

# 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.

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

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

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

188

## 2.4 Evaluation metrics

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

197

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 $\alpha$ Variability error $\beta$ : 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,  $k$ ,  $\alpha$ , and  $\epsilon$  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.

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

242  $\sigma_{BMA}$  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).

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

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

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.

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

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  $\sigma_e$  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.  $\alpha$  represents the weight given  
293 to the performance score,  $\beta$  represents the weight given to the uncertainty indicator.  
294 Furthermore, by adjusting the weights  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , 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.

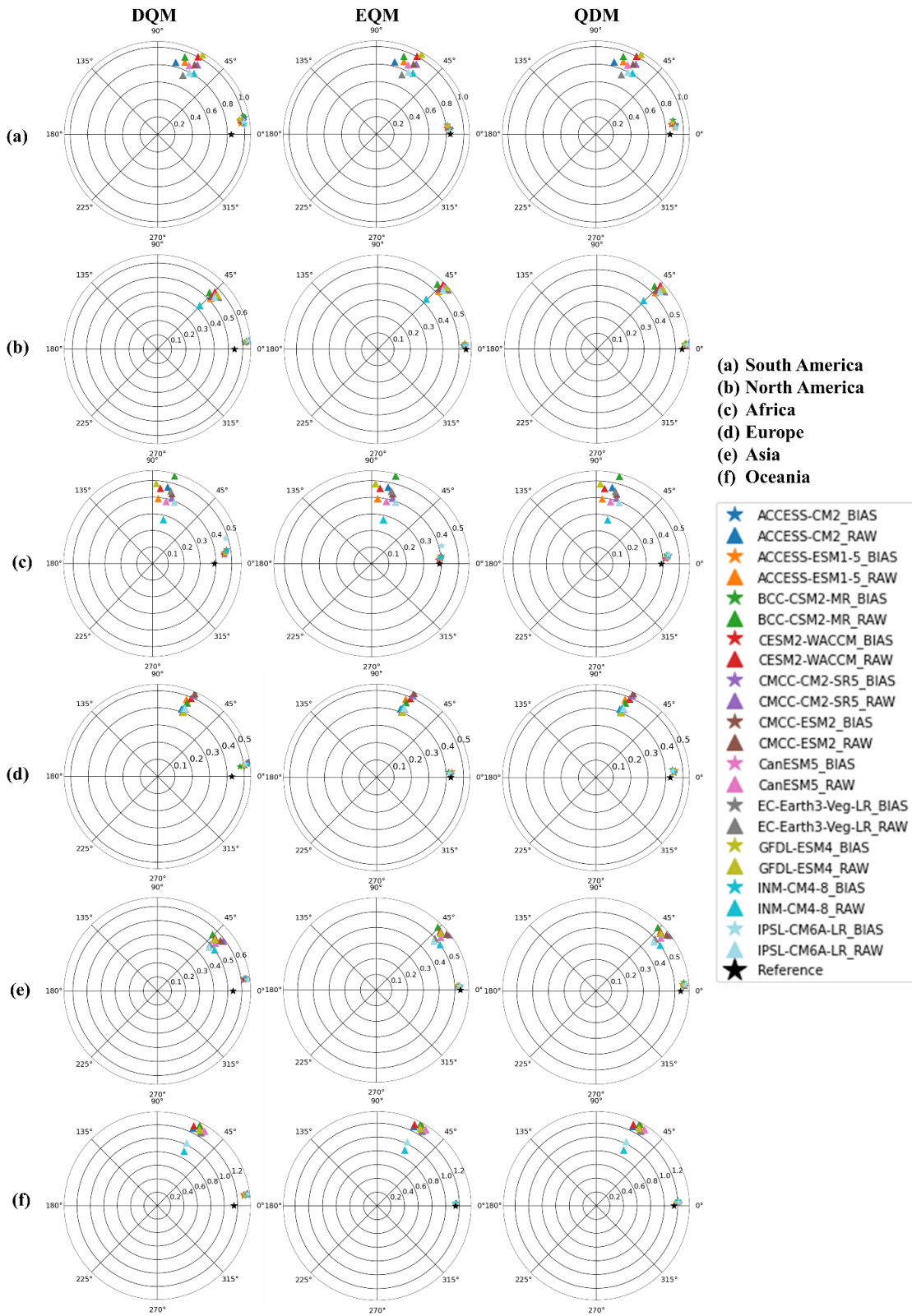
311 Regarding correlation coefficients, precipitation corrected by DQM showed relatively high  
312 values between 0.8 and 0.9 but lower than EQM and QDM. The precipitation corrected by  
313 EQM showed high agreement with the reference data, recording correlation coefficients above  
314 0.9 in most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



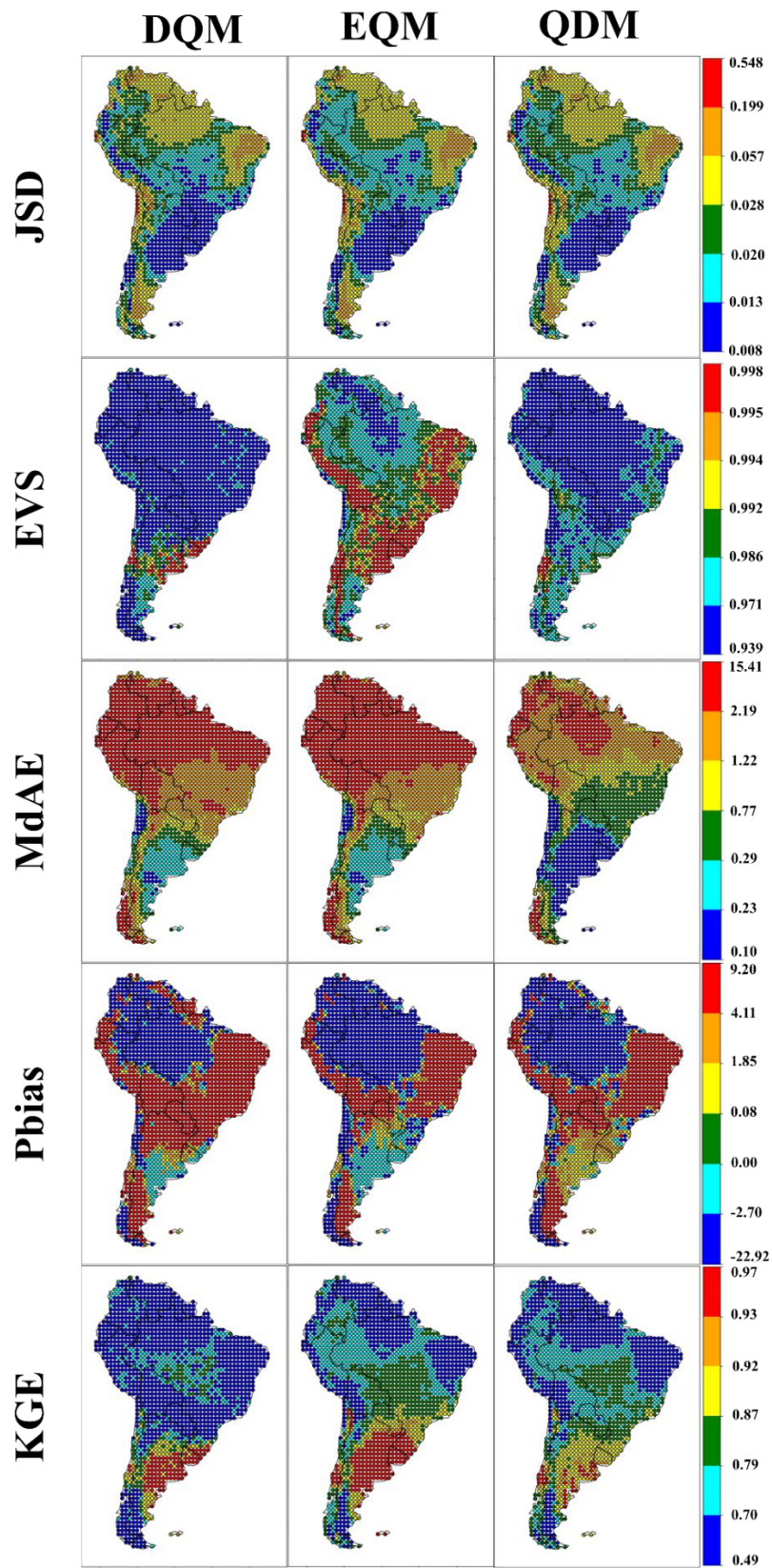
328

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.

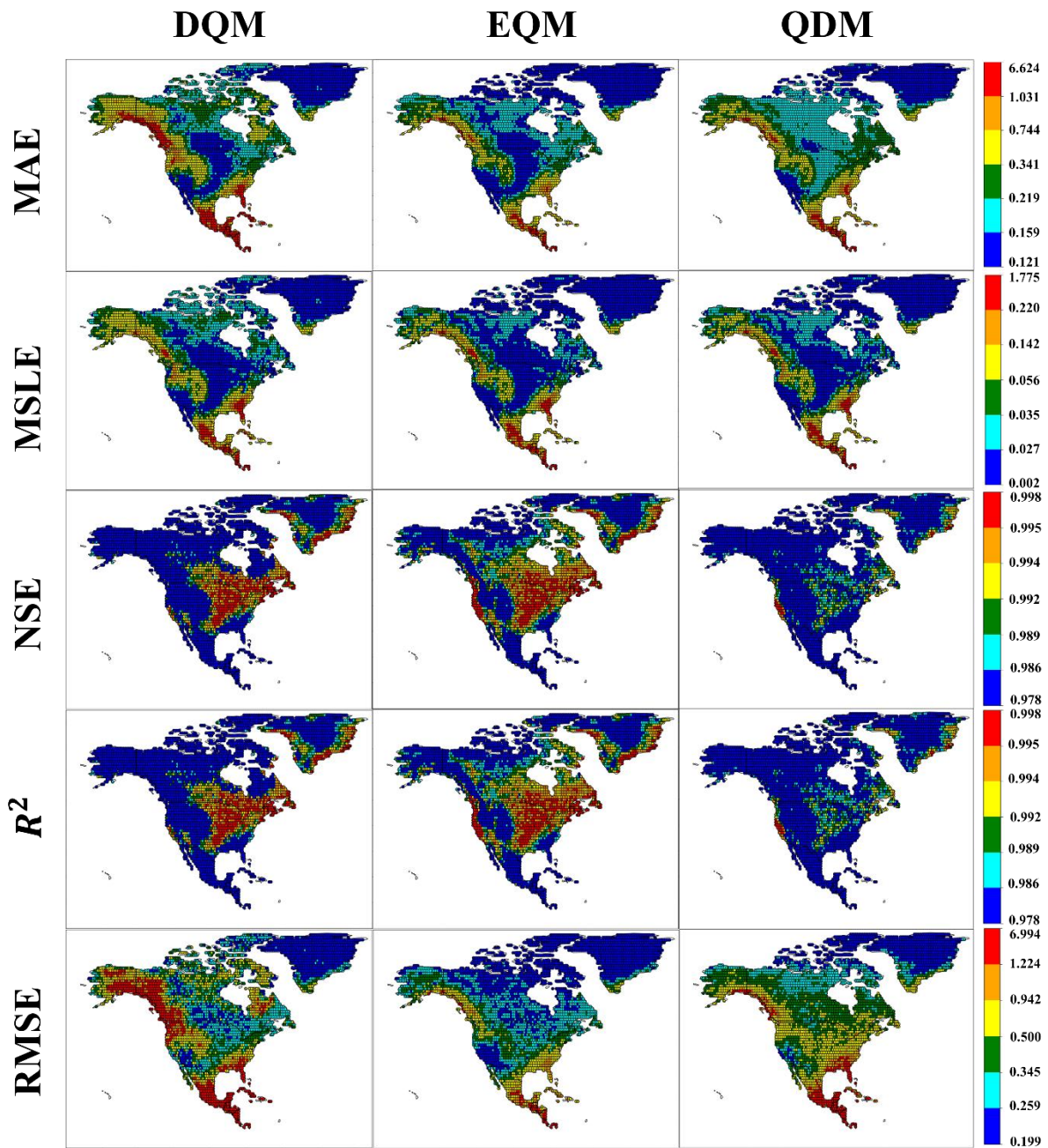
350 Figures 3 and S2 present the spatial patterns of these evaluation metrics, calculated for daily  
351 precipitation from the bias corrected GCMs in South America. Regarding error metrics (MAE,  
352 MSLE, RMSE, and MdAE), precipitation corrected using DQM showed relatively lower  
353 performance 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





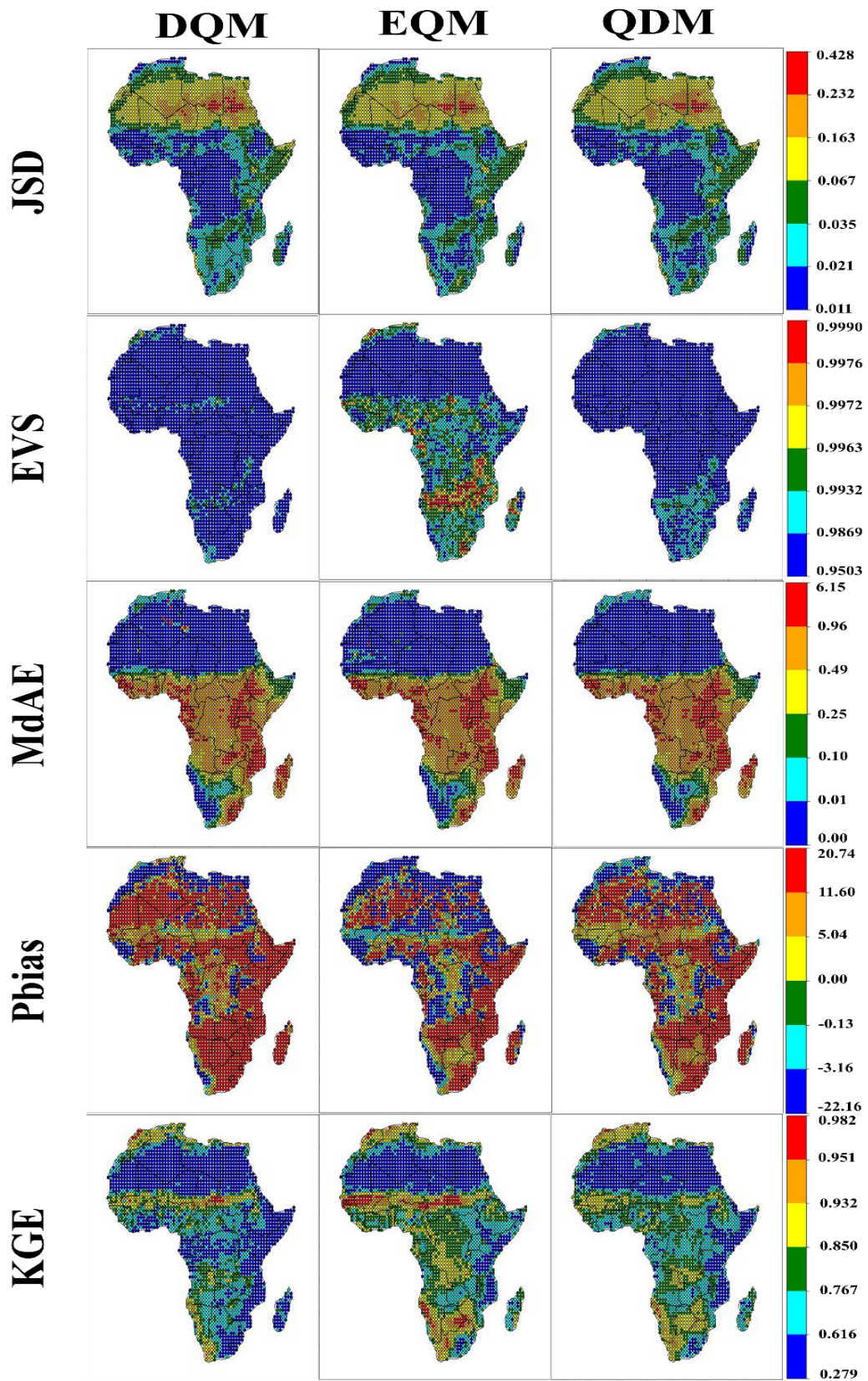
368

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.

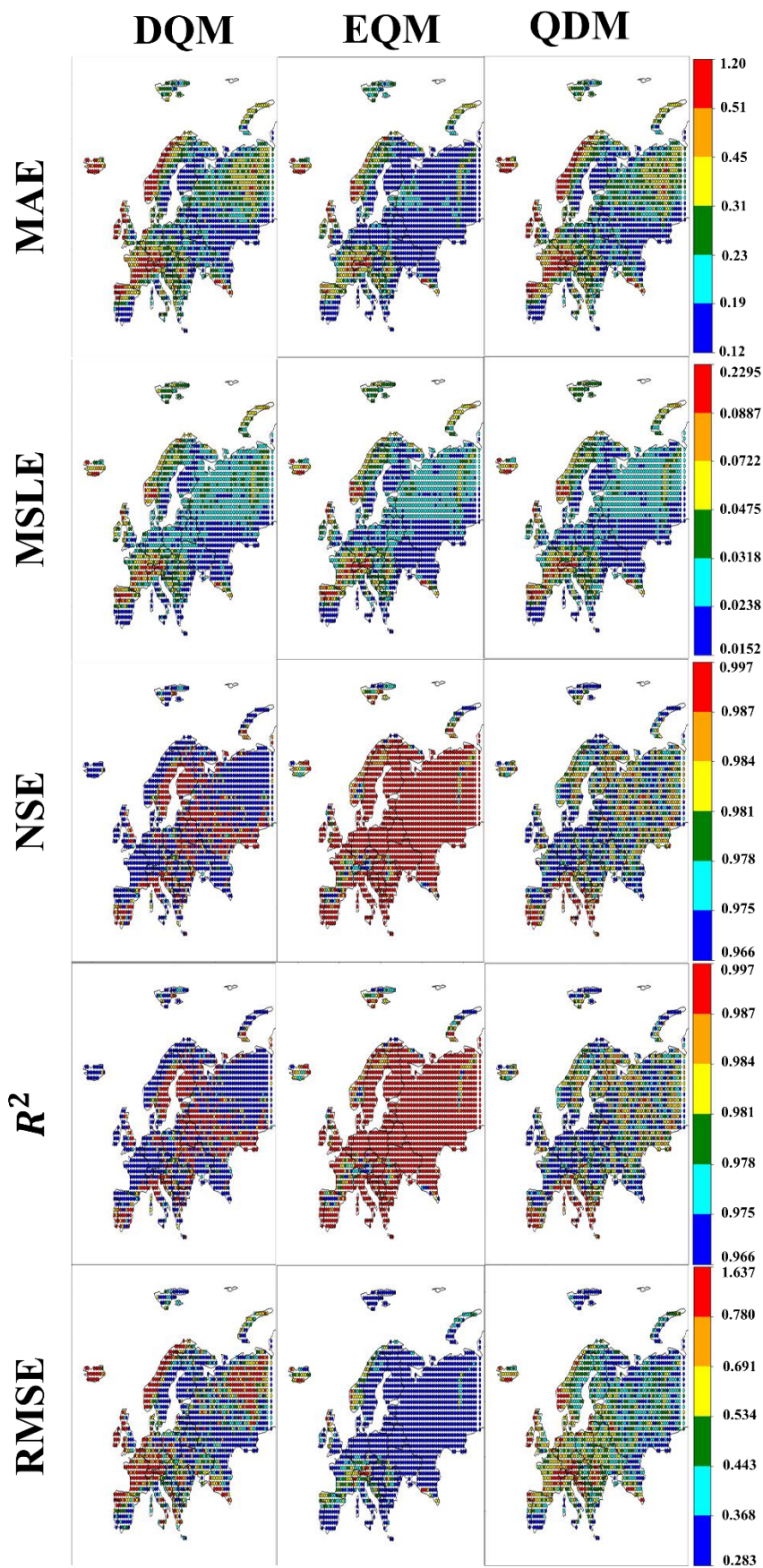


385

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

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

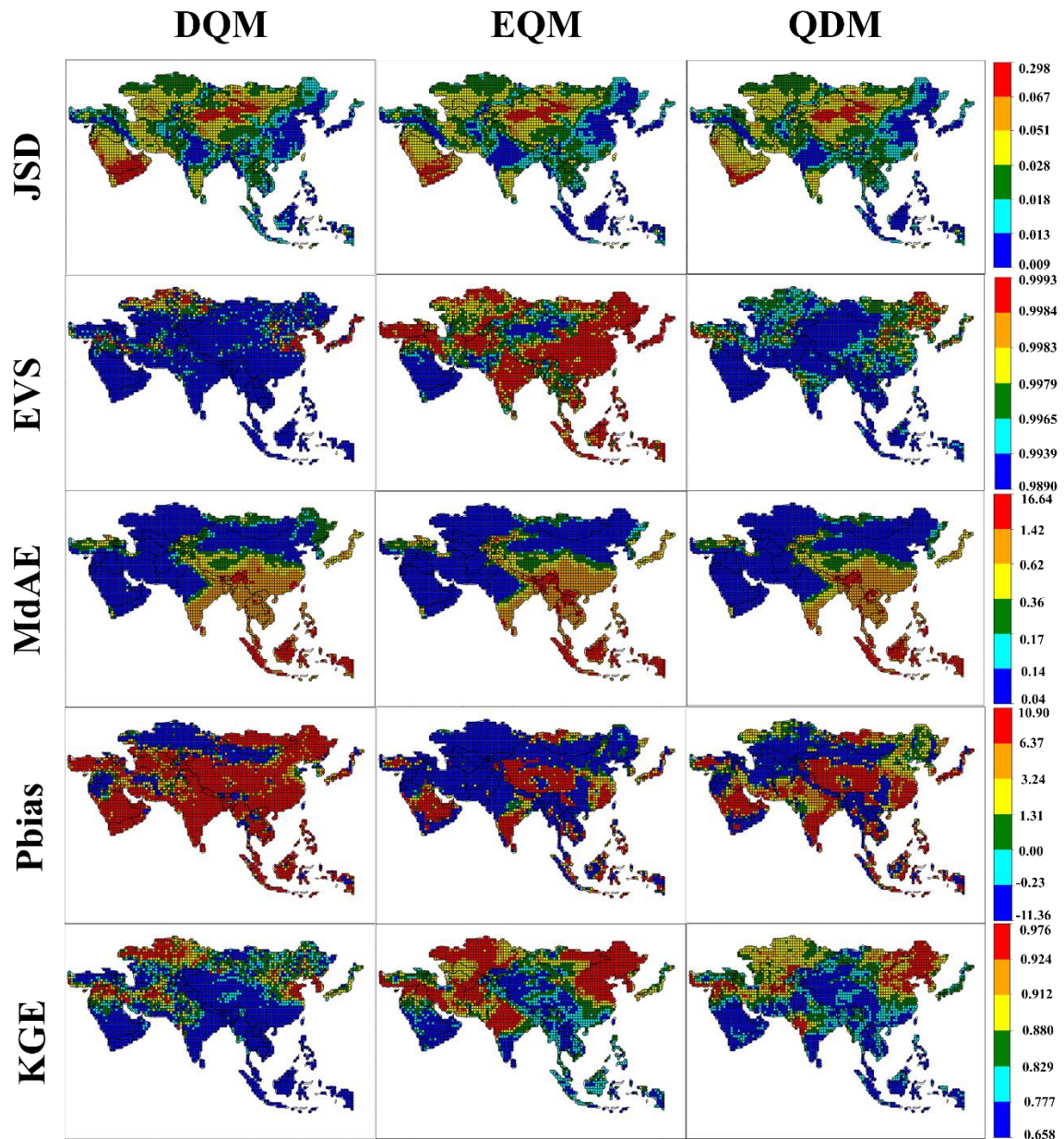
388 Figures 5 and S4 show the spatial results of the grid-based evaluation metrics for the European  
389 region. In terms of error metrics, EQM-corrected precipitation performed the best across  
390 Europe compared to other methods. In contrast, QDM-corrected precipitation performed  
391 similarly 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

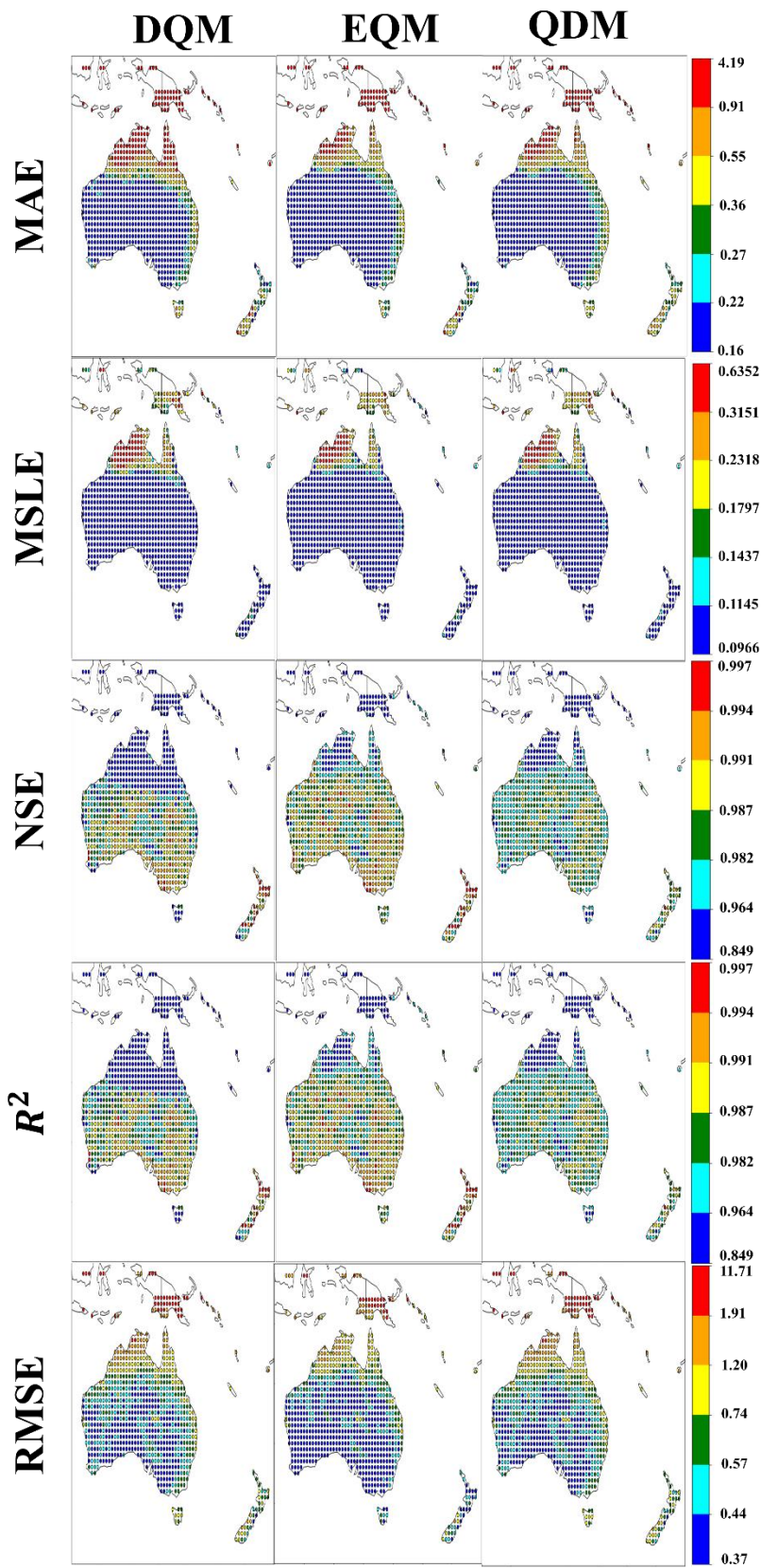
417 Figure 6. Performances of DQM, EQM, and QDM using evaluation metrics (JSD, EVS, MdAE,  
 418 Pbias, and KGE) for daily precipitation in Asia.

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

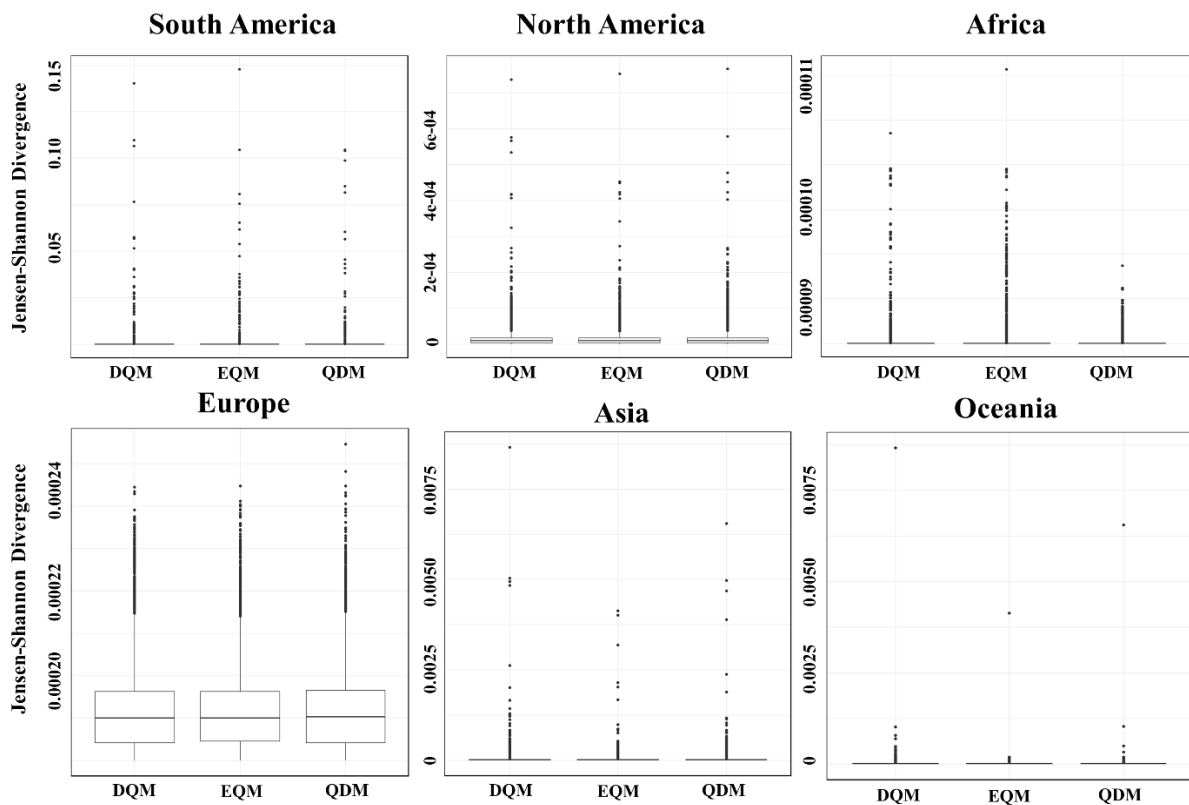
443 boxplots based on ten evaluation metrics

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



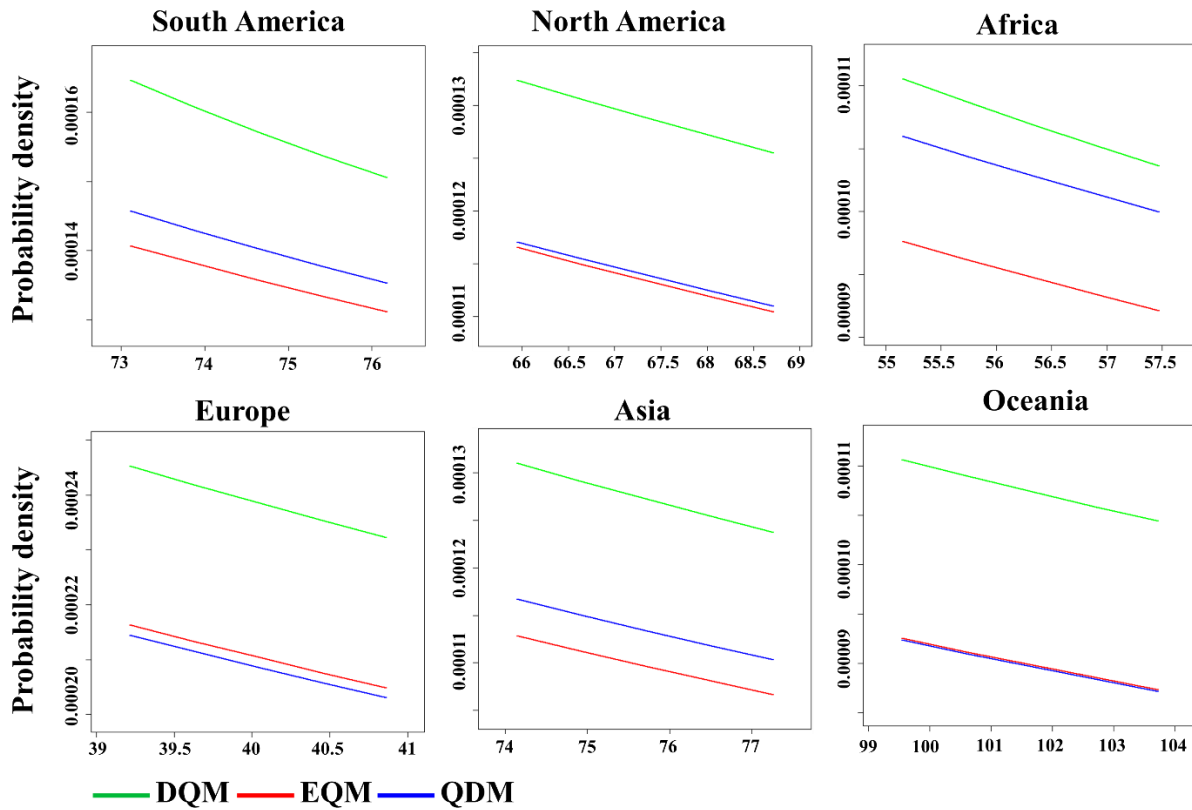
457

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

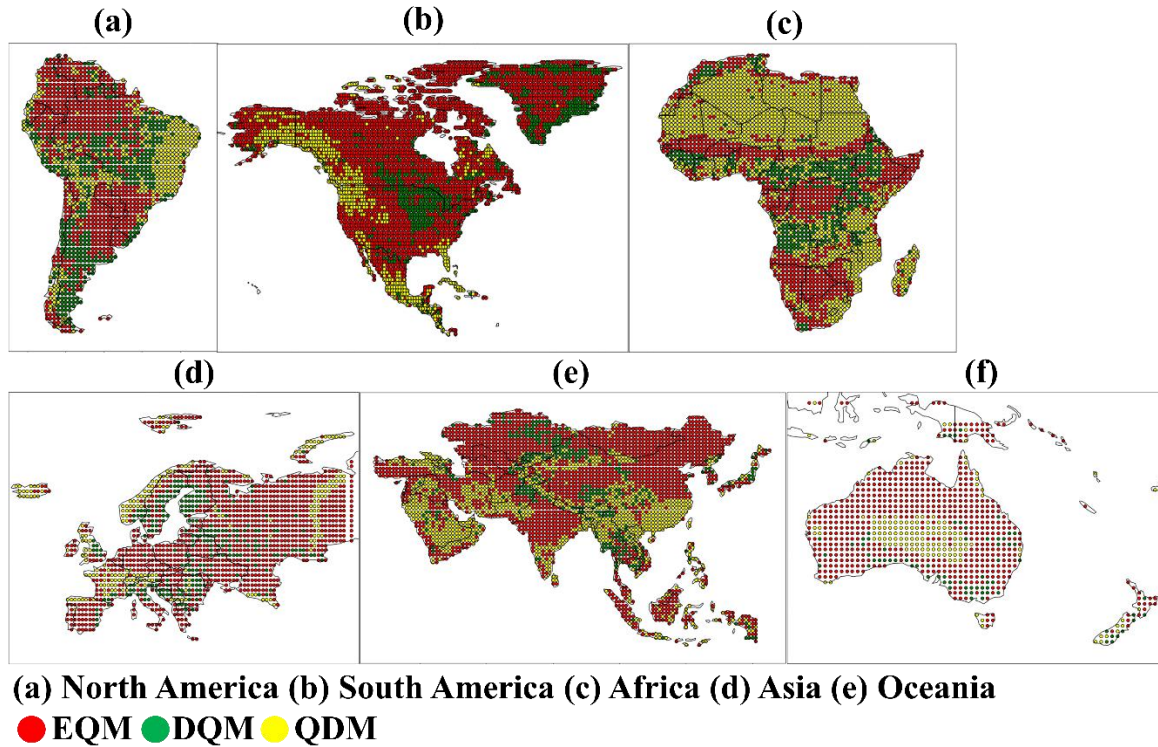
	RMS E	MAE	$R^2$	NSE	KGE	Pbias	MdAE	MSLE	EVS	JSD
South America	0.1439	0.1536	0.0001	0.0001	0.0005	0.0238	0.1754	0.1934	0.0004	0.3088
North America	0.2289	0.1908	0.0001	0.0001	0.0007	0.0118	0.2152	0.2117	0.0001	0.1411
Africa	0.1319	0.1686	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0855	0.2436	0.1911	0.0002	0.1786
Europe	0.2821	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

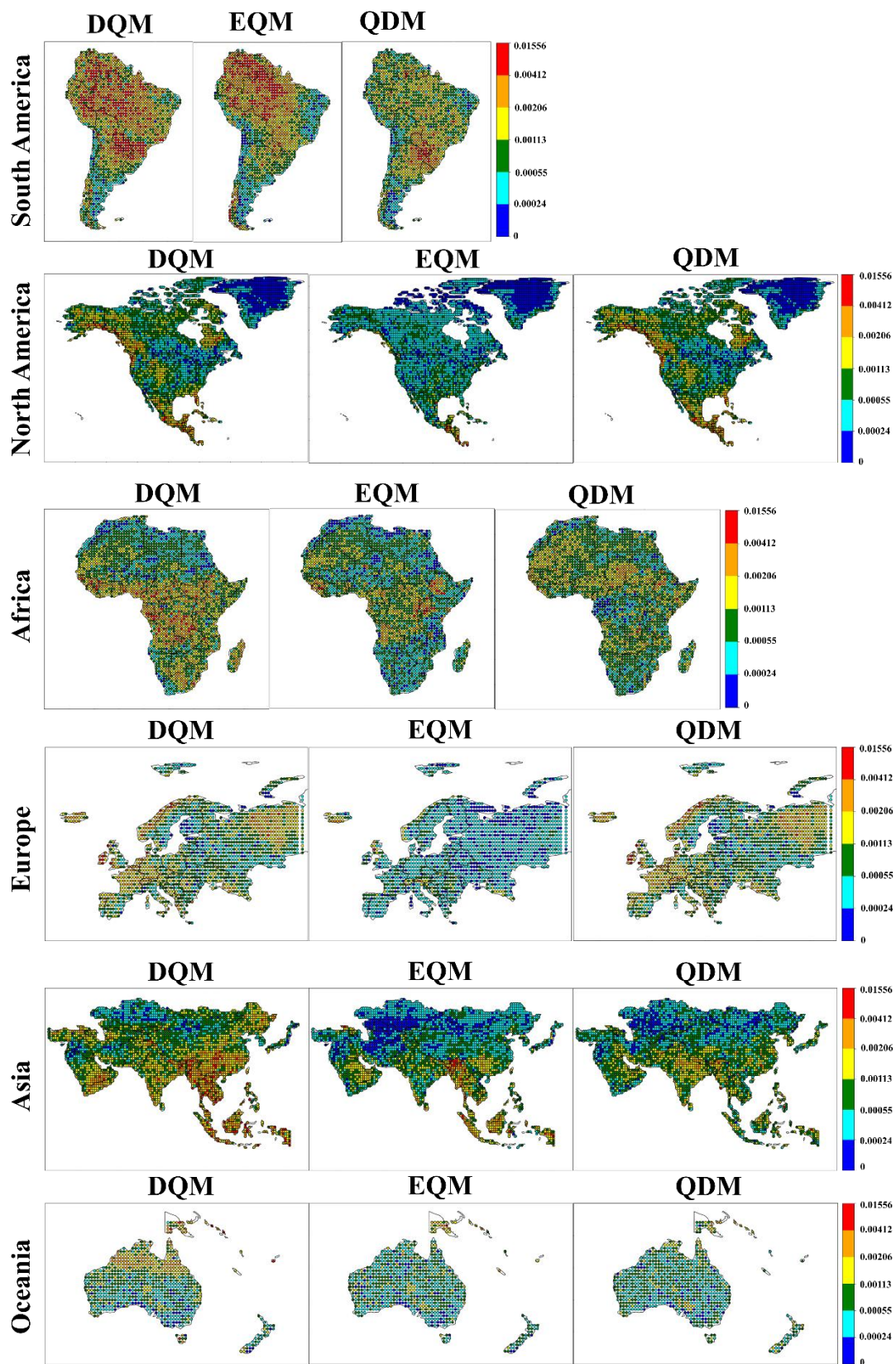
### 512 3.3 Uncertainty quantification of bias corrected daily precipitation

#### 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.



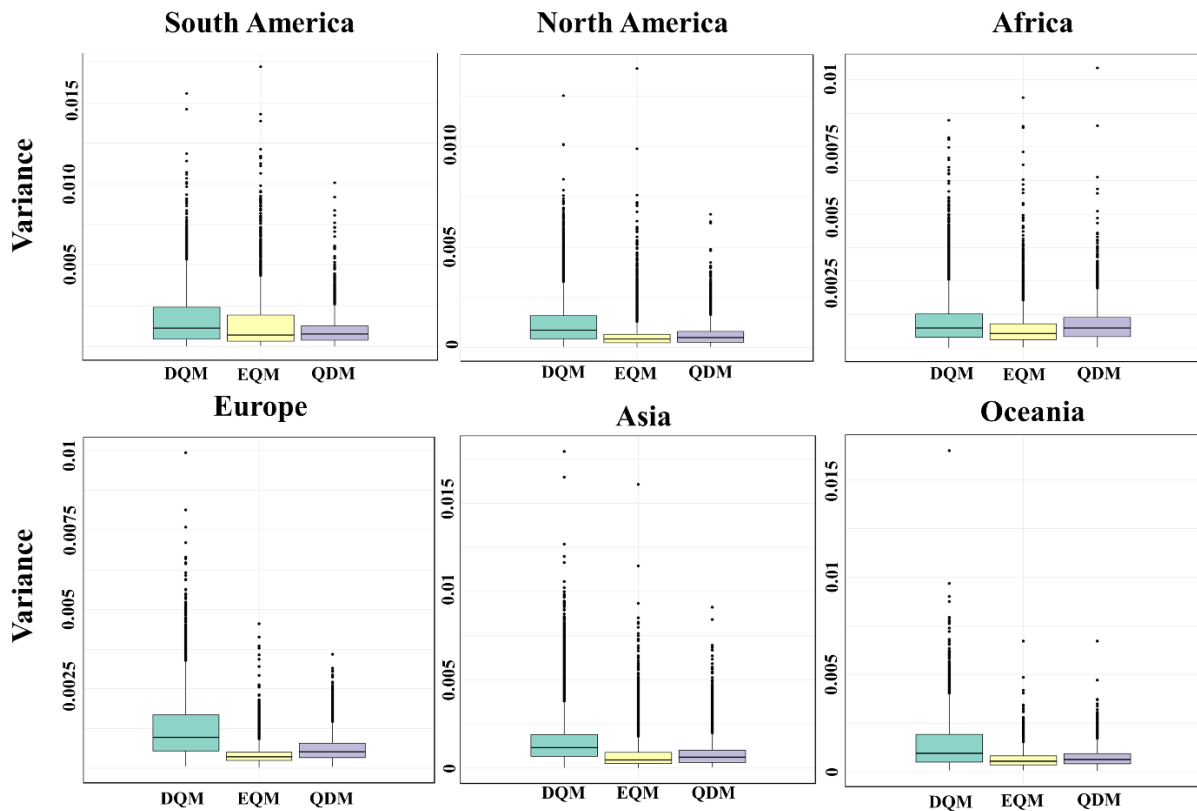


536

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

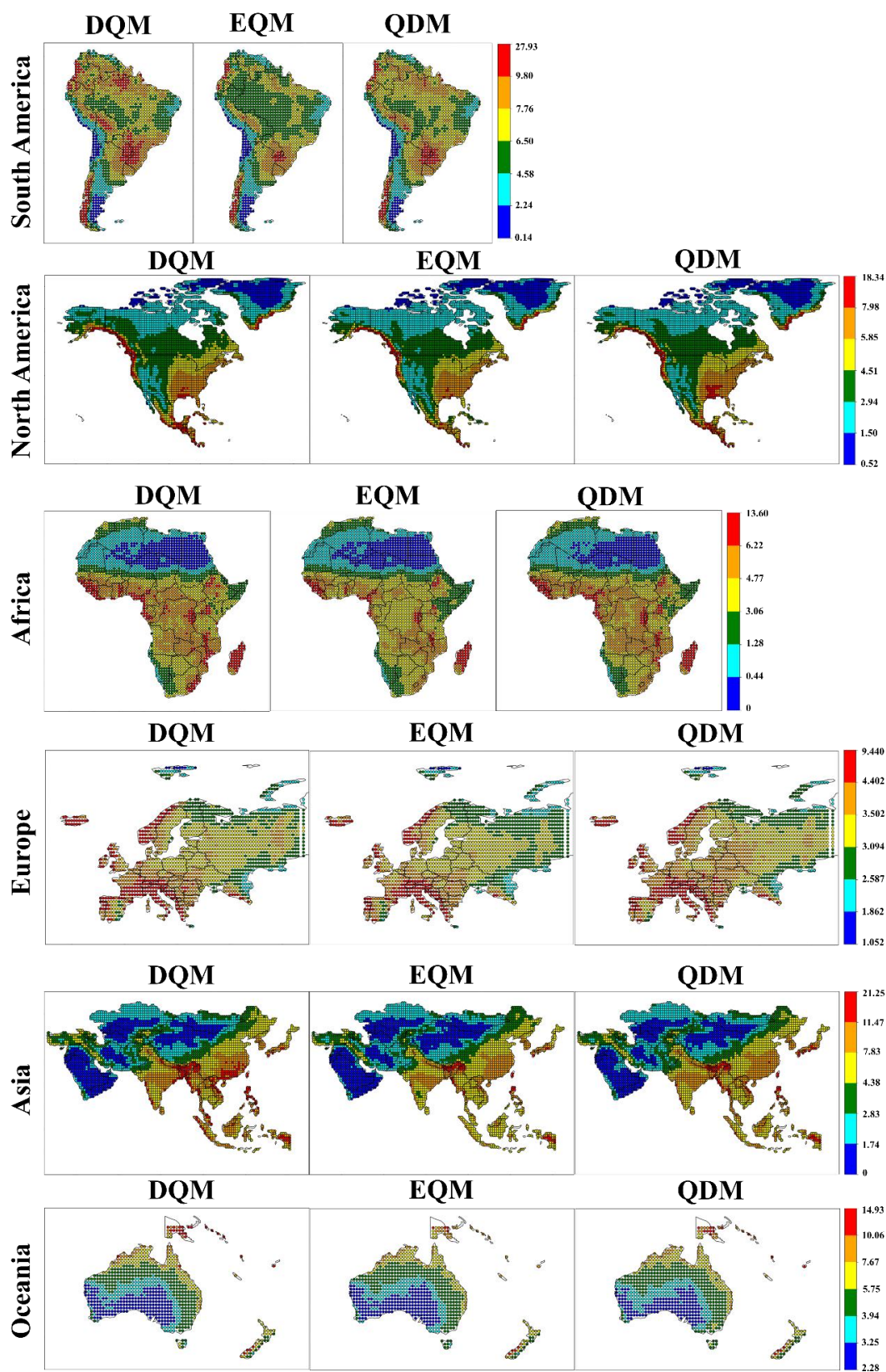


546  
 547 Figure 13. Weight variance for bias correction methods across six continents using box plots.  
 548

### 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.



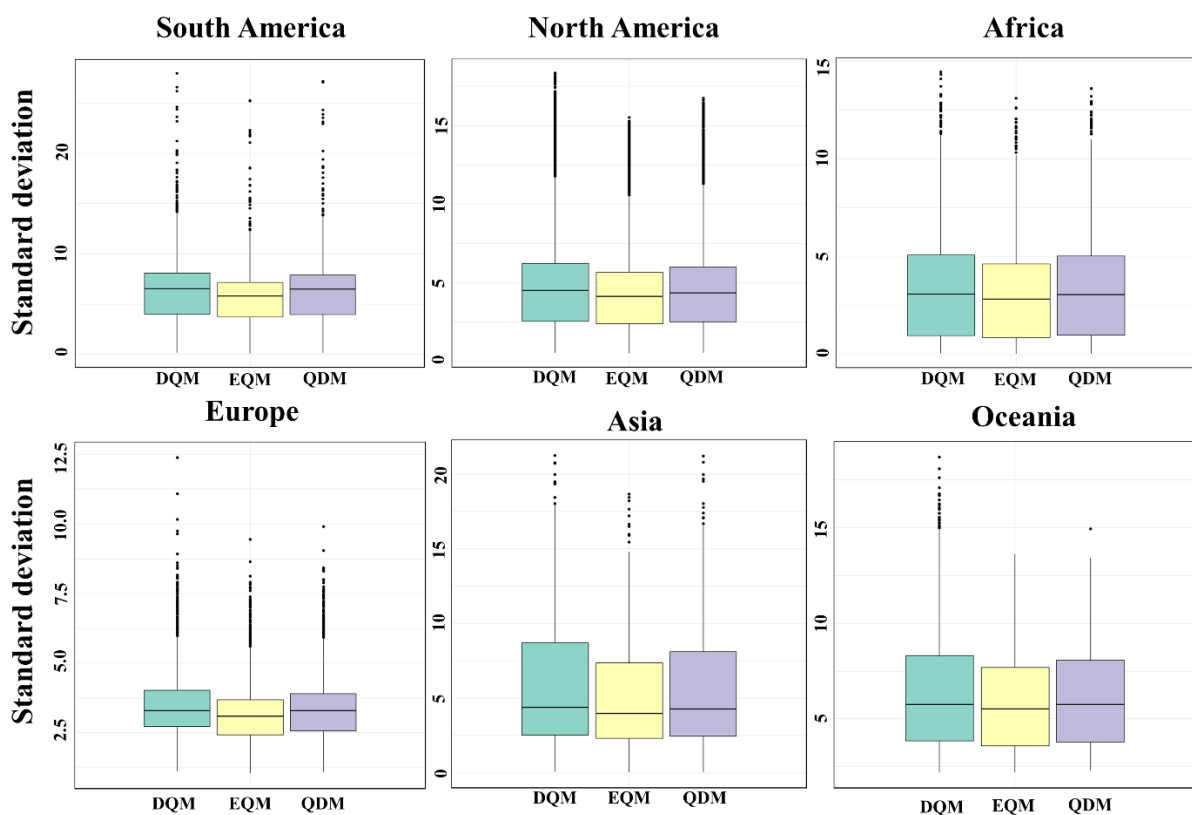
561

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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572

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

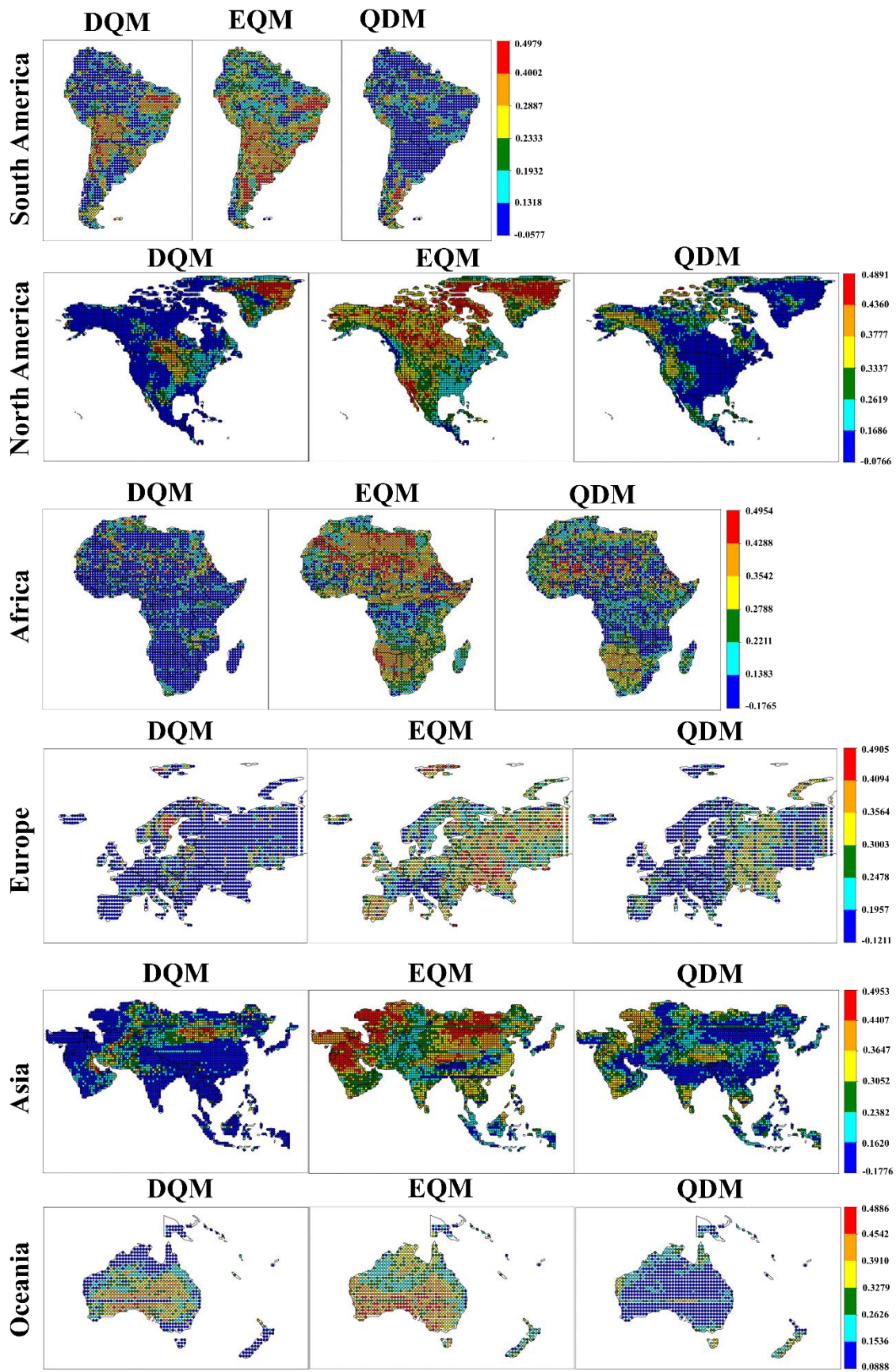
579 This study compared three QM methods by generating a CI based on three cases of weighting  
580 values that considered both model performance and uncertainty. Figures 16, S8, and S9 show

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.

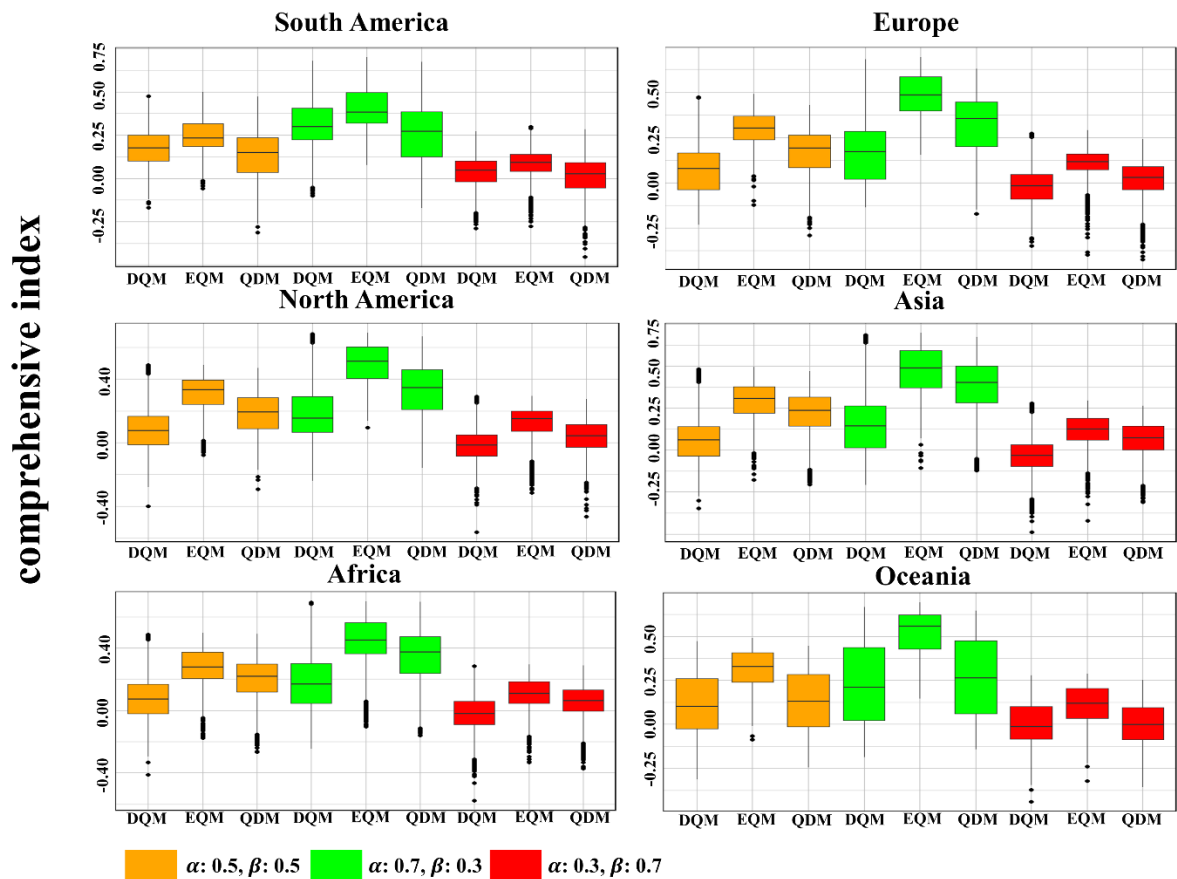
589 When weights that emphasized performance were applied, DQM showed a high index in the  
590 central part of South America but low performance in most continents. Nevertheless, DQM  
591 showed a better index than QDM in some parts of Oceania. EQM showed the best index across  
592 most continents. 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

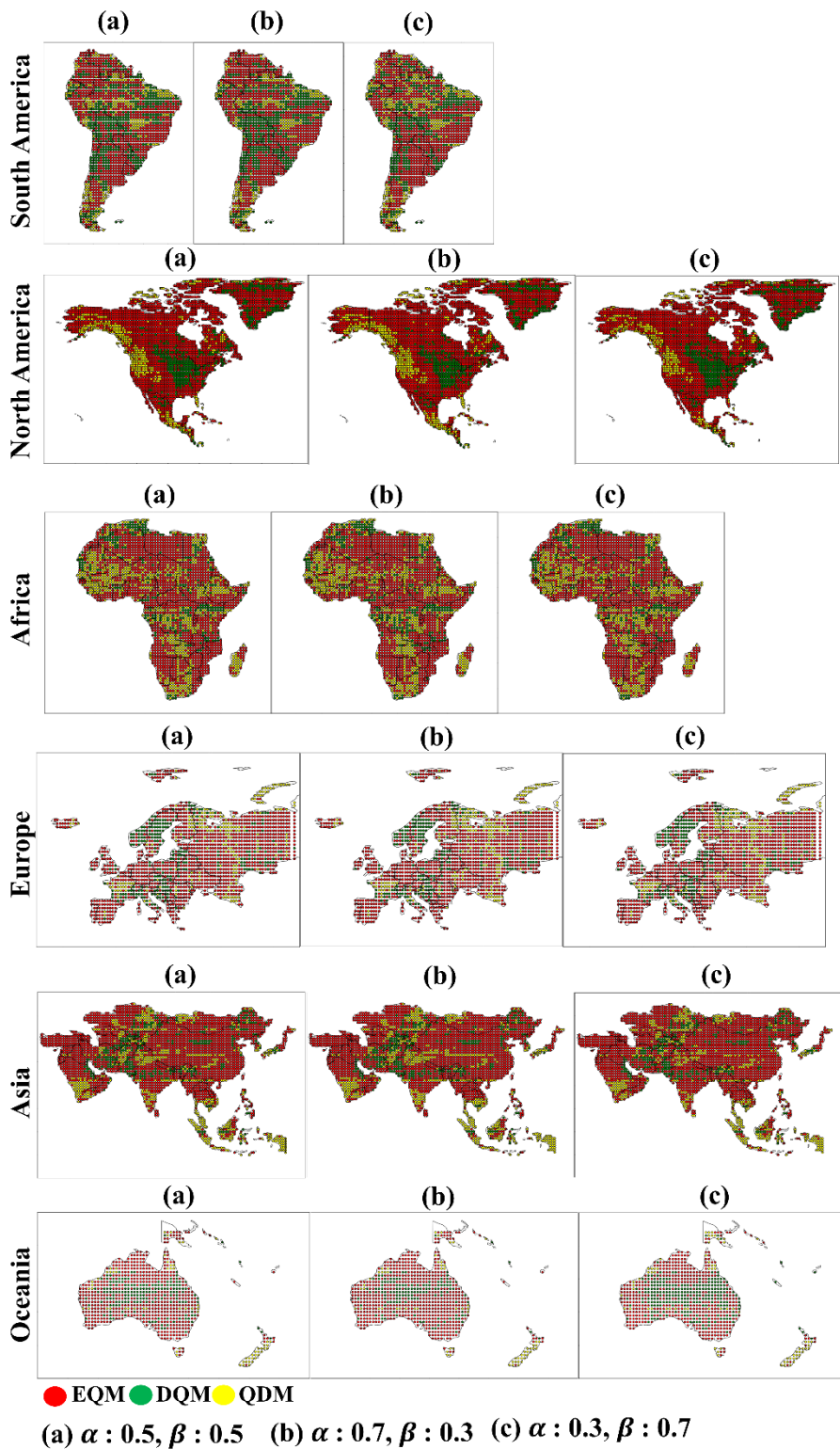


611  
 612 Figure 17. CI for three bias correction methods across continents with varying weights on  
 613 performance and uncertainty  
 614



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.



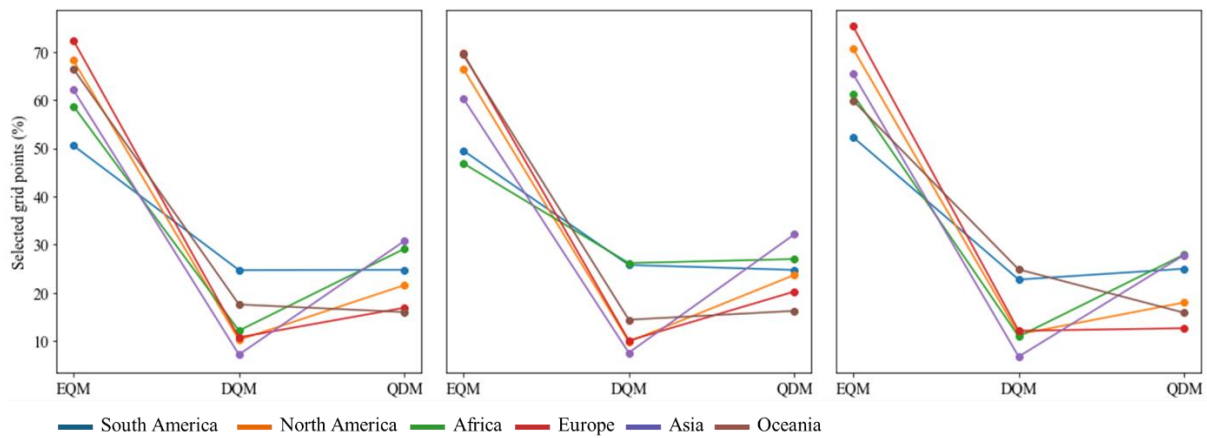
625

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 (Version 0.48.1) 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-  
829 node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/](https://esgf-<br/>828 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-<br/>833 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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