivide subbasin units into Hydrologic Response Units (HRUs) would be important in determining model runtime. For this reason we choose typical subbasin sizes in this study and kept to the suggested 10 HRUs per subbasin as previously discussed.

Not included in this analysis are the overhead processing times associated with the OpenMI wrappers or the OpenMI driver. We expect these times to be approximately constant for the scales we considered, and for this reason did not include them in our analysis.

2.3.2. Atmospheric model scaling analysis design

A key computational constraint is the running time of the Community Atmosphere Model (CAM). The operations count and the computational performance of a discrete atmospheric model increases with the number of points used to describe the domain. To a first approximation in a three dimensional model, if the horizontal

and the vertical resolution are both doubled then the number of computations is increased by 8, 2^3 . If the time scheme is explicit, a doubling of the resolution requires that the time step be reduced by half, leading to another power-of-2 increase in the number of operations. Implicit time schemes, which solve a set of simultaneous equations for the future and past state, have no time step restriction and might not require a reduction in time step in order to maintain stability. As an upper limit, therefore, the operations increase as a power of 4. This scaling analysis is based on the dynamical core defining the number of operations. In practice, this is the upper range of the operations count, as the physics and filters do not require the same reduction in time step as the dynamical core (Wehner et al., 2008). In most applications, as the horizontal resolution is increased the vertical resolution is held constant. Therefore the upper limit of the operations count for an atmospheric model scales with the power of 3. When considering the model as a whole, long experience shows that a doubling of horizontal resolution leads to an increase of computational time by a factor of 6–8.

Not included in this analysis are the overhead processing times associated with the Web/SOAP server, the Process Controller or the Registrar. These times were considered constant for all scales, and we did not feel they would affect the analysis or our conclusions.

2.3.3. Data communication packets

In addition to SWAT and CAM model execution times, the third component of the coupled model scaling is the data transfer times for messages passed through the Web Service interface between the hydrologic and atmospheric models. Assuming a two-way coupling between the models, the total data transfer time includes both the request and reply from SWAT to CAM and back from CAM to SWAT. Taking first the request and reply from SWAT to CAM, we assumed that the request would include a 4 byte request ID, an 8 byte request time, and a 4 byte request package identifier. Therefore the total request data packet size would be 16 bytes. We further assumed that the reply would include a 4 byte request status, the 8 byte request time, and the 4 byte request package identifier along with the five values passed from CAM to SWAT (surface air temperature, wind speed, precipitation, relative humidity, and solar radiation) and the latitude and longitude coordinates for the point passed from CAM to SWAT. Assuming data values and coordinate values are each 8 bytes, then the total reply packet size would be 16 bytes (for overhead) + 56 bytes (the number of points passed between SWAT and CAM (for values and coordinates)). To complete the two-way coupling, the CAM to SWAT request and reply was assumed to be the same except that only one data value is passed in this direction (evaporation). Therefore the data transfer from CAM to SWAT would consist of a 16 byte request and a reply of 16 (overhead) + $24 \times$ the number of points passed between CAM and SWAT (values and coordinates) bytes.

We understood when doing this analysis that there would be additional overhead associated with network traffic. Since this effort was considered to be an approximation, and since the overhead associated with the network traffic was not impacted by the model scaling, we did not account for this factor in the scaling analysis.

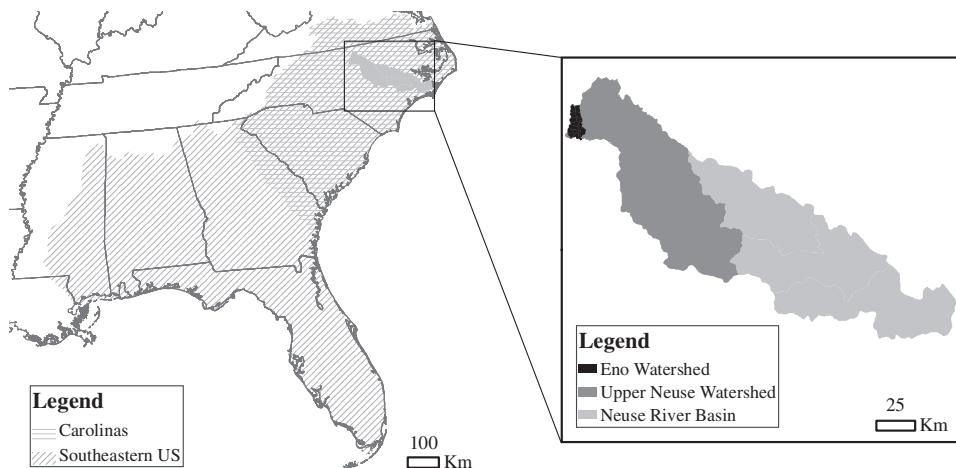


Fig. 5. The regions used for the SWAT scaling analysis. The Neuse river basin includes the upper Neuse watershed, and the upper Neuse watershed includes the Eno river basin. SWAT models were created for the watersheds to calculate execution time. These numbers were then scaled to estimate execution times for the Carolinas and Southeastern United States regions.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Hydrologic model scaling results

Results from the SWAT model scaling experiment for the Eno Watershed, Upper Neuse Watershed, and Neuse River Basin were 7.2×10^{-3} , 1.4×10^{-1} , and 2.5×10^{-1} s of wall time per day of simulation time (s/d). These values were determined from a 10 year simulation run. To extrapolate execution times for the Carolinas and Southeastern (SE) United States regions, which were too large to prepare SWAT input files for as part of this study, a linear function was fitted to these data points to relate drainage area to model execution time. We assumed a linear relationship between model execution time and drainage area from knowledge of the SWAT source code, past experience with the model, and additional tests run to verify this assumption. Results from this extrapolation were that SWAT model execution for the Carolinas is estimated to be 3.8 s/d, and execution time for the Southeastern United States is estimated to be 12 s/d. These values, which are summarized in Table 1, resulted from running SWAT 2009 on a typical Windows workstation that consists of a 64-bit Intel Core i7 2.8 Ghz CPU with 4 GB of RAM.

The SWAT scaling analysis does not consider potential techniques for performing parallel computing. One means for performing parallel tasks within SWAT is to consider each major river basin within the study domain as an isolated computational task. Using this approach, one would expect model execution times to remain near the times found for the Neuse River Basin experiment (2.5×10^{-1} s/d). Recent work has also shown how a SWAT model can be parallelized for GRID computing by splitting a large SWAT

model into sub-models, submitting the split sub-models as individual jobs to the Grid, and then reassembling the sub-models back into the large model once the individual sub-models are complete (Yalew et al., 2013). An approach like this could be used here to further reduce SWAT model execution time when scaling to larger regions. Lastly, we are aware that other hydrologic models are further along the parallelization path (e.g., Tompson et al., 1998) and another possible way to improve model performance would be to exchange SWAT for these other models within the proposed service-oriented framework.

3.2. Atmospheric model scaling results

In order to provide empirical verification of our scaling analysis, we ran the finite volume dynamical core of CAM configured for the gravity wave test of Kent et al. (2012). This model configuration does not invoke the physical parameterizations of CAM and is a good representation of the scale-limiting dynamical core of CAM. This configuration does use the filters and advects four passive tracers. The filters are a suite of computational smoothing algorithms that are invoked to counter known inadequacies of numerical techniques (Jablonowski and Williamson, 2011). The passive tracers represent trace constituents in the atmosphere that are important as either pollutants or in the control of heating and cooling. This model configuration is of sufficient complexity that it is a good proxy for the scaling of a fully configured atmospheric model. On 24 processors (2 nodes of 12 processor core Intel I7, 48 GB RAM per node, and 40 Gbps Infiniband between nodes), we ran 10-day-long experiments with 20 vertical levels at horizontal resolutions of, approximately, 2° , 1° , 0.5° , and 0.25° . The results are provided in Table 2. The increase of the execution time in the first doubling of resolution is a factor of 6.1 and in the second doubling a

Table 1

Measured SWAT execution times for the Eno watershed, Upper Neuse Watershed, and Neuse River Basin. Estimated execution times for the Carolinas and Southeastern United States regions.

Basin name	Drainage area (km ²)	Subbasins (count)	HRUs (count)	10 yr run (s)	1 d run (s)
Eno Watershed	171	6	65	26.4	0.0072
Upper Neuse Watershed	6210	91	1064	504	0.14
Neuse River Basin	14,300	177	1762	897	0.25
Carolinas ^a	222,000	—	—	—	3.8
SE USA ^a	721,000	—	—	—	12

^a Estimated based on linear fit between execution time and drainage area.

Table 2

Measured CAM execution times for a 10-day-long experiment with 20 vertical levels at horizontal resolutions of, approximately, 2° , 1° , 0.5° , and 0.25° . A 24 processor cluster was used for the experimental runs.

Resolution (deg)	Time step (s)	Execution time (s)
2	360	3676
1	180	22,473
0.5	90	161,478
0.25	45	1,291,824 ^a

^a Estimated as 8 times the 0.5° resolution execution time.

Table 3

The estimated total execution time for the coupled model simulation for different sized land surface units. The *Data Points* value is the number of lat/ion points in the grid that are exchange points with the land surface unit (assumes 50 km buffer around land surface area). Data transfer times are estimated based on the number of exchange points, model time step, and size of data communication packets.

Resolution (degree)	Data points (count)	Execution time per day (s)			Execution time (h)		
		SWAT	CAM	Data transfer	Total	1 yr	2 yr
(a) Upper Neuse Watershed							
1	3	0.14	24	0.02		24.2	2.4
0.5	13	0.14	192	0.08		192.2	19.5
0.25	55	0.14	1536	0.33		1536.5	155.8
						311.6	778.9
(b) Neuse River Basin							
1	5	0.25	24	0.03		24.3	2.5
0.5	23	0.25	192	0.14		192.4	19.5
0.25	95	0.25	1536	0.56		1536.8	155.8
						311.6	779.1
(c) The Carolinas							
1	37	3.8	24	0.22		28.0	2.8
0.5	154	3.8	192	0.91		196.7	19.9
0.25	612	3.8	1536	3.59		1543.4	156.5
						313.0	782.4
(d) Southeastern United States							
1	96	12.3	24	0.59		36.9	3.7
0.5	387	12.3	192	2.27		206.6	20.9
0.25	1550	12.3	1536	9.09		1557.4	157.9
						315.8	789.5

factor of 7.2, both consistent with our scale analysis and previous experience. For a 0.25° horizontal resolution we have extrapolated from the 0.5° resolution using the cube of the operations count, a factor of 8.

This scaling analysis does not consider the behavior of the model as additional processors are added to the computation. As documented in Mirin and Worley (2012) and Worley and Drake

(2005), the performance of CAM on parallel systems is highly dependent on the software construction, computational system, and model configuration. Often it is the case that the scaling based on operations count is not realized. Mirin and Worley (2012) reports on performance of CAM running with additional trace gases on different computational platforms at, approximately, 1.0 and 0.5° horizontal resolution. They find, for example, on the Cray XT5 with 2 quad-core processors per node, with the one degree configuration, the ability to simulate approximately 4 years per day on 256 processor cores and approximately 7 years per day on 512 processor cores. On the same machine a doubling of resolution to the half degree configuration yields approximately 1.5 years of simulation per day on 512 processors. This is about a factor of 5 on performance. Such scaling is representative of the results of Mirin and Worley (2012) for processor counts <1000 processors on Cray XT5. At higher processor counts the scaling is far less predictable.

3.3. Coupled Hydro-Climate Model scaling results

The total execution times (Table 3; Fig. 6) were determined by summing the SWAT and CAM model execution times along with the data transfer times. The SWAT model execution times were taken from the scaling analysis described in Section 3.1. The CAM model execution time of 24 s/d is based on 1 and 5 day CESM runs on 4.7 GHz IBM Power6 processors. The atmospheric component was configured to use 448 hardware processors using 224 MPI processes and 2 threads per process, with a grid of 0.9 × 1.25 and the B_2000 component set. Then the scaling factor of 8 obtained from

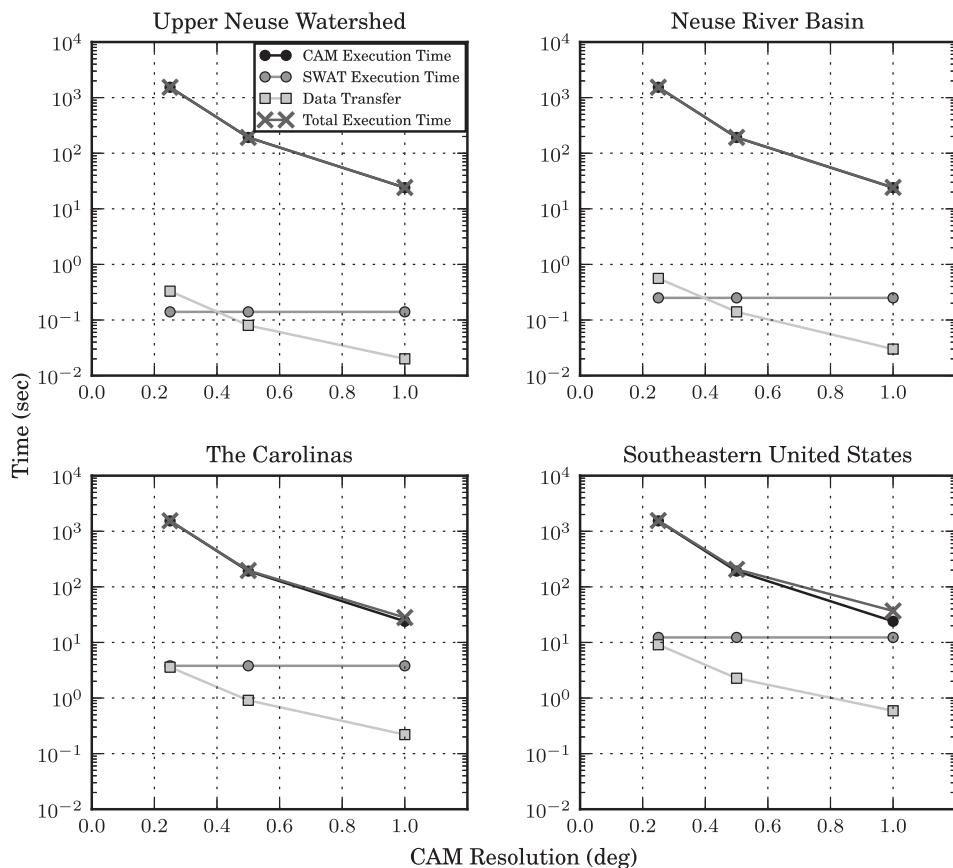


Fig. 6. Results of the scaling analysis showing the time allocated to CAM and SWAT execution compare to data transfers using the Web Service coupling framework across different sized hydrologic units for SWAT and different spatial resolutions for CAM.

the scaling analysis described in Section 3.2 was used to obtain the higher resolution CAM model execution times of 192 and 1536. We note that Mirin and Worley (2012) obtained similar execution times for CAM runs on the JaguarPF machine that, while now decommissioned, had the same hardware configuration as kraken. Thus we believe these CAM execution times are a reasonable estimate for execution times on kraken. We decided to use 224 processes in the CAM scaling analysis because this would represent a typical cluster size for academic runs of CAM, fully realizing that CAM can be run on a much larger number of processors.

The “Data Points” column in Table 3 represents the number of CAM grid nodes that intersect the SWAT model domain. These values were determined by creating grids of 1.0, 0.5, and 0.25° resolutions, and then using spatial operations within a Geographic Information System (GIS) to count the number of grid nodes within 50 km of the watershed boundaries. Assuming a 5 Megabits per second (Mbps) data transfer rate, 30 min time step (therefore 48 data transfers per day), and the data packet sizes discussed in Section 2.3.3, we arrived at the data transfer times. We note that the 5 Mbps was used as a typical network rate for a DSL network, which is where much of this prototyping effort was performed. Many factors other than model scale could affect the network bandwidth, but since the transfer times were minimal compared to the model processing times, we felt that a more detailed analysis of the network rates would not be useful for this effort.

The results show that CAM dominates the total execution time for all hydrologic regions included in the scaling analysis. For the case of running SWAT for the Southeastern region and CAM at a 1.0° resolution, SWAT execution time is still approximately half of the CAM execution time. For the Carolinas, data transfer time for a 0.25° resolution CAM model is close to the magnitude of the SWAT model execution time. These data provide an approximate measure of the relative influence of model execution time and data transfer time as a function of hydrologic study area and atmospheric model resolution. As we noted before, there is the potential to influence these base numbers by, for example, exploiting opportunities to parallelize the hydrology model or to compress data transfers. However we note from these results that, because CAM dominates the total execution time for regional-scale hydrologic systems, the increased time required for data communication between the CAM and SWAT model via Web Services does not rule out the approach as a feasible means for model coupling at a regional–spatial scale.

4. Summary, conclusions, and future work

The Hydro-Climate testbed we prototyped is an example of a multi-scale modeling system using heterogeneous computing resources and spanning distinct communities. Both SWAT and CAM were initialized and run, and data were transmitted on request between SWAT, implemented in OpenMI, and CAM, implemented in ESMF, via ESMF Web Services. One important result of this work is a demonstration of interoperability between two modeling interface standards: OpenMI and ESMF. These frameworks were created and used in diverse communities, so the design and development of the standards were not coordinated. Web Services proved to be a successful approach for coupling the two models. A second important result is a technical solution for coupling models running on very different types of computing systems, in this case a HPC platform and a PC. However, these results could be generalized to models running on, for example, two different HPC platforms, or a model running on cloud-based services. The work required to expose the HPC climate model Web Service interface highlighted the importance of security policy and protocols, with many technical decisions based on the security environment.

While we have with this work coupled computational environments with very different characteristics, we have made no attempt at this point to either evaluate or exploit strategies for parallelism in the hydrology model or across both modeling frameworks. Our scale analysis, however, indicates the computational feasibility of our approach. Currently a 0.25° resolution atmospheric model is considered high resolution and such configurations are routinely run. At this resolution, the data transfer time and SWAT computational time are approximately equal for an area the size of North and South Carolina. We saw that SWAT execution time for an area the size of the Southeast U.S. was approximately half of the CAM execution time of the 1.0° CAM configuration. If we run approximately 125 times the area of the Southeast U.S., the computational times of SWAT and data transfer become comparable to that of CAM at 0.25°. Assuming that a 0.25° atmospheric model is viable for research, then with suitable strategies for parallelizing SWAT and compressing data transfer, we could cover continental-scale areas with SWAT. Parallelism for SWAT is possible because if the study area of each SWAT model is chosen wisely, no communication would be required between the models dedicated to a particular area. The challenge comes if communication between the models is necessary to represent transfer, but recent work has begun to address this challenge as well (Yalew et al., 2013).

Scientifically, we are interested in how the coupling between these two models of vastly different scale impacts predictions of soil hydrology and atmospheric circulation. It is well known that in the Southeast U.S. an important mechanism for precipitation is linked to moisture flux from the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico. On a smaller scale, where the Neuse River flows into Pamlico Sound the enhanced surface moisture flux is likely to impact precipitation close to the bodies of water. Therefore, a logical next step in this development is to build a configuration that might be of scientific interest in the sense that we would be able to model impact of one system on the other. This would bring focus not only to the computational aspects of the problem, but the physical consistency of the parameters being passed between the models.

A less incremental developmental approach would be to consider regional atmospheric models or regionalized global models. CAM was chosen for the initial development because it is readily available, widely used, and has a sophisticated software environment that was suitable. There are ESMF wrappers around all of the component models of CESM, with the exception of the ice sheet model. Recently the regional Weather Research and Forecasting Model (WRF) (Michalakes et al., 2001, 2004) was brought into the CESM coupling environment (Vertenstein, 2012, pers. comm), creating a path to using WRF with ESMF Web Services. With this advance, WRF can be brought as an alternative atmosphere into the Hydro-Climate Modeling System, and work has begun in that regard. Likewise, the coupling technology created for our research could support the integration of other hydrological and impacts models, and models that use OpenMI with particular ease. With this flexibility, we expect that the overall approach could be used to explore a range of problems.

We have, here, demonstrated a Web Service-based approach to loosely couple models operating close to their computational limits, looking toward a time when the temporal and spatial scales of the models are increasingly convergent and the computational restrictions more relaxed. In addition, we have putatively coupled two discipline communities. These communities have a large array of existing tools and scientific processes that define how they conduct research. With such coupling we open up the possibility of accelerated research at the interfaces and the support of new discoveries. In addition, we suggest the possibility of more interactive coupling of different types of models, such as economic and

regional integrated assessment models. By controlling access to each model on a timestep basis, we allow interactive reaction (via human or machine) and/or adjustment of model control. Looking beyond basic scientific applications, we also suggest a new strategy for more consistently and automatically (through the use of community standards and tools) linking global climate models to the type and scale of models used by practitioners to assess the impact of climate change and develop adaptation and mitigation strategies.

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