

Assessment of Various Bias Correction Methods on Precipitation of Regional Climate Model and Future Projection

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Research Article

Keywords: CORDEX, Precipitation, Future projection, Bias correction, Power transformation method, Thanjavur district

Posted Date: April 7th, 2021

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-339080/v1>

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3 **ASSESSMENT OF VARIOUS BIAS CORRECTION METHODS ON PRECIPITATION OF REGIONAL**
4 **CLIMATE MODEL AND FUTURE PROJECTION**

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8
9 **Abstract:**

10 The application of regional climate model simulations (RCMs) in climate change impact studies is
11 challengeable due to the risk of possible biases. Some sort of correction needs to be done prior to the application of
12 RCM simulations. This study attempts to assess the performance of a simple (linear scaling and Delta Change
13 method) and complex correction technique (Local intensity scaling, Power transformation and Distribution
14 mapping) on CORDEX(Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment)simulated precipitation series for
15 the Thanjavur district. The performance at annual resolution is evaluated using various statistical parameters such as
16 Correlation, Root Mean Square Error and Bias against the observed precipitation data. The raw RCM estimates were
17 improved significantly after the bias correction with all methods. However, Power transformation exhibits good
18 agreement with the observed data at the district level than other methods because it corrects both the mean and
19 variance. The future climate was projected from 2021 to 2100 for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios. The temporal
20 distribution of future precipitation clearly shows that most of the years will receive heavy precipitation; rather, some
21 years will receive low and average precipitation. The spatial distribution pattern indicates that the northeast
22 monsoon will dominate over all the ranges and places. This study has provided clear information on future
23 precipitation to the environmentalist, urban planners, and policymakers to take appropriate mitigation measures
24 towards agriculture and disaster management. Rainwater harvesting, recharging the aquifers, afforestation, and
25 redirecting the excess amount of water to the river through proper channels is the plausible actions suggested
26 overcoming excessive precipitation in the future.

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30 Keywords: CORDEX, Precipitation, Future projection, Bias correction, Power transformation method, Thanjavur
31 district

1.0 Introduction:

Climate change, a complex phenomenon and critical issue being faced by the earth, has posed immense threats to the ecological and human environment. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) reported that in the past few decades, global temperature, precipitation patterns and the occurrence of disasters such as cyclones, droughts, floods and heatwaves had risen notably in terms of both frequency and severity (IPCC 2013; Prusty et al. 2018). Though climate change is a long-term event, its impact may be imperceptibly gradual and steady. Therefore, evaluating its effects and susceptibility to adaptation requires better knowledge about the future climate. The research community worldwide is currently using coarse and high-resolution climate models for climate predictions and assessment (Giorgi et al. 2018). In general, the coarse resolution Global Climate Models (GCMs) has shortcomings in capturing regional orographic characteristics. In contrast, high-resolution Regional Climate Models (RCMs) reflect improved orography and generate more accurate climate projection. Hence commonly used to evaluate the past, present and future climates across the world (Kumar et al. 2013).

Accordingly, the Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment (CORDEX), a coordinated initiative involving several countries worldwide, produces various regional and local climate simulations (Giorgi et al. 2009). Even though RCM simulations are driven using multiple GCMs with the improved horizontal resolution, it yields errors. Biases are due to the uncertainty in physical parameterizations, lateral boundary conditions, initial condition limitation, numerical model imperfectness, and so on (Giorgi et al. 1999; Christensen et al. 2008; Rauscher et al. 2010; Hall et al. 2014). In consequence, reduces the reliability and increases the uncertainty in using the RCM simulations directly as input data for climate change studies (Noguer et al. 1998). However, earlier studies have concluded that the climate model outputs shall be refined by applying statistical corrections (Veijalainen et al. 2010; Dosio et al. 2011; Hanel et al. 2011; Monhart et al. 2018; Pontoppidan et al. 2018). Researchers use multiple bias correction methods for reducing model errors and also to downscale the GCM data. The techniques vary from basic scaling to very complex methods like weather generators, probability mapping, etc. Overall, bias correction methods use the transformation algorithm for correcting the RCMs output by identifying the bias between observed and simulated data. The derived bias correction algorithm and parameterization are also used to correct the RCM projection scenarios (Chen et al. 2011b; Johnson et al. 2011).

In general, corrections are made by correcting the mean, wet day frequencies and percentile on the simulated data with reference to the observed data (Gudmundsson et al. 2012; Teutschbein et al. 2012, 2013; Chen et al. 2013). Based on the mean, standard deviation, and coefficient of variation of the observed data, Terink et al. (2009) adjusted the daily RCM-simulated precipitation and temperature data for the Rhine basin. The distribution mapping method was used to adjust the RCM simulated daily precipitation dataset over Europe and found that this method worked relatively well under normal and extreme conditions (Piani et al. 2010). Themeßl et al. (2012) found that quantile mapping and local intensity scaling (LOCI) methods effectively correct the Alpine region's daily precipitation simulation by analyzing seven bias correction techniques. Similarly, Bennett et al. (2011) also used quantile mapping to correct annual and seasonal RCM rainfall deviations in Australia and noted an improved spatial distribution after correction. To reduce the bias of RCM-simulated precipitation for seven catchments across the United Kingdom, Lafon et al. (2013) assessed linear, nonlinear, gamma and quantile mapping based on empirical distribution methods. The RCM simulated precipitation dataset has also been corrected using distribution, parametric and nonparametric transformations for 83 stations in Norway by Gudmundsson et al. (2012). N'Tcha M'Po et al. (2016) found that the empirical-based quantile mapping approach works better than Gamma-based quantile mapping to correct extreme precipitation. Three distinct processes, such as linear scaling, regression and empirical quantile mapping, were compared to select the most effective method over the Northwest Himalayas using four statistical measurements by Devi et al. (2021). Thus, most research is conducted to identify the best method that shows good agreement with observed data. Accordingly, in the present study, linear scaling, local intensity scaling, power transformation, distribution mapping, and delta-change methods are evaluated on REMO 2009 RCM. The projection of precipitation using the best bias correction method RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios is carried out.

2.0 Study area:

Thanjavur district located between 9° 50' and 11° 25' North and 78° 45' and 79° 25' East with the total geographical area of 3,602.86 sq. km has been studied. The region possesses three rainy seasons such as

102 summer rain (March-May), South-West monsoon (June-September) and North-East monsoon (October-Early
 103 January). Amongst, the North-East monsoon (545.7 mm of normal rainfall) and the South-West monsoon (342
 104 mm of normal rainfall) plays a significant role in feeding the river Cauvery, the primary source of irrigation of
 105 the study area. The area is unique for its agricultural activities from time immemorial and is renowned as
 106 the granary of South India. Besides the river Cauvery, the area has been crisscrossed by a network of irrigation
 107 channels. Hence, this coastal district is flourishing in paddy fields, coconut and mango groves, plantain trees
 108 and other vegetation. However, in recent times, agriculture seems to get destabilized due to uncertain climatic
 109 conditions. The study area map shows 14 blocks with 17 well-distributed rain gauge stations around the district
 110 (Figure1).

111 3.0 Materials and Methods:

112 The four steps methodology has adopted in this study (Figure 2).

113 3.1 Collection of observed and model data:

114 In this study, the daily precipitation data were collected for 30 years (1976 – 2005) from the Indian
 115 Meteorological Department (IMD). The obtained data was found with some gaps. Hence observed proxy data
 116 (APHRODITE - Asian Precipitation – Highly –Resolved Observational Data Integration Towards Evaluation)
 117 (<http://aphrodite.st.hirosaki-u.ac.jp/>) and reanalysis data (ERA - INTERIM)
 118 (<https://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/data/interim-full-daily/levtype=sfc/>) were collected, and the annual mean compared
 119 against the observed data. In that, APHRODITE data has shown a high correlation of 0.73 with the observed data.
 120 Thus, observed IMD data was primarily used in the present study, while the data gaps were filled with
 121 APHRODITE data.

122 CORDEX is a global programme for localized climate change scenarios. CORDEX South Asia domain
 123 experiment consists of eleven distinct suites, with different RCMs driven by various initial and boundary
 124 forcing GCMs. Within the context of CORDEX, the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology is extending its regional
 125 climate model REMO to many regions of the planet. This study employed the daily precipitation datasets of the
 126 REMO 2009 simulations driven by the MPI-MPI-ESM-LR driving model of CORDEX-SOUTH ASIA domain
 127 (WAS-44i; ~50 km horizontal resolution). The data is available in the Earth Systems Grid Federation (ESGF) under
 128 the CORDEX project (<https://esgf-index1.ceda.ac.uk/search/esgf-ceda/>).

129 3.2 Selection of bias correction techniques:

130 As stated earlier, datasets were collected on daily observed data (IMD) and RCM Simulated precipitation
 131 for a control period of 30 years (1976–2005) for bias correction. Hereafter, the RCM simulated data for the
 132 historical period will be called 'control data' and for the future period as 'scenario data'. Amongst various bias
 133 correction methods, the following were used to adjust the control data in the present study (1) linear scaling, (2)
 134 local intensity scaling, (3) power transformation, (4) distribution mapping and (5) delta-change approach.

135 3.2.1 Linear scaling of precipitation (LS):

136 LS is the most straightforward bias correction technique employed in several studies (Ines et al. 2006;
 137 Teutschbein et al. 2012; Shrestha et al. 2015). It adjusts the RCM mean value with a perfect agreement with the
 138 observation data. The control and scenario precipitation are then adjusted based on the ratio between the long-term
 139 monthly mean observed and control/scenario data using equations (1) and (2), respectively. However, this approach
 140 can correctly adjust the climatic factors only when the monthly mean values are included.
 141

$$142 \quad P_{control}^*(d) = P_{control}(d) \cdot \left[\frac{\mu_m(P_{observed}(d))}{\mu_m(P_{control}(d))} \right] \quad (1)$$

$$143 \quad P_{scenario}^*(d) = P_{scenario}(d) \cdot \left[\frac{\mu_m(P_{observed}(d))}{\mu_m(P_{control}(d))} \right] \quad (2)$$

144 Where, P = precipitation; (d) = daily time series; μ = mean and P^* = final bias corrected.

145 3.2.2 Local intensity scaling (LOCI) of precipitation:

146 The LOCI method introduced by Schmidli et al. (2006) extends the linear scaling method a step forward.
 147 Added to the mean, it also adjusts wet-day frequencies and wet-day intensities of precipitation. The precipitation
 148 intensity threshold ($P_{th, control}$) for every month is initially confirmed. Then, the number of wet days in control data
 149 that exceeds the threshold will be adjusted based on the number of days the observed precipitation was determined.
 150 The number of precipitation events for control and scenario run is corrected by applying the calibrated RCM
 151 precipitation threshold ($P_{th, control}$) using Equations (3) and (4), respectively. This approach virtually eliminates the
 152 drizzle effect because excessive drizzly days are frequently added to the RCM outputs.
 153

$$154 \quad P_{control}^{*1}(d) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } P_{control}(d) < P_{th, control} \\ P_{control}(d), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

$$155 \quad P_{scenario}^{*1}(d) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } P_{scenario}(d) < P_{th, control} \\ P_{scenario}(d), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

156 A scaling factor s is then calculated using equation (5) to confirm that the mean of corrected precipitation is equal to
 157 observed data.

$$158 \quad s = \frac{\mu_m(P_{observed}(d) | P_{observed}(d) > 0 \text{ mm})}{\mu_m(P_{control}(d) | P_{control}(d) > P_{th, control}) - P_{th, control}} \quad (5)$$

159 Finally, both control and scenario precipitations are corrected using equation (6) and (7), respectively.

$$160 \quad P_{control}^*(d) = P_{control}^{*1}(d) \cdot s \quad (6)$$

$$161 \quad P_{scenario}^*(d) = P_{scenario}^{*1}(d) \cdot s \quad (7)$$

162 Where, th = threshold and P^{*1} = intermediate step in bias correction.

163 3.2.3 Power transformation of precipitation (PT):

164 PT corrects both the monthly mean as well as the variance. It uses an exponential correcting factor aP^b
 165 (Mendez et al. 2020; Kim et al. 2020). Parameter 'b' is measured monthly (b_m) using the distribution-free method
 166 with a three-month window. Initially, 'b' is determined by equalizing the Coefficient of Variation (CV) of corrected
 167 RCM precipitation (P^b) and observed precipitation ($P_{observed}$) for every month (m) using the root-finding algorithm
 168 (Brent 1971). Then ' b_m ' is calculated using equation eight and ' CV_m ' using equation nine. Equation 10 & 11 were
 169 used for equalizing the datasets.
 170

$$171 \quad f(b_m) = 0 = CV_m(P_{observed}(d)) - CV_m(P_{control}^{b_m}(d)) \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{\sigma_m(P_{observed}(d))}{\mu_m(P_{observed}(d))} = \frac{\sigma_m(P_{control}^{b_m}(d))}{\mu_m(P_{control}^{b_m}(d))} \quad (9)$$

$$174 \quad P_{control}^{*1}(d) = P_{control}^{b_m}(d) \quad (10)$$

$$175 \quad P_{scenario}^{*1}(d) = P_{scenario}^{b_m}(d) \quad (11)$$

176 Afterwards, 'PT' equalizes the observed precipitation ($P_{observed}$) with the intermediate series ($P_{control}^{*1}$) using
 177 the LS method. Finally, the corrected control and scenario precipitation datasets were derived using equations 12
 178 and 13, respectively.

$$179 \quad P_{control}^*(d) = P_{control}^{*1}(d) \cdot \left[\frac{\mu_m(P_{observed}(d))}{\mu_m(P_{control}^{*1}(d))} \right] \quad (12)$$

$$180 \quad P_{scenario}^*(d) = P_{scenario}^{*1}(d) \cdot \left[\frac{\mu_m(P_{observed}(d))}{\mu_m(P_{control}^{*1}(d))} \right] \quad (13)$$

181 3.2.4 Distribution mapping of precipitation (DM):

182 The DM method is applied to correct mean, standard deviation (SD), and quantiles by equalizing the
 183 distribution functions of both the RCM outputs and the observed data. The method assumes that the RCM-simulated
 184 and observed precipitation follows a particular frequency of distribution, in turn, may cause biases (Thiemeßl et al.,
 185 2012). Accordingly, Gamma distribution was used for effective precipitation distribution.

$$186 \quad f_\gamma(\chi|\alpha, \beta) = \chi^{\alpha-1} \cdot \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \cdot \Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot e^{-\frac{\chi}{\beta}}; \chi \geq 0; \quad \alpha, \beta > 0 \quad (14)$$

187 Where $\Gamma(\cdot)$ is the Gamma function, α is the shape parameter, and β is the scale parameter. Before the DM
 188 method, the LOCI method is applied to determine the wet days using the specific threshold. Subsequently, RCM
 189 outputs were corrected in terms of the Gamma cumulative distribution function (F_γ) and its inverse function (F_γ^{-1}) as
 190 follows:

$$191 \quad P_{control}^*(d) = F_\gamma^{-1}\left(F_\gamma\left(P_{control}(d)\middle|\alpha_{control,m},\beta_{control,m}\right)\middle|\alpha_{observed,m},\beta_{observed,m}\right) \quad (15)$$

$$192 \quad P_{scenario}^*(d) = F_\gamma^{-1}\left(F_\gamma\left(P_{scenario}(d)\middle|\alpha_{control,m},\beta_{control,m}\right)\middle|\alpha_{observed,m},\beta_{observed,m}\right) \quad (16)$$

193 3.2.5 Delta Change Method (DC):

194

195 DC method is comparatively simple and widely used (Middelkoop et al. 2001; Raty et al. 2014). The
 196 difference between the mean of the scenario and the control data is calculated. This change/delta is added with the
 197 monthly mean of observed data to compute the future projections using a multiplier factor (Equation 18). As a result,
 198 the monthly distribution's shape is preserved, and the delta shifts the values. This approach does not allow for
 199 changes in extreme precipitation events due to its simple transfer function (Mendez et al. 2020). A multiplicative
 200 correction is used for the precipitation correction equation.

$$201 \quad P_{control}^*(d) = P_{observed}(d) \quad (17)$$

$$202 \quad P_{scenario}^*(d) = P_{observed}(d) \cdot \left[\frac{\mu_m(P_{scenario}(d))}{\mu_m(P_{control}(d))} \right] \quad (18)$$

203

204 **3.3 Future Projection of Precipitation:**

205 Climate projections are based on the emission scenarios, so-called Radiative Concentration Pathways
206 (RCP), reflecting a shift in the radiative forcing at the atmosphere by 2100 compared to pre-industrial times (Van
207 Vuuren et al. 2011a). The four RCPs (RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6, and RCP 8.5) are named based on the radiative
208 forcing change by 2100 (+ 2.6, + 4.5, + 6.0, and + 8.5 W/m²) respectively. In this study, CORDEX – REMO 2009
209 RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 were used for precipitation projection. The collected data were preprocessed using Climate
210 Data Operators (CDO 2019) and bias-correction using CMhyd software (Rathjens et al. 2016).

211 **4.0 Results & Discussion:**

212 **4.1 Performance assessment of various bias correction methods on the control data:**

213 After bias correction, the annual mean was calculated for both observed and bias-corrected control datasets.
214 Subsequently, a correlation was computed amongst them, and the same is shown in Figure 3. The figure shows that
215 the DC method adjusted control data has an absolute agreement with observed data. The agreement is since the
216 method equalizes the mean of both observed and adjusted control data. The LS and PT method yield the least bias
217 amongst the other methods, while the LOCI method underestimated the inter-annual variability in all locations.

218 On the contrary, the DM method has shown a varied result. It has overestimated the inter-annual variability
219 at many locations, while in a few places, it has underestimated and in some areas demonstrated a fair agreement.
220 Thus, all the bias correction methods can improve the spatial statistics of simulated mean precipitation is inferred.

221 The Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) and biases were calculated (Table 1). RMSE estimates the standard
222 deviation of the error distribution between the observed and adjusted control data. The DC method seems to yield no
223 error from the results, while the PT and LS methods with significantly less deviation of 0.059 and 0.063,
224 respectively. Conversely, the DM method has shown a moderate deviation (24.097) and the LOCI method with a
225 very high deviation (105.144). Thus it can be surmised that the PT bias correction method shows better performance
226 than others.

227 The bias indicates the difference between the adjusted control data and the observed data. Again the DC
228 method seems to be with no biases. LS method reduces the precipitation amount by 0.04 mm, and PT represents
229 negative bias, reducing the precipitation amount by 0.07 mm. The LOCI method also shows a strong negative bias,
230 which reduces the amount of precipitation by 97.76 mm. In contrast, the DM method yields a strong positive bias,
231 increasing the precipitation amount by 31.04 mm. Based on the bias calculation, it is presumed that the LS method is
232 better for bias correction, followed by the PT method.

233 Thus from the above analyses, the DC approach should be neglected for assessment because it has equalled
234 the observation with the current condition. Similarly, LOCI and DM methods were also to be avoided owing to their
235 over and underestimations. Both LS and PT methods have shown a good agreement with observed data almost in all
236 the analyses. Though LS accounts for the mean biases, it does not correct the biases in the variance. Thus it can be
237 surmised that the PT approach can be adapted to adjust the future projections in the study.
238

Bias Correction Methods	RMSE	Bias
Linear scaling	0.063	-0.044
Local intensity scaling	105.144	-97.758
Power transformation of precipitation	0.059	-0.073
Distribution mapping	24.097	31.039
Delta change	0.000	0.000

239 *Table 1. showing the root mean square error and bias for various bias correction methods*

241 **4.2 Projections using bias-corrected precipitation in RCP scenario:**

242 The biases in RCP 4.5 and 8.5 scenario data were corrected using the PT method. Subsequently, grouped
243 into three groups as the near range (2021 to 2050), mid-range (2051 to 2075), and far range (2076 to 2100).

244 **4.2.1 Comparison between observed and adjusted control data (1976 – 2005):**

245 Initially, the PT method's performance was evaluated by carrying out statistical analysis between the
 246 observed and adjusted control data. The result shows that the model underestimates the intensity of the precipitation
 247 until 1985 and then after exhibits both overestimation and good agreement with the observed data collectively
 248 (Figure 4). Similarly, a mean positive deviation of 38.96% and a negative deviation of 23% are witnessed between
 249 observed and adjusted control data (Table 2). Overall the model overestimates 14 times and underestimates 16 times
 250 the intensity of precipitation in the 30-year time series. However, though the frequency of negative deviation is
 251 higher, the intensity of precipitation it underestimates is lesser than the overestimation (Table 2).

Analysis	Obs vs adjusted control	Obs vs near4.5	Obs vs mid4.5	Obs vs far4.5	Obs vs near8.5	Obs vs mid8.5	Obs vs far8.5
Mean of Positive deviation	38.96%	63.02%	54.35%	56.73%	80.85%	54.41%	83.85%
(frequency)	(14)	(18)	(17)	(18)	(18)	(15)	(18)
Mean of Negative deviation	-23%	-22%	-28%	-26%	-23%	-24%	-19%
(frequency)	(16)	(12)	(8)	(7)	(12)	(10)	(7)
Analysis	Adjusted control vs near4.5	Adjusted control vs mid4.5	Adjusted control vs far4.5	Adjusted control vs near8.5	Adjusted control vs mid8.5	Adjusted control vs far8.5	
Mean of Positive deviation	65.84%	91.73%	61.94%	66.02%	55.68%	81.16%	
(frequency)	(20)	(15)	(17)	(20)	(15)	(18)	
Mean of Negative deviation	-25%	-27%	-26%	-27%	-26%	-24%	
(frequency)	(10)	(10)	(8)	(10)	(10)	(7)	

252
 253 *Table 2. Comparison of adjusted scenario data with observed and bias corrected control data*

254
 255 **4.2.2 The near range (2021 – 2050) of RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5:**

256 In general, precipitation shows an increase during the first decade and then after a gradual decrease in both
 257 scenarios (Figure 4). The RCP 4.5 has shown higher precipitation during 2022, 2025, 2031 and 2033 while RCP 8.5
 258 during 2027, 2039 and 2048. The calculated bias denotes that precipitation has increased by 80.99 mm in RCP 8.5
 259 with an occurrence frequency of 17 than RCP 4.5 (Figure 5). Meanwhile, the comparison with observed data shows
 260 increased precipitation in both RCP 4.5 (63.02%) and RCP 8.5 (80.85%) but with the same number of occurrences
 261 (18). Similarly, an increase of 65.84% for the RCP 4.5 scenario and 66.02% for RCP 8.5 with the same number of
 262 occurrences (20) is noticed with adjusted control data for 30 years time series (Table 2).

263 The spatial distribution of annual mean precipitation for both scenarios in the near range is represented in
 264 figure 6 and figure 7. In RCP 4.5, most of the area receives precipitation of around 1150 mm. However, a decrease
 265 in the west and increases towards the northeast is also noticed. The RCP 8.5 exhibits a similar spatial pattern;
 266 however, most places have shown relatively increased precipitation of about ~1275 mm (Figure 6). From the wind
 267 rose diagram (Figure 7), it is witnessed that Manjalar head and Lower anaicut area receives higher precipitation (~
 268 1600 mm) whereas Grand anaicut and Thirukattupalli area with lower precipitation (~ 1000 mm).

269 Overall, higher precipitation of RCP 8.5 is attributed to radiative forcing. But the frequency of occurrence
 270 seems to be similar for both RCP scenarios as far observed and adjusted control data is concerned. The same is
 271 attributed to the effect of the adapted bias correction method.

272 **4.2.3 The mid range (2051 – 2075) of RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5:**

273 It is found that RCP 4.5 receives higher precipitation during 2052, 2056 and 2065, while RCP 8.5 receives
 274 more precipitation during the years 2053 and 2057. Based on the calculated bias, the amount of precipitation seems
 275 to have increased by 99.19 mm in RCP 4.5 with an occurrence frequency of 12 compared to RCP 8.5 (Figure 5).
 276 Similarly, the comparison with the observed data shows that RCP 4.5 yields an increased amount of precipitation
 277 (54.35%) with a frequency rate of 17. In contrast, RCP 8.5 possesses 54.41% of increased precipitation with a

278 frequency rate of 15. The adjusted control data increases 91.73% for the RCP4.5 scenario, while the RCP 8.5 shows
279 an increase of 55.68% with the same number of occurrences (15) for the 25 years time series (Table 2).

280 The spatial distribution of annual mean precipitation for both scenarios in the mid range is represented in
281 figure 7 and figure 8. In RCP 4.5, the Adhiramapattinam, Lower anaicut, Manjalar head, and Pattukottai receive
282 more precipitation (~1400 mm), whereas Grand anaicut and Thirukattupalli receives low precipitation (~1000 mm).
283 While in RCP 8.5, the Lower anaicut, Manjalar head, Pattukottai, Papanasam, Kumbakonam, Vetticadu and
284 Thanjavur receives high precipitation (~1300 mm), and Thiruvaiyaaru, Grand anaicut and Thirukattupalli receives
285 low precipitation (~1100 mm).

286 Overall, it is found that the mid-range of RCP 4.5 receives higher precipitation than RCP 8.5. Thus, it is
287 inferred that the radiative forcing does not influence the intensity of the precipitation.

288 **4.2.4 The far range (2076 – 2100) of RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5:**

289 The projected precipitation is overestimated by RCP 8.5 in 2082 with an unrealistic amount of ~5000 mm
290 (Figure 4). The precipitation intensity increases by 132.47 mm in RCP 8.5, with an occurrence frequency of 17 and
291 receiving higher precipitation during 2082 and 2093. Whereas in RCP 4.5, higher precipitation is witnessed during
292 2090 and 2092 (Figure 5). RCP 4.5 yields an increased precipitation of 56.73%, whereas 83.85% is for the RCP 8.5
293 scenario with the same frequency rate (18) against observed data. Concerning adjusted control data, an increase of
294 61.94% with an occurrence rate of 17 for RCP4.5 and for RCP 8.5, 81.16% with a frequency of 18 is witnessed for
295 25 years time series (Table 2).

296 The spatial distributions of annual mean precipitation for both scenarios in the far range are represented in
297 figure 7 and figure 9. Adhiramapattinam, Lower anaicut and Manjalar head shows high precipitation (~1400 mm),
298 whereas Grand anaicut and Thirukattupalli with low precipitation (~ 1000 mm) in RCP 4.5. on the contrary, RCP
299 8.5 has shown a more significant variation in the distribution pattern with high precipitation (~1750 mm) in Lower
300 anaicut, Manjalar head and Kumbakonam and low precipitation (~1100 mm) in Peravoorani, Thirukattipalli, and
301 Grand anaicut regions.

302
303 Overall in all the ranges, RCP 8.5 receives high precipitation when compared to RCP 4.5. The intensity of
304 precipitation increases towards the northeast and reduces towards the west. The Thirukattipalli and Grand anaicut
305 area located in the western part of the study exhibits very poor precipitation. The same might be attributed to the
306 effect of the northeast monsoon. Further, the research shows substantial interannual variabilities in both scenarios,
307 which might be due to the atmospheric circulation changes (Cha et al. 2016). The analogous spatial precipitation
308 distribution pattern in all ranges might be due to the horizontal resolution of the CORDEX data. An increase in
309 mean positive deviation (50%) with a high-frequency rate compared to mean negative deviation (30%) indicates that
310 the probability for flood is higher than the occurrence of drought in both RCPs.

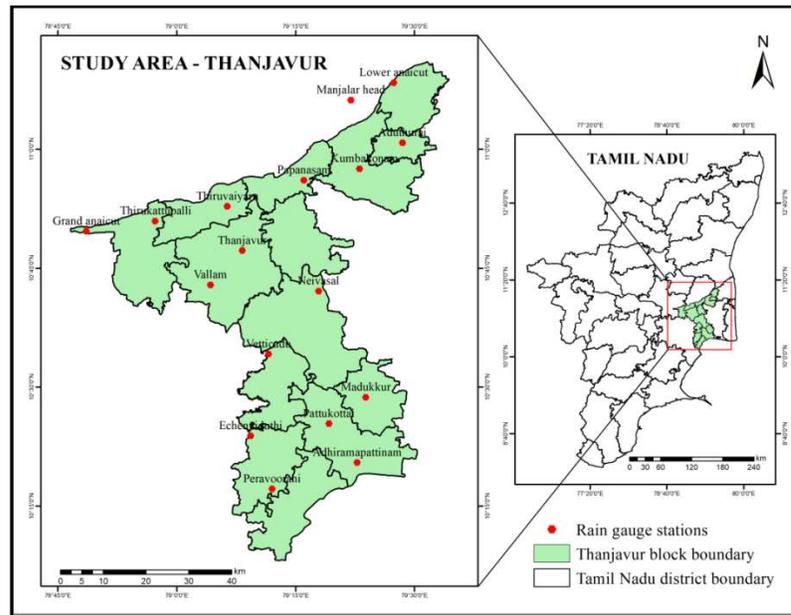
311 According to RCP 4.5, the flood will occur during 2022, 2025, 2031, 2033, 2052, 2056, 2065, 2090 and
312 2092, whereas drought will occur during 2036, 2044, 2054, 2066, 2070, 2084 and 2095. According to RCP 8.5, the
313 flood will occur during 2027, 2039, 2048, 2053, 2057, 2082 and 2093, whereas drought will occur during 2023,
314 2030, 2034, 2055, 2059, 2062, 2065, 2071, 2091 and 2096. However, the effects of drought will be minimal because
315 of decreased precipitation and the absence of consecutive drought years.

316 317 **5.0 Summary and Conclusion:**

318 The choice of the bias correction algorithm plays a primary role in assessing the impacts of climate change.
319 This study provides an overview of the various bias correction methods and procedure for evaluating several
320 statistical parameters at the district scale. The improvement was achieved for the control data with all bias correction
321 methods with significant differences. Though all the methods are efficient in correcting the daily mean values, the
322 PT and DM methods can potentially fix the other statistical properties. Further, it is found that the Power
323 transformation method seems to be the best as far as this study area is concerned. The future climate projections of
324 the bias-corrected ensemble show considerable changes throughout the Century. Most of the years will receive
325 heavy precipitation; rather, some years will receive low and average precipitation than observed data. The spatial
326 distribution pattern indicates that the northeast monsoon will dominate over all the ranges and places.

327 This district is known for paddy cultivation. The projected precipitation will also influence the crop
 328 selection, length of the growing period, cropping pattern, crop rotation, crop management practices, sowing period,
 329 cropping area extent, agricultural production, and so on. In urban areas, the possibility for land use and land cover
 330 changes, ground/river/surface water level changes, flood, soil erosion is high. Further, the study area is also known
 331 for heritage and tourism. Thus the study has provided a piece of clear information on future precipitation to the
 332 environmentalist, urban planners and policymakers of disaster management. Rainwater harvesting, recharging the
 333 aquifers, afforestation, and redirecting the excess amount of water to the river through proper channels are plausible
 334 suggestions to overcome excessive precipitation in the future.
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338 *Figure 1. Study area map showing Thanjavur district with block boundary and rain gauge stations*
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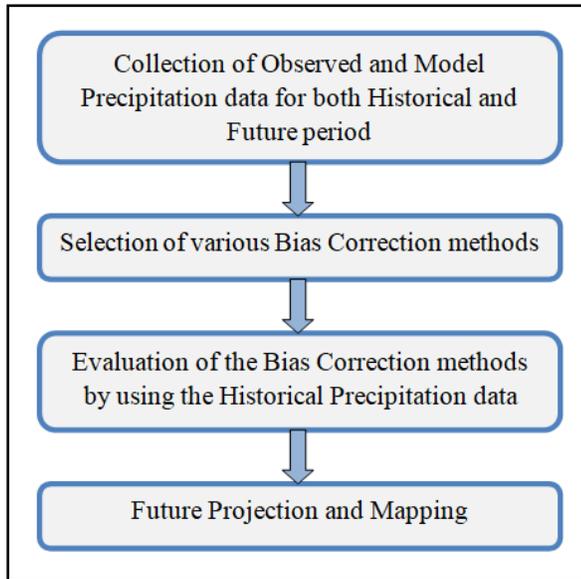


Figure 2. Methodology

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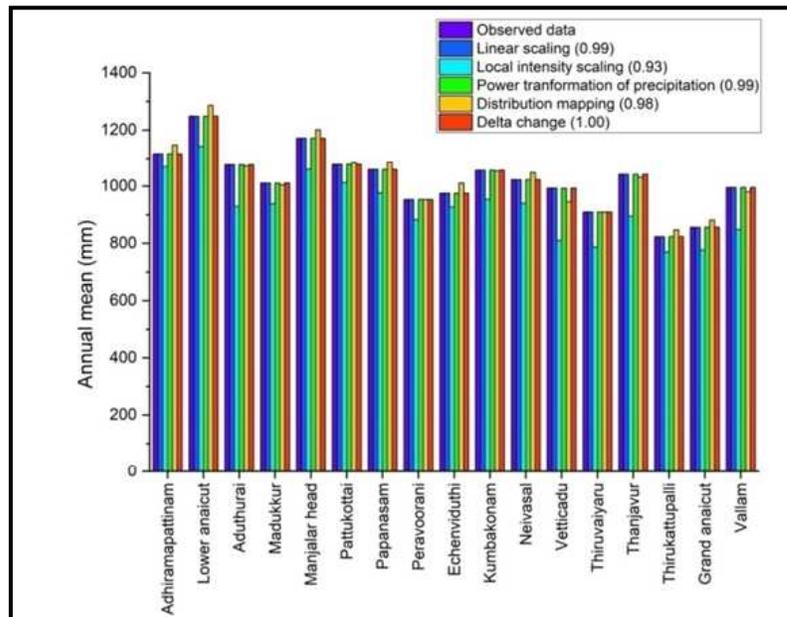
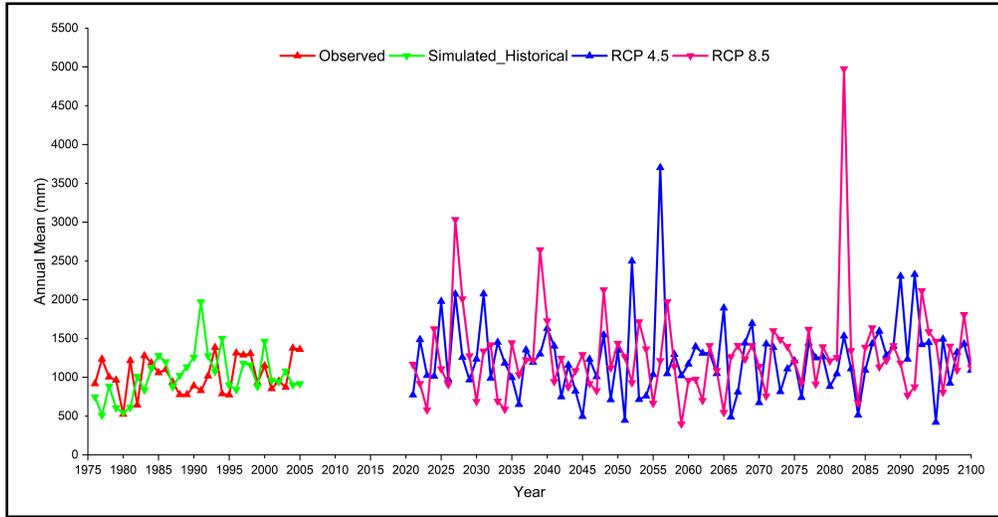


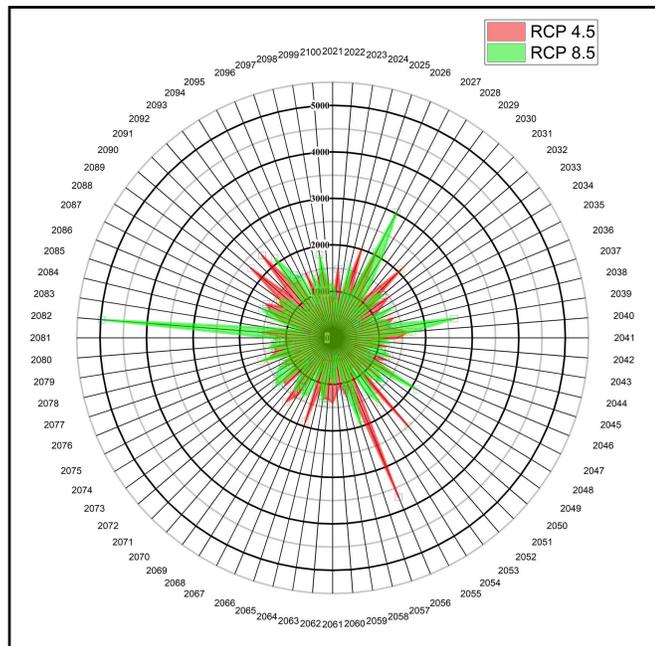
Figure 3. Graphical representation of annual mean precipitation distribution of observed and bias corrected control data for various bias correction methods with the resulted correlation coefficient

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Figure 4. Plot showing time series annual mean precipitation (mm) for the observed, adjusted control and the RCP scenarios in Thanjavur district.



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Figure 5. The wind rose diagram showing the temporal distribution pattern of annual mean precipitation for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 (2021 to 2100)

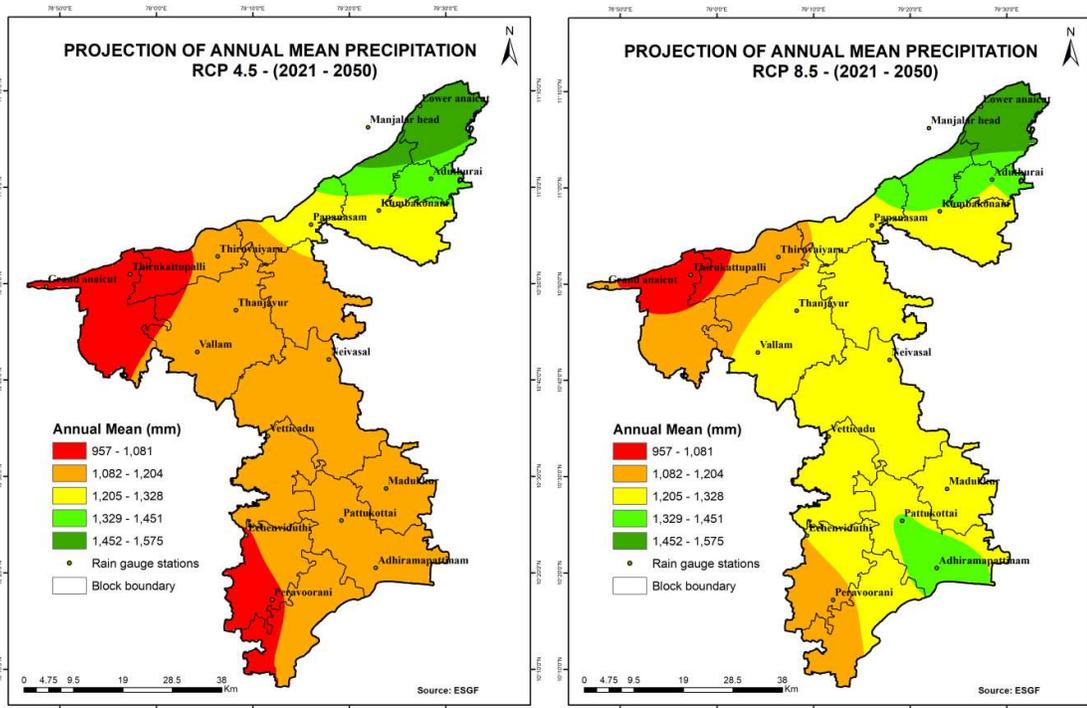


Figure 6. Map showing the spatial distribution pattern of annual mean precipitation for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 in the near range period (2021-2050)

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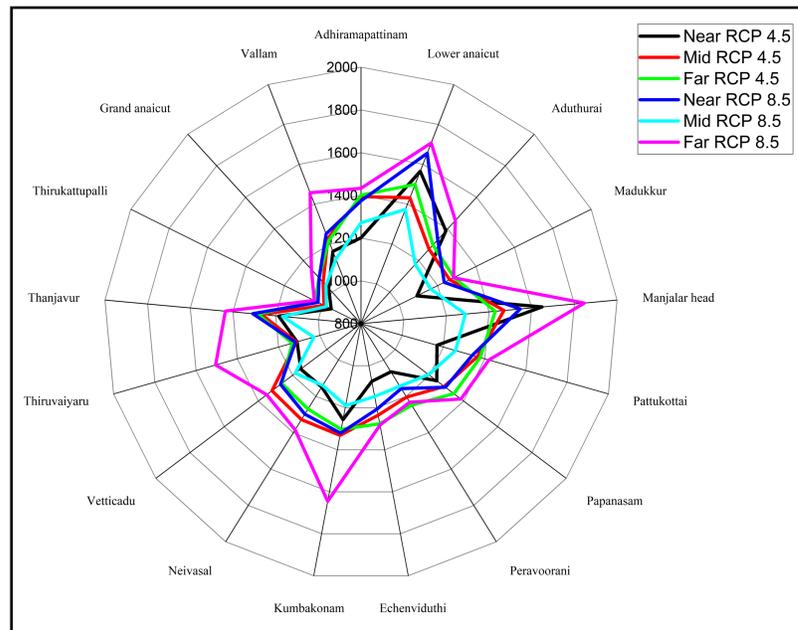


Figure 7. The wind rose diagram showing annual mean precipitation for both RCP scenarios in all three-time ranges

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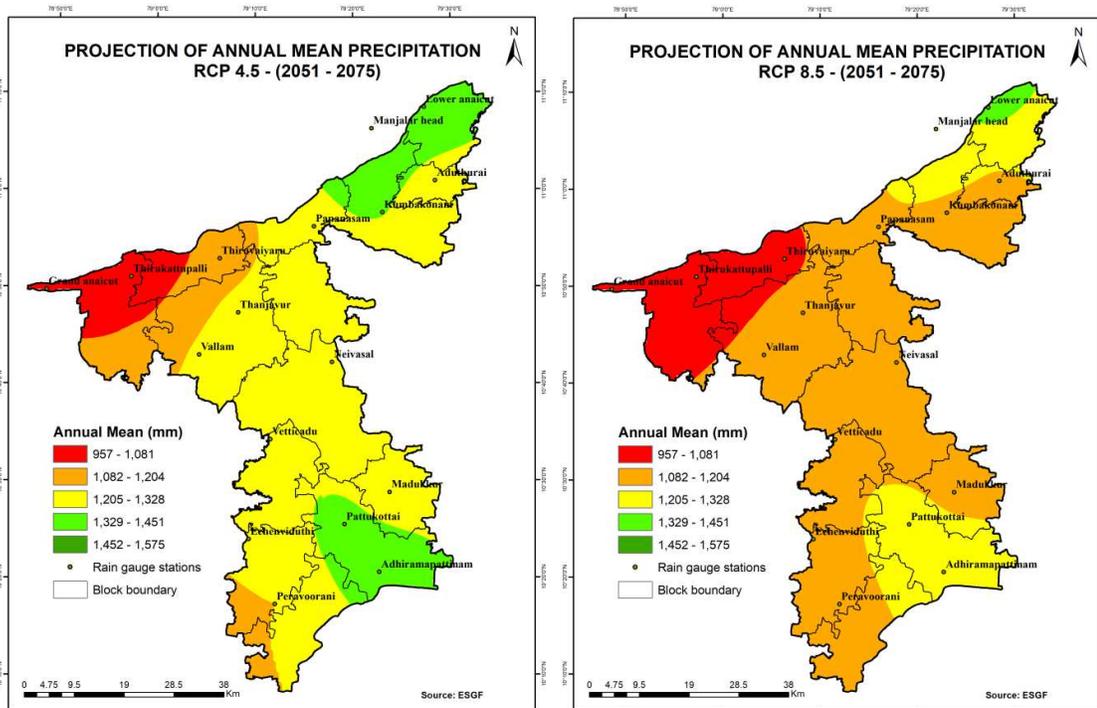


Figure 8. Map showing the spatial distribution pattern of annual mean precipitation for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 in the mid range period (2051-2075)

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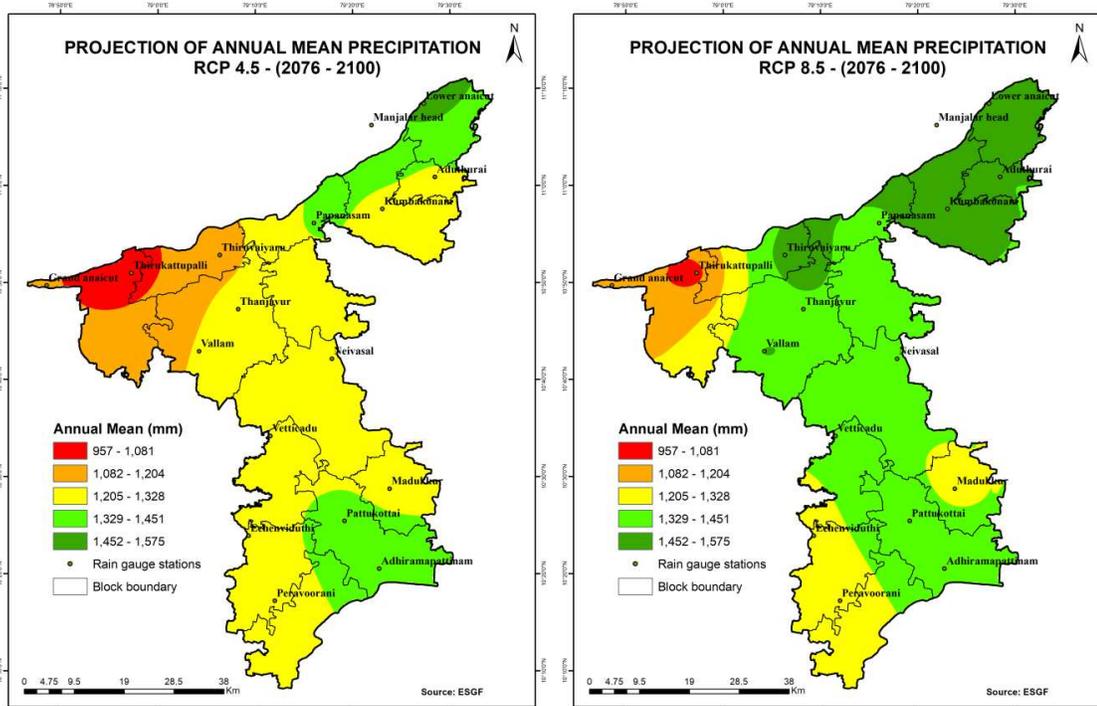


Figure 9. Map showing the spatial distribution pattern of annual mean precipitation for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 in the far range period (2076-2100)

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378 **Declarations:**
379 **Conflict of Interest**
380 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare that are relevant to the content of this
381 manuscript.

382 **Funding Statement**
383 The authors did not receive support from any organization for the submitted work.

384 **Author's Contribution**
385 R. Selvakumar: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review and editing, Supervision
386 S. Gunavathi: Analysis and investigation, Writing - original draft preparation

387 **Availability of data and material**
388 The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the
389 corresponding author on reasonable request.

390 **Code availability**
391 Not applicable
392

393 **Ethics approval**
394 Not applicable

395 **Consent to participate**
396 Not applicable

397 **Consent for publication**
398 Not applicable

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Figures

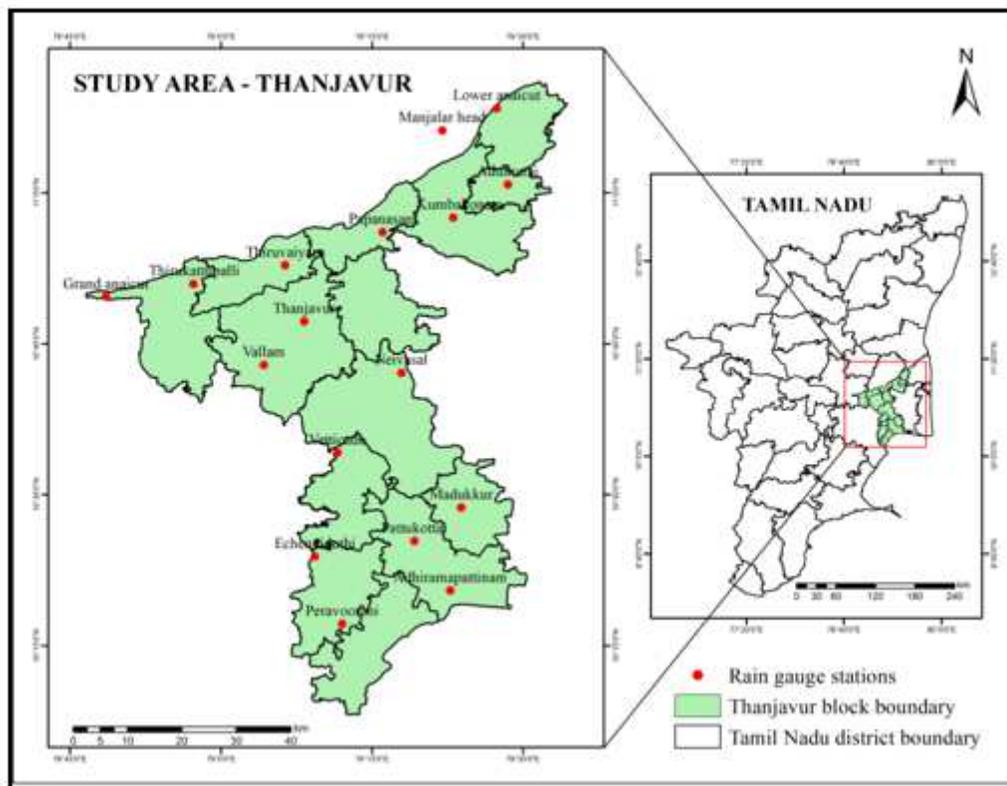


Figure 1

Study area map showing Thanjavur district with block boundary and rain gauge stations. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

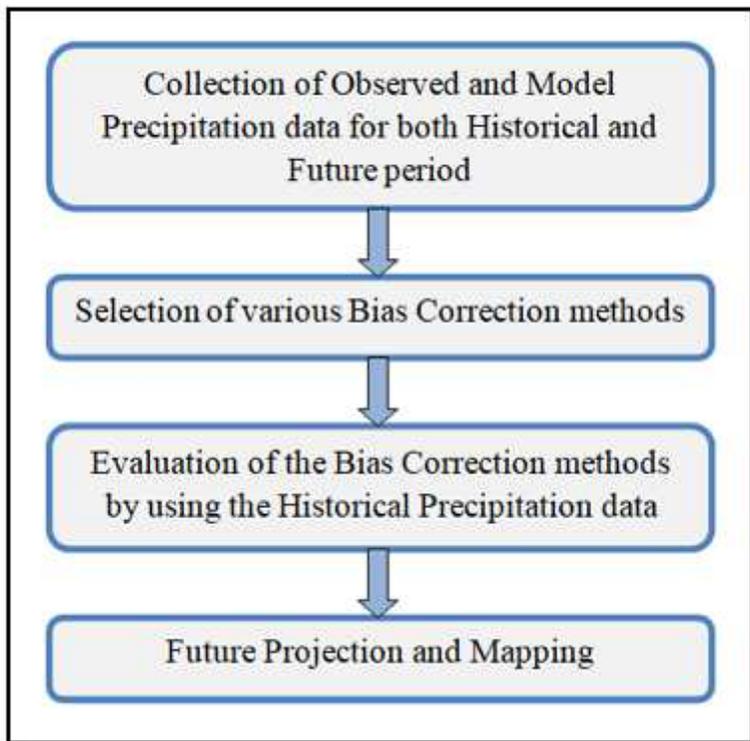


Figure 2

Methodology

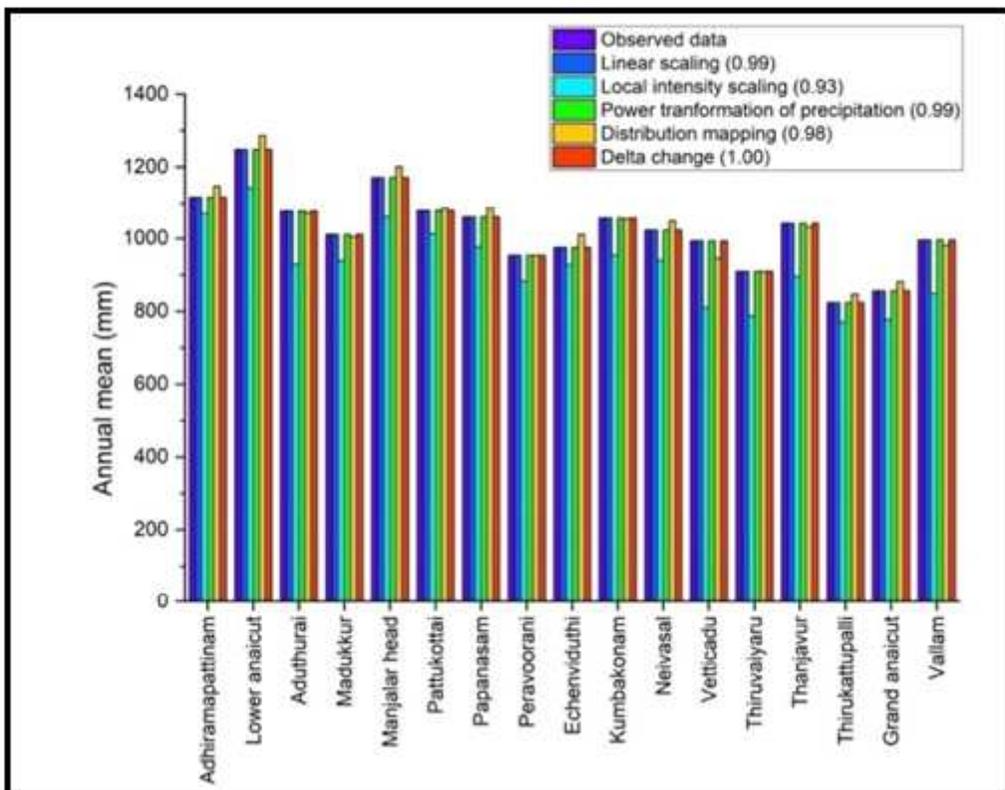


Figure 3

Graphical representation of annual mean precipitation distribution of observed and bias corrected control data for various bias correction methods with the resulted correlation coefficient

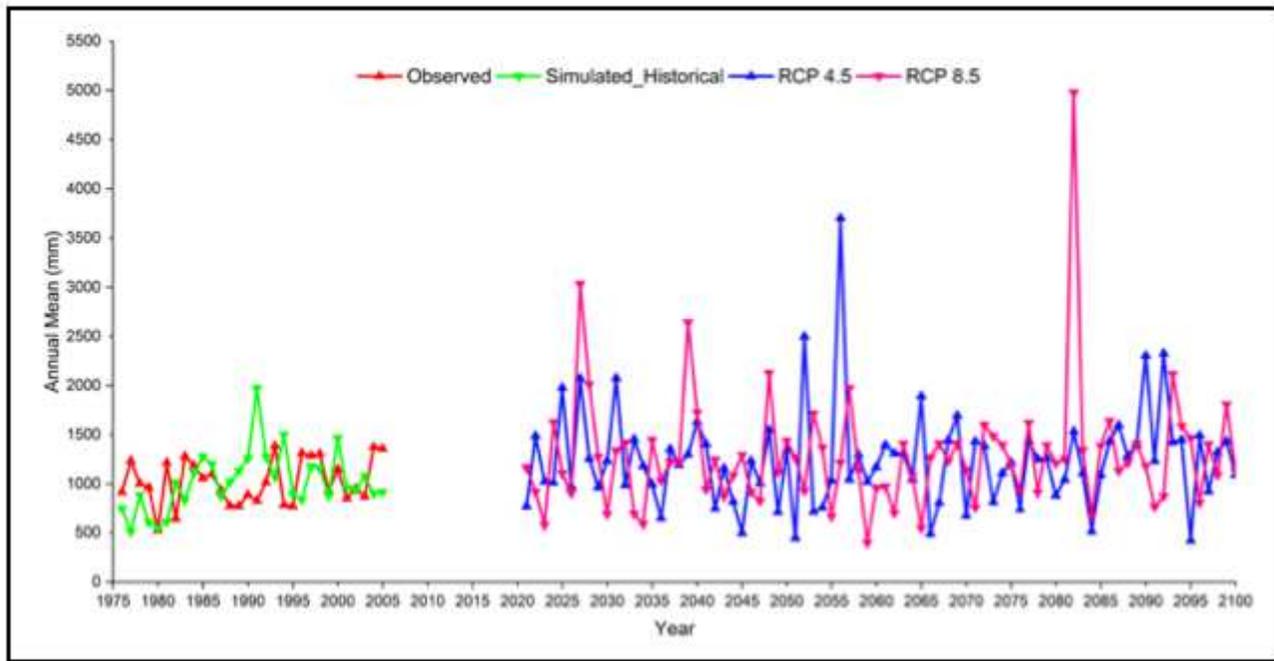


Figure 4

Plot showing time series annual mean precipitation (mm) for the observed, adjusted control and the RCP scenarios in Thanjavur district.

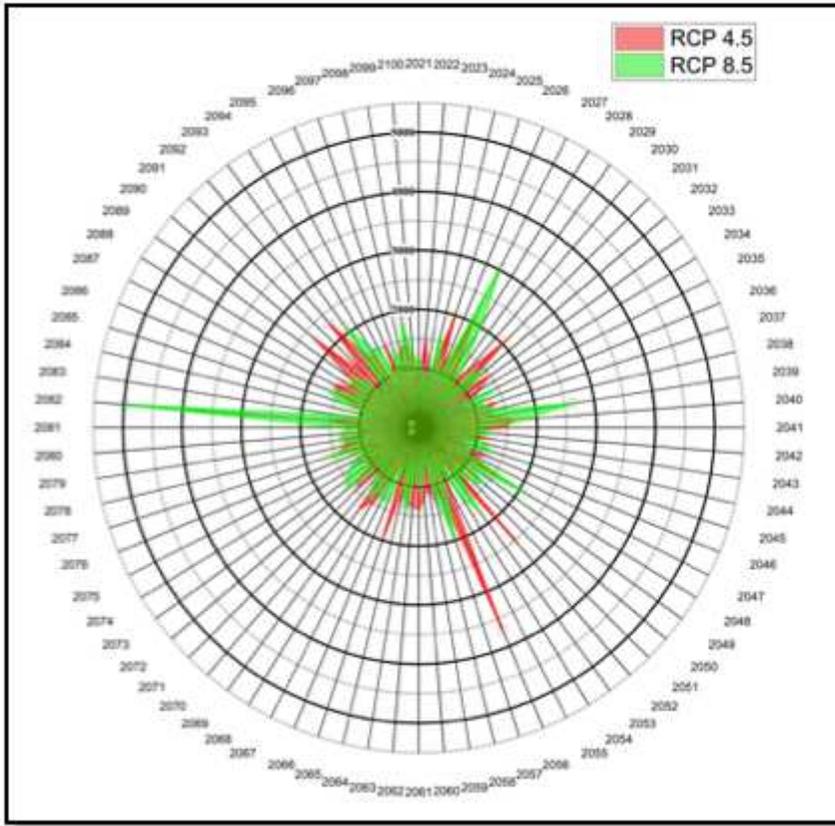


Figure 5

The wind rose diagram showing the temporal distribution pattern of annual mean precipitation for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 (2021 to 2100)

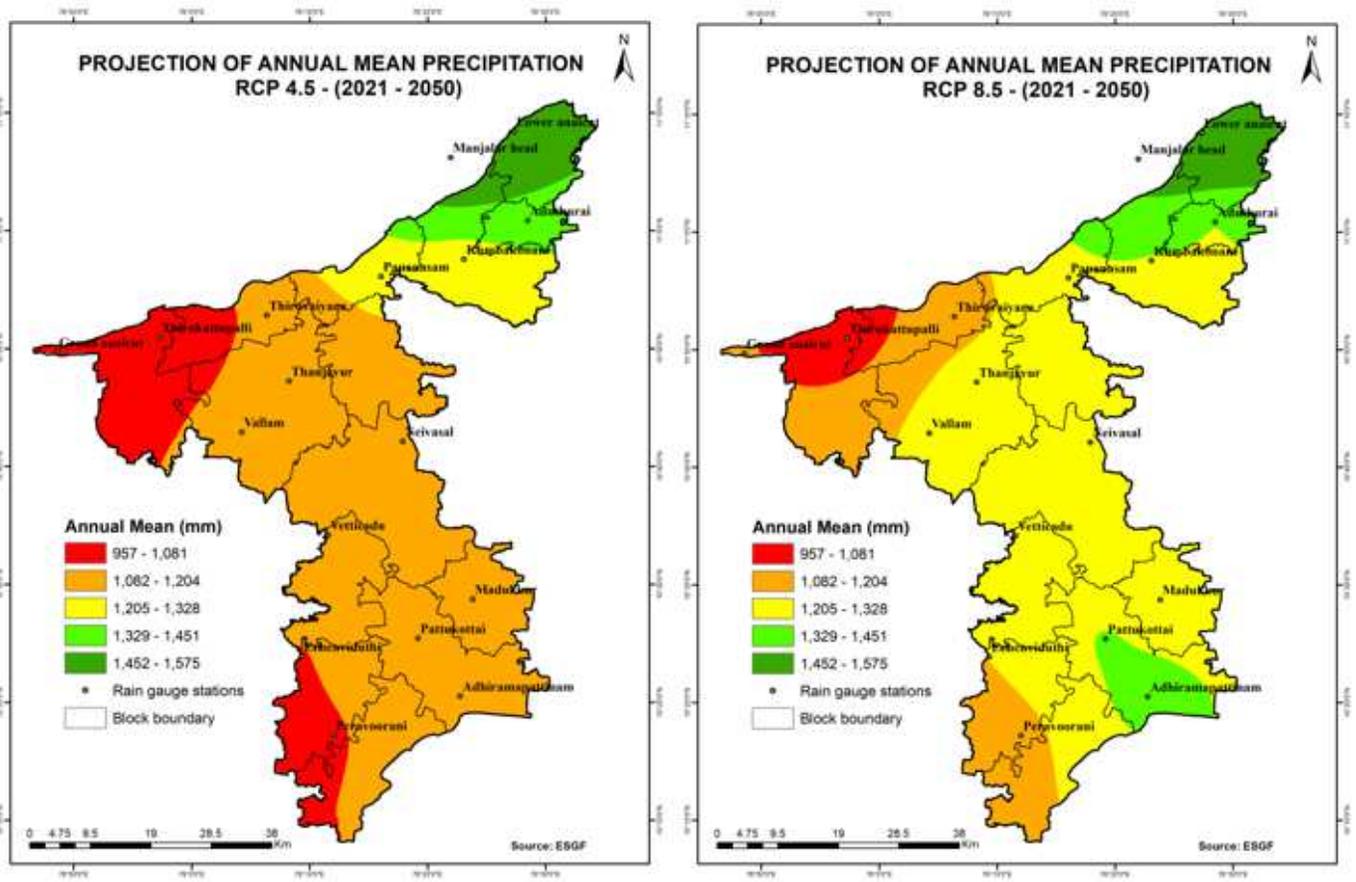


Figure 6

Map showing the spatial distribution pattern of annual mean precipitation for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 in the near range period (2021-2050). Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

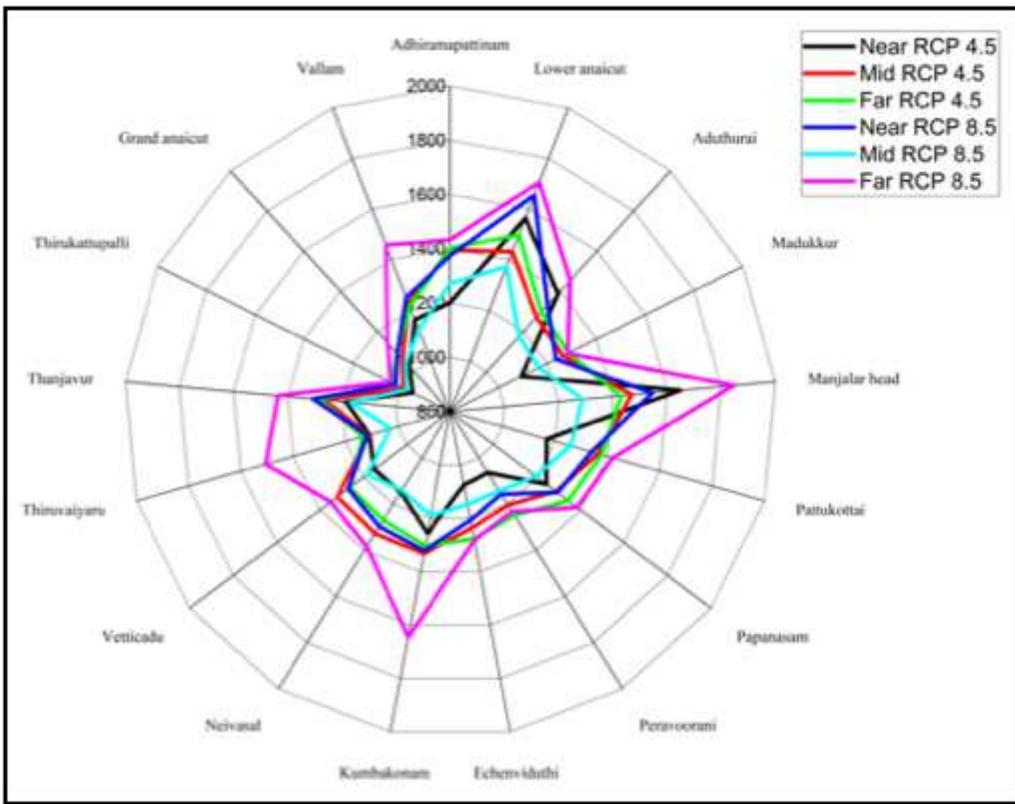


Figure 7

The wind rose diagram showing annual mean precipitation for both RCP scenarios in all three-time ranges

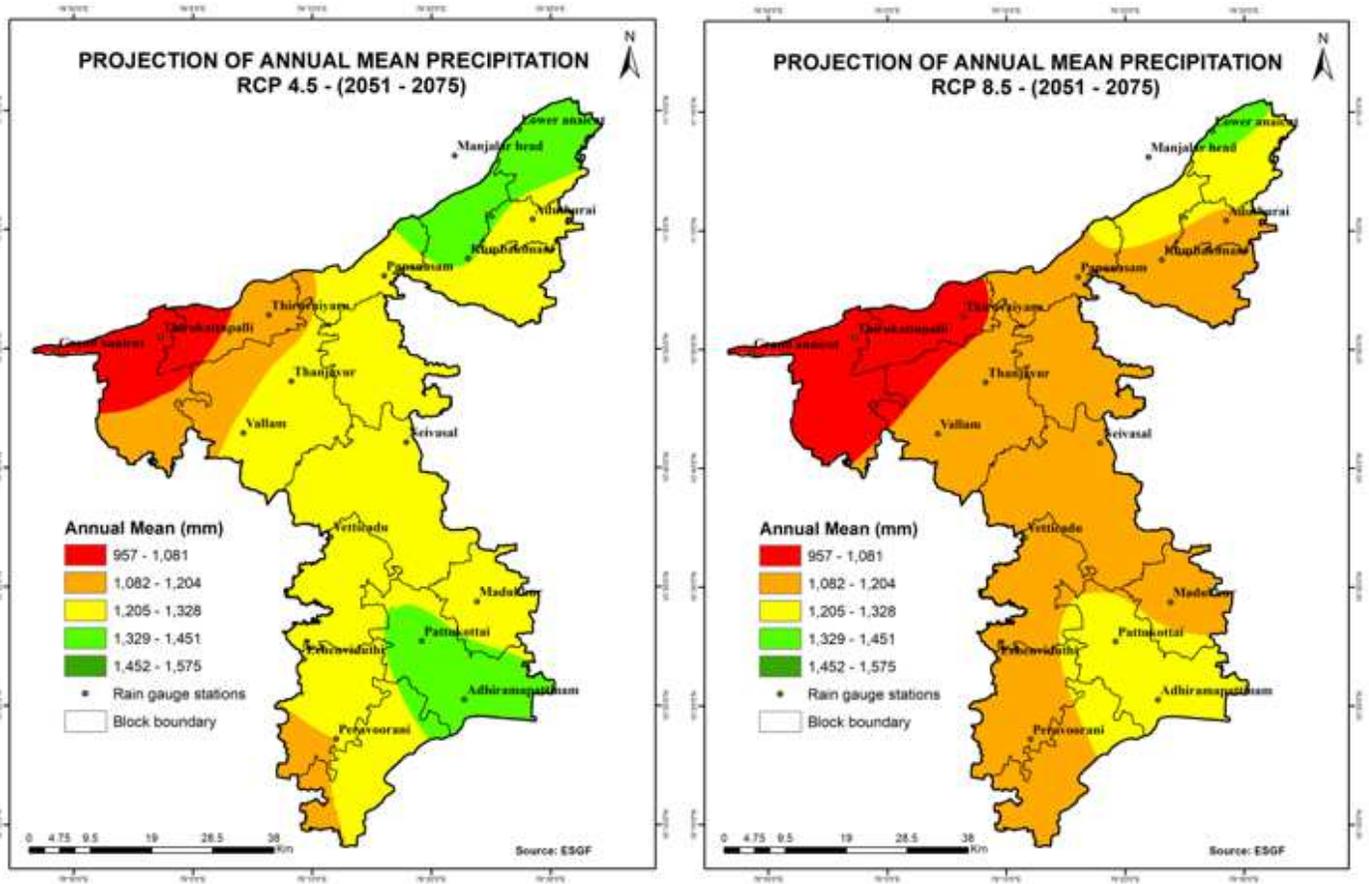


Figure 8

Map showing the spatial distribution pattern of annual mean precipitation for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 in the mid range period (2051-2075). Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

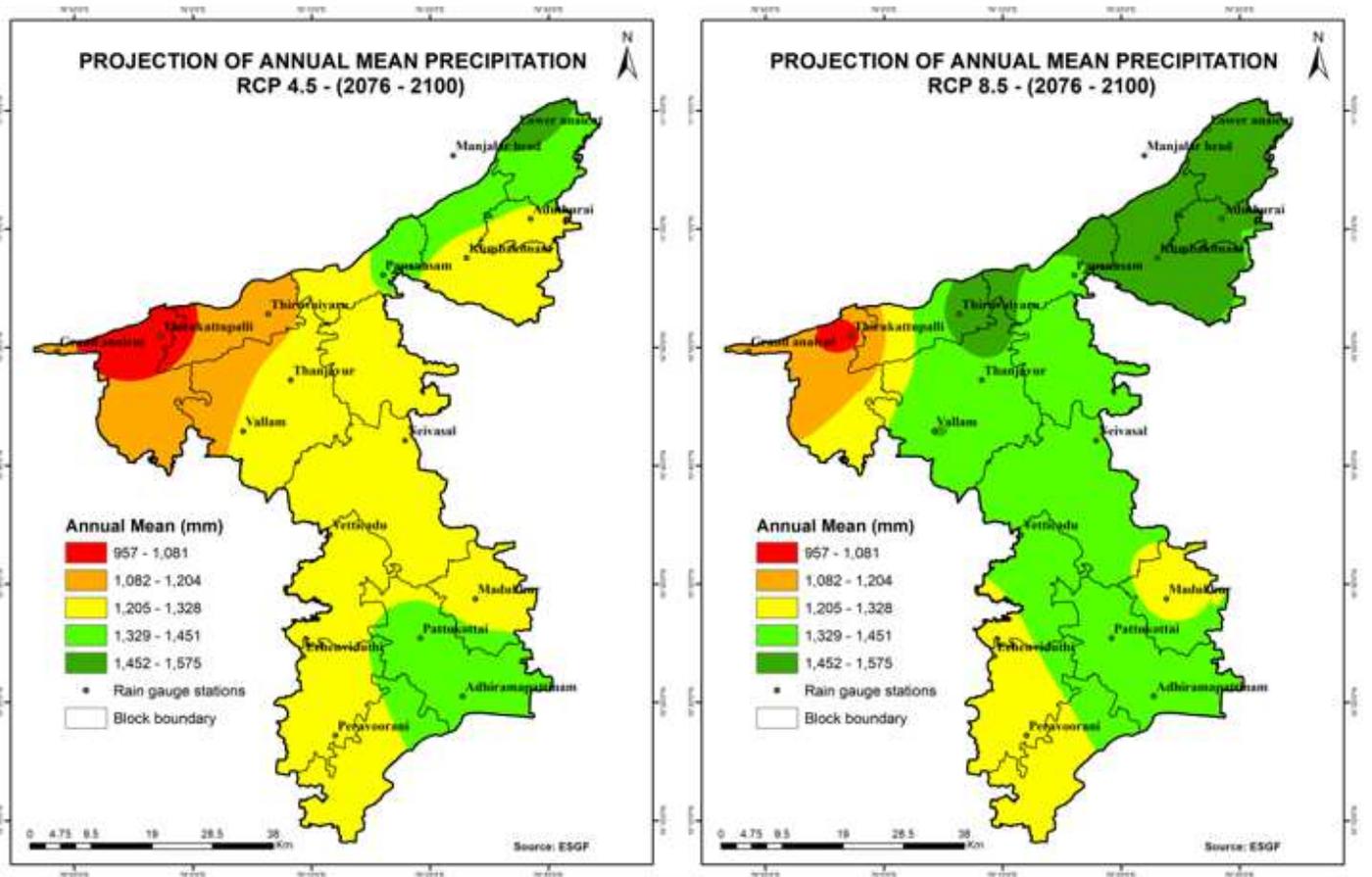


Figure 9

Map showing the spatial distribution pattern of annual mean precipitation for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 in the far range period (2076-2100). Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.