

1 **Intercomparison of bias correction methods for precipitation of** 2 **multiple GCMs across six continents**

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8 9 **Abstract**

10 This study, conducted across six continents, evaluated and compared the effectiveness of three
11 Quantile Mapping (QM) methods: Quantile Delta Mapping (QDM), Empirical Quantile
12 Mapping (EQM), and Detrended Quantile Mapping (DQM) for correcting daily precipitation
13 data from 11 CMIP6 General Circulation Models (GCMs). The performance of corrected
14 precipitation data was evaluated using ten evaluation metrics, and the Technique for Order of
15 Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS) was applied to calculate performance-
16 based priorities. Bayesian Model Averaging (BMA) was used to quantify model-specific and
17 ensemble prediction uncertainties. Subsequently, this study developed a comprehensive index
18 by aggregating the performance scores from TOPSIS with the uncertainty metrics from BMA.
19 The results showed that EQM performed the best on all continents, effectively managing
20 performance and uncertainty. QDM outperformed other methods in specific regions and was
21 selected more frequently than DQM when greater weight was given to uncertainty. It suggests
22 that daily precipitation corrected by QDM is more stable than DQM. On the other hand, DQM
23 effectively reproduces dry climate but shows the highest uncertainty in certain regions,
24 suggesting potential limitations in capturing long-term climate trends. This study emphasizes
25 that both performance and uncertainty should be considered when choosing a bias correction
26 method to increase the reliability of climate predictions.

27 28 **Keywords**

29 CMIP6 GCM, Bias correction, Uncertainty, TOPSIS, Comprehensive index

31 **1. Introduction**

32 The Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) General Circulation Models
33 (GCMs) have provided critical scientific evidence to explore climate change (IPCC, 2021;
34 IPCC, 2022). Nevertheless, GCMs exhibit significant biases compared to observational data
35 for reasons such as incomplete model parameterization and inadequate understanding of key
36 physical processes (Evin et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024; Nair et al., 2023). These deficiencies
37 with GCM have introduced various uncertainties in climate projections, making ensuring
38 sufficient reliability in climate change impact assessments difficult. In this context, many
39 studies have proposed various bias correction methods to reduce the discrepancies between
40 observational data and GCM simulations, thereby providing more stable results than raw GCM-
41 based assessments (Cannon et al., 2015; Themeßl et al., 2012; Piani et al., 2010). Despite these
42 advancements, the suggested bias correction methods differ in their physical approaches,
43 resulting in discrepancies in the climate variables adjusted for historical periods. Furthermore,
44 the distribution of precipitation across continents and specific locations causes variations in the
45 correction outcomes depending on the method used, which makes it challenging to reflect
46 extreme climate events in future projections and adds another layer of confusion to climate
47 change research (Song et al., 2022b; Maraëun, 2013; Ehret et al., 2012; Enayati et al., 2021).
48 Thus, exploring multiple aspects to make reasonable selections when applying bias correction
49 methods specific to each continent and region is necessary.

50 Many studies have developed appropriate bias correction methods based on various
51 theories, which have reduced the difference between GCM simulations and observed
52 precipitation (Abdelmoaty and Papalexiou, 2023; Shanmugam et al., 2024; Rahimi et al., 2021).
53 The Quantile Mapping (QM) series has been widely adopted among bias correction methods
54 due to its conceptual simplicity, ease of application, and adaptability to various methodologies.
55 However, although standard QM methods have high performance in correcting stationary
56 precipitation, they are less efficient in non-stationary data, such as extreme precipitation events
57 (Song et al., 2022b). To address these limitations, a recent study proposed an improved QM
58 approach to reflect future non-stationary precipitation across all quantiles of historical
59 precipitation (Rajulapati and Papalexiou, 2023; Cannon et al., 2015; Cannon, 2018; Song et al.,
60 2022b). In recent years, climate studies using GCMs have adopted several improved QM
61 methods that offer higher performance than previous methods to correct historical precipitation
62 and project it accurately into the future. For example, Song et al. (2022b) performed bias

63 correction on daily historical precipitation over South Korea using distribution transformation
64 methods they developed and found that the best QM method varied depending on the station.
65 Additionally, previous studies have reported that QM performance varied by grid and station
66 (Ishizaki et al., 2022; Chua et al., 2022). From this perspective, these improved QMs may only
67 guarantee uniform results across some grids and regions. Therefore, to analyze positive
68 changes in future climate impact assessments, selecting appropriate bias correction methods
69 based on a robust framework is essential.

70 Multi-criteria decision analysis (MCDA) is efficient for prioritization because it can
71 aggregate diverse information from various alternatives. MCDA has been extensively used
72 across different fields to select suitable alternatives, with numerous studies confirming its
73 stability in priority selection (Chae et al., 2022; Chung and Kim, 2014; Song et al., 2024a).
74 Moreover, MCDA has been employed in future climate change studies to provide reasonable
75 solutions to emerging problems, including the selection of bias correction methods for specific
76 regions and countries (Homsy et al., 2019; Saranya and Vinish, 2021). However, MCDA's
77 effectiveness is sensitive to the source and quality of alternatives, making accurate ranking
78 challenging when information is lacking or overly focused on specific criteria (Song and Chung,
79 2016). Small-scale regional and observation-based studies have conducted GCM performance
80 evaluations, but global and continental-scale evaluations are rare due to the substantial time
81 and cost required.

82 GCM simulation includes uncertainties from various sources, such as model structure,
83 initial condition, boundary condition, and parameters (Pathak et al., 2023; Cox and Stephenson,
84 2007; Yip et al., 2011; Woldemeskel et al., 2014). The selection of bias correction methods
85 contributes significantly to uncertainty in climate change research using GCMs. Jobst et al.
86 (2018) argued that GHG emission scenarios, bias correction methods, and GCMs are primary
87 sources of uncertainty in climate change assessments across various fields. The extensive
88 uncertainties in GCMs complicate the efficient establishment of adaptation and mitigation
89 policies. This issue has increased awareness of the uncertainties inherent in historical
90 simulations. Consequently, many studies have focused on estimating uncertainties using
91 diverse methods to quantify these uncertainties (Giorgi and Mearns, 2002; Song et al., 2022a;
92 Song et al., 2023). Although it is impossible to drastically reduce the uncertainty of GCM
93 outputs due to the unpredictable nature of climate phenomena, uncertainties in GCM
94 simulations can be reduced using ensemble principles, such as multi-model ensemble

95 development using a rational approach (Song et al., 2024). However, accurately identifying
96 biases in simulation precipitation remains challenging due to the lack of comprehensive
97 equations reflecting Earth's physical processes. In this context, climate change studies have
98 aimed to quantify the uncertainty of historical climate variables in GCMs, offering insights into
99 the variability of GCM simulations (Pathak et al., 2023). Bias-corrected precipitation of GCMs
100 using QM has shown high performance in the historical period, which is expected to result in
101 better future predictions. However, the physical concepts of various QMs may lead to more
102 significant uncertainty in the future (Lafferty et al., 2023). Therefore, efforts should be made
103 to consider and reduce uncertainty in the GCM selection process. It will ensure the reliability
104 of predictions by selecting an appropriate bias-correcting method.

105 This study aims to compare the performance of three bias correction methods using
106 daily historical precipitation data (1980-2014) from CMIP6 GCMs across six continents (South
107 America: SA; North America: NA; Africa: AF; Europe: EU; Asia: AS; and Oceania: OA). Ten
108 evaluation metrics were used to assess the performance of daily precipitation corrected by the
109 three QM methods for each continent. Subsequently, the Technique for Order of Preference by
110 Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS) of MCDA was applied to select an appropriate bias
111 correction method for each continent. Additionally, the uncertainty in daily precipitation for
112 historical periods was quantified using Bayesian Model Averaging (BMA). By integrating
113 performance scores from TOPSIS and uncertainty metrics from BMA, this study developed a
114 Comprehensive Index (CI), which was then used to select the best bias correction method for
115 each continent. This comprehensive approach ensures a balanced consideration of both
116 performance and uncertainty, enhancing understanding of the bias correction process based on
117 the distribution of daily precipitation across continents.

118

119 **2. Datasets and methods**

120 **2.1 General Circulation Model**

121 This study used 11 CMIP6 GCM to perform bias correction for daily precipitation in the
122 historical period. This study used daily precipitation to correct bias because the natural
123 variability relative to projected anthropogenically forced trends is much larger for precipitation
124 than for temperature (Deser et al., 2012). Table 1 presents basic information, including model
125 names, resolution, and variant labels. The model resolution of 11 CMIP6 GCMs was equally

126 re-gridded to $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ using linear interpolation. Furthermore, this study's ensemble member of
 127 CMIP6 GCMs was the first member of realizations (r1).

128

129 Table 1. Information of CMIP6 GCMs in this study

Models	Resolution	Climate variables	Variant label
ACCESS-CM2	$1.2^\circ \times 1.8^\circ$	Daily precipitation	r1i1p1f1
ACCESS-ESM1-5	$1.2^\circ \times 1.8^\circ$		
BCC-CSM2-MR	$1.1^\circ \times 1.1^\circ$		
CanESM5	$2.8^\circ \times 2.8^\circ$		
CESM2-WACCM	$0.9^\circ \times 1.3^\circ$		
CMCC-CM2-SR5	$\sim 0.9^\circ$		
CMCC-ESM2	$0.9^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$		
EC-Earth3-Veg-LR	$1.0^\circ \times 1.0^\circ$		
GFDL-ESM4	$1.4^\circ \times 1.4^\circ$		
INM-CM4-8	$\sim 0.9^\circ$		
IPSL-CM6A-LR	$1.1^\circ \times 1.1^\circ$		

130

131 2.2 Reference data

132 This study utilized ERA5 reanalysis data from the European Center for Medium-Range
 133 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) as reference data. The model physics of ERA5 reanalysis data
 134 improved as it employed an Integrated Forecasting System based on CY41r2 (Hersbach et al.,
 135 2020). ERA5 has been widely used in various studies to ensure the reliability of climate model
 136 evaluation and climate change assessment (Jeong et al., 2024; Virgilio et al., 2024; Baek et al.,
 137 2024). The model resolution selected in this study was $1.0^\circ \times 1.0^\circ$, which was provided by the
 138 institution for research availability. The accuracy of assessing GCM simulation is crucial for
 139 replicating the spatial and temporal variability of observed data (Hamed et al., 2023). In this
 140 context, the ERA5 product has been commonly used to reproduce observed precipitation, for
 141 the evaluation of GCMs' performances.

142

143 2.3 Quantile mapping

144 This study employed three (Quantile delta mapping, QDM; Detrended quantile mapping, DQM;
 145 Empirical quantile mapping, EQM) QM methods to correct the simulation of CMIP6 GCMs,
 146 and these methods are commonly used in climate change research based on the climate models
 147 (Switanek et al., 2017). This study divided the data into a training period (1980-1996) and a
 148 validation period (1997-2014) to correct the historical period's data. This approach minimizes
 149 the influence of uncertainties associated with future projections, allowing the study to focus on

150 **evaluating the intrinsic performance differences of the QM methods.** The frequency-adaptation
 151 technique, as described by Themeßl et al. (2012), was applied to address potential biases and
 152 improve the accuracy of the corrections. The corrected precipitation using the QM used a
 153 cumulative distribution function, as shown in Equation 1, to reduce the difference from the
 154 reference data.

$$155 \hat{x}_{m,p}(t) = F_{o,h}^{-1}\{F_{m,h}[x_{m,p}(t)]\} \quad (1)$$

156 where, $\hat{x}_{m,p}(t)$ presents the bias-corrected results. $F_{o,h}$ represents the cumulative distribution
 157 function (CDF) of the observed data, and $F_{m,h}$ presents the CDF of the model data. The
 158 subscripts o and m denote observed and model data, respectively, and the subscript h denotes
 159 the historical period.

160 QDM, developed by Cannon et al. (2015), preserves the relative changes ratio of modeled
 161 precipitation quantiles. In this context, QDM consists of bias correction terms derived from
 162 observed data and relative change terms obtained from the model. The computation process of
 163 QDM is carried out as described in Equation (2) to (4).

$$164 \hat{x}_{m,p}(t) = \hat{x}_{o:m,h:p}(t) \cdot \Delta_m(t) \quad (2)$$

$$165 \hat{x}_{o:m,h:p}(t) = F_{o,h}^{-1}\{F_{m,p}^{(t)}\{x_{m,p}(t)\}\} \quad (3)$$

$$166 \Delta_m(t) = \frac{x_{m,p}(t)}{F_{m,h}^{-1}\{F_{m,p}^{(t)}\{x_{m,p}(t)\}\}} \quad (4)$$

167 where, $\hat{x}_{o:m,h:p}(t)$ presents the bias corrected daily precipitation for the historical period, and
 168 $\Delta_m(t)$ the relative change in the model simulation between the reference period and the target
 169 period. In addition, the target period is calculated by multiplying the relative change ($\Delta_m(t)$)
 170 at time (t) multiplied by the bias-corrected precipitation in the reference period. $\Delta_m(t)$ is
 171 defined as $\widehat{x_{m,p}}(t)$ divided by $F_{o,h}^{-1}\{F_{m,p}^{(t)}\{x_{m,p}(t)\}\}$. $\Delta_m(t)$ preserving the relative change
 172 between the reference and target periods. DQM, while more limited compared to QDM,
 173 integrates additional information regarding the projection of future precipitation. Furthermore,
 174 climate change signals estimated from DQM tend to be consistent with signals from baseline
 175 climate models. The computational process of DQM is performed as shown in Equation (5).

$$176 \hat{x}_{m,p} = F_{o,h}^{-1}\left\{F_{m,h}\left[\frac{\bar{X}_{m,h}X_{m,h}(t)}{\bar{X}_{m,p}(t)}\right]\right\} \frac{\bar{X}_{m,p}(t)}{\bar{X}_{m,h}} \quad (5)$$

177 where, $\bar{X}_{m,h}$ and $\bar{X}_{m,p}$ represent the long-term modeled averages for the historical reference
 178 period and the target period, respectively.

179 EQM is a method that corrects the quantiles of the empirical cumulative distribution function
 180 from a GCM simulation based on a reference precipitation distribution using a corrected
 181 transfer function (Dequé, 2007). The calculation process of EQM can be represented as follows
 182 in Equation (6).

$$183 \hat{x}_{m,p}(t) = F_{o,h}^{-1}(F_{m,h}(x_{m,p}(t))) \quad (6)$$

184 All these QMs can be applied to historical data correction in this approach. The bias correction
 185 is performed based on the relative changes between a reference period and a target period in
 186 the past, ensuring that the relative changes between these periods are preserved in the corrected
 187 data (Ansari et al., 2023; Tanimu et al., 2024; Cannon et al., 2015).

188

189 2.4 Evaluation metrics

190 This study used ten evaluation metrics to assess the output performance of three quantile
 191 mapping methods against the reference data for the validation period (1997-2014). Seven
 192 evaluation metrics used in this study are as follows: Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), Mean
 193 Absolute Error (MAE), Coefficient of Determination (R^2), Percent bias (Pbias), Nash-Sutcliffe
 194 Efficiency (NSE), Kling-Gupta efficiency (KGE), Median Absolute Error (MdAE), Mean
 195 Squared Logarithmic Error (MSLE), Explained Variance Score (EVS), and Jensen-Shannon
 196 divergence (JS-D). The equations of seven evaluation metrics are presented in Table 2.

197

198 Table 2. Information of the seven-evaluation metrics used in this study

Metrics	Equations	Factors	References
RMSE	$= \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i^{sim} - X_i^{ref})^2}$	X_i^{ref} reference data X_i^{sim} Bias corrected GCM	Galton, 1886
MAE	$= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^{sim} - X_i^{ref} $		
R^2	$= 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i^{sim} - X_i^{ref})^2}{(X_i^{ref} - \bar{X}_i^{ref})^2}$		
Pbias	$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i^{ref} - X_i^{sim})}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^{ref}} \times 100$		

NSE	$= 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i^{sim} - X_i^{ref})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i^{ref} - \bar{X}_i^{ref})^2}$		Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970
MdAE	$= \text{median}(X_i^{sim} - X_i^{ref})$		
MSLE	$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\log(1 + X_i^{sim}) - \log(1 + X_i^{ref}))^2$		
EVS	$= 1 - \frac{\text{Var}(X^{sim} - X^{ref})}{\text{Var}(X^{ref})}$		
KGE	$= 1 - \sqrt{(r-1)^2 + (\alpha-1)^2 + (\beta-1)^2}$	r Pearson product-moment correlation α Variability error β : Bias term	Gupta et al. 2009
JS-D	$= \frac{1}{2} D_{KL} \left(P \parallel \frac{P+Q}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} D_{KL} \left(Q \parallel \frac{P+Q}{2} \right)$	$P(x)$: Probability density distribution of reference data $Q(x)$: Probability density distribution of GCM D_{KL} : KL-D	Lin, 1991

199

200 Ten evaluation metrics selected in this study assess GCM performance from various
201 perspectives, including error (RMSE, MAE, MdAE, and MSLE), deviation (Pbias), accuracy (
202 R^2 , NSE), variability (EVS), correlation and overall performance (KGE), and distributional
203 differences (JSD). These metrics complement each other by offering a comprehensive
204 evaluation framework. For instance, while NSE evaluates the overall fit of the simulated data
205 to observations, KGE provides a holistic view by integrating correlation, variability, and bias
206 into a single efficiency score, and JS-D captures the difference between the distributions of the
207 reference data and the bias-corrected GCM output.

208

209 **2.5 Generalized extreme value**

210 This study used generalized extreme value (GEV) to compare the extreme precipitation
 211 calculated by the bias-corrected GCM at each grid of six continents over the historical period.
 212 The historical precipitation was compared with the distribution of reference data and bias-
 213 corrected GCM above the 95th quantile of the Probability Density Function (PDF) of the GEV
 214 distribution (Hosking et al. 1985). In addition, this study compared the distribution differences
 215 between the reference data based on the GEV distribution and the corrected GCM using JSD.
 216 GEV distribution is commonly used to confirm extreme values in climate variables. The PDF
 217 of the GEV distribution is shown in Equation 7, and the parameters of the GEV distribution
 218 were estimated using L-moment (Hosking, 1990).

$$219 \quad g(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha} \left[1 - k \frac{x-\epsilon}{\alpha} \right]^{\frac{1}{k}-1} \exp \left\{ - \left[1 - k \frac{x-\epsilon}{\alpha} \right]^{\frac{1}{k}} \right\} \quad (7)$$

220 where, k , α , and ϵ represents a shape, scale, and location of the GEV distribution, respectively.
 221

222 **2.6 Bayesian model averaging (BMA)**

223 The BMA is a statistical technique that combines multiple models to provide predictions that
 224 account for model uncertainty (Hoeting et al., 1999). BMA is used to integrate predictions from
 225 GCMs to improve the robustness and reliability of the resulting assemblies. The posterior
 226 probability of each model is calculated based on Bayes' theorem as shown in Equation 8.

$$227 \quad P(M_k | D) = \frac{P(D|M_k)P(M_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^K P(D|M_j)P(M_j)} \quad (8)$$

228 where, $P(M_k)$ is the prior probability of model M_k , and $P(D | M_k)$ is the likelihood of the data
 229 D given model M_k , $P(M_k | D)$ is the posterior probability of model M_k . In addition, the BMA
 230 prediction \hat{Q}_{BMA} is the weighted average of the predictions from each model as shown in
 231 Equation 9.

$$232 \quad \hat{Q}_{BMA} = \sum_{k=1}^K P(M_k | D) \hat{Q}_k \quad (9)$$

233 where, \hat{Q}_k is the prediction from model M_k . In this study, BMA was used to quantify the model
 234 uncertainty and ensemble prediction uncertainty for daily precipitation corrected by three QM
 235 methods (QDM, EQM, and DQM) applied to 11 CMIP6 GCMs, as shown in Equations 10 and
 236 11.

$$237 \quad \alpha_w^2 = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K (w_k - \bar{w})^2 \quad (10)$$

238 where, K is the number of models, $w_k = P(M_k | D)$ is the weight of model M_k , \bar{w} is the mean
 239 of the weights, given by $\bar{w} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K w_k$. A higher variance in model weights indicates more
 240 significant prediction differences, implying greater model uncertainty.

$$241 \sigma_{BMA} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K (\hat{Q}_k - \hat{Q}_{BMA})^2} \quad (11)$$

242 σ_{BMA} is standard deviation of the BMA ensemble predictions, \hat{Q}_k is the prediction from each
 243 model M_k , \hat{Q}_{BMA} is the weighted average prediction from BMA. This standard deviation
 244 represents the variability among the ensemble predictions and serves as an indicator of
 245 uncertainty. A lower standard deviation implies higher consistency among predictions,
 246 indicating lower uncertainty, while a higher standard deviation suggests greater variability and
 247 higher uncertainty.

248

249 2.7 TOPSIS

250 This study used TOPSIS to calculate a rational priority among three QM methods based on the
 251 outcomes derived from evaluation metrics. Furthermore, the closeness coefficient calculated
 252 using TOPSIS was used as the performance metric for the CI. Proposed by Hwang and Yoon
 253 (1981), TOPSIS is a multi-criteria decision-making technique frequently used in water
 254 resources and climate change research to select alternatives (Song et al., 2024). As described
 255 in Equation 12 and 13, the proximity of the three QM methods is calculated based on the
 256 Positive Ideal Solution (PIS) and the Negative Ideal Solution (NIS).

$$257 D_i^+ = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n w_j (f_j^+ - f_{i,j})^2} \quad (12)$$

$$258 D_i^- = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n w_j (f_j^- - f_{i,j})^2} \quad (13)$$

259 where, D_i^+ is the Euclidean distance of each criterion from the PIS, summing the whole criteria
 260 for an alternative f_j^+ , j presents the normalized value for the alternative f_j^+ . w_j presents weight
 261 assigned to the criterion j . D_i^- is the distance between the alternative f_j^- and the NIS. The
 262 relative closeness is calculated as shown in Equation 14. The optimal value is closer to 1 and
 263 represents a reasonable alternative.

$$264 C_i = \frac{D_i^-}{(D_i^- + D_i^+)} \quad (14)$$

265 This study used entropy theory to calculate the weights for each criterion. Entropy weighting
266 ensures sufficient objectivity by calculating weights based on the variability and distribution
267 of data. This approach minimizes subjectivity, preventing biases in the weighting process.
268

269 **2.8 Comprehensive index (CI)**

270 This study proposed a CI to select the best QM method by combining performance scores and
271 model uncertainty indicators. The CI integrates the performance scores (closeness coefficient)
272 derived from the TOPSIS method with the uncertainty quantified using BMA. This approach
273 allows for a balanced evaluation that considers both the effectiveness of the QM methods and
274 the associated uncertainties. Uncertainty was quantified in two ways. Model-specific weight
275 variance was calculated using the variance of the model weights assigned by BMA,
276 representing the uncertainty in selecting the appropriate QM. The standard deviation of BMA
277 ensemble prediction was calculated to capture the spread and, thus, the uncertainty of the
278 ensemble forecasts. Both the indicators were normalized using a min-max scaler to ensure
279 comparability. The CI is calculated individually for every grid and can reflect climate
280 characteristics. Framework provides flexibility in determining the weighting of uncertainty or
281 performance depending on the study objectives. Additionally, the methodology offers
282 flexibility in selecting performance and uncertainty metrics. Alternative MCDA methods
283 beyond TOPSIS can be utilized for performance indicators, or indices that effectively represent
284 the model's performance can be employed to calculate the CI. Similarly, for uncertainty
285 indicators, approaches such as variance, standard deviation, or other uncertainty quantification
286 techniques can be applied to enhance the robustness of the framework further. Finally, the
287 calculation process of the CI is performed as shown in Equations 15 and 16.

$$288 \quad UI = \frac{V_w + \sigma_e}{2} \quad (15)$$

$$289 \quad CI = \alpha \times C_i - \beta \times UI \quad (16)$$

290 where, UI represents the uncertainty indicator. V_w and σ_e represent the normalized weight
291 variance and the normalized ensemble standard deviation, respectively, calculated using BMA.
292 C_i represents the closeness coefficient calculated from TOPSIS. α represents the weight given
293 to the performance score, β represents the weight given to the uncertainty indicator.
294 Furthermore, by adjusting the weights α and β , the study evaluated the QM methods under
295 different scenarios. Equal weight ($\alpha = 0.5$, $\beta = 0.5$) balances performance and uncertainty
296 equally, and the emphasized performance weight ($\alpha = 0.7$, $\beta = 0.3$) prioritize performance over

297 uncertainty. The emphasized uncertainty weight ($\alpha= 0.3, \beta=0.7$) prioritize uncertainty over
298 performance. The results from the CI provide a holistic evaluation of the QM methods,
299 considering both their effectiveness in bias correction and the reliability of their predictions.

300

301 **3. Result**

302 **3.1 Assessment of bias correction reproducibility across continents**

303 **3.1.1 Comparison of bias correction effects**

304 This study applied three QM methods to correct daily precipitation data from 11 CMIP6 GCMs
305 across six continents. Figure 1 presents the results of comparing daily precipitation data before
306 and after bias correction using the Taylor diagram. In general, the precipitation corrected by
307 DQM showed a larger difference from the reference data than other methods. In contrast, EQM
308 performed better than DQM, and many models showed results close to the reference data. The
309 precipitation corrected by QDM also showed good performance in most continents but slightly
310 lower than EQM. Nevertheless, QDM showed clearly better results than DQM.

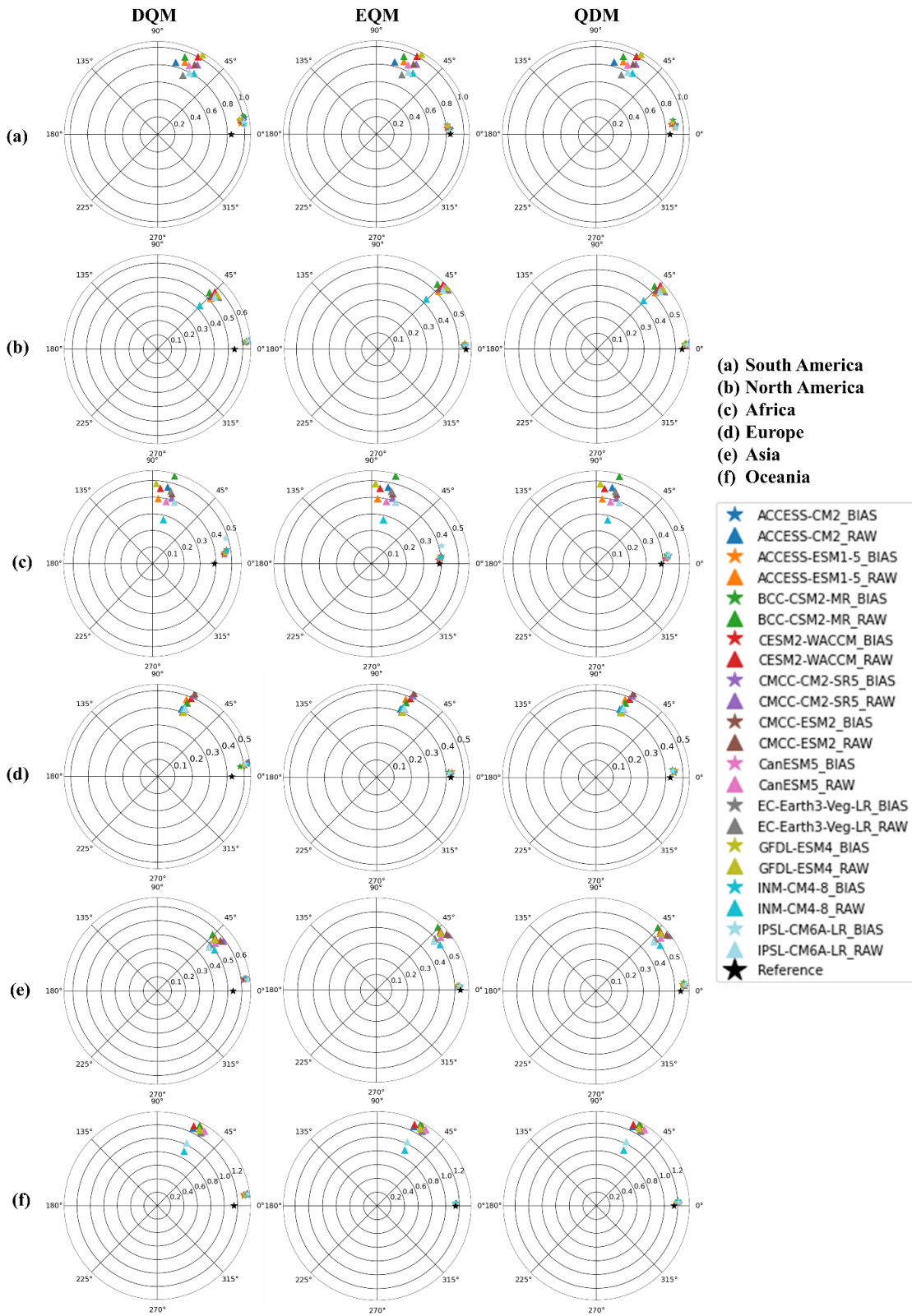
311 Regarding correlation coefficients, precipitation corrected by DQM showed relatively high
312 values between 0.8 and 0.9 but lower than EQM and QDM. The precipitation corrected by
313 EQM showed high agreement with the reference data, recording correlation coefficients above
314 0.9 in most continents. QDM generally showed similar correlation coefficients to EQM but
315 slightly lower values than EQM in North America and Asia.

316 For RMSE, precipitation corrected by DQM was higher than EQM and QDM, indicating that
317 the corrected precipitation differed more from the reference data. On the other hand, EQM had
318 the lowest RMSE and showed superior performance compared to other methods. QDM had
319 slightly higher RMSE than EQM but still outperformed DQM.

320 In terms of standard deviation, precipitation corrected by DQM was higher or lower than the
321 reference data in most continents. On the other hand, precipitation corrected by EQM was
322 similar to the reference data and almost identical to the reference data in Africa and Asia. QDM
323 was similar to the reference data in some continents but showed slight differences from EQM.
324 These results imply that the precipitation corrected by the three methods outperforms the raw
325 simulation, which confirms that the GCM's daily precipitation is reliably corrected in the
326 historical period.

327

Taylor diagram



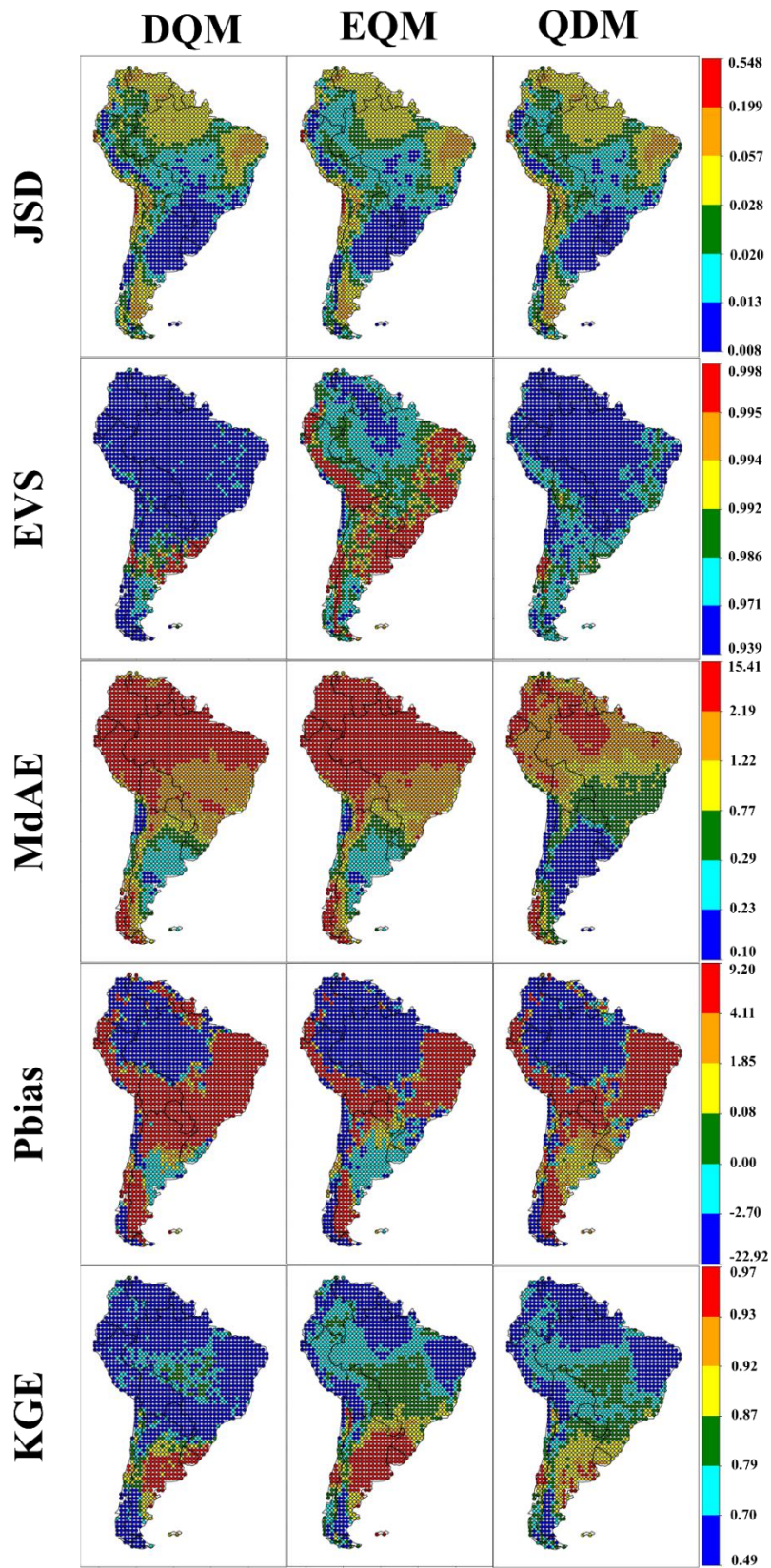
328

329 Figure 1. Comparison of raw and corrected daily precipitation on six continents using Taylor

330 diagrams

331 **3.1.2 Spatial distribution of bias correction performance**

332 This study evaluated the performance of daily precipitation across six continents using ten
333 evaluation metrics for 11 CMIP6 GCMs. Figures 2 and S1 present the spatial patterns of these
334 evaluation metrics, calculated for daily precipitation from the bias corrected GCMs in South
335 America. Overall, the precipitation corrected by EQM demonstrated lower JSD values, as well
336 as higher EVS and KGE values, compared to other methods. The precipitation corrected by
337 EQM showed higher EVS in certain regions but slightly lower performance in MDAE and Pbias
338 across some grids. DQM exhibited performance similar to EQM and QDM in most evaluation
339 indices but was relatively lower in most evaluation metrics. The precipitation corrected by the
340 three methods was underestimated compared to the reference data in northern South America,
341 while it was overestimated in eastern South America. In addition, precipitation corrected by
342 the DQM method tended to be overestimated more than the other methods, while the EQM
343 method showed the opposite result. Furthermore, the daily precipitation corrected by EQM
344 showed the lowest overall error and high performance in both NSE and R^2 . QDM and DQM
345 also performed well but exhibited slightly larger errors in some regions than EQM.
346



347

348 Figure 2. Performance comparison of DQM, EQM, and QDM using evaluation metrics (JSD,

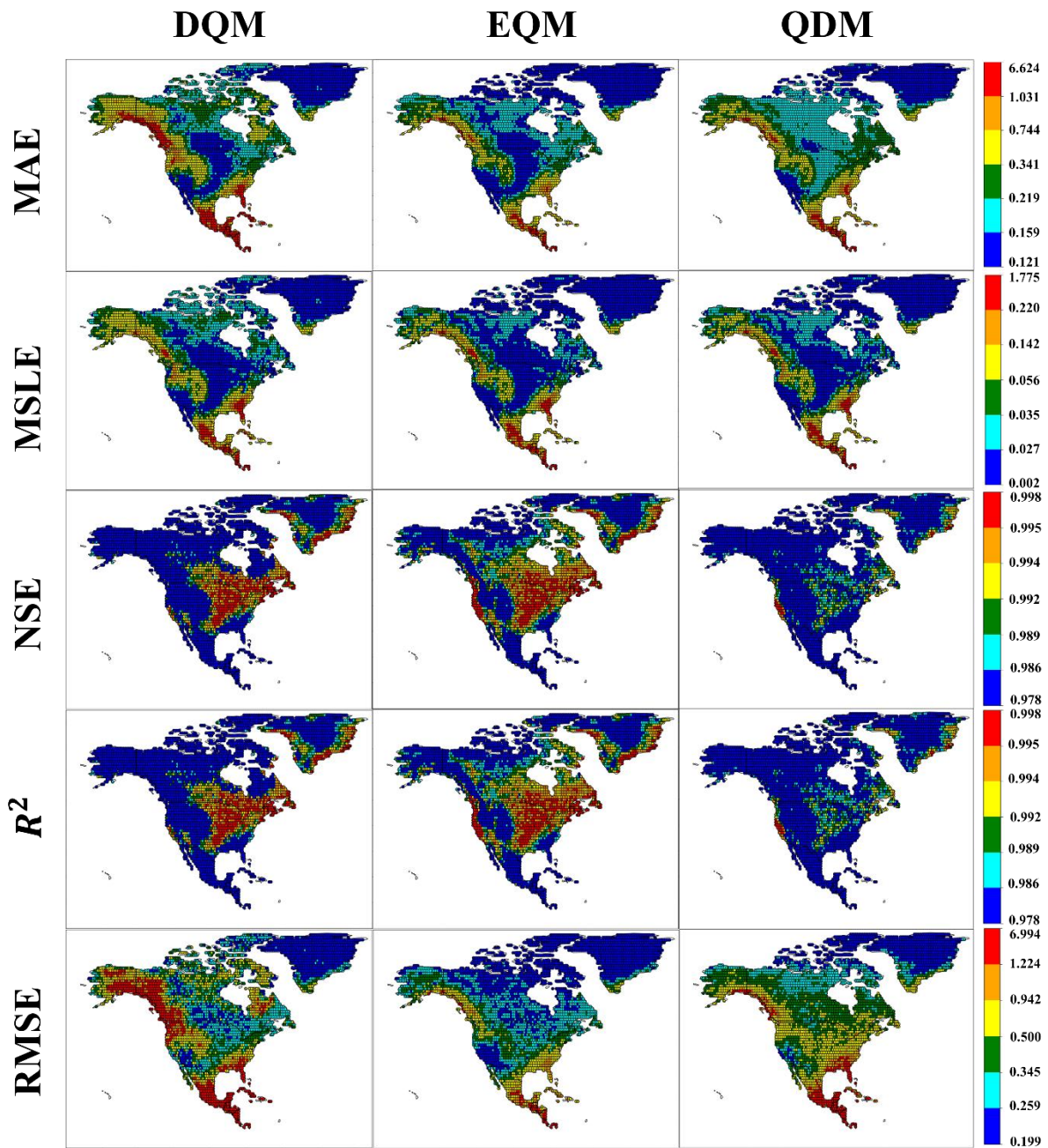
349 EVS, MdAE, Pbias, and KGE) for daily precipitation in South America.

350 Figures 3 and S2 present the spatial patterns of these evaluation metrics, calculated for daily
351 precipitation from the bias corrected GCMs in South America. Regarding error metrics (MAE,
352 MSLE, RMSE, and MdAE), precipitation corrected using DQM showed relatively lower
353 performance across North America, with substantial errors in the southern region. In contrast,
354 precipitation corrected using EQM demonstrated superior performance across the continent
355 compared to other methods. QDM exhibited similar error performance to EQM but slightly
356 higher errors in the southern region.

357 For correlation metrics (NSE and R^2), DQM-corrected precipitation had lower performance
358 than other methods, although some grid cells in the central and eastern regions showed high
359 performance, with values exceeding 0.995. The precipitation corrected using EQM showed the
360 highest performance, especially in the central and eastern regions, where most grid points
361 showed correlation coefficients above 0.995. QDM, while achieving correlation metrics above
362 0.978 for most grid points, had slightly lower performance than the other methods.

363 Regarding Pbias, all three methods tended to overestimate precipitation relative to the reference
364 data across most grid points in North America, while corrected precipitation in Greenland was
365 underestimated. For JSD, EVS, and KGE metrics, EQM-corrected precipitation showed the
366 highest performance, with DQM and QDM performing lower than EQM.

367



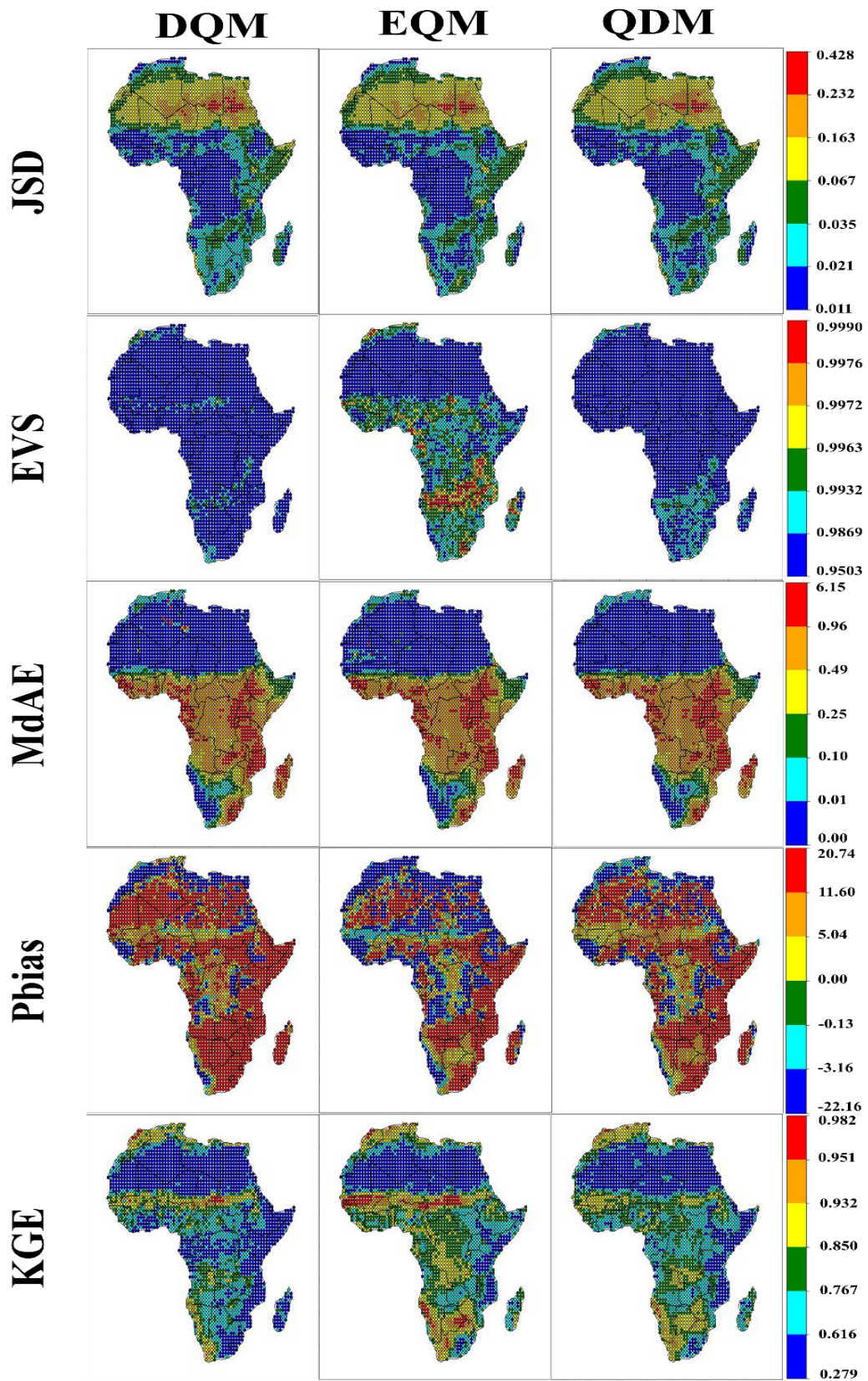
368

369 Figure 3. Performance comparison of DQM, EQM, and QDM using evaluation metrics (MAE,
 370 MSLE, NSE, R^2 , and RMSE) for daily precipitation in North America.

371

372 In this study, the daily precipitation in Africa was corrected using three QM methods, and the
 373 performance is shown in Figures 4 and S3. Overall, the JSD of precipitation corrected by the
 374 three methods showed similar spatial patterns, but the precipitation of DQM showed lower
 375 performance than the other methods in the southern region. In terms of EVS, the precipitation
 376 of DQM showed higher variability than the other methods. The precipitation of QDM showed

377 lower variability in southern Africa than DQM, but overall, it showed higher variability than
378 EQM. The precipitation of EQM showed lower variability in southern and central Africa but
379 still showed high variability in the northern region. Analyzing the error performance, the
380 precipitation corrected by QDM showed the best performance compared to the other methods.
381 In particular, QDM showed the highest performance in North Africa (MAE: 0.03, and MSLE:
382 0.004), and EQM's error performance was lower than QDM's in most indicators but better than
383 DQM's. Finally, EQM performed the highest in correlation metrics (NSE and R^2), and QDM
384 performed better than DQM.

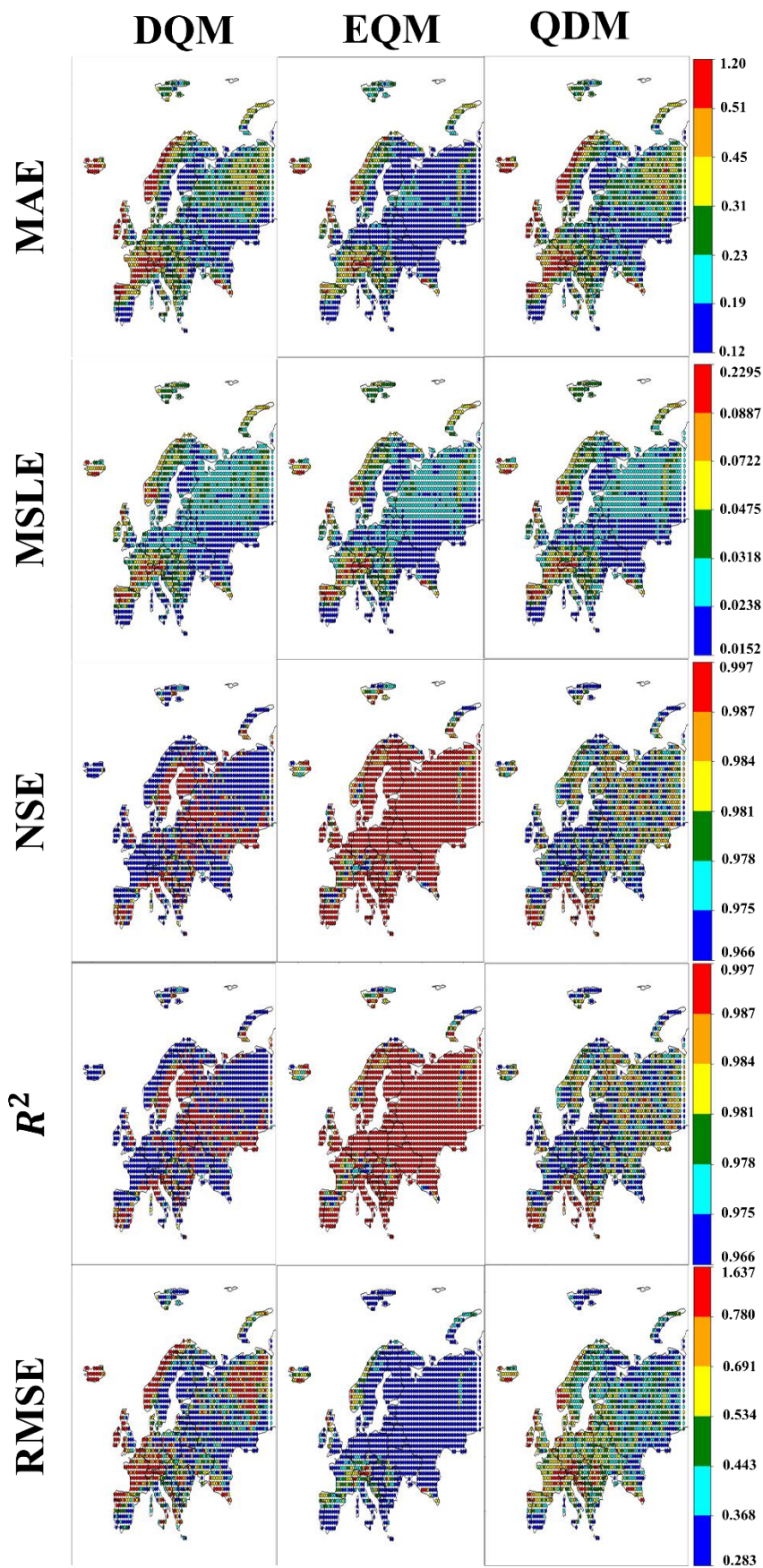


385

386 Figure 4. Performances of DQM, EQM, and QDM using evaluation metrics (JSD, EVS, MdAE,

387 Pbias, and KGE) for daily precipitation in Africa.

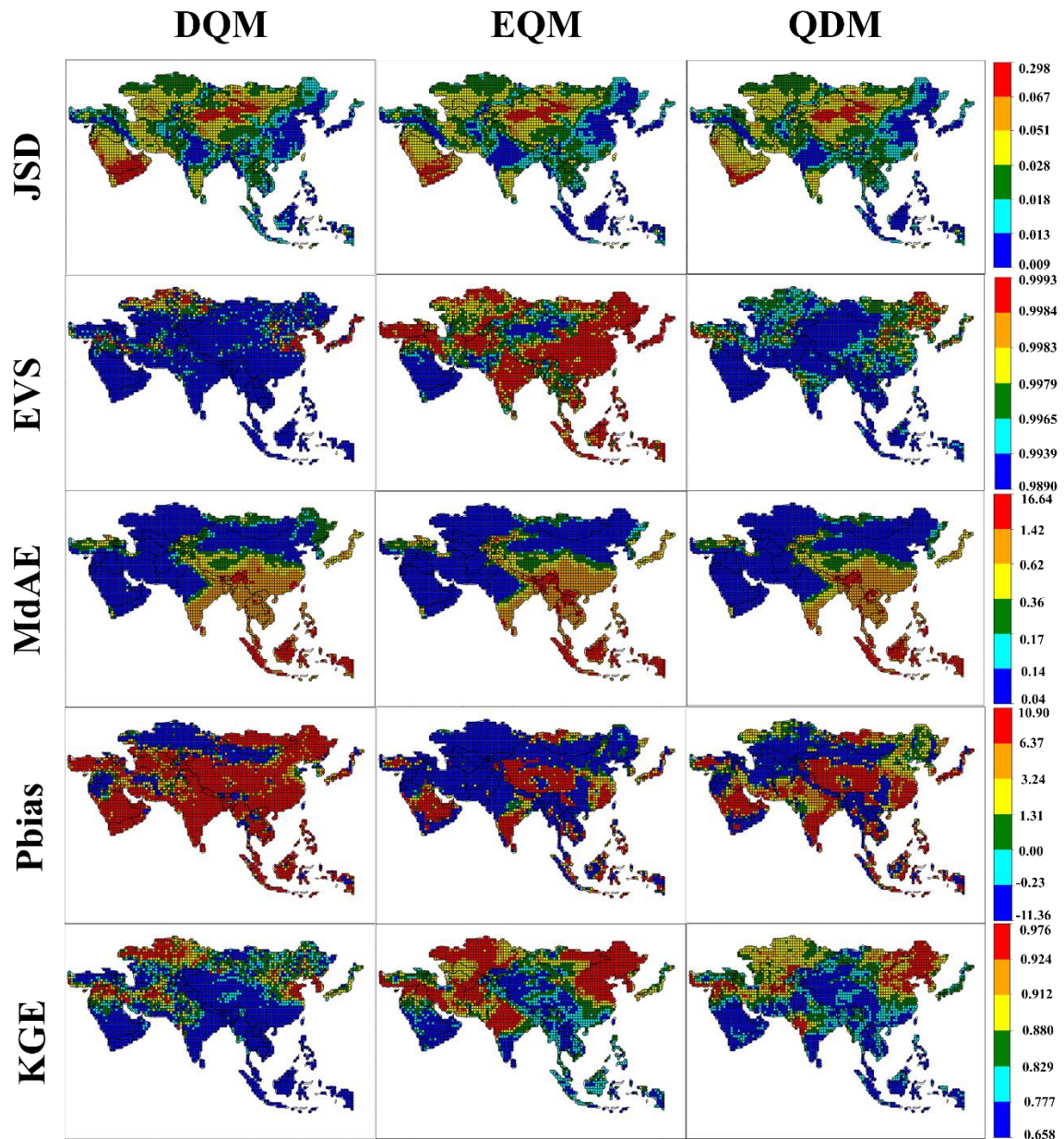
388 Figures 5 and S4 show the spatial results of the grid-based evaluation metrics for the European
389 region. In terms of error metrics, EQM-corrected precipitation performed the best across
390 Europe compared to other methods. In contrast, QDM-corrected precipitation performed
391 similarly to DQM in MAE and MSLE but significantly outperformed DQM in RMSE.
392 Regarding NSE and R, EVS, and KGE metrics, EQM-corrected precipitation performed
393 overwhelmingly better than other methods. QDM precipitation performed better than DQM,
394 while DQM performed the worst. Regarding Pbias, EQM-corrected precipitation was
395 underestimated compared to the reference data in most parts of Europe. In contrast, QDM-
396 corrected precipitation was more similar to the reference data compared to other methods, and
397 DQM precipitation was overestimated compared to the reference data except in central Europe.



399 Figure 5. Performances of DQM, EQM, and QDM using evaluation metrics (MAE, MSLE,
400 NSE, R^2 , and RMSE) for daily precipitation in Europe.

401 Figures 6 and S5 show the results of spatially quantifying the corrected precipitation in Asia
402 using various evaluation metrics. Regarding error metrics, EQM-corrected precipitation stands
403 out with its superior performance, particularly in RMSE, which was consistently below 1.35 in
404 most areas except for certain parts of Central Asia. In contrast, DQM-corrected precipitation
405 showed the poorest performance in error metrics. QDM-corrected precipitation demonstrated
406 a performance similar to EQM but slightly lower in East Asia and North Asia. In NSE and R,
407 the precipitation corrected by EQM performed better than other methods, especially in
408 Southwest and East Asia. In contrast, the precipitation corrected by DQM performed lower
409 than other methods. Regarding EVS, the precipitation corrected by EQM showed the lowest
410 variability, while QDM showed higher variability than EQM but lower variability than DQM.
411 In the case of Pbias, precipitation corrected by DQM was overestimated compared to the
412 reference data throughout Asia. The precipitation corrected by EQM was underestimated in
413 most regions except Central Asia. Precipitation in QDM showed a similar spatial pattern to that
414 in EQM, but the range of Pbias was more diverse.

415



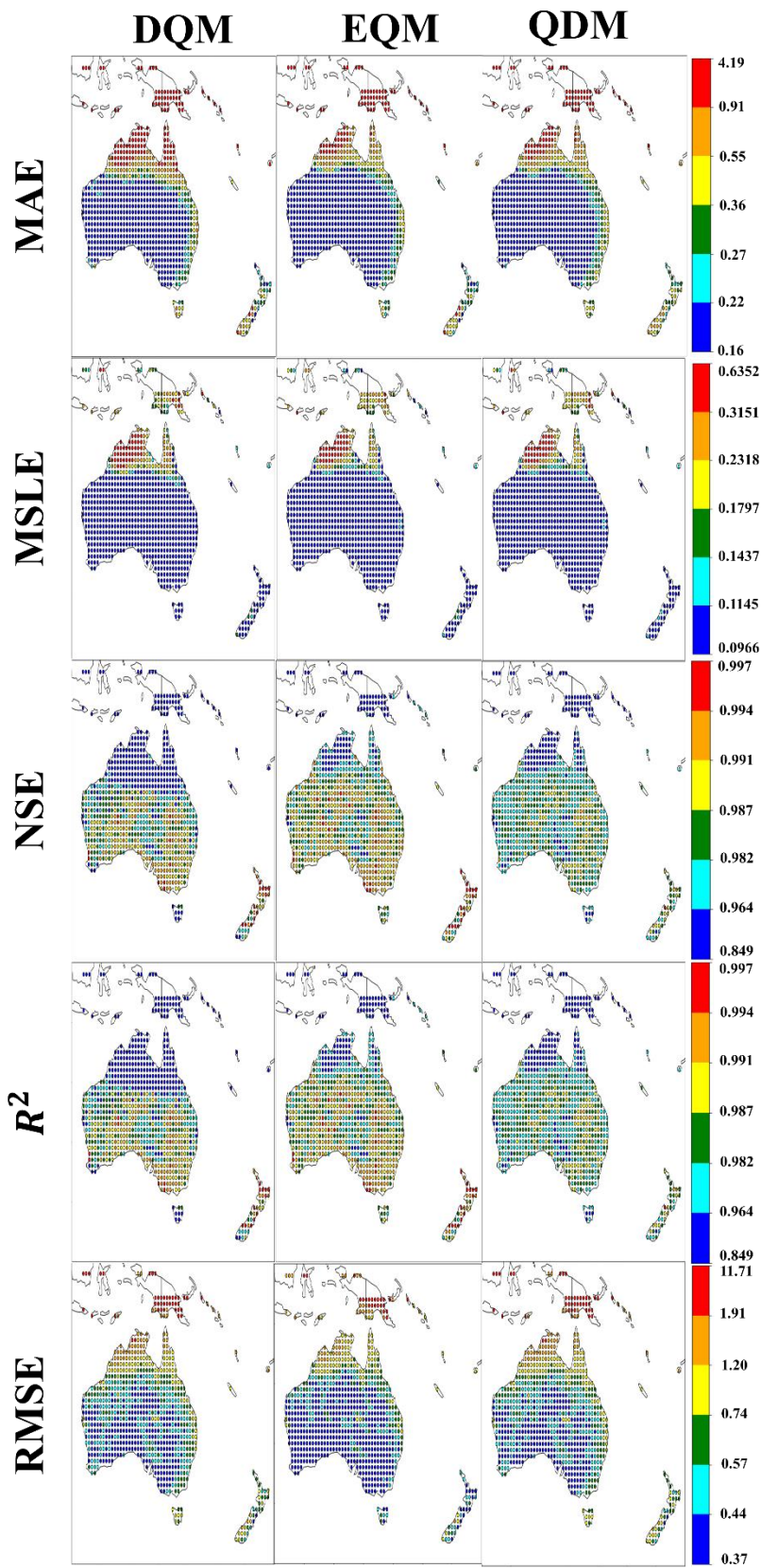
416

417 Figure 6. Performances of DQM, EQM, and QDM using evaluation metrics (JSD, EVS, MdAE,
 418 Pbias, and KGE) for daily precipitation in Asia.

419

420 Figures 7 and S6 show the results of spatially quantifying the corrected daily precipitation in
 421 Oceania using various evaluation metrics. In terms of error metrics, the precipitation estimated
 422 by the three QM methods performed similarly in MAE, MdAE, and MSLE. However, the
 423 precipitation corrected by EQM performed better in RMSE than the other methods. In the case
 424 of JSD, all three methods performed well.

425 Regarding EVS, the precipitation corrected by EQM showed lower variability than the other
426 methods, and DQM showed higher performance than QDM. In Pbias, the precipitation adjusted
427 by QDM was overestimated compared to the reference data in Oceania, while the precipitation
428 corrected by DQM and EQM was underestimated compared to the reference data in central and
429 southern Oceania. Finally, in KGE, precipitation corrected by EQM showed the highest
430 performance, while DQM showed the lowest.



431

432 Figure 7. Performances of DQM, EQM, and QDM using evaluation metrics (MAE, MSLE,

433 NSE, R^2 , and RMSE) for daily precipitation in Asia.

434 Figure 8 visualizes the results of evaluating the bias-corrected precipitation data using 11
435 CMIP6 GCMs on six continents using ten evaluation metrics as boxplots. Overall, the
436 precipitation corrected by EQM outperforms the other methods on most continents. In
437 particular, EQM performs the best on the error metrics. QDM performs slightly lower than
438 EQM but still maintains a high level of performance on all continents. On the other hand, DQM
439 has more significant errors and relatively poor performance compared to the other methods on
440 most metrics.



(a) South America (b) North America (c) Africa (d) Europe (e) Asia (f) Oceania

441

442 Figure 8. Performances of DQM, EQM, and QDM of historical period precipitation using

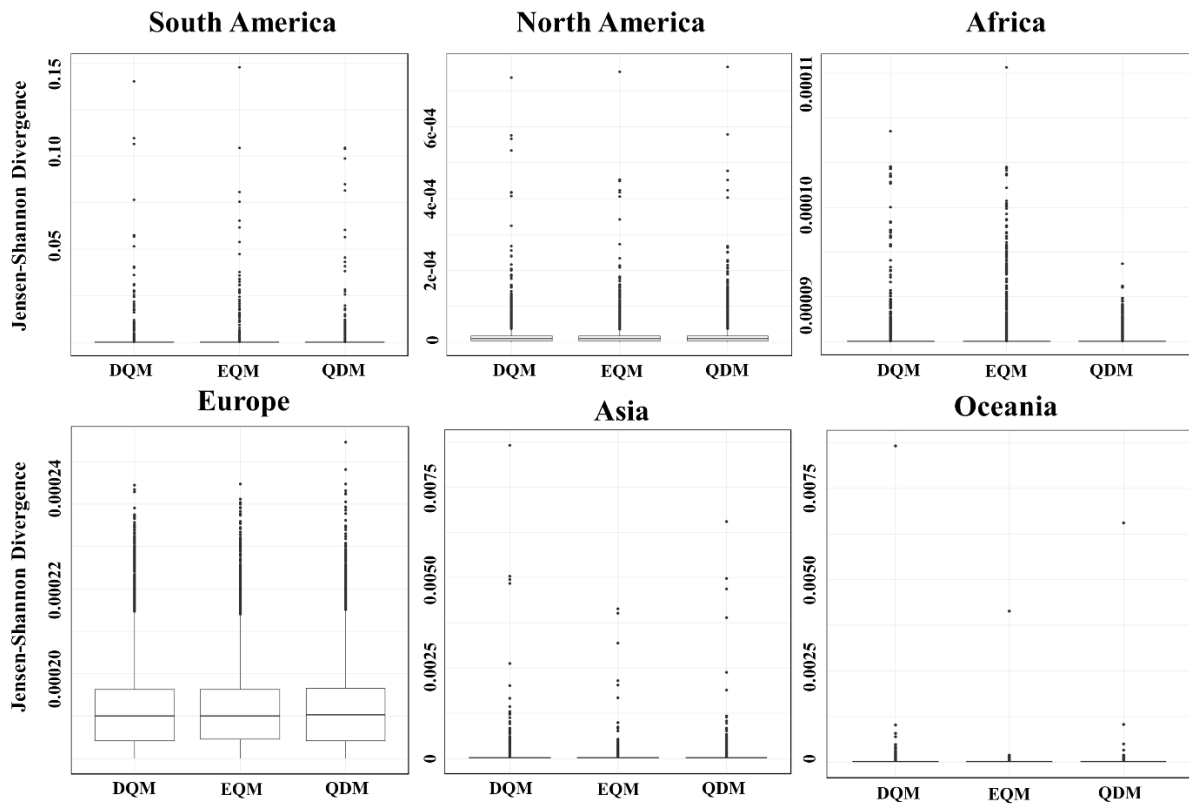
443 boxplots based on ten evaluation metrics

444

445 **3.1.3 Comparison of reproducibility for extreme daily precipitation**

446 This study compared the daily extreme precipitation corrected by three methods using the GEV
447 distribution. Figure 9 compares the distribution differences of the daily precipitation adjusted
448 by the biased bias correction methods based on the GEV distribution using the JSD. In general,
449 the JSD values for precipitation from DQM, EQM, and QDM are very low for most continents,
450 indicating that the GEV distributions are almost identical among the three methods. Although
451 there are some outliers, the overall distribution differences are not significant, suggesting little
452 difference among the three methods when correcting for historical precipitation. However, in
453 Europe, unlike other continents, the differences between the first and third quartiles of the JSD
454 are relatively significant, indicating that the distributions can vary significantly from grid
455 to grid depending on the QM method.

456



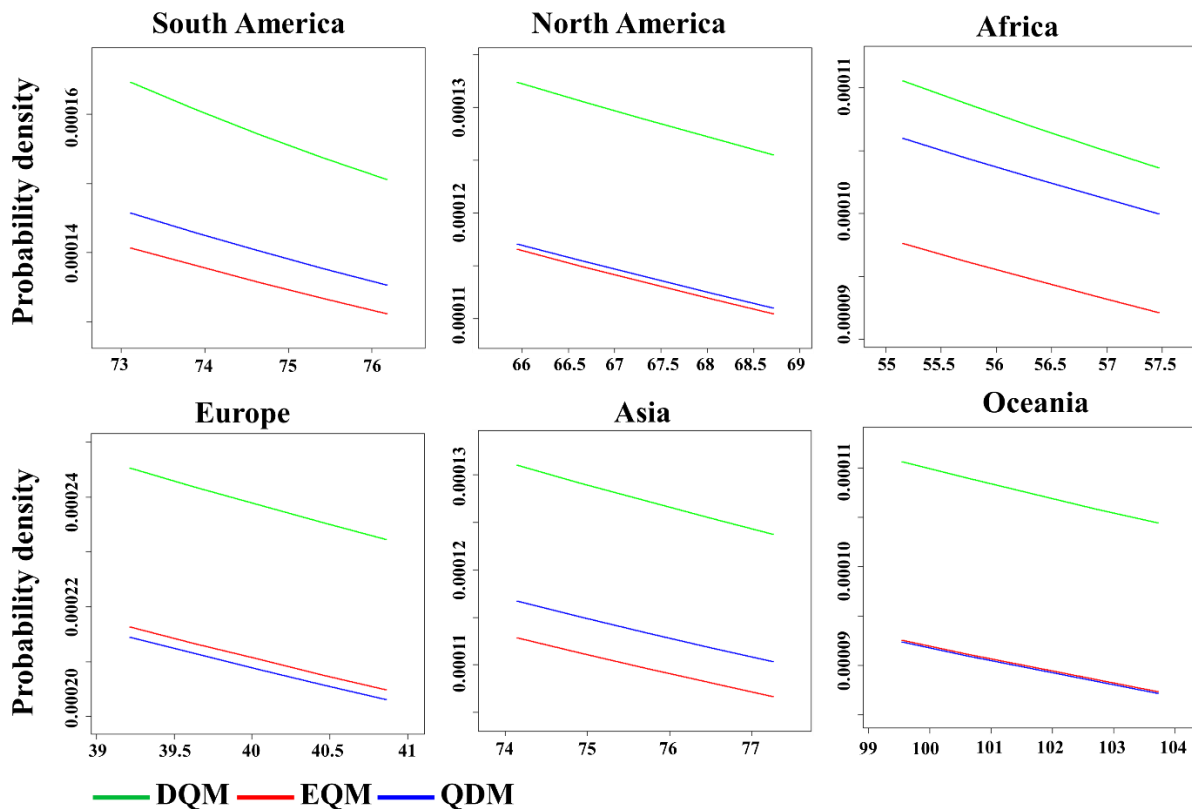
457

458 Figure 9. Comparison of distribution differences for GEV distribution using JSD across six
459 continents.

460

461 Figure 10 shows the probability density functions for extreme precipitation above the 95th
462 percentile of the GEV distribution. Overall, DQM shows the highest probability density for

463 extreme precipitation across all continents and has the widest distribution, indicating that DQM
 464 corrects more extreme precipitation. On the other hand, EQM shows the lowest probability
 465 density and conservatively corrects for extreme precipitation. QDM shows probability
 466 densities between EQM and DQM across most continents but closer to EQM.



467
 468 Figure 10. Comparison of probability densities for extreme precipitation values above the 95th
 469 percentile using GEV.

470
 471 **3.2 Prioritization of bias correction methods based on performance**

472 **3.2.1 Results of weight for evaluation metrics**

473 In this study, the weights were calculated by applying entropy theory to the evaluation metrics
 474 used in the TOPSIS analysis, and the results are presented in Table 3. JSD had the highest
 475 weight in South America because the estimated JSD from 11 CMIP6 GCMs was an important
 476 metric for evaluating model performance differences. These results indicate that the differences
 477 between distributions are significant. On the other hand, EVS and NSE in South America had
 478 very low weights, suggesting that the variability and efficiency of precipitation were considered
 479 less important than other indicators. For North America, the RMSE, MSLE, and MAE metrics
 480 were of significant importance, as evidenced by their high weights. These error metrics

481 revealed substantial regional differences. In contrast, EVS carried a negligible weight,
 482 suggesting it was less important in explaining variability in North America. For Africa, MdAE
 483 and JSD metrics were of considerable importance, as indicated by their high weights. These
 484 metrics were key evaluation factors in Africa. Conversely, EVS carried a low weight,
 485 suggesting it was considered relatively less important. RMSE had the highest weight in Europe,
 486 and KGE also had a relatively high weight, indicating that these metrics were considered
 487 important evaluation criteria in Europe. In Asia, MAE and MSLE had high weights, suggesting
 488 that these metrics were important evaluation metrics. On the other hand, EVS and NSE were
 489 considered less important due to their low variability. JSD, KGE, RMSE, and MAE were
 490 assigned high weights in Oceania, indicating that these metrics are essential factors. On the
 491 other hand, R^2 and NSE were assigned low weights.

492

493 Table 3. Entropy-based weights for evaluation metrics across different continents

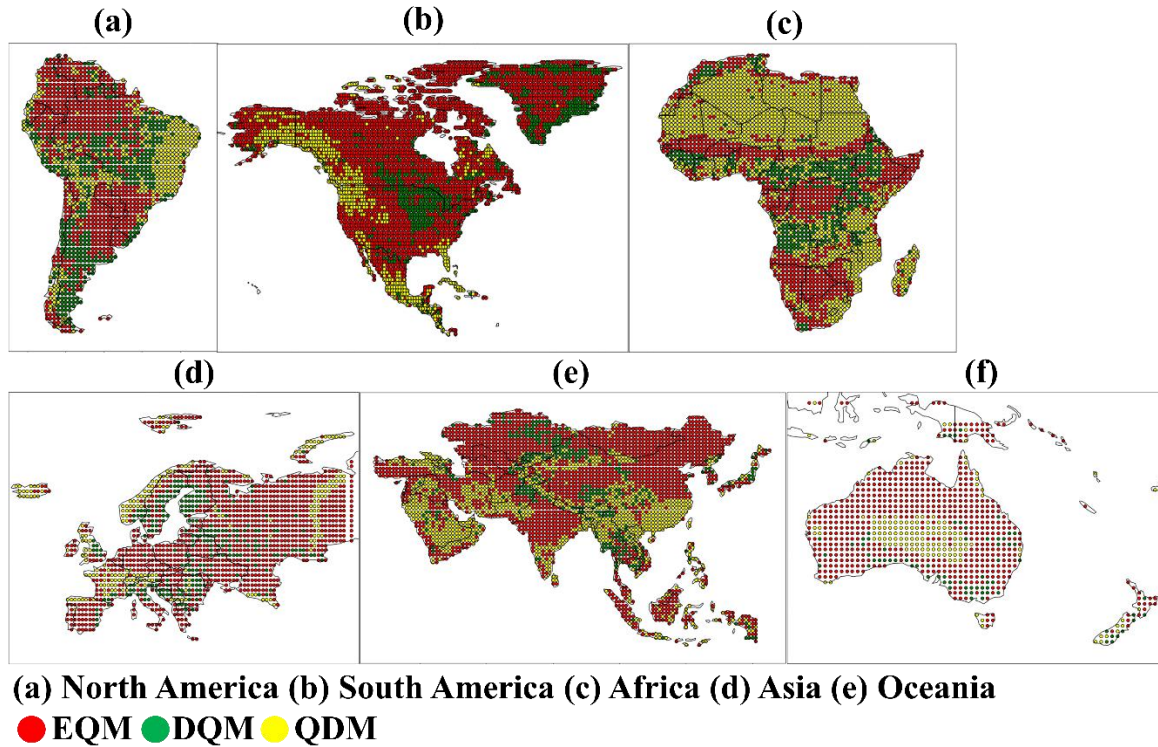
	RMS E	MAE	R^2	NSE	KGE	Pbias	MdAE	MSLE	EVS	JSD
South America	0.1439	0.1536	0.0001	0.0001	0.0005	0.0238	0.1754	0.1934	0.0004	0.3088
North America	0.2289	0.1908	0.0001	0.0001	0.0007	0.0118	0.2152	0.2117	0.0001	0.1411
Africa	0.1319	0.1686	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0855	0.2436	0.1911	0.0002	0.1786
Europe	0.2821	0.1762	0.0022	0.0022	0.0063	0.0378	0.1754	0.1666	0.0021	0.1490
Asia	0.2073	0.1954	0.00003	0.00003	0.0001	0.0305	0.2300	0.2024	0.00003	0.1342
Oceania	0.2384	0.2204	0.0013	0.0013	0.0068	0.0214	0.2338	0.2093	0.0012	0.0660

494

495 3.2.2 Selection of the best bias correction method based on TOPSIS

496 Figures 11 and S7 present the best bias correction method selected for each continent using the
 497 TOPSIS approach. In Figure 11(a), the spatial distribution of the most effective bias correction
 498 method across the grid points of each continent is shown. In contrast, Figure 11(b) shows the
 499 number of grid points selected for each QM method. In South America, EQM was chosen as
 500 the best method in most grid points, with EQM being selected in over 1,500 grid points. In
 501 contrast, QDM was selected in fewer than 700 grid cells, making it the least chosen method in
 502 South America. Across all continents except South America, EQM was selected as the best
 503 model in the majority of grid cells, with the number of selected grid points (North America:
 504 7,583; Africa: 2,879; Europe: 2,719; Asia: 8,793; and Oceania: 1,659). On the other hand,

505 DQM was the least chosen method across all continents. For QDM, although it was the second
 506 most selected method across all continents except South America, the difference in the number
 507 of grid points between QDM and EQM is significant.



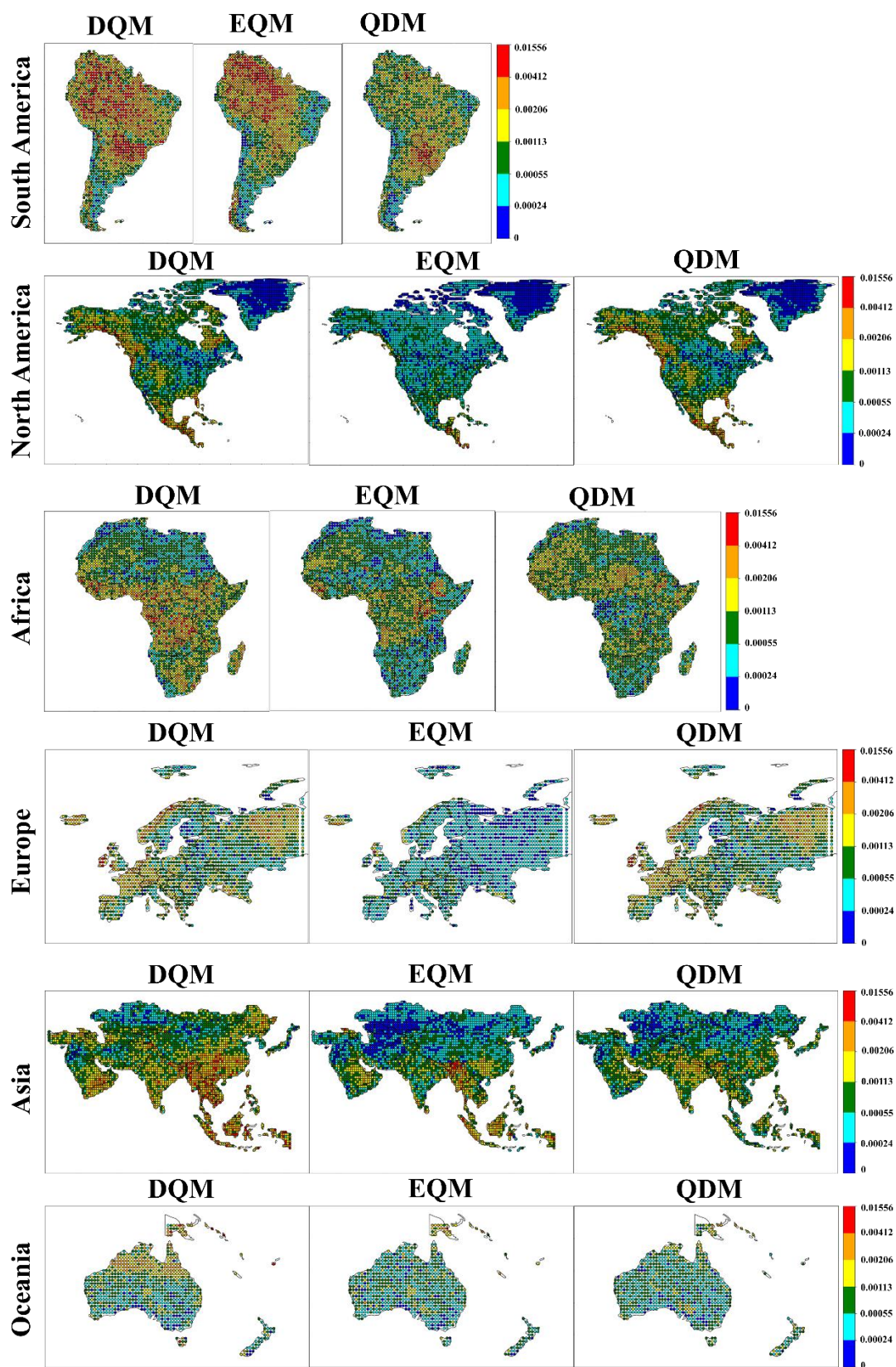
508
 509 Figure 11 Spatial distribution for selected best bias correction methods across continents
 510 using TOPSIS
 511

512 3.3 Uncertainty quantification of bias corrected daily precipitation

513 3.3.1 Uncertainty by model

514 This study quantifies the daily precipitation uncertainty of 11 CMIP6 GCMs, corrected using
 515 three different BMA methods. Figure 12 shows the distribution of GCM weight variances
 516 calculated by BMA across six continents. In South America, the highest weight variance was
 517 observed mainly in DQM. EQM showed high weight variance in the northern region but lower
 518 variance than DQM in most other regions. QDM exhibited the lowest weight variance, with
 519 values less than 0.00113 in most regions. In North America, EQM had the lowest weight
 520 variance, with values between 0.00055 and 0.00024 in most regions. QDM showed the lowest
 521 model uncertainty across North America, with more regions where weight variances were
 522 closer to 0 than the other methods. On the other hand, DQM exhibited high weight variance
 523 overall, with exceptionally high model uncertainty in the northeast and southern regions. In

524 Africa, EQM's weight variance was estimated to be low overall, resulting in low model
525 uncertainty in most regions. For QDM, weight variance was low in some regions but higher
526 than 0.00113 in others. DQM showed high weight variance in most regions except for the
527 northern area, indicating high model uncertainty across the continent. EQM's weight variance
528 was the lowest in Europe compared to the other methods, with weight variances close to 0
529 across the continent. QDM also showed low weight variance overall, though higher than EQM.
530 DQM exhibited high weight variance in most regions except for Central Europe. In Asia, EQM
531 showed low weight variance in most regions except Southeast Asia. QDM's weight variance
532 was similar to EQM's, though some regions had higher model uncertainty. DQM showed high
533 weight variance in most regions except for some Southwest and North Asian areas. For Oceania,
534 the weight variances of EQM and DQM were mainly similar, but DQM showed a higher weight
535 variance overall.

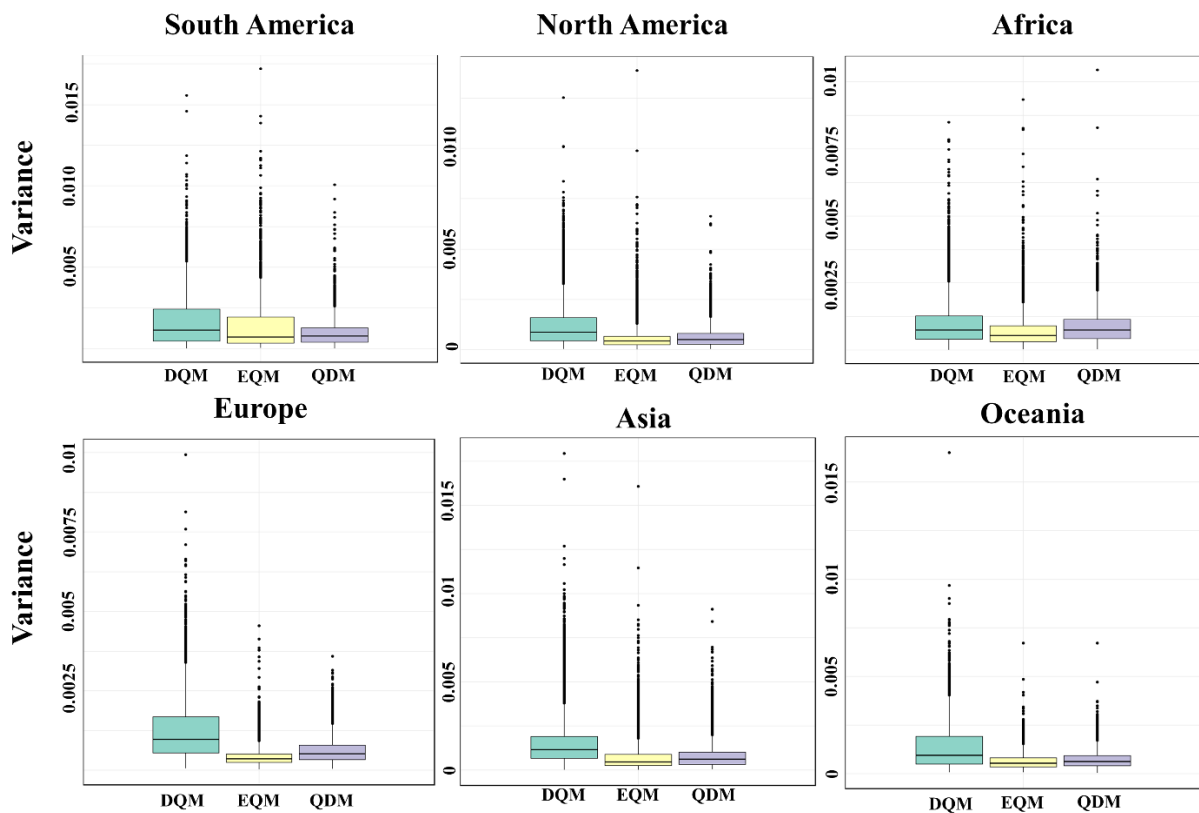


536

537 Figure 12. Spatial distribution of weight variance across continents for bias corrected CMIP6

538 GCMs using BMA

539 Figure 13 shows the distribution of GCM weight variances calculated using BMA across six
 540 continents, presented as boxplots. Overall, EQM has the smallest weight variance, and QDM
 541 has the second smallest weight variance on all continents except South America. In contrast,
 542 in South America, QDM has the smallest weight variance, and EQM has the second smallest.
 543 DQM consistently has the largest weight variance across all continents, indicating the highest
 544 model uncertainty.
 545

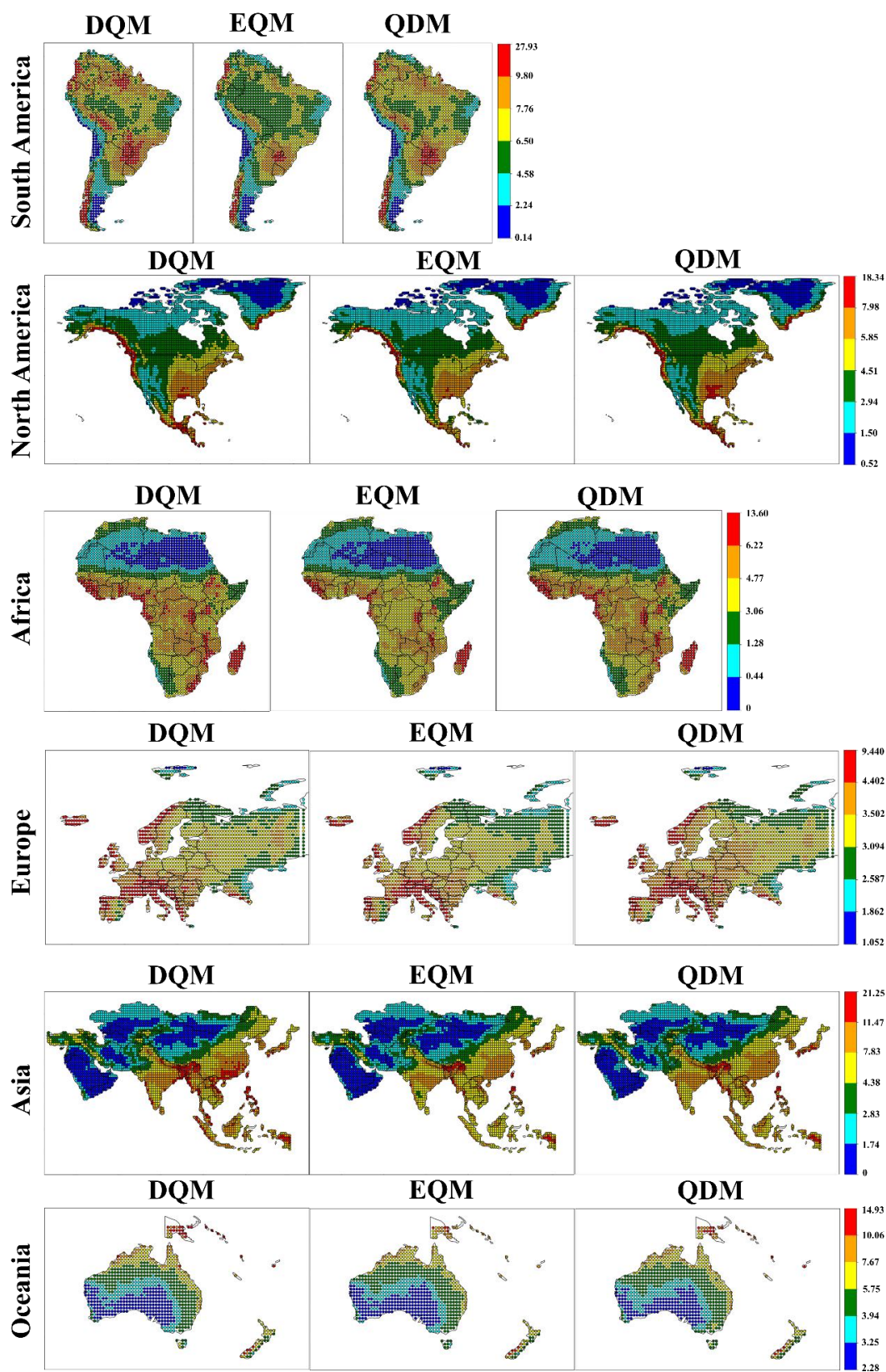


546
 547 Figure 13. Weight variance for bias correction methods across six continents using box plots.
 548

549 3.3.2 Uncertainty by ensemble prediction

550 This study developed a daily precipitation ensemble for the historical period based on 11
 551 CMIP6 GCMs using BMA. Figure 14 shows the standard deviation of daily precipitation for
 552 the historical period by continent for the ensemble developed using BMA with 11 CMIP6
 553 GCMs. Overall, the ensemble predicted using EQM provided stable precipitation projection
 554 with low standard deviations across most continents. The QDM ensemble showed similar
 555 results to EQM for most continents except Oceania, but the standard deviations were slightly
 556 higher. On the other hand, the ensemble using DQM exhibited higher standard deviations than

557 the other methods for all continents and had the largest prediction uncertainty. In Oceania, the
558 ensembles predicted by the three methods showed similar results. However, the prediction
559 uncertainty was estimated to be lower in the order of EQM, DQM, and QDM due to slight
560 differences.



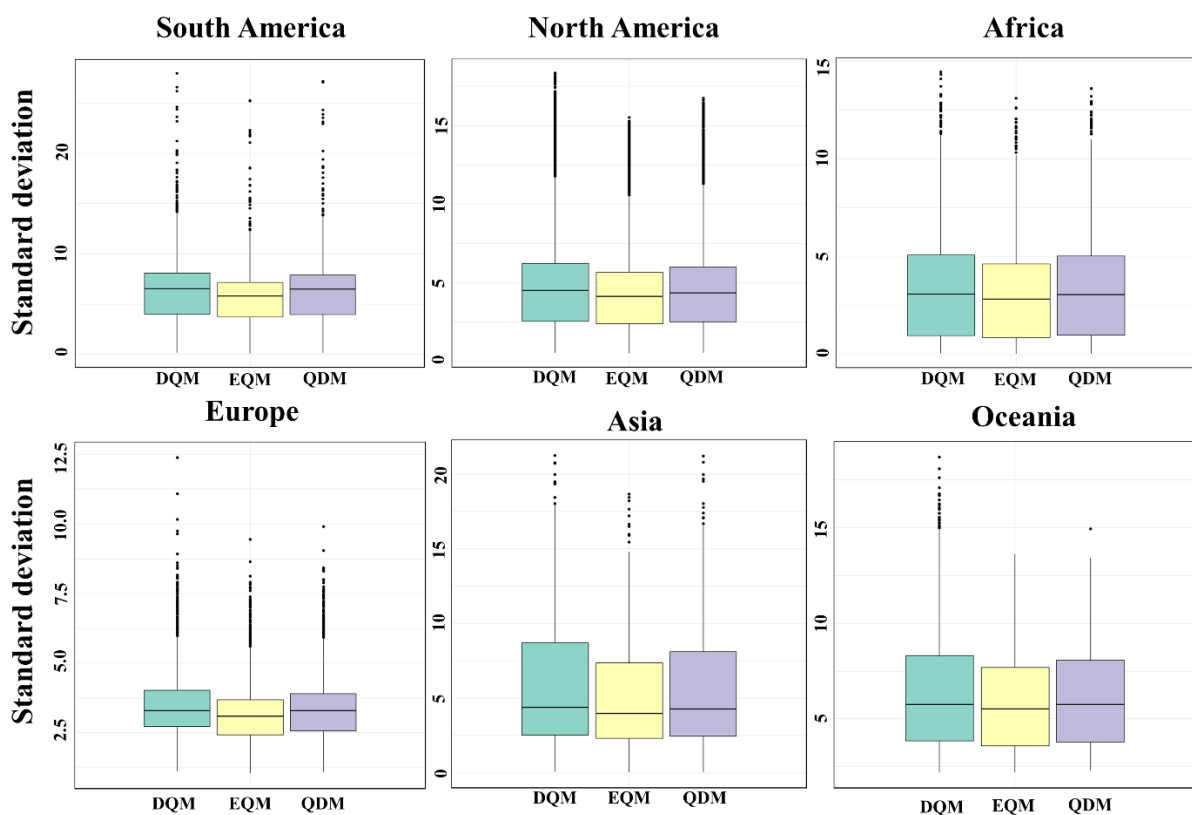
561

562 Figure 14. Spatial distribution of standard deviation for daily precipitation across continents

563 for bias corrected CMIP6 GCMs using BMA

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Figure 15 shows the standard deviation of daily precipitation for the ensemble forecasted by BMA using three methods, DQM, EQM, and QDM, in a boxplot for each continent. Overall, the EQM ensemble showed the lowest standard deviation across all continents, providing the most stable daily precipitation forecasts. The QDM ensemble showed slightly higher standard deviations than EQM for most continents, but there was no significant difference between the two methods. In contrast, the DQM ensemble showed the highest standard deviation and the largest prediction uncertainty.



573
574
575
576

Figure 15. Spatial distribution of standard deviation for daily precipitation across continents for bias corrected CMIP6 GCMs using BMA

577 3.4 Evaluation of bias correction methods using CI

578 3.4.1 Results of CI by each weighting case

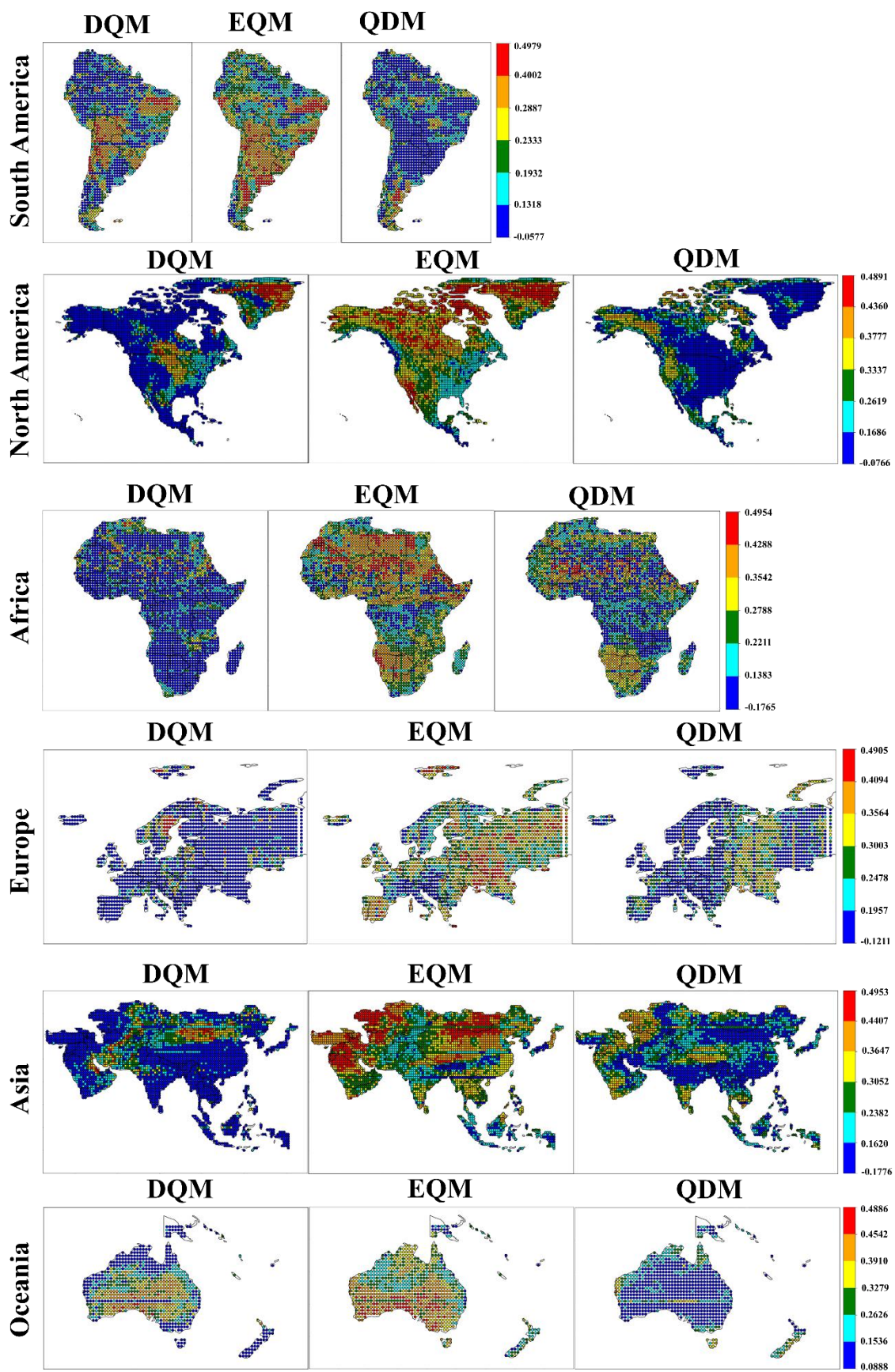
579 This study compared three QM methods by generating a CI based on three cases of weighting
580 values that considered both model performance and uncertainty. Figures 16, S8, and S9 show

581 the comprehensive indices calculated by applying equal weights and weights emphasizing
582 performance and uncertainty, respectively.

583 EQM showed the highest CI across all continents when equal weights were applied. However,
584 the index was lower in southern Europe and southeastern North America, but it calculated high
585 values in most other regions. QDM showed high index values in some regions, although they
586 were lower than those of EQM. For example, the CI results were high in the northern and
587 western parts of North America and the central part of Europe. On the other hand, DQM was
588 generally unsuitable in most regions but showed a relatively high index in Oceania.

589 When weights that emphasized performance were applied, DQM showed a high index in the
590 central part of South America but low performance in most continents. Nevertheless, DQM
591 showed a better index than QDM in some parts of Oceania. EQM showed the best index across
592 most continents. While QDM was less suitable than EQM, it was still evaluated as a useful
593 method in some continents.

594 Even when applying weights that increased the emphasis on uncertainty, similar results were
595 obtained with the other weighting values. In particular, EQM was evaluated as the most suitable
596 model across all continents, while DQM showed the opposite results.

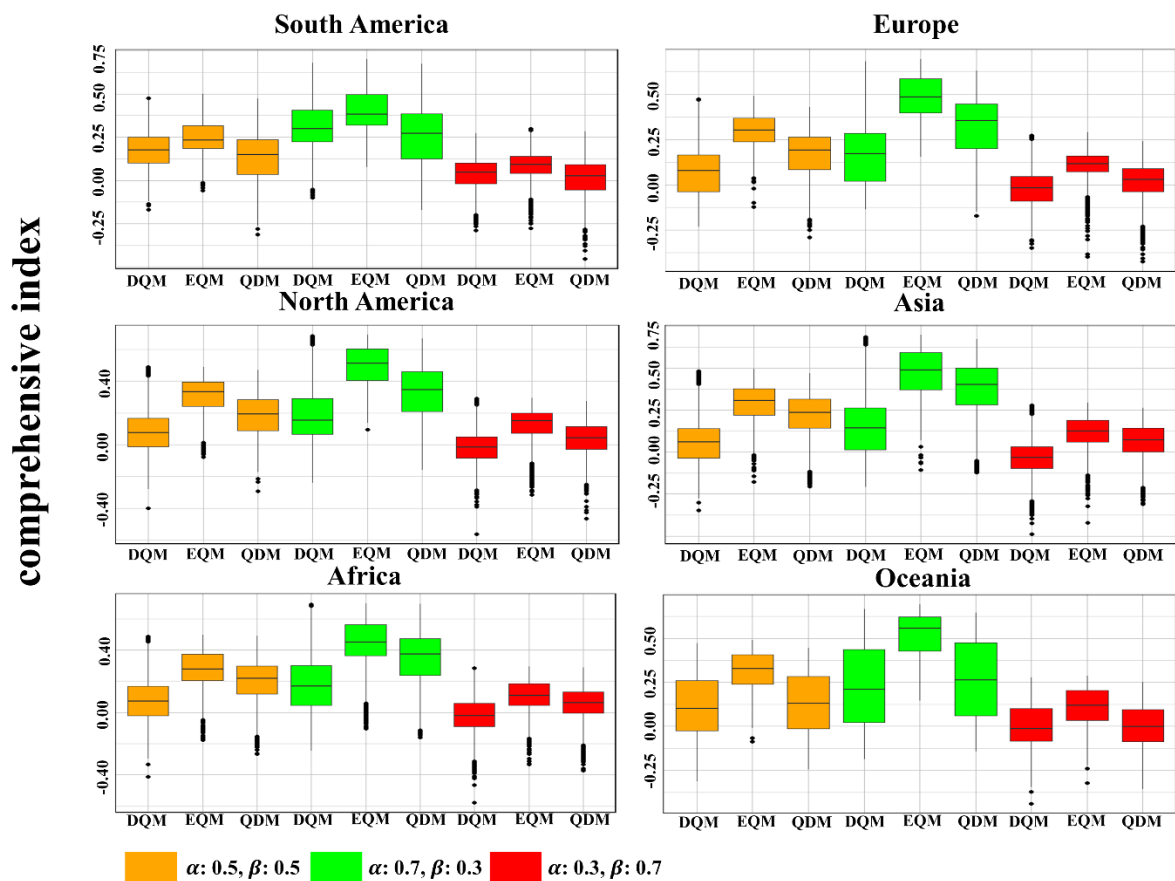


598 Figure 16. Spatial distribution of comprehensive indices for bias correction methods with equal
 599 weights ($\alpha: 0.5, \beta: 0.5$) across continents

600

601 Figure 17 presents a comparison of the comprehensive indices for three QM methods with
 602 different weights for each continent using box plots. Overall, all methods showed higher
 603 indices than the other weighting values in the values that emphasized more weight on
 604 performance. In all weighted values, DQM showed the lowest indices in all continents except
 605 for South America and Oceania, where it was slightly higher or similar to QDM. EQM showed
 606 the best composite indices in all continents, outperforming performance and uncertainty. QDM
 607 showed high comprehensive indices in most continents, and the gap with EQM narrowed
 608 significantly in the weighting values that emphasized performance more. Nevertheless, QDM
 609 overall had lower comprehensive indices than EQM.

610



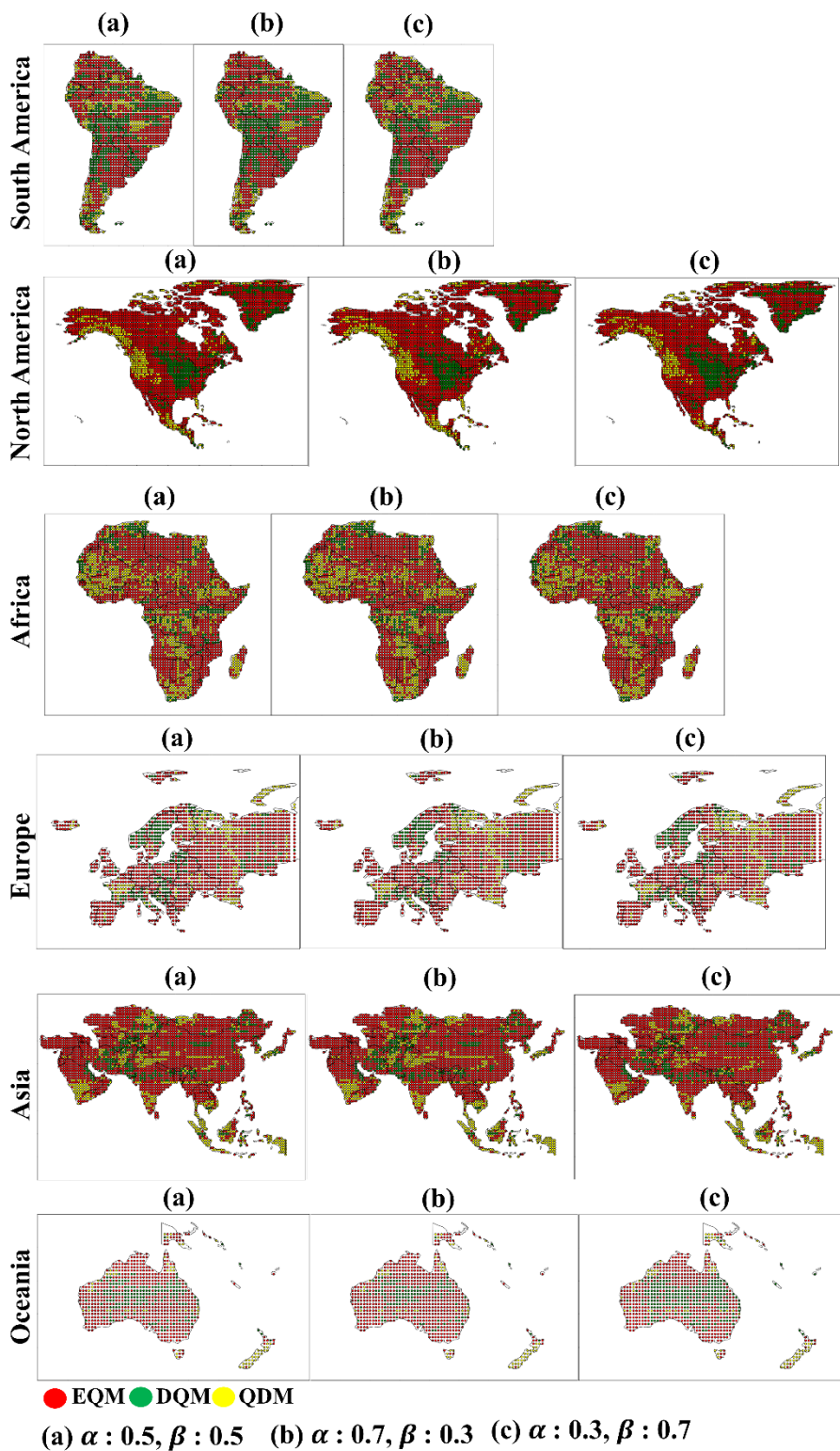
611

612 Figure 17. CI for three bias correction methods across continents with varying weights on
 613 performance and uncertainty

614

615 **3.4.2 Selection of best bias correction method**

616 Based on the CI, this study selected the best bias correction method for each continent. Figure
617 18 shows how the best bias correction method was selected for each continent by applying
618 various weighting values of the CI. Overall, EQM was selected as the best correction method
619 for most continents in all weighting values and was selected more than other methods in North
620 America, Europe, Asia, and Oceania. DQM was selected the least in most continents except
621 for South America and Oceania, and the number of selected grids tended to decrease as the
622 weighting for uncertainty increased. QDM was selected as the proper bias correction method
623 in western North America, southern and eastern Africa, and northern Europe. In addition, QDM
624 was selected the most in Southeast Asia in all weighting values.

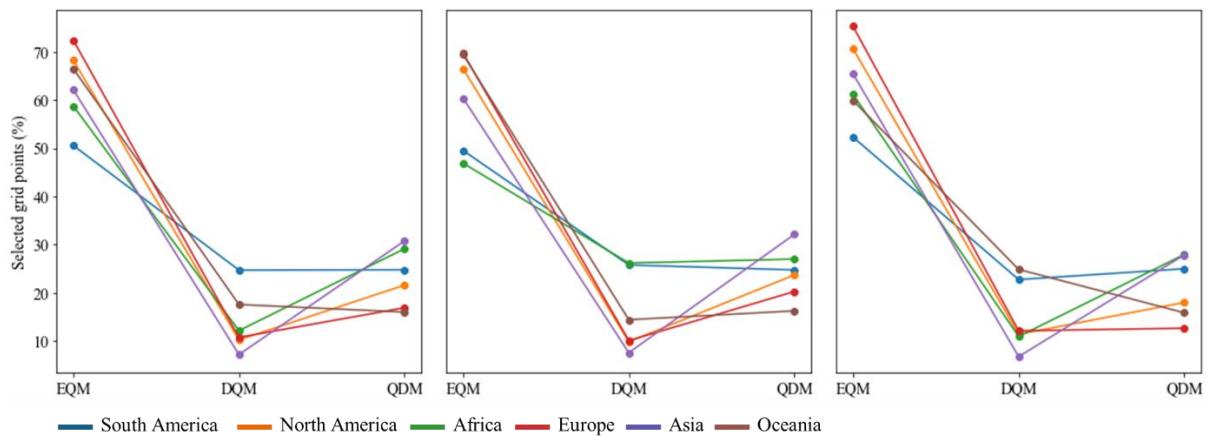


625

626 Figure 18. Selection of best bias correction methods across continents based on CI depending
 627 on weighting values.

628

629 Figure 19 shows the number of selected grids for the best bias correction method across
 630 continents based on three weighting values. Overall, EQM was the most frequently selected
 631 method across all weighting values, demonstrating superior performance across all continents
 632 compared to the other methods. Interestingly, as the weight for uncertainty increased, the
 633 number of grids where EQM was selected also increased, while the number decreased as the
 634 weight for performance increased. In contrast, QDM was chosen as the second-best method on
 635 most continents, except for South America and Oceania. The number of selected grids for
 636 QDM slightly increased as the performance weight increased. DQM was the least selected
 637 method across most continents, indicating that it was the least suitable overall.
 638



639
 640 Figure 19. Ratios of selected grids for best bias correction methods across continents based on
 641 different weighting values
 642

643 4. Discussion

644 Bias correction methods are widely used in correcting GCM outputs, and previous studies have
 645 compared the performance of various methods (Homsí et al., 2019; Saranya and Vinish, 2021).
 646 Among these, Quantile Mapping (QM) has consistently shown superior performance compared
 647 to other methods, making it a widely used approach for bias correction. In particular, QDM,
 648 EQM, and DQM, which are the focus of this study, are frequently employed in research
 649 exploring and applying climate change projections based on GCM outputs (Cannon et al., 2015;
 650 Switanek et al., 2016; Song et al., 2022a). Analyzing the strengths and limitations of these three
 651 methods will provide valuable insights for climate researchers, enabling them to choose the
 652 most suitable bias correction method for specific regions. In this context, this study further
 653 evaluates the performance of QDM, EQM, and DQM, especially for daily precipitation, and

654 investigates how these methods perform across different regions. Unlike previous studies that
655 focused on the performance of bias correction methods (Song et al., 2024a; Teutschbein and
656 Seibert, 2012; Smitha et al., 2018), this study suggests a CI that integrates the performance and
657 uncertainty metrics. This approach enhances the robustness of bias correction method selection
658 and provides a more holistic evaluation framework. This section discusses the strengths and
659 weaknesses of each method from various perspectives to provide a more balanced assessment.

660

661 **4.1 Evaluation of bias correction methods performance**

662 The daily precipitation corrected by the three QM methods outperformed the raw GCM data
663 (see Figure 1). All three methods showed strong overall performance, as indicated by the
664 Taylor diagram, producing consistently good results across different regions. This highlights
665 the need to use multiple performance metrics to fully understand the strengths and weaknesses
666 of the three QM methods, as relying on a single analysis or macroscopic perspective can
667 overlook important details. From this perspective, many studies have emphasized the
668 application of a multifaceted analysis in selecting bias correction methods (Homsí et al., 2019;
669 Cannon et al., 2015; Berg et al., 2022; Song et al., 2023). The spatial distribution of correction
670 performance, as discussed in Section 3.1.2, varies significantly by continent. Figures 2 to 7
671 reveal that the evaluated metrics differ across continents, underscoring the importance of
672 region-specific correction methods. This finding aligns with Song et al. (2023), highlighting
673 the importance of selecting appropriate correction methods based on the precipitation
674 distribution at observation sites. Moreover, studies such as Homsí et al. (2019) and Saranya
675 and Vinish (2021) also emphasize the variability in bias correction performance depending on
676 the regional climate and data characteristics, reinforcing the need for tailored approaches. Of
677 course, the three QM methods showed high performance across most continents, effectively
678 correcting the biases in daily precipitation from GCMs. However, the corrected daily
679 precipitation varies subtly among the three methods, with these differences becoming more
680 pronounced in extreme events or specific evaluation metrics. For example, the three QM
681 methods tend to perform less effectively in regions with high precipitation, but their
682 performance also varies by grid (e.g., southern India in Asia: RMSE; central Oceania: Pbias
683 and EVS; central Europe: Pbias, MdAE, and KGE). While EQM performs well across most
684 continents, DQM and QDM show superior results in specific regions. Similar results were
685 made by Cannon et al. (2015), which highlighted differences in the performance of bias

686 correction methods, particularly in handling extreme precipitation events. QDM's error-related
687 metrics (South America: RMSE, MAE, and MSLE) are nearly identical to EQM's, yet QDM
688 outperforms EQM regarding MdAE on more grids. These findings suggest that a more nuanced
689 and detailed analysis of precipitation corrected by GCMs is necessary, aligning with the
690 conclusions of Gudmundsson et al. (2012), which emphasize that the effectiveness of bias
691 correction methods can vary significantly depending on local climate characteristics,
692 highlighting the importance of selecting appropriate methods for each region. These results
693 suggest a more detailed precipitation analysis from corrected GCMs is needed.

694 This study compared the three QM methods for daily precipitation events above the 95th
695 percentile (extreme precipitation) using the GEV distribution, as shown in Figure 10. The
696 results indicate that DQM tends to correct more extreme precipitation events than QDM,
697 aligning with previous findings that DQM captures a broader range of extremes. **The unique
698 characteristics of DQM caused these results. DQM overestimated the corrected extreme
699 precipitation due to the relative variability in the data introduced through detrending, and the
700 subsequent reintroduction of the long-term mean during the correction step widened the range
701 of extreme precipitation, leading to overestimation compared to the reference data in areas with
702 high variability.** At the same time, QDM and EQM take a more conservative approach (as noted
703 in previous studies such as Cannon et al., 2015). These findings suggest that EQM and QDM
704 may be more suitable in regions vulnerable to floods and extreme weather events that require
705 a more balanced and cautious approach. However, when comparing the differences in GEV
706 distributions, there was no significant difference between methods in regions like Oceania and
707 Europe (see Figure 9). These results imply that EQM can better handle extreme values or
708 outliers in the data by directly comparing and correcting past and future distributions. **In
709 particular, EQM is consistent with previous studies in that it more accurately corrects observed
710 distributions in non-stationary and highly variable climate variables, such as precipitation
711 (Thiemeßl et al., 2012; Maraun, 2013; Gudmundsson et al., 2012). These positive aspects are
712 mainly due to EQM's ability to align the empirical ECDFs of reference and model data across
713 all quantiles, allowing it to correct biases with high precision at both central tendencies and
714 extremes.** Although there are significant advantages in observing the results of the correction
715 method in detail from various perspectives, presenting these results without integrating them
716 into a reasonable framework can increase confusion and uncertainty in climate change research

717 (Wu et al., 2022). Therefore, it is essential to introduce a structured framework such as MCDA
718 to provide a single integrated result.

719

720 **4.2 Uncertainties of model and ensemble prediction in bias correction methods**

721 In climate modeling, quantifying uncertainty is essential to assess the reliability of bias-
722 corrected precipitation data. This study applied BMA to quantify the uncertainty of three QM
723 methods on a continental basis, addressing both model-specific and ensemble prediction
724 uncertainties. Similar to the findings by Cannon et al. (2015), this analysis demonstrates how
725 different bias correction methods yield varying uncertainty levels based on the underlying
726 climate models. Notably, EQM showed the lowest weight variance across most continents,
727 which means that the inter-model uncertainty for 11 GCMs corrected by EQM is lower than
728 that of the other QM methods. The low uncertainty associated with EQM aligns with previous
729 studies like Themeßl et al. (2012), which found that EQM consistently reduced discrepancies
730 between modeled and observed data across regions. EQM's ability to manage extreme
731 precipitation and anomalous values based on observed distributions contributes to its reliability,
732 a feature also emphasized by Gudmundsson et al. (2012). On the other hand, **DQM showed the**
733 **highest weight variance across all continents, indicating more significant uncertainty when**
734 **applied to various GCMs. This uncertainty was particularly pronounced in regions with**
735 **complex climate conditions, such as Southeast Asia, East Africa, and the Alps in Europe. These**
736 **results align with Berg et al. (2022), who highlighted DQM's limitations in capturing long-term**
737 **climate trends and extreme events. The higher uncertainty associated with DQM suggests that,**
738 **while its detrending process is effective in correcting the mean, it may struggle in regions**
739 **dominated by nonlinear climate patterns, as it does not sufficiently account for all quantiles in**
740 **the distribution, particularly extremes, as noted by Cannon et al. (2015). QDM, though showing**
741 lower weight variance than DQM, still demonstrated higher uncertainty than EQM in regions
742 with diverse climate characteristics. These results are consistent with the study of Tong et al.
743 (2021), suggesting that QDM performs better under moderate precipitation scenarios. However,
744 the uncertainty may increase under highly variable or extreme weather conditions. Furthermore,
745 this study extended the uncertainty analysis to ensemble predictions, calculating the standard
746 deviation of daily precipitation for each continent using BMA. The EQM-based ensemble
747 consistently exhibited low standard deviations across all continents, indicating that EQM offers
748 the most stable and reliable precipitation predictions. This finding echoes the conclusions

749 drawn by Teng et al. (2015), where EQM provided more accurate and less uncertain projections.
750 In contrast, DQM presented the most significant prediction uncertainty, reinforcing the need
751 for caution when applying DQM in studies that require high-confidence data. These results
752 emphasize the importance of weighing performance and uncertainty when choosing a suitable
753 bias correction method. EQM's consistent performance in reducing uncertainty across model-
754 specific and ensemble forecasts highlights its robustness as a preferred choice for climate
755 research. However, the substantial uncertainty associated with DQM suggests that its use
756 should be limited to regions where its detrending process can be beneficial. Overall, these
757 findings stress the critical role of uncertainty quantification in climate change impact
758 assessments and underscore the need for selecting bias correction methods based on a
759 comprehensive evaluation of both performance and uncertainty.

760

761 **4.3 Integrated assessment of bias correction methods**

762 This study selected the optimal QM method for each continent based on the CI, which considers
763 uncertainty and performance. The critical point is that uncertainty is decisive when selecting a
764 bias correction method. As shown in Figure 19, the optimal correction method varies depending
765 on the continent, and the selected method also changes depending on the weight. These results
766 suggest that uncertainty still exists, as Berg et al. (2022) pointed out, and that uncertainty must
767 be considered when selecting the optimal method. In other words, even if the QM method has
768 high performance, it is difficult to make a reasonable selection if the uncertainty contained in
769 the method is significant. Overall, EQM showed the highest CI value in all continents, which
770 means that it provides the most balanced results in terms of performance and uncertainty. These
771 results are consistent with previous studies (Lafon et al., 2013; Teutschbein and Seibert, 2012;
772 Teng et al., 2015) that showed high precipitation correction accuracy and excellent
773 performance, especially under complex climate conditions. QDM was evaluated highly in some
774 regions but performed worse than EQM overall. Berg et al. (2022) also pointed out that QDM
775 is superior in general climate conditions but may perform worse in extreme climate situations,
776 suggesting that this may increase the uncertainty of QDM in extreme climates. DQM was
777 evaluated as an unsuitable method in most regions due to low CI values, which is consistent
778 with the limitations of DQM mentioned in Cannon et al. (2015) and Berg et al. (2022). It was
779 confirmed that DQM performs relatively well in dry climates but may perform worse in various
780 climate conditions. In addition, some differences were observed with the results based on

781 TOPSIS. For example, DQM was selected more than QDM in South America, but when the
782 uncertainty weight was applied, QDM was selected more. Conversely, in Oceania, QDM was
783 selected more than DQM, but when the uncertainty weight was increased to 0.7, DQM was
784 selected more. These results are consistent with those of Lafferty and Srivier (2023), showing
785 that when significant uncertainty exists, uncertainty can be greater despite high bias correction
786 performance. In conclusion, EQM is the most balanced method regarding performance and
787 uncertainty and will likely be preferred in future climate modeling studies. However, there may
788 be more suitable QM methods depending on the region, and a comprehensive evaluation with
789 various weights is needed. Therefore, when establishing climate change response strategies or
790 policy decisions, it is essential to take a multifaceted approach that considers uncertainty
791 together rather than relying on a single indicator or performance alone. It will enable more
792 reliable predictions and better decision-making.

793

794 **5. Conclusion**

795 This study corrected and compared historical daily precipitation from 11 CMIP6 GCMs using
796 three QM methods. Eleven statistical metrics were used to evaluate the precipitation
797 performance corrected by three QM methods, and TOPSIS was applied to select performance-
798 based priorities. BMA was applied to quantify model-specific and ensemble prediction
799 uncertainties. Additionally, suitable QM methods were selected and compared using a CI that
800 integrates TOPSIS performance scores with BMA uncertainty metrics. The conclusions of this
801 study are as follows:

- 802 1. EQM showed the highest overall index across all continents, indicating that it provides
803 the most balanced approach in terms of performance and uncertainty.
- 804 2. DQM effectively reproduced the dry climate in North Africa and parts of Central and
805 Southwest Asia but showed the highest uncertainty across all continents. These results
806 suggest that DQM may lose some long-term trend information, making it less reliable
807 in regions prone to extreme weather events.
- 808 3. QDM performed better in certain regions, such as Southeast Asia, and was selected
809 more often than DQM when uncertainty was given greater weight. QDM may be a
810 promising alternative in areas where uncertainty plays a significant role.

811 4. Selecting an appropriate QM is required for high performance, and significant
812 uncertainty can complicate rational decision-making. Therefore, a multifaceted
813 approach considering performance and uncertainty is essential in climate modeling.

814 In conclusion, EQM has emerged as the preferred method due to its balanced performance, but
815 this study emphasizes the importance of regional assessment and careful consideration of
816 uncertainty when selecting a QM method. Future research should integrate greenhouse gas
817 scenarios to improve the accuracy of climate predictions and provide a more comprehensive
818 understanding of future climate risks. **Based on the results of this study, future studies can
819 develop hybrid methodologies that combine the strengths of each QM.**

820

821 **Code and data availability**

822 Codes for benchmarking the xclim of python package are available from
823 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10685050> (Bourgault et al., 2024). Furthermore, the CI
824 proposed in this study, along with the TOPSIS and BMA used within it, is available at
825 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14351816> (Song, 2024b). The data used in this study are
826 publicly available from multiple sources. CMIP6 General Circulation Models (GCMs) outputs
827 were obtained from the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) data portal at [https://esgf-
828 node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/). Users can select data types such as climate variables, time series,
829 and experiment ID, which can be downloaded as NC files. Furthermore, CMIP6 GCMs output
830 can also be accessed in Eyring et al. (2016) The ERA5 reanalysis dataset used in this study is
831 available through the Copernicus Data Store (CDS) provided by ECMWF
832 ([https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-
833 levels?tab=overview](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels?tab=overview)). ERA5 is available at <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.bd0915c6> (Hersbach
834 et al., 2023). The daily precipitation datasets from CMIP6 GCM and ERA5 used in this study
835 are available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.27999167.v5> (Song, 2024c).

836

837 **Author contributions**

838 Young Hoon Song: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Funding acquisition,
839 Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. Eun Sung Chung: Formal
840 analysis, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Project administration, Supervision, Validation,
841 Writing-review & editing

842

843 **Declaration of Competing Interests**

844 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
845 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

846

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850

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