

## Testing MOS precipitation downscaling for ENSEMBLES regional climate models over Spain

M. Turco,<sup>1</sup> P. Quintana-Seguí,<sup>2</sup> M. C. Llasat,<sup>1</sup> S. Herrera,<sup>3</sup> and J. M. Gutiérrez<sup>3</sup>

Received 27 April 2011; revised 16 June 2011; accepted 24 June 2011; published 23 September 2011.

[1] Model Output Statistics (MOS) has been recently proposed as an alternative to the standard perfect prognosis statistical downscaling approach for Regional Climate Model (RCM) outputs. In this case, the model output for the variable of interest (e.g. precipitation) is directly downscaled using observations. In this paper we test the performance of a MOS implementation of the popular analog methodology (referred to as MOS analog) applied to downscale daily precipitation outputs over Spain. To this aim, we consider the state-of-the-art ERA40-driven RCMs provided by the EU-funded ENSEMBLES project and the Spain02 gridded observations data set, using the common period 1961–2000. The MOS analog method improves the representation of the mean regimes, the annual cycle, the frequency and the extremes of precipitation for all RCMs, regardless of the region and the model reliability (including relatively low-performing models), while preserving the daily accuracy. The good performance of the method in this complex climatic region suggests its potential transferability to other regions. Furthermore, in order to test the robustness of the method in changing climate conditions, a cross-validation in driest or wettest years was performed. The method improves the RCM results in both cases, especially in the former.

**Citation:** Turco, M., P. Quintana-Seguí, M. C. Llasat, S. Herrera, and J. M. Gutiérrez (2011), Testing MOS precipitation downscaling for ENSEMBLES regional climate models over Spain, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 116, D18109, doi:10.1029/2011JD016166.

### 1. Introduction

[2] Global Climate Models (GCM) are tools of primary importance to study and simulate the climate, and to obtain future climate projections under different anthropogenic forcing scenarios [*Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, 2007]. However, due to their coarse resolution —generally few hundred kilometers—, they are not suitable for regional studies [*Cohen*, 1990]. This is especially true for Spain, a geographically complex and heterogeneous region characterized by a great variability of precipitation regimes [*Serrano et al.*, 1999; *Trigo and Palutikof*, 2001]. Consequently, developing regional climate scenarios is a key problem for climate change impact/adaptation studies and has become a strategic topic in national and international climate programs (see, e.g. the WCRP CORDEX initiative) [*Giorgi et al.*, 2009].

[3] Two different methodologies have been developed for downscaling GCM simulations over a region of interest (e.g. Europe). First, dynamical downscaling is based on high resolution (e.g. 25 km) limited area models —also called

Regional Climate Models (RCMs)— which are coupled at the boundaries to the GCM outputs [*Giorgi and Mearns*, 1991]. Secondly, statistical downscaling techniques [*Wilby et al.*, 2004; *Benestad et al.*, 2008] are based on statistical models, fitted to historical data to capture the empirical relationship between large-scale GCM variables (the predictors, e.g. 500 mb geopotential) and local variables (the predictands, e.g. precipitation at a given location); typically, these models are first trained using reanalysis data —following the Perfect Prognosis (PP) approach— and later applied to downscale GCM scenario outputs.

[4] Traditionally, statistical downscaling has been used as an alternative to dynamical downscaling, or vice-versa. However, due to the increasing availability of reanalysis-driven RCM simulations —produced in projects like ENSEMBLES [*van der Linden and Mitchell*, 2009],— some authors have recently suggested the possibility of combining the advantages of the two downscaling methodologies. The idea is applying the statistical downscaling directly to the RCM outputs following the Model Output Statistics (MOS) approach [see *Maraun et al.*, 2010, and references therein]. In this case, the predictor is directly the RCM output variable (i.e. the RCM precipitation), which is empirically related to the observed variable (local precipitation at a station or an interpolated grid point) by the statistical downscaling algorithm. This alternative approach can be seen as an advanced calibration method for end-users, allowing the local adaptation of RCM outputs using the high-resolution observations available in the area of

<sup>1</sup>Meteorological Hazards Analysis Team, Department of Astronomy and Meteorology, Faculty of Physics, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain.

<sup>2</sup>Observatori de l'Ebre, URL-CSIC, Roquetes, Spain.

<sup>3</sup>Instituto de Física de Cantabria, CSIC-UC, Santander, Spain.

interest. Note that, although RCMs provide regional climate details compared to the GCMs (with resolutions of tens and hundreds of kilometers, respectively), the importance of calibration and downscaling of RCM outputs for climate change impact studies has been pointed out and discussed in several studies [Fowler *et al.*, 2007; Christensen *et al.*, 2008a; Herrera *et al.*, 2010; Quintana-Seguí *et al.*, 2010; Fowler and Ekstroem, 2009].

[5] In this study we analyze the state-of-the-art ensemble of ten RCMs produced in the ENSEMBLES project at a 25 km resolution (see Kjellström *et al.* [2010] and other papers in the same special issue). In particular, we consider the ERA40-driven simulation in the control period 1961–2000, and focus on precipitation over Spain. In a recent paper, Herrera *et al.* [2010] show that some of these models have strong biases and exhibit a poor performance when reproducing the mean precipitation regime and annual cycle in this region. In addition, they overestimate the frequency of rainfall and they deficiently represent the extreme events. In this paper, these models are statistically post-processed applying a MOS version of the popular analog downscaling technique [Lorenz, 1969] to their precipitation fields (this method is hereafter referred to as MOS analog method).

[6] The study has two main objectives: (1) testing the skill of a MOS-like downscaling method for mean and extreme precipitation in a complex area (with both Atlantic and Mediterranean climates) at daily scale and (2) evaluating the possibility to obtain more homogeneous and calibrated ensembles by improving the reliability of the worst-performing RCMs (those with higher biases and larger improving potential).

[7] The study is organized as follows. In Section 2, a short description of the precipitation characteristics in Spain is given and the RCM and observational data sets used in the paper are described; Section 3 presents the downscaling method used, and Section 4 analyzes the validation results. Finally, Section 5 synthesizes the main results and conclusions of this study.

## 2. Region of Study and Data

[8] The Iberian Peninsula—located on the south-west edge Europe, between 36° and 44°N and 10°W and 3°E—is an important region for precipitation studies for two main reasons. First, precipitation plays a major role on water resources and natural hazards in this area [Garrote *et al.*, 2007; Llasat, 2009], thus leading to one of the most vulnerable countries to water scarcity, droughts and floods in Europe [Kristensen, 2010]. Secondly, its complex orography and particular location—at the transition area between extra-tropical and subtropical influence [Jansá, 1997; Giorgi and Lionello, 2008]—determines a great variety of climates with both Atlantic and Mediterranean influences. Thus, precipitation is characterized by a complex spatial pattern [Serrano *et al.*, 1999], with a strong seasonal cycle and large interannual [Trigo and Palutikof, 2001] and spatial [Rodríguez-Puebla *et al.*, 1998; Romero *et al.*, 1998; Martín-Vide, 2004; Rodrigo and Trigo, 2007] variability.

[9] The annual precipitation decreases from north-west (with a typical Atlantic precipitation regime) to south-east (with a Mediterranean precipitation regime). The north has the largest accumulated values (1000–2500 mm/year) with a

maximum in winter and rainfall spread out over the year. The majority of the central part of the peninsula receives less than 500 mm/year. The south-east is characterized by a semiarid climate with areas with less than 100 mm/year. Finally, the Mediterranean coast and part of the Ebro basin exhibit bimodal Autumn-Spring maxima with accumulated annual values of less than 700 mm/year, where frequent drought periods alternate to heavy rainfall events [Llasat, 2009]. Due to this strong variability, Spain represents a challenge area for downscaling studies [Herrera *et al.*, 2010].

### 2.1. Interpolated Observations: Spain02

[10] The observed data of daily precipitation used in this study is provided by the high-resolution (0.2° × 0.2°, approximately 20 km × 20 km) gridded data set Spain02 [Herrera *et al.*, 2011], which is publicly available for research activities. This data set was produced using data from 2756 quality-controlled stations from the Spanish Meteorological Agency (AEMET), covering the Iberian Peninsula and the Balearic Islands over the period 1950–2008 (see Figure 1).

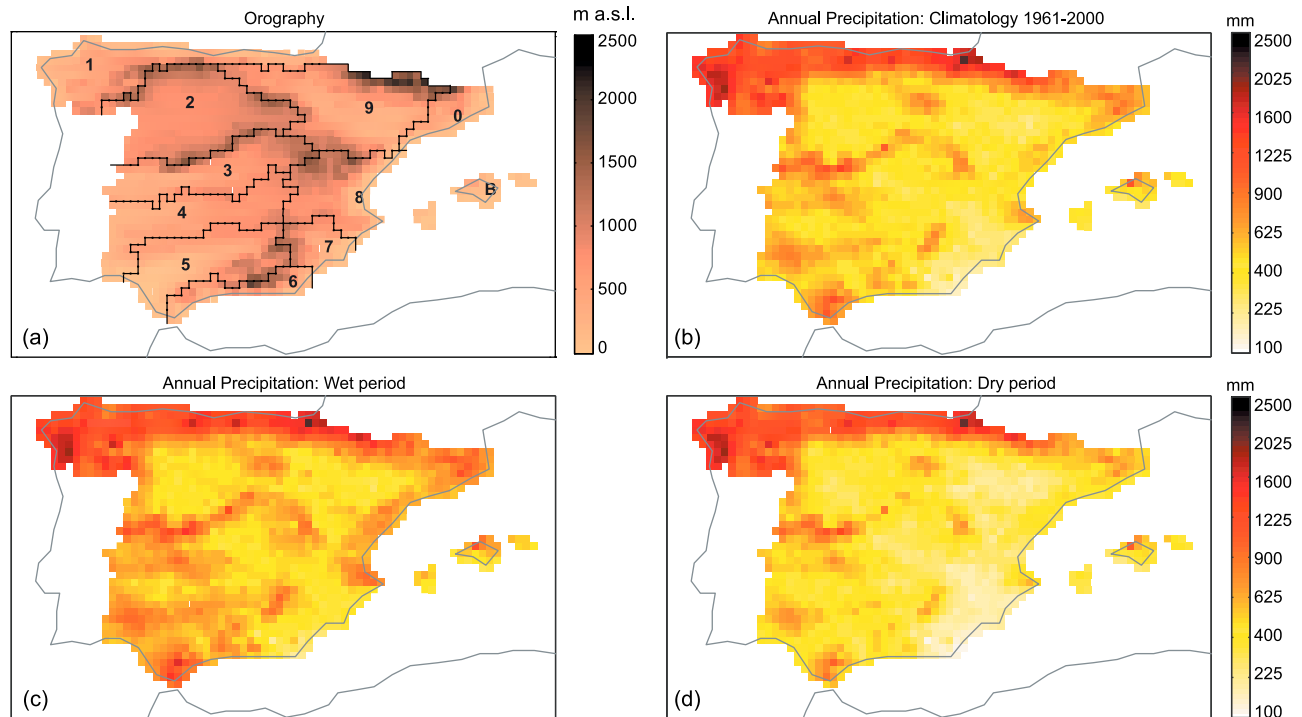
[11] This gridded precipitation data set was produced applying the kriging method in a two-step process. First, the occurrence was interpolated using a binary kriging and, in a second step, the amounts were interpolated by applying ordinary kriging to the occurrence outcomes. Spain02 was validated against station data obtaining a good performance for precipitation occurrence, accumulated amounts, variability and seasonality. Moreover, an analysis of upper percentiles and extreme indicators revealed the capability of Spain02 to reproduce the intensity and spatial variability of extremes (see Herrera *et al.* [2011] and <http://www.meteo.unican.es/datasets/spain02> for more details).

[12] This data set has been used by Herrera *et al.* [2010] to evaluate the RCMs described in Section 2.2, assessing their performance to reproduce both the mean and extreme precipitation regimes.

### 2.2. ENSEMBLES RCM Data Set

[13] The EU-funded project ENSEMBLES produced an ensemble of regional simulations at a 25 km resolution using state-of-the-art RCMs [van der Linden and Mitchell, 2009] driven by both ERA40 reanalysis data [Uppala *et al.*, 2005] in a control period, and future A1B scenario simulations of different GCMs. In this paper we consider the ERA40-driven runs from ten models for the common period 1961–2000 (see Table 1). The main advantage of these runs is their day-to-day correspondence, to some extent, with observations, since the RCM simulations are driven at the boundaries by the reanalysis. As we shall see in Section 4.3, this property is the key reason for the successful application of the MOS approach in this context. Moreover, the resulting validation is a characteristic of each particular RCM, since all the regional models have the same realistic (reanalysis) boundary conditions.

[14] Herrera *et al.* [2010] evaluated the mean and extreme precipitation regimes from these RCMs over Spain (with the exception of the ICTP model, not available at the time of their work) and reported a subset of five models best performing over this region (see footnote b in Table 1). The



**Figure 1.** (a) Topography of Spanish Iberian Peninsula and the Balearic Islands as represented by Spain02 at  $0.2^\circ \times 0.2^\circ$ , showing the main river basins: 0. Catalana, 1. Norte, 2. Duero, 3. Tajo, 4. Guadiana, 5. Guadalquivir, 6. Sur, 7. Segura, 8. Levante, 9. Ebro, B. Baleares. Annual precipitation from Spain02 (mm) (b) in the period 1961–2000, (c) in the wettest years, and (d) in the driest years; see Section 4 for the definition of the wettest and driest years.

resulting 5-model ensemble performed better than the individual models and than the total ensemble.

[15] For practical reason, the daily outputs of the RCMs were bilinearly interpolated from their original resolution (25 km) to the grid defined by Spain02 (20 km approximately). This manipulation might decrease the quality of the simulated data; however, in this case the data will be used as predictor for the downscaling method and thus the interpolation does not influence the final results.

### 3. Methodology: MOS Based on Analogs

[16] Perfect prognosis (PP) is the most popular and widely used statistical downscaling approach at seasonal and climate change scales [see *Benestad et al.*, 2008, and refer-

ences therein]. In this case, a statistical model is first derived to relate the reanalysis —quasi-observations— large scale predictors (e.g. sea level pressure) to the observed local predictands (e.g. precipitation). Then, the resulting model is applied to obtain local projections of future GCM simulations by using the corresponding GCM outputs as predictors. As an alternative to this approach, it has been recently suggested [*Maraun et al.*, 2010] that the MOS methodology could be directly applied to the RCM outputs, using a reanalysis-driven control period to train and validate the methods. In this case, the predictor is the RCM output variable (i.e. the predicted precipitation) which is directly related to the observed variable using an appropriate statistical method. Thus, this alternative may overcome some of the known drawbacks of the PP methods, such as the

**Table 1.** Summary of the RCM Simulations Nested in ERA40 Data Produced for the ENSEMBLES Project<sup>a</sup>

Acronym	Institution	Model	Reference
CNRM	Centre National de Recherches Meteorologiques	ALADIN-Climat	<i>Radu et al.</i> [2008]
DMI	Danish Meteorological Institute	HIRHAM	<i>Christensen et al.</i> [2008b]
ETHZ <sup>b</sup>	Swiss Institute of Technology	CLM	<i>Jaeger et al.</i> [2008]
KNMI <sup>b</sup>	Koninklijk Nederlands Meteorologisch Instituut	RACMO	<i>Van Meijgaard et al.</i> [2008]
HC <sup>b</sup>	Hadley Center/UK MetOffice	HadRM3 Q0	<i>Collins et al.</i> [2006]
ICTP	Abdus Salam International Centre for Theoretical Physics	RegCM3	<i>Pal et al.</i> [2007]
METNO	The Norwegian Meteorological Institute	HIRHAM	<i>Haugen and Haakensatd</i> [2005]
MPI <sup>b</sup>	Max Planck Institute for Meteorology	M-REMO	<i>Jacob</i> [2001]
SMHI	Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute	RCA	<i>Kjellström et al.</i> [2005]
UCLM <sup>b</sup>	Universidad de Castilla la Mancha	PROMES	<i>Sanchez et al.</i> [2004]

<sup>a</sup>The columns are the acronym used in the paper, the institution running the simulation, the model used and a reference publication.

<sup>b</sup>The best performing models in this region according to *Herrera et al.* [2010].

**Table 2.** The Ten Wettest and the Ten Driest Years in Spain Within the Period 1961–2000<sup>a</sup>

Period	Years
Wettest	1996, 1969, 1997, 1979, 1963, 1972, 1977, 1989, 1971 and 1987
Driest	1964, 1998, 1994, 1990, 1970, 1967, 1983, 1973, 1980 and 1981

<sup>a</sup>The years have been obtained by ranking the grid point standardized spatially averaged precipitation.

underestimation of high intensity events [Wilks and Wilby, 1999] and the spatial and temporal variability [Maraun et al., 2010]. Besides, the PP methods do not necessarily provide consistency between different downscaled variables [Wilby and Wigley, 1997].

[17] Some simple MOS methods have been recently proposed in the literature to correct RCM simulations by an additive term for temperature [Déqué, 2007] or by a scaling factor for precipitation [Widmann et al., 2003]. Quantile mapping attempts to correct the whole distribution [Déqué, 2007; Piani et al., 2010]. MOS methods are still in a rather premature state of development and substantial improvements are currently under development.

[18] In this paper, we present a MOS adaptation of the popular analog methodology (hereafter referred to as MOS analog). The analog method was first developed for weather forecasting [Lorenz, 1969; Obled et al., 2002; Gibergans-Baguena and Llasat, 2007] and later applied to climate scales [Zorita et al., 1995; Cubasch et al., 1996; Zorita and von Storch, 1999; Timbal et al., 2003; Benestad et al., 2008], so it is nowadays a popular and widely used technique in climate change studies. The analog method is based on the hypothesis that “analogue” atmospheric patterns (predictors) should cause “analogue” local effects (predictands). This leads to a simple algorithm to infer the local occurrence associated with a given atmospheric pattern based on the historical occurrences of a set of “analog days” (those historical days with patterns more similar to the given one). This can be simply done by considering the mean (or other suitable statistic) of the historical local occurrences for the analog days. The main advantages of this method are that (1) it is able to reproduce nonlinear relationship between predictors and predictands, (2) it is easy to implement with low computational cost, and (3) it is able to reproduce realistic and spatially coherent precipitation patterns.

[19] The main drawback of the method is that it cannot simulate unobserved weather patterns, although it can produce accumulated values or frequencies over several days larger (or smaller) than the historical values. This limitation is related to the assumption of “stationarity” [Wilby et al., 2004], a common weakness of all the downscaling methods—the parametrizations of the dynamical models and the statistical relationship between predictors and predictands must hold in the projected climate, which cannot be taken for granted [Trenberth et al., 2003]. This limitation should be cautiously taken into account for climate change studies, although this problem can be mitigated using a long database of observations with a great variety of situations [Zorita and von Storch, 1999] and using robust

statistical relationships based on a small number of parameters and on a physical predictor/predictand relationship [Benestad et al., 2008; Maraun et al., 2010]. This is the case of the MOS analog method, where a unique predictor (model precipitation) is used.

[20] Given an historical training period (with known predictors and predictands) and a projection period (with known predictors), the MOS analog downscaling consists of three main steps to estimate the corresponding projected predictands:

[21] 1. Selection of an appropriate subgrid within the RCM domain over the area of study, capturing the physical scales relevant for the predictand of interest (observed precipitation in this case). In our case we consider the 0.2° subgrid covering the Iberian Peninsula described in Section 2.2 and consider the predictor pattern defined by the RCM precipitation on this grid.

[22] 2. For each predictor pattern from the projection period, the closest historical pattern (analog) within the training period is computed considering the Euclidean distance between the two raw precipitation fields (according to Matulla et al. [2007] this is a reasonable first choice among the standard measures of similarity). A larger number of analogs were also considered, but a single analog exhibited the best performance according to the validation metrics considered in the study.

[23] 3. Then, the local precipitation projected for the predictand (Spain02) is simply obtained as the historical occurrence of the predictand on the analog day.

[24] In order to select the predictor domain, different experiments were performed. We focused on the Ebro basin (see Figure 1), which is a demanding test for a downscaling method due to the large precipitation variability in this region with Atlantic and Mediterranean influences. Three predictor domains were considered: the Spain02 domain (i.e. the Spanish Iberian Peninsula and the Balearic Islands), the Mediterranean coast (i.e. the Mediterranean river basins show in Figure 1), and, finally, the Ebro basin itself. Several validation experiments were performed using these domains with different RCMs and different train/test periods. It came out that the skill was more influenced by the different test periods or different RCMs than by the different domains. For this reason, the predictor domain for our experiments over the Iberian Peninsula was Spain02.

#### 4. Validation and Results

[25] The skill of the MOS analog method has been evaluated using a cross-validation approach, considering reanalysis data and observations within the period 1961–2000. The data was split into two subsets, 30 years for model training/calibration and 10 years for validation. To test the robustness of the statistical relationship in a changing climate, two different test periods were used: the ten wettest years and the ten driest years, respectively. Since the annual precipitation in Spain does not exhibit any general trend [Rio et al., 2010], the wettest (driest) years have been identified in the following way: the annual total precipitation for each point has been standardized, spatially averaged and finally sorted. The resulting wettest (driest) years are given in Table 2. Note that cross validation requires that the test and training samples are randomly drawn from the population; thus,

**Table 3.** Climatic Mean and Extreme Indices for Precipitation Used in This Work<sup>a</sup>

Label	Description	Units
PRCPTOT	total precipitation	mm
SDII	mean precipitation amount on a wet day	mm
R10	number of days with precipitation over 10 mm/day	day
R20	number of days with precipitation over 20 mm/day	day
RX1DAY	maximum precipitation in 1 day	mm
RX5DAY	maximum precipitation in 5 days	mm
CDD	consecutive dry days (<1 mm)	day
CWD	consecutive wet days (>1 mm)	day

<sup>a</sup>See also ETCCDI <http://cccma.seos.uvic.ca/ETCCDI>.

although the ten wettest (driest) years do not conform a proper test sample, our objective is measuring the performance of the method in changing climate conditions and, hence, the present cross-validation procedure provides a more informative assessment of the downscaling methodology regarding its suitability for future scenario simulations.

[26] Two main approaches have been applied to evaluate the skill of the downscaling (see *Murphy* [1993] for a description of forecast validation). First, we compare the simulated (both RCM outputs and MOS downscaled ones) and observed climatologies (spatial patterns) considering standard reliability measures (Section 4.1) and the annual cycle (Section 4.2). Secondly, since the reanalysis-driven RCM simulations acquire certain day-to-day correspondence with observations, the simulated and observed time series are also compared at a grid-point basis using standard accuracy measures (Section 4.3).

#### 4.1. Reliability of the Mean and Extreme Climates

[27] The ability of RCMs and MOS analog to reproduce the annual climatology (spatial pattern) for the precipitation indices shown in Table 3 has been tested. These indices were computed working with daily data and are a subset of the standard ETCCDI indices characterizing total precipitation, dry and wet spells and extremes [*World Meteorological Organization*, 2009].

[28] Simple performance scores (bias, mean absolute error and correlation) were computed for the spatial pattern of the annual indices and averaged over the ten year wet (dry) validation periods, respectively:

[29] 1. ME: Normalized spatial mean error (or bias)

$$ME = \frac{1}{n \cdot \bar{O}} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - O_i) \quad (1)$$

[30] 2. MAE: Normalized spatial mean absolute error

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n \cdot \bar{O}} \sum_{i=1}^n |Y_i - O_i| \quad (2)$$

where  $Y_i$  and  $O_i$  are the simulated and observed indices, respectively, for the  $i$ -th grid-point ( $n = 1445$ ), averaged over the ten year period of validation. Note that these values are normalized to the spatial mean of the observations  $\bar{O}$  [*Bachner et al.*, 2008].

[31] 3. CORR: Spatial correlation calculated by the Spearman rank correlation coefficient

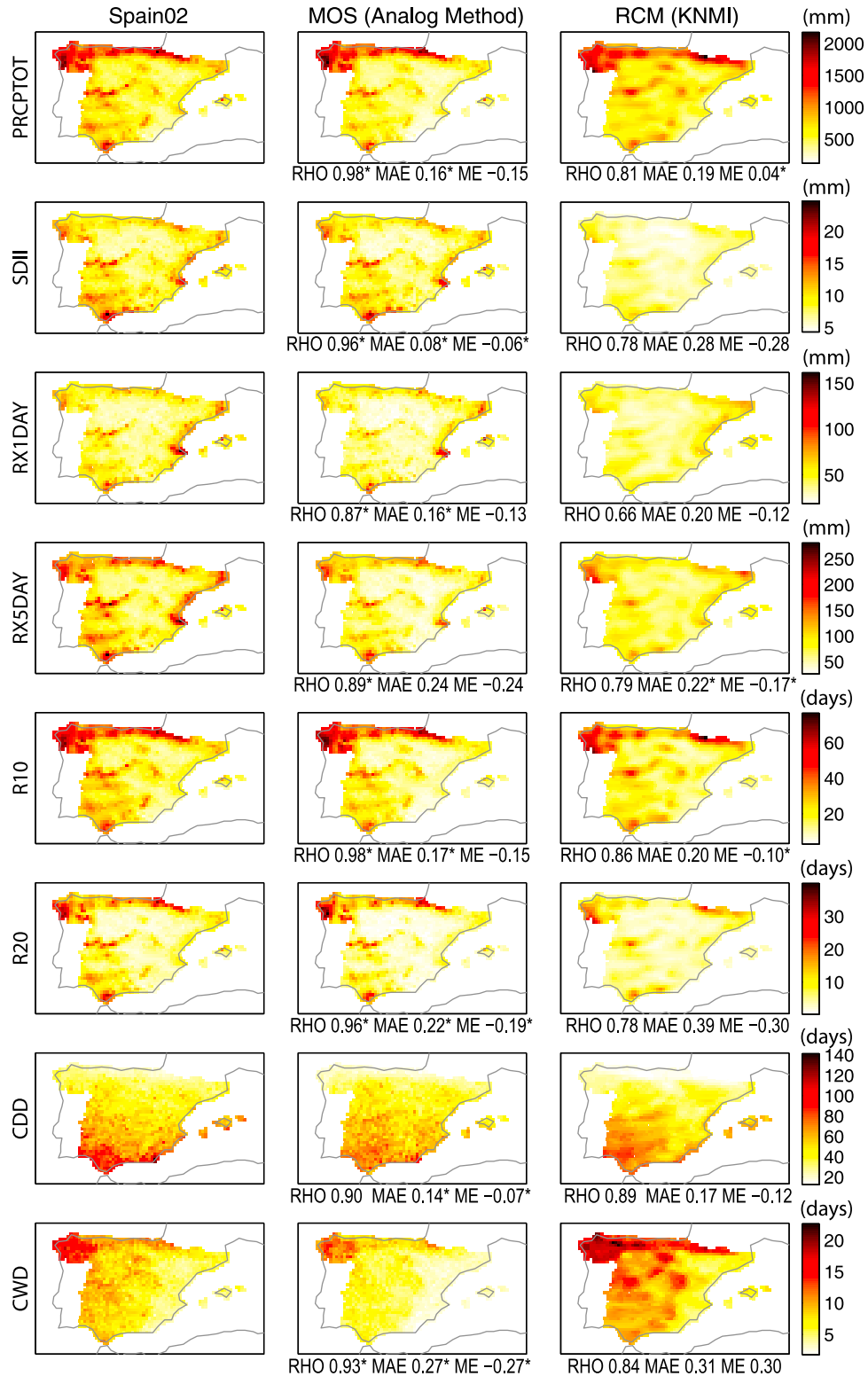
$$CORR = 1 - \frac{6 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n D_i^2}{n \cdot (n^2 - 1)}, \quad (3)$$

where  $D_i$  is the difference in ranks of the  $i$ -th data pair ( $Y_i, O_i$ ). Note that the Spearman correlation is more robust to outliers and linearity than the classical Pearson correlation.

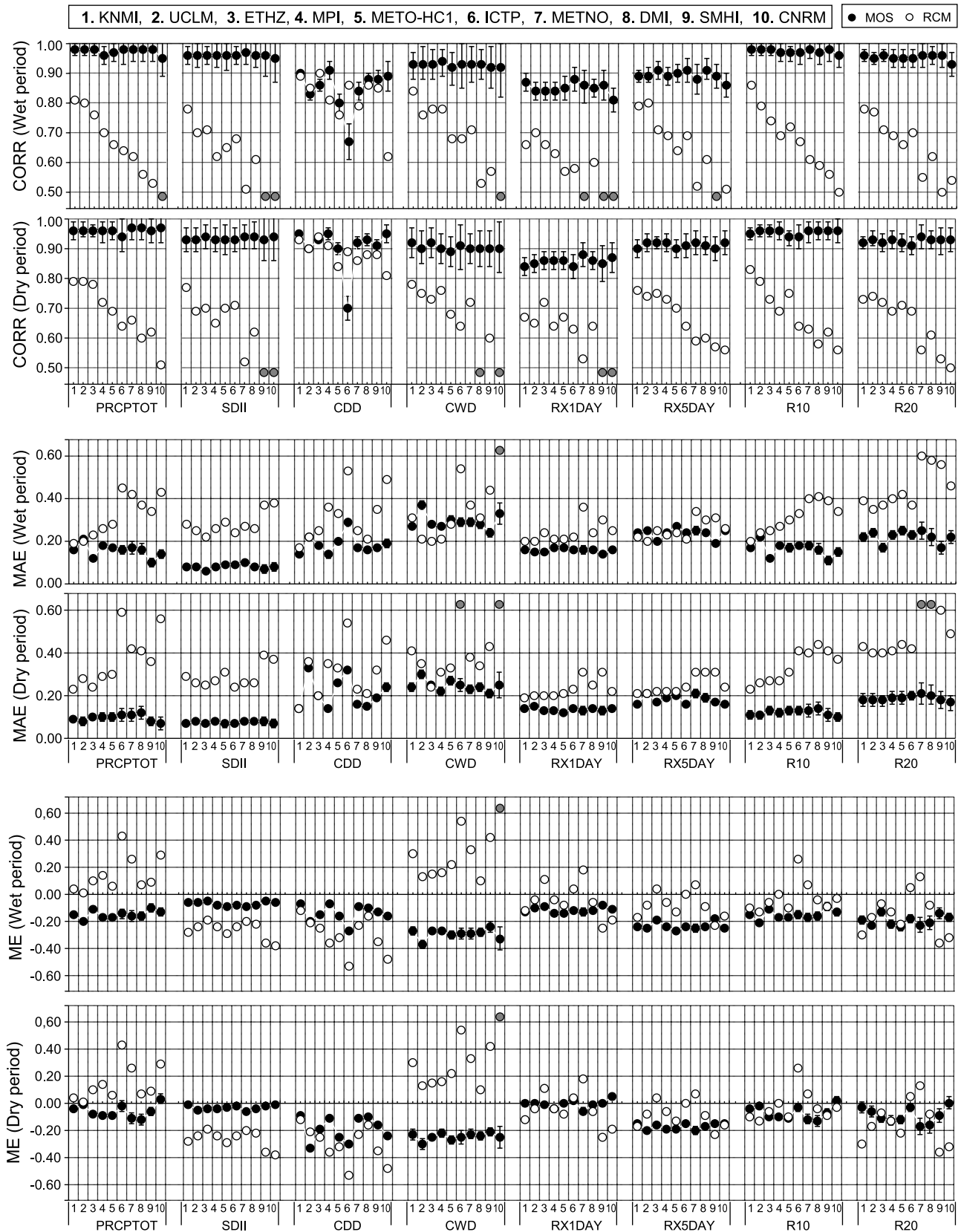
[32] These scores were calculated both for the original RCM simulations and for the MOS analog downscaled values ( $ME_1$  and  $ME_2$ , respectively, for the first score) and the resulting differences were statistically tested for significance (the null hypothesis is  $ME_1 - ME_2 = 0$ ) applying bootstrap resampling with 1000 realizations, obtaining the 95% confidence intervals [*Efron and Tibshirani*, 1993]. *Bachner et al.* [2008] applied a similar test to evaluate the skill differences among RCMs.

[33] As an illustrative example, and for the sake of simplicity, in Figure 2 we show the comparison maps for the KNMI model and the corresponding MOS analog values for the wet test period; note that this RCM has been chosen since it is one of the most skillful for precipitation in this region (see *Herrera et al.* [2010] and Figure 3). The panels in this figure show the annual values of the indices (averaged in the validation period of ten years) for the observed grid Spain02 (first column) the MOS analog downscaled values (second column) and the regional KNMI simulations (third column); the numbers below the figures indicate the correlation ( $CORR$ ), bias ( $ME$ ) and mean absolute error ( $MAE$ ) values for the MOS analog and RCM with regards to the observed ones. An asterisk next to the MOS, or RCM, indicate those values where the score is significantly better ( $P$ -value < 0.05) than the one corresponding to the RCM, or MOS, respectively. This figure shows that the MOS analog downscaled values clearly outperform the uncalibrated RCM outputs, with significant differences in most of the cases.

[34] Figure 3 summarizes the verification results for all the models and indices shown in Table 3 considering the scores defined previously. The RCMs have been ranked from 1 to 10 according to the correlation value of total precipitation ( $PRCPTOT$ ) for the wet period (Figure 3, top left). This ranking agrees with *Herrera et al.* [2010]. The 95% confidence interval for each individual score is also shown, as a vertical line displayed over the MOS analog downscaled values (filled circles). Thus, when the RCM values (circles) are outside this interval, the differences are statistically significant ( $P$ -value < 0.05). The values above (or below) the upper (or lower) axis bounds are displayed as gray shaded circles; for instance, correlations smaller than 0.5 are not shown in the figure and, hence, cases with smaller values are just marked with a gray shaded circle. This figure shows that, overall, the same correlation and error patterns are obtained for wet (upper panels) and dry (lower) test periods, with slightly better results in the later case. The MOS analog downscaling method dramatically improves the RCM results for  $PRCPTOT$ ,  $SDII$ ,  $CWD$ ,  $R10$  and  $R20$ , with correlation values larger than 0.9 in all cases and with smaller  $MAEs$  and  $MEs$ . The improvement is also evident for the extremes  $RX1DAY$  and  $RX5DAY$ , with cor-



**Figure 2.** Spatial distribution of the (left) observed, (middle) downscaled and (right) RCM mean values (averaged over the wet validation period) for the precipitation indices shown in Table 3. The spatial validation scores (correlation and errors) for the MOS analog and RCM simulated values are given below the corresponding panels. The asterisks next to the MOS (or RCM) scores indicate those situations where the score is significantly better (larger for correlation and smaller for errors) than the one corresponding to the RCM (or MOS), respectively.



**Figure 3.** Summary of validation results for *CORR*, *ME* and *MAE* for the different indices and validation (wet and dry) periods. Open circles represent the RCM values and the filled circles downscaled values. See the running text for more details.

relations larger than 0.8; however, in this case the *MAEs* and *MEs* improvement is smaller than for the previous scores.

[35] Regarding the *ME*, even though the MOS analog tends to underestimate the indices studied, it is able to reduce the *ME* of the RCMs in the dry period—with the exception of *RX5DAY* index,—while it leads to similar or worse *ME* in the majority of cases for the wet period. The MOS analog downscaling method is also able to improve the *MAE* score for all the RCMs and for all the indices considered, with few exceptions for some RCMs in the case of *RX5DAY* and *CWD*, considering the wet test period. Generally, the *MAE* of the MOS analog is slightly bigger when it is tested in the wettest period. This may be a result of the relatively short training period the MOS analog was based on, with a relatively low sampling of the heavy precipitation amount.

[36] Note that although *PRCPTOT* is overestimated for most of the RCMs, the precipitation on wet days (*SDII*) is underestimated. This problem is due to the overestimation of rainfall frequency by RCMs, as they tend to drizzle [see, e.g., Gutowski et al., 2003]. However, as it is shown in Figure 3, the MOS analog solves this problem, leading to unbiased estimates of both indices (except in the wet test period, where the downscaled total precipitation is slightly underestimated).

[37] The index *CDD* is the one with worst performance for the MOS analog method, providing only a slight improvement over the values of the RCM. In fact, our algorithm is able to improve the *ME* and *MAE* of the *CDD*, but not always its correlation (in particular in the case of the ITCP model, probably due to the great overestimation of the rainy days by this model). As we show in Section 4.3, the *CDD* index is highly sensitive to the autocorrelation of the time series and, consequently, to the accuracy of the RCM. This should be further investigated by modifying the analogue search to match not only a given rainfall pattern but a pattern succession or, in other words, considering dynamical patterns (see for instance the work of Gutiérrez et al. [2004]).

[38] Overall, the MOS analog method is able to improve the above considered reliability scores for different indices (Table 3) for all RCMs, thus attaining an appropriate calibration in all cases, regardless of their respective skills. This is the main advantage of the MOS analog methodology, based on a resampling of the observed space driven by the historical analogs of RCM fields. As we show in Section 4.3 this calibration is done preserving the daily accuracy of the RCM and, thus, the downscaled output can be considered a calibrated local version of the RCM values. This is an important result since it permits to enlarge the ensemble of RCMs avoiding discarding those with bad reliability, since they can have a similar accuracy and could be calibrated as shown in this work.

[39] Finally, the results reported in this section show that, although the MOS analog downscaling improved the RCM results in wet and dry periods, the added value in the former period is less evident (since it cannot simulate unobserved weather patterns) and, consequently, it should be cautiously considered in the projection of future climate scenarios.

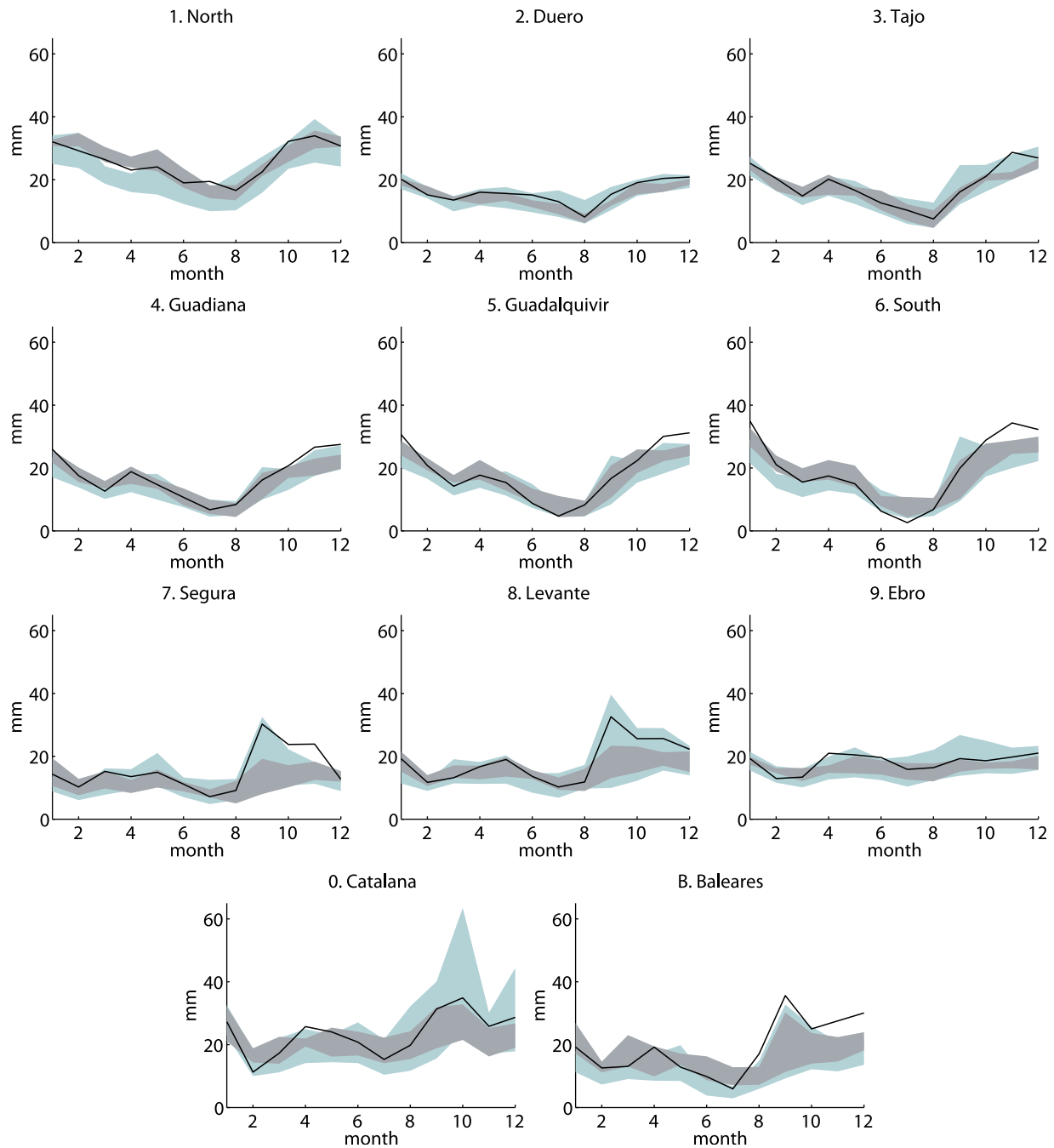
## 4.2. Validation Over the Annual Cycle

[40] As already mentioned, the precipitation in Spain is characterized by a large variability in space and time. In particular the Iberian rainfall has a strong seasonal cycle that differs considerably among the river basins shown in Figure 1a. In the previous section we evaluated the performance of the MOS analog method to represent the annual climatologies of different indices. In this section, in order to assess the correspondence of the simulated and observed annual cycles, we analyze the performance of the methods in the different river basins at a monthly scale. A recent study has shown the capability of RCMs to simulate the annual precipitation cycle in the different river basins, specially using a five-member ensemble formed by the best performing RCMs [Herrera et al., 2010]. In this section we also consider this five-model ensemble (see footnote b in Table 1), but we focus on extremes. Thus, we consider the annual cycle of the *RX1DAY*, i.e. the monthly maximum value, averaging the grid point indices at a basin level, thus providing useful information for hydrological studies. It is important to underline that the spatial averages smooths the peaks, since the distribution is not uniform over the area; to analyze this effect the calculations were repeated considering the standardized (to zero mean and unit variance) individual point series, obtaining similar results in qualitative terms (e.g. the shape of the different precipitation regimes). For this reason we show the spatial averaged series calculated with the original series, since they provide useful quantitative information.

[41] Figure 4 considers the wet test period, showing the observed *RX1DAY* values (black line) and the simulated values for the ensemble of RCMs (light shade) and MOS analog values (dark shade). For a better comparison, all the plots have the same scale, ranging from 0 to 60 mm. The annual cycle is reproduced quite properly by both the RCMs and MOS analog downscalings, with a reduced spread (smaller uncertainty) in the later case. Similar results have been obtained in the dry test period, or considering the full ensemble (not shown). In the Mediterranean basin (defined by the union of the Segura, Levante, Ebro, Catalana and Baleares river basins), the *RX1DAY* cycle presents two maximum periods, the major one in autumn (in the range of around 20–35 mm) and the secondary in spring (around 15–25 mm), although the amounts differ among the basins. This characteristic is also present considering the total precipitation instead of the maximum value and it is a representative aspect of the Western Mediterranean climatology [Romero et al., 1998]. Here, the *RX1DAY* values are usually due to convective events [Llasat, 2001], leading also to a higher RCM spread—note that the convective parametrization schemes are an important source of error in RCM simulated precipitation [Hohenegger et al., 2008]. The remaining basins have a maximum in winter, with values in the range 20–35 mm, and a minimum in summer, with values ranging from 5 mm (Baleares, Guadalquivir and Sur) to 20 mm (North basin).

[42] The performance of the MOS analog method to reproduce the observed seasonal cycles in the different basins is quite remarkable, with the only exception of the

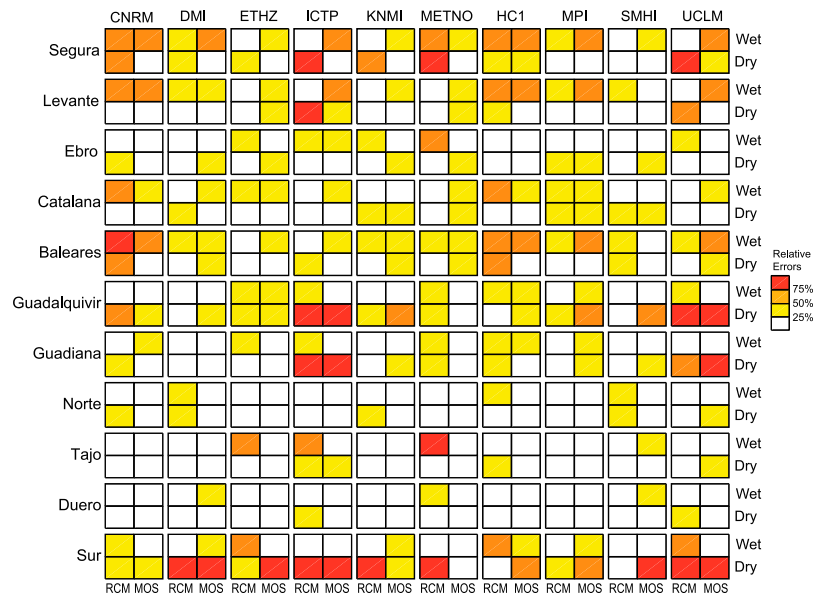




**Figure 4.** Seasonal cycle (long-term averaged monthly values) of the spatially averaged *RX1DAY* index (in mm) for each river basin (labeled according to Figure 1a). The black line represents the observed (Spain02) climatology. The light shaded band spans the values for the RCMs while the dark one spans the respective MOS downscaled values. The results correspond to the wet test period.

autumn months (mainly September) in the Segura and Levante river basins, where the series show the maximum values (also the maximum spread), which is underestimated by the MOS analog. In order to better investigate this aspect, the *RX1DAY* differences among the different RCMs and the corresponding MOS analog values, and the observed series for September have been reported in Figure 5, for each river basin and for the two test periods (wet and dry, in rows). The different colors in the figure show relative errors, i.e., the absolute difference of simulated and observed value

divided by the observed value. The biggest errors appear for the Sur, Guadalquivir, Guadiana, Segura, Levante and Baleares river basins, i.e. the south and the Mediterranean river basins. Considering the latter, it is remarkable how the MOS analog downscaling method reduces the error of the corresponding RCM during the test dry period; however, it has similar or worst performance during the wet periods. In the other basins, the MOS analog downscaling method has generally similar or better performance the RCM error regardless of the period (wet or dry).



**Figure 5.** Differences among simulated (MOS as well the respective RCM) and observed *RX1DAY* value for the month of September, relative to the observed values. The results are given for each river basin and test period (wet and dry). Red colors represent errors greater than 75%, orange between 50% and 75%, yellow between 25% and 50%, and white errors less than 25%.

[43] Regarding the ten models analyzed in Figure 5, DMI, ETHZ, KNMI and SMHI have the lowest errors, lower than 50% in the majority of the cases. There is not best RCM for all river basins and situations. This variability of the performance of the RCMs supports the use of an ensemble of RCM simulations in impact studies, both for improving the performance and for estimating the uncertainty. Another consequence is that disregarding one RCM because performs poorly in one fixed period in a certain area could lead to a loss of valuable information for other periods/areas.

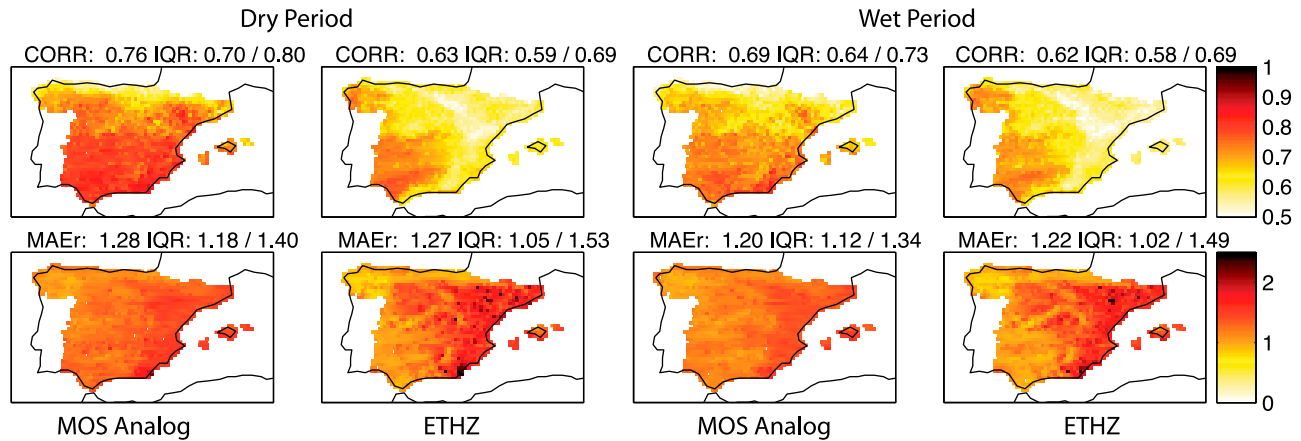
**4.3. Accuracy of the Daily Series**

[44] In this section we test the daily accuracy of RCM simulations and the corresponding MOS analog values. To this aim, at each grid box, we computed the relative mean absolute error (as in equation (1)) and the Spearman correlation between the simulated series and the observations. Table 4 summarizes the results for all models and test periods considered. The different performance metrics are provided in columns and the RCMs and test periods in rows. This table shows that the MOS analog technique

**Table 4.** Accuracy Scores for the MOS Analog and RCM Methods<sup>a</sup>

		<i>CORR</i>		<i>MAEr</i>	
		MOS	RCM	MOS	RCM
CNRM	DRY	0.70 (0.61/0.75)	0.48 (0.45/0.52)	1.49 (1.38/1.68)	1.84 (1.43/2.25)
	WET	0.63 (0.55/0.69)	0.45 (0.40/0.50)	1.34 (1.21/1.46)	1.63 (1.30/1.99)
DMI	DRY	0.76 (0.70/0.80)	0.58 (0.51/0.60)	1.24 (1.14/1.37)	1.23 (1.00/1.50)
	WET	0.69 (0.64/0.74)	0.59 (0.54/0.63)	1.16 (1.07/1.31)	1.17 (0.95/1.42)
ETHZ	DRY	0.76 (0.70/0.80)	0.63 (0.59/0.69)	1.28 (1.18/1.40)	1.27 (1.05/1.53)
	WET	0.69 (0.64/0.73)	0.62 (0.58/0.69)	1.20 (1.12/1.34)	1.22 (1.02/1.49)
ICTP	DRY	0.74 (0.68/0.78)	0.58 (0.53/0.64)	1.34 (1.24/1.47)	1.70 (1.33/2.16)
	WET	0.67 (0.61/0.71)	0.57 (0.51/0.64)	1.22 (1.14/1.36)	1.48 (1.18/1.88)
KNMI	DRY	0.76 (0.70/0.80)	0.59 (0.56/0.65)	1.29 (1.17/1.43)	1.27 (1.01/1.48)
	WET	0.70 (0.64/0.75)	0.60 (0.55/0.67)	1.16 (1.06/1.30)	1.14 (0.93/1.35)
METNO	DRY	0.76 (0.71/0.80)	0.62 (0.58/0.67)	1.23 (1.12/1.39)	1.33 (1.08/1.60)
	WET	0.69 (0.63/0.74)	0.61 (0.56/0.66)	1.18 (1.07/1.32)	1.28 (1.05/1.53)
METO-HC1	DRY	0.73 (0.66/0.77)	0.56 (0.53/0.60)	1.36 (1.25/1.53)	1.35 (1.12/1.57)
	WET	0.66 (0.60/0.71)	0.55 (0.51/0.60)	1.24 (1.15/1.39)	1.28 (1.06/1.51)
MPI	DRY	0.76 (0.71/0.80)	0.59 (0.55/0.61)	1.24 (1.14/1.38)	1.35 (1.10/1.56)
	WET	0.70 (0.65/0.75)	0.59 (0.54/0.63)	1.15 (1.06/1.28)	1.27 (1.03/1.48)
SMHI	DRY	0.76 (0.71/0.81)	0.61 (0.56/0.67)	1.23 (1.13/1.39)	1.27 (0.97/1.53)
	WET	0.70 (0.65/0.75)	0.62 (0.55/0.67)	1.16 (1.07/1.32)	1.18 (0.83/1.45)
UCLM	DRY	0.68 (0.61/0.73)	0.54 (0.49/0.60)	1.53 (1.43/1.63)	1.52 (1.30/1.76)
	WET	0.63 (0.56/0.68)	0.52 (0.47/0.57)	1.30 (1.23/1.40)	1.34 (1.15/1.58)

<sup>a</sup>Each cell shows the median and *IQR* (in parentheses) of the spatial distribution of the *CORR* and the *MAEr*, for the RCMs and the respective MOS analog, for the wet and dry test period.

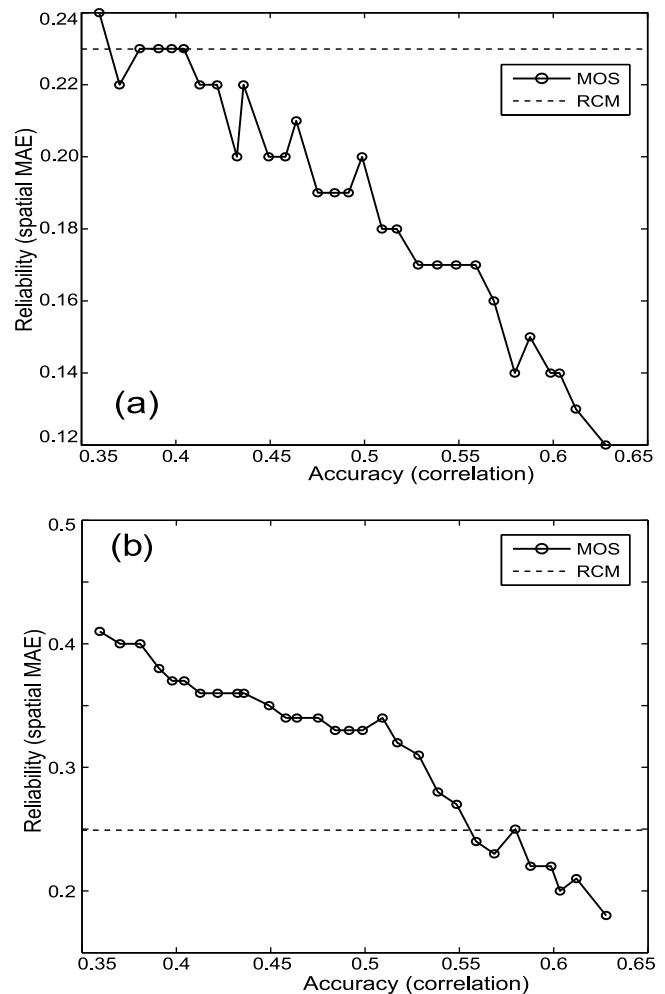


**Figure 6.** *CORR* and *MAEr* comparing the ETHZ model with the MOS analog for the (left) dry test period and (right) wet test period. The values on the top of each map are the median and the interquartile range (tIQR) of the spatial distribution of the corresponding score.

greatly improves the correlation and preserves (or slightly improves) the RCM MAEr, with smaller spatial variability of the results (see, e.g. the *MAEr* quantities in Table 4).

[45] In order to illustrate the spatial distribution of the scores, for the sake of simplicity we only consider here the ETHZ model (see Figure 6); the numbers above the figure indicate the spatial median and the interquartile range (*IQR*) of the scores considered, as in Table 4. The *MAEr* highlights the greater difficulties of the RCMs and the MOS analog method to reproduce the precipitation in the Mediterranean area; moreover, it shows that there are not substantial differences of the score between the two test periods. However, examining in detail the *MAEr* quantities in Table 4 and Figure 6, some differences in the performance between the RCMs and the MOS downscaled counterparts stand out. Generally the MOS analog has slightly greater values of the lowest value of the *IQR* (25th percentile, in the west part of the area), while the RCMs have greater values of the biggest value of the *IQR* (75th percentile, in the Mediterranean area).

[46] The best correlation scores for the ETHZ model are obtained in central-south Spain, while lower correlation values are along the mountains on the north and the Mediterranean; this pattern is common to all the RCMs analyzed, with a west/east decreasing skill. However, the MOS analog technique provides a more uniform correlation pattern with low values restricted to the North. Considering the two test periods, it can be seen that the MOS analog shows lower correlation during the wet period than in the dry one, whereas the RCMs do not have this correlation dependence on the test period. Nevertheless, although the MOS correlation decreases in the wet period, it is still better than the RCM. This improvement is mainly related to ability of the MOS analog to reduce the drizzle days of the RCMs. Indeed, considering only the rain days (>1 mm), the correlation pattern is similar among the MOS analog and the respective RCMs, with a west to east gradient, with values of the same order, around 0.3. These results are also valid when considering the seasonal series instead of the annual ones, with accuracy measures of the same order of magnitude (e.g. correlations around to 0.65).



**Figure 7.** Spatial error (*MAE*) of the precipitation indices (a) *PRCPTOT* and (b) *CDD* for the MOS analog method as a function of the accuracy of the RCM, measured as the daily temporal correlation of the RCM training surrogate data and the observations. The dashed lines indicate the reliability (*MAE*) of the RCM; see running text for more details.

[47] Finally, it has been tested how the daily accuracy of the RCMs influences the reliability of the MOS analog downscaling method. This was achieved by comparing the original MOS downscaled series with several surrogated series obtained resampling the years of the RCMs in the calibration period. That is, it has been considered different surrogate training periods in which the years of the RCMs have been gradually rearranged obtaining a gradual loss in the correspondence between the RCM and the observed fields. The surrogates have been done iteratively by randomly swapping an increasing number of years, from 0 (original series) to 30 years, thus progressively destroying the accuracy of the RCM in the training period, while keeping the seasonal structure. As an illustrative example, and for sake of brevity, in Figure 7 we show the results for the ETHZ model, considering the wet test period. As a measure of the accuracy of the RCM, we consider the daily temporal correlation between the RCM surrogate series and the observations; the reliability (spatial *MAE*) of the RCM in the test period is shown by a dashed line (it is constant since only the RCM years in the calibration period are resampled, not the ones in the test period) whereas the reliability of the MOS downscaled values (for the different surrogate training periods) are marked with circles. Figure 7a shows the results for *PRCPTOT*, where the reliability of the RCM keeps a constant value of 0.23, whereas the MOS analog constantly improves this value up to 0.12 (for the original data, i.e. without resampling). Therefore, as the accuracy of the RCM improves, the MOS analog allows improving the reliability of the downscaled series. Figure 7b shows the case for *CDD*; in this case, since the variable is strongly related to the autocorrelation of the series, it is much more sensitive to the accuracy and an improvement of reliability is only obtained for high RCM accuracy values (in this example for correlation greater than about 0.55). This analysis gives valuable information regarding the minimum RCM accuracy needed for the MOS analog downscaling method in order to perform a proper calibration of the RCM, improving the reliability.

## 5. Summary and Conclusions

[48] In this study we introduced a new Model Output Statistics (MOS) downscaling technique based on analogs (MOS analog), and applied it to downscale precipitation in Spain. Our main goals were: (1) to test the skill of a MOS-like methodology for downscaling RCM simulated precipitation over a complex area and (2) to evaluate the possibility to calibrate relatively low performing RCMs using this methodology. To achieve these objectives we used the state-of-the-art ensemble of ERA40-driven RCM simulations over the common period 1961–2000 provided by the EU-funded ENSEMBLES, as well as a gridded precipitation database developed from thousands of quality controlled stations (Spain02) for Spain, a region with high spatial and temporal precipitation variability.

[49] The MOS analog method was applied considering the RCM precipitation as the single predictor; this variable has been reported in different studies as the most informative for precipitation downscaling purposes, but it is avoided in perfect prognosis downscaling studies since it is very model dependent (e.g. different parameterizations in different

models) and, thus, there may be significative differences between the reanalysis and the GCMs. This problem does not exist in the MOS setting (the RCM precipitation is used both for training and test) allowing us to define a very simple and parsimonious method.

[50] One of the main advantages of the method is that it allows improving the reliability of the RCMs while preserving (or even improving, e.g. for correlation) their accuracy, regardless their own reliability.

[51] The improvements are very good for the mean precipitation indices (e.g. *PRCPTOT* and *SDII*) and also for the frequency (e.g. *CDD*) and the extreme indices (e.g. *RX1DAY*). The ability of the method to reproduce the annual cycle of *RX1DAY* was also tested. It has been found that this index is reproduced quite well at the basin scale by the RCMs and that the MOS improves the results of the RCMs, reducing the spread of the ensemble. In this regard, the method has more difficulties in the Mediterranean basins in autumn, which was expected, due to the importance of convective events.

[52] The conditions under which the MOS analog improves the reliability of the RCM were tested by resampling the training years of the RCMs, i.e. varying the accuracy of the model. Generally, as the accuracy of the RCM improves, the MOS analog improves the reliability while keeping (e.g. *MAE*) or improving (correlation) the original accuracy. Besides, being able to calibrate the RCMs, the MOS analog has other advantages: it maintains the spatial coherence of the precipitation fields (which is very important for hydrology); it is simple and parsimonious, so it is more robust than other complex methods used in perfect prognosis; and it performs well in the different climates of Spain, which gives confidence in the transferability of the method to other regions.

[53] One important limitation of the analog method is that it is not able to produce events outside those which are present in the historical archive. To test how this limitation affects our implementation, all the evaluations were carried out considering two test periods: a wet period and a dry one. As a result we obtained that the performance of the MOS analog method decreases slightly in the former case. Since the analog methodology works as a case-based learning algorithm (using predictor–predictand cases from a historical database), it is reasonable to obtain a poorer performance in those situations worst represented in the historical database. This is the case for the wet test period, since most of the wettest days are used as a test sample and, therefore, are unusual cases within the remaining historical database. Contrarily, dry test periods are less sensitive to this problem, since the driest case (days with no rain) is common in the database.

[54] Finally, the application of this method to downscale future RCM scenarios (driven by GCMs simulations in different forcing emission scenarios) is technically straightforward, since the analog search would consist in matching the future RCM predictor patterns and the closest historical pattern from the reanalysis-driven RCM control simulations. The main limitation is that related to the stationarity problem, explored in this paper considering the wet and dry periods. From this preliminary analysis, the poorer performance of the method in wetter periods affects the applicability in areas where the regional climate simulations

indicate wetter conditions. Note however that this is not the case of Spain; indeed the most recent and complete ensembles of global and regional climate simulations generally agree on a future drying precipitation in the southern Europe [Giorgi and Lionello, 2008]. Thus, this method could be confidently used to generate future regional scenario of precipitation in Spain, which will be the focus of a future paper, analyzing also in more detail the problem of stationarity, e.g. testing the validity of the statistical relationship in a surrogate climate as in work by Frias et al. [2006].

[55] **Acknowledgments.** This work was supported by esTcena project (Exp. 200800050084078), a strategic action from Plan Nacional de I+D+i 2008–2011 funded by Spanish Ministry of Medio Ambiente y Medio Rural y Marino. For the RCM data used in this study, we acknowledge the ENSEMBLES project, funded by the European Commission's 6th Framework Programme through contract GOCE-CT-2003-505539. The authors thank AEMET and UC for the data provided for this work (Spain02 gridded precipitation data set). Special thanks go to the authors of the MeteoLab-Toolbox ([www.meteo.unican.es/software/meteolab](http://www.meteo.unican.es/software/meteolab)) which helped us to post-process the data and to validate the method. We thank the anonymous referees for their useful comments.

## References

- Bachner, S., A. Kapala, and C. Simmer (2008), Evaluation of daily precipitation characteristics in the CLM and their sensitivity to parameterizations, *Meteorol. Z.*, *17*(4), 407–419, doi:10.1127/0941-2948/2008/0300.
- Benestad, R., I. Hanssen-Bauer, and D. Chen (2008), *Empirical-Statistical Downscaling*, World Sci., Hackensack, N. J.
- Christensen, J. H., F. Boberg, O. B. Christensen, and P. Lucas-Picher (2008a), On the need for bias correction of regional climate change projections of temperature and precipitation, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *35*, L20709, doi:10.1029/2008GL035694.
- Christensen, O., M. Drews, J. Christensen, K. Dethloff, K. Ketelsen, I. Hebestadt, and A. Rinke (2008b), The HIRHAM regional climate model version 5, *Tech. Rep. 06-17*, 22 pp., Dan. Meteorol. Inst., Copenhagen. [Available at <http://www.dmi.dk/dmi/en/print/tr06-17.pdf>.]
- Cohen, S. (1990), Bringing the global warming issue closer to home—The challenge of regional impact studies, *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, *71*(4), 520–526.
- Collins, M., B. B. Booth, G. R. Harris, J. M. Murphy, D. M. H. Sexton, and M. J. Webb (2006), Towards quantifying uncertainty in transient climate change, *Clim. Dyn.*, *27*(2–3), 127–147, doi:10.1007/s00382-006-0121-0.
- Cubasch, U., H. vonStorch, J. Waszkewitz, and E. Zorita (1996), Estimates of climate change in southern Europe derived from dynamical climate model output, *Clim. Res.*, *7*(2), 129–149.
- Déqué, M. (2007), Frequency of precipitation and temperature extremes over France in an anthropogenic scenario: Model results and statistical correction according to observed values, *Global Planet. Change*, *57*(1–2), 16–26, doi:10.1016/j.gloplacha.2006.11.030.
- Efron, B., and R. Tibshirani (1993), *An Introduction to the Bootstrap*, Chapman and Hall, Boca Raton, Fla.
- Fowler, H. J., and M. Ekstroem (2009), Multi-model ensemble estimates of climate change impacts on UK seasonal precipitation extremes, *Int. J. Climatol.*, *29*(3), 385–416, doi:10.1002/joc.1827.
- Fowler, H. J., S. Blenkinsop, and C. Tebaldi (2007), Linking climate change modelling to impacts studies: Recent advances in downscaling techniques for hydrological modelling, *Int. J. Climatol.*, *27*(12), 1547–1578, doi:10.1002/joc.1556.
- Frias, M. D., E. Zorita, J. Fernandez, and C. Rodriguez-Puebla (2006), Testing statistical downscaling methods in simulated climates, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *33*, L19807, doi:10.1029/2006GL027453.
- Garrote, L., F. Martin-Carrasco, F. Flores-Montoya, and A. Iglesias (2007), Linking drought indicators to policy actions in the Tagus basin drought management plan, *Water Resour. Manage.*, *21*(5), 873–882, doi:10.1007/s11269-006-9086-3.
- Gibergans-Baguena, J., and M. C. Llasat (2007), Improvement of the analog forecasting method by using local thermodynamic data: Application to autumn precipitation in Catalonia, *Atmos. Res.*, *86*(3–4), 173–193, doi:10.1016/j.atmosres.2007.04.002.
- Giorgi, F., and P. Lionello (2008), Climate change projections for the Mediterranean region, *Global Planet. Change*, *63*(2–3), 90–104, doi:10.1016/j.gloplacha.2007.09.005.
- Giorgi, F., and L. Mearns (1991), Approaches to the simulation of regional climate change—A review, *Rev. Geophys.*, *29*(2), 191–216.
- Giorgi, F., C. Jones, and G. Asrar (2009), Addressing climate information needs at the regional level: The CORDEX framework, *WMO Bull.*, *58*(3), 175–183.
- Gutiérrez, J., A. Cofiño, R. Cano, and M. Rodríguez (2004), Clustering methods for statistical downscaling in short-range weather forecasts, *Mon. Weather Rev.*, *132*(9), 2169–2183.
- Gutowski, W. J., S. G. Decker, R. A. Donavon, Z. Pan, R. W. Arritt, and E. S. Takle (2003), Temporal-spatial scales of observed and simulated precipitation in central U.S. climate, *J. Clim.*, *16*(22), 3841–3847, doi:10.1175/1520-0442(2003)016<3841:TSSOAS>2.0.CO;2.
- Haugen, J., and H. Haakensatd (2005), Validation of HIRHAM version 2 with 50 km and 25 km resolution, *Gen. Tech. Rep. 9*, Norw. Meteorol. Inst., Oslo, Norway. [Available at <http://regclim.met.no/results/gtr9.pdf>.]
- Herrera, S., L. Fita, J. Fernandez, and J. M. Gutierrez (2010), Evaluation of the mean and extreme precipitation regimes from the ENSEMBLES regional climate multimodel simulations over Spain, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *115*, D21117, doi:10.1029/2010JD013936.
- Herrera, S., J. M. Gutiérrez, R. Ancell, M. R. Pons, M. D. Frías, and J. Fernández (2011), Development and analysis of a 50-year high-resolution daily gridded precipitation dataset over Spain (Spain02), *Int. J. Climatol.*, doi:10.1002/joc.2256, in press.
- Hohenegger, C., P. Brockhaus, and C. Schaer (2008), Towards climate simulations at cloud-resolving scales, *Meteorol. Z.*, *17*(4), 383–394, doi:10.1127/0941-2948/2008/0303.
- Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (2007), *Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, edited by S. Solomon et al., Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, U. K.
- Jacob, D. (2001), A note to the simulation of the annual and inter-annual variability of the water budget over the Baltic Sea drainage basin, *Meteorol. Atmos. Phys.*, *77*(1–4), 61–73.
- Jaeger, E. B., I. Anders, D. Luethi, B. Rockel, C. Schaer, and S. I. Seneviratne (2008), Analysis of ERA40-driven CLM simulations for Europe, *Meteorol. Z.*, *17*(4), 349–367, doi:10.1127/0941-2948/2008/0301.
- Jansá, A. (1997), A general view about Mediterranean meteorology: Cyclones and hazardous weather, paper presented at International Symposium on Cyclones and Hazardous Weather in the Mediterranean, INM, Mallorca, Spain.
- Kjellström, E., L. Bärring, and S. Gollvik (2005), A 140-year simulation of European climate with the new version of the Rossby Centre Regional Atmospheric Climate Model (RCA3), *Rep. Meteorol. Climatol.*, *108*, KNMI, De Bilt, Netherlands. [Available at <http://www.knmi.nl/knmi-library/knmipubTR/TR302.pdf>.]
- Kjellström, E., F. Boberg, M. Castro, H. Christensen, G. Nikulin, and E. Sánchez (2010), Daily and monthly temperature and precipitation statistics as performance indicators for regional climate models, *Clim. Res.*, *44*, 135–150, doi:10.3354/cr00932.
- Kristensen, P. (2010), *Water Resources: Quantity and Flows*, Publications Office of the European Union, *State Environ. Rep. 1/2010*, Eur. Environ. Agency, Copenhagen. [Available at <http://www.eea.europa.eu/soer/europe/water-resources-quantity-and-flows>.]
- Llasat, M.-C. (2001), An objective classification of rainfall events on the basis of their convective features: Application to rainfall intensity in the northeast of Spain, *Int. J. Climatol.*, *21*(11), 1385–1400, doi:10.1002/joc.692.
- Llasat, M. C. (2009), High magnitude storms and floods, in *The Physical Geography of the Mediterranean*, edited by J. Woodward, ppl 513–540, Oxford Univ. Press, Cambridge, U. K.
- Lorenz, E. (1969), Atmospheric predictability as revealed by naturally occurring analogues, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *26*(4), 636–646.
- Maraun, D., et al. (2010), Precipitation downscaling under climate change: Recent developments to bridge the gap between dynamical downscaling models and the end user, *Rev. Geophys.*, *48*, RG3003, doi:10.1029/2009RG000314.
- Martin-Vide, J. (2004), Spatial distribution of a daily precipitation concentration index in peninsular Spain, *Int. J. Climatol.*, *24*(8), 959–971, doi:10.1002/joc.1030.
- Matulla, C., S. Schmutz, A. Melcher, T. Gerersdorfer, and P. Haas (2007), Assessing the impact of a downscaled climate change simulation on the fish fauna in an inner-alpine river, *Int. J. Biometeorol.*, *52*(2), 127–137, doi:10.1007/s00484-007-0107-6.
- Murphy, A. (1993), What is a good forecast? An essay on the nature of goodness in weather forecasting, *Weather Forecast.*, *8*, 281–293.

- Obled, C., G. Bontron, and R. Garçon (2002), Quantitative precipitation forecasts: A statistical adaptation of model outputs through an analogues sorting approach, *Atmos. Res.*, 63(3–4), 303–324.
- Pal, J. S., et al. (2007), Regional climate modeling for the developing world—The ICTP RegCM3 and RegCM3, *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, 88(9), 1395–1409, doi:10.1175/BAMS-88-9-1395.
- Piani, C., J. Haerter, and E. Coppola (2010), Statistical bias correction for daily precipitation in regional climate models over Europe, *Theor. Appl. Climatol.*, 99(1–2), 187–192, doi:10.1007/s00704-009-0134-9.
- Quintana-Seguí, P., A. Ribes, E. Martín, F. Habets, and J. Boe (2010), Comparison of three downscaling methods in simulating the impact of climate change on the hydrology of Mediterranean basins, *J. Hydrol.*, 383(1–2), 111–124, doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2009.09.050.
- Radu, R., M. Deque, and S. Somot (2008), Spectral nudging in a spectral regional climate model, *Tellus, Ser. A*, 60(5), 898–910, doi:10.1111/j.1600-0870.2008.00341.x.
- Río, S., L. Herrero, R. Fraile, and A. Penas (2010), Spatial distribution of recent rainfall trends in Spain (1961–2006), *Int. J. Climatol.*, 31(5), 656–667, doi:10.1002/joc.2111.
- Rodrigo, F. S., and R. M. Trigo (2007), Trends in daily rainfall in the Iberian Peninsula from 1951 to 2002, *Int. J. Climatol.*, 27(4), 513–529, doi:10.1002/joc.1409.
- Rodríguez-Puebla, C., A. Encinas, S. Nieto, and J. Garmendia (1998), Spatial and temporal patterns of annual precipitation variability over the Iberian Peninsula, *Int. J. Climatol.*, 18(3), 299–316.
- Romero, R., J. Guijarro, C. Ramis, and S. Alonso (1998), A 30-year (1964–1993) daily rainfall data base for the Spanish Mediterranean regions: First exploratory study, *Int. J. Climatol.*, 18(5), 541–560.
- Sanchez, E., C. Gallardo, M. Gaertner, A. Arribas, and M. Castro (2004), Future climate extreme events in the Mediterranean simulated by a regional climate model: A first approach, *Global Planet. Change*, 44(1–4), 163–180, doi:10.1016/j.gloplacha.2004.06.010.
- Serrano, A., J. Garcia, V. Mateos, M. Cancillo, and J. Garrido (1999), Monthly modes of variation of precipitation over the Iberian peninsula, *J. Clim.*, 12(9), 2894–2919.
- Timbal, B., A. Dufour, and B. McAvaney (2003), An estimate of future climate change for western France using a statistical downscaling technique, *Clim. Dyn.*, 20(7–8), 807–823, doi:10.1007/s00382-002-0298-9.
- Trenberth, K., A. Dai, R. Rasmussen, and D. Parsons (2003), The changing character of precipitation, *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, 84(9), 1205–1217, doi:10.1175/BAMS-84-9-1205.
- Trigo, R., and J. Palutikof (2001), Precipitation scenarios over Iberia: A comparison between direct GCM output and different downscaling techniques, *J. Clim.*, 14(23), 4422–4446.
- Uppala, S., et al. (2005), The ERA-40 re-analysis, *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, 131(612B), 2961–3012, doi:10.1256/qj.04.176.
- van der Linden, P., and J. Mitchell (Eds.) (2009), *ENSEMBLES: Climate Change and its Impacts: Summary of Research and Results From the ENSEMBLES Project*, 160 pp., Met Off. Hadley Cent., Exeter, U. K.
- Van Meijgaard, E., L. van Ulft, W. van de Berg, B. Bosveld, B. van der Hurk, G. Lenderik, and A. Siebesma (2008), The KNMI Regional Atmospheric Climate Model RACMO version 2.1., *Tech. Rep. 302*, KNMI, De Bilt, Netherlands. [Available at <http://www.knmi.nl/knmi-library/knmi-pubTR/TR302.pdf>.]
- Widmann, M., C. Bretherton, and E. Salathe (2003), Statistical precipitation downscaling over the northwestern United States using numerically simulated precipitation as a predictor, *J. Clim.*, 16(5), 799–816.
- Wilby, R. L., and T. M. L. Wigley (1997), Downscaling general circulation model output: A review of methods and limitations, *Prog. Phys. Geogr.*, 21(4), 530–548.
- Wilby, R., S. Charles, E. Zorita, and B. Timbal (2004), Guidelines for use of climate scenarios developed from statistical downscaling methods, technical report, IPCC, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Wilks, D. S., and R. L. Wilby (1999), The weather generator game: A review of stochastic weather models, *Prog. Phys. Geogr.*, 23, 329–358.
- World Meteorological Organization (2009), Guidelines on analysis of extremes in a changing climate in support of informed decisions for adaptation, *Tech. Rep. WCDMP 72*, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Zorita, E., and H. von Storch (1999), The analog method as a simple statistical downscaling technique: Comparison with more complicated methods, *J. Clim.*, 12(8), 2474–2489.
- Zorita, E., J. Hughes, D. Lettemaier, and H. von Storch (1995), Stochastic characterization of regional circulation patterns for climate model diagnosis and estimation of local precipitation, *J. Clim.*, 8(5), 1023–1042.

J. M. Gutiérrez and S. Herrera, Instituto de Física de Cantabria, CSIC-UC, Ave. de los Castros s/n, Santander E-39005, Spain. (gutierjm@unican.es; herreras@unican.es)

M. C. Llasat and M. Turco, Meteorological Hazards Analysis Team, Department of Astronomy and Meteorology, Faculty of Physics, University of Barcelona, Av. Diagonal 647, Barcelona, E-08028, Spain. (carmell@am.ub.es; mturco@am.ub.es)

P. Quintana-Seguí, Observatori de l'Ebre, URL-CSIC, Horta Alta 38, Roquetes, E-43520, Spain. (pquintana@obsbre.es)