

Final Draft
of the original manuscript:

Di Virgilio, G.; Evans, J.P.; Di Luca, A.; Olsen, R.; Argueso, D.; Kala, J.;
Andrys, J.; Hoffmann, P.; Katzfey, J.J.; Rockel, B.:

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Australia: model performance and errors.**

In: *Climate Dynamics*. Vol. 53 (2019) 5-6, 2985 - 3005.

First published online by Springer: 26.02.2019

DOI: 10.1007/s00382-019-04672-w

<https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00382-019-04672-w>

Evaluating reanalysis-driven CORDEX regional climate models over Australia: model performance and errors

Di Virgilio, Giovanni¹, Evans, Jason P.^{1, 2}, Di Luca, Alejandro^{1,2}, Olson, Roman^{3,4,5},
Argüeso, Daniel⁶, Kala, Jatin⁷, Andrys, Julia⁷, Hoffmann, Peter^{8,9}, Katzfey, Jack J.⁸,
Rockel, Burkhardt¹⁰

¹*Climate Change Research Centre, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia*

²*Australian Research Council Centre of Excellence for Climate Extremes, University of New
South Wales, Sydney, Australia*

³*Department of Atmospheric Sciences, Yonsei University, Republic of Korea*

⁴*Center for Climate Physics, Institute for Basic Science, Busan, Republic of Korea*

⁵*Pusan National University, Busan, Republic of Korea*

⁶*Department of Physics, University of Balearic Islands, Palma de Mallorca, Spain*

⁷*School of Veterinary and Life Sciences, Environmental and Conservation Sciences, Murdoch
University, Western Australia, Australia*

⁸*Climate Science Centre - CSIRO Oceans and Atmosphere, Aspendale, Victoria, Australia*

⁹*Climate Service Center Germany (GERICS), Helmholtz-Zentrum Geesthacht, Hamburg,
Germany*

¹⁰*Institute of Coastal Research, Helmholtz-Zentrum Geesthacht, Geesthacht, Germany*

Correspondence: Giovanni Di Virgilio (giovanni@unsw.edu.au)

1 **Abstract.** The ability of regional climate models (RCMs) to accurately simulate current and
2 future climate is increasingly important for impact assessment. This is the first evaluation of
3 all reanalysis-driven RCMs within the CORDEX Australasia framework (four configurations of
4 the Weather Forecasting and Research (WRF) model, and single configurations of COSMO-
5 CLM (CCLM) and the Conformal-Cubic Atmospheric Model (CCAM) to simulate the historical
6 climate of Australia (1981–2010) at 50 km resolution. Simulations of near-surface maximum
7 and minimum temperature and precipitation were compared with gridded observations at
8 annual, seasonal, and daily time scales. The spatial extent, sign, and statistical significance of
9 biases varied markedly between the RCMs. However, all RCMs showed widespread,
10 statistically significant cold biases in maximum temperature which were the largest during
11 winter. This bias exceeded -5 K for some WRF configurations, and was the lowest for CCLM at
12 ± 2 K. Most WRF configurations and CCAM simulated minimum temperatures more
13 accurately than maximum temperatures, with biases in the range of ± 1.5 K. RCMs
14 overestimated precipitation, especially over Australia's populous eastern seaboard. Strong
15 negative correlations between mean monthly biases in precipitation and maximum
16 temperature suggest that the maximum temperature cold bias is linked to precipitation
17 overestimation. This analysis shows that the CORDEX Australasia ensemble is a valuable
18 dataset for future impact studies, but improving the representation of land surface
19 processes, and subsequently of surface temperatures, will improve RCM performance. The
20 varying RCM capabilities identified here serve as a foundation for the development of future
21 regional climate projections and impact assessments for Australia.

Keywords: CORDEX-Australasia; dynamical downscaling; model bias; precipitation;
temperature

22 **1. Introduction**

23 Climate change is a global phenomenon with impacts that manifest at regional and local
24 scales (IPCC 2013). Assessing how these changes will impact physical, ecological, and socio-
25 economic systems and planning response strategies requires robust, high-resolution regional
26 climate projections (IPCC 2012; Rummukainen 2016; Xue et al. 2014). Global climate models
27 (GCMs) provide a basis for this information, however, their coarse resolution lacks the fine-
28 scale details required by the assessment and adaptation planning community (Fowler et al.
29 2007; Hattermann et al. 2011; Maraun et al. 2010). An effective approach for producing
30 high-resolution climate projections at regional scales is to use regional climate models
31 (RCMs) to dynamically downscale coarse-resolution outputs from GCMs or reanalyses
32 (Giorgi 2006; Laprise 2008; Wang et al. 2004). RCMs use these outputs as initial and lateral
33 boundary conditions to generate projections that better resolve the complex surface
34 characteristics and mesoscale atmospheric processes that are important drivers of regional
35 climate (Di Luca et al. 2012; Giorgi and Bates 1989; Torma et al. 2015). With increased spatial
36 resolution, RCMs can also better resolve convective phenomena and thus improve the
37 simulation of extreme events, such as sub-daily precipitation extremes (Olsson et al. 2015).
38 Accurate simulation of climate extremes by RCMs is increasingly important for climate
39 impact assessment (Halmstad et al. 2013; Sunyer et al. 2017).

40 The Coordinated Regional Downscaling Experiment (CORDEX) is an initiative of the
41 World Climate Research Programme (WCRP) that aims to improve both the generation and
42 evaluation of downscaled regional climate information (Giorgi et al. 2009). Under the
43 CORDEX framework, regional climate projections based on CMIP5 (Coupled Model
44 Intercomparison Project Phase 5) GCM projections have been produced for fourteen regions
45 worldwide. An important stage in RCM development and the production of future regional
46 climate projections is the evaluation of the models' skill in simulating present-day
47 climatological conditions (Di Luca et al. 2016; Diaconescu et al. 2015; Garcia-Diez et al.
48 2015). In this capacity, an essential component of CORDEX is the evaluation of multiple
49 RCMs over recent decades using lateral boundary conditions from re-analysis products such
50 as ERA-Interim (Dee et al. 2011).

51 Evaluations of historical CORDEX RCM simulations forced by ERA-Interim reanalysis
52 have been completed for several regions. These assessments generally show that RCMs

53 capture the main climatological features of the target domain; however, deficiencies are
54 present which vary depending on the model, sub-region, and season. For example, when
55 simulating observed precipitation in Africa, Nikulin et al. (2012) found that RCMs showed
56 marked regional variation, and displayed shortcomings in arid and semi-arid regions.
57 Furthermore, Panitz et al. (2014) reported a dry bias in regions affected by the passage of
58 the West African Monsoon, warm biases in arid regions, and a cold bias over Guinea. RCMs
59 showed reasonably high model accuracy over most of the Middle East and North African
60 domain at annual timescales (Bucchignani et al. 2016). However, a warm summertime bias
61 over North Africa and Saudi Arabia, and a cold bias over the majority of the domain during
62 the boreal winter were also apparent. Evaluations of the EURO-CORDEX domain showed
63 that RCMs simulated the basic spatiotemporal patterns of the European climate. However,
64 model deficiencies included cold and wet biases during most seasons over the majority of
65 Europe and warm and dry summer biases over southern and south-eastern Europe (Kotlarski
66 et al. 2014). Although the general climatological features of South America were reproduced
67 by RCMs, marked wet and cold biases were evident over several regions (Solman et al.
68 2013).

69 To date, no evaluation of CORDEX-Australasia has been performed and there is
70 limited information available regarding the capability of ERA-Interim driven RCMs in
71 simulating the Australian climate. While several studies have used RCMs driven with various
72 reanalyses to produce regional climate hindcasts for different regions of the Australian
73 continent (e.g., Evans et al. 2012; Andrys et al. 2015), no intercomparison study has
74 evaluated the relative performance of different RCMs in simulating the Australian climate.
75 Consequently, this paper has three main aims: 1) to evaluate the ability of the CORDEX-
76 Australasia ensemble to simulate the historical temperature and precipitation characteristics
77 of Australia, identifying regions where model biases are common and statistically significant;
78 2) to assess the relative strengths and weaknesses of individual RCMs; and 3) to assess the
79 possible reasons for deficiencies in model performance. Model evaluation focuses on the
80 entire CORDEX-Australasia ensemble which consists of four configurations of the Weather
81 Research and Forecasting (WRF) model (Skamarock et al. 2008), the COSMO-CLM (CCLM)
82 model (Rockel et al. 2008), and the Conformal-Cubic Atmospheric Model (CCAM; McGregor
83 and Dix 2008). We evaluate the ability of this RCM ensemble to simulate near-surface
84 maximum and minimum air temperature and precipitation at annual, seasonal, and daily

85 time scales over Australia. These variables were chosen because they are often used for
86 impact studies and are well-represented in high-quality gridded observational data sets for
87 the Australian continent (King et al. 2013).

88 **2. Data and methods**

89 **2.1 Model configurations**

90 The RCMs were driven by ERA-Interim boundary conditions with a spatial resolution of
91 approximately 80 km for a 29-year period from January 1981 to January 2010. The WRF RCM
92 configurations used the Advanced Research WRF (ARW) solver which uses a fully
93 compressible, Eulerian and non-hydrostatic equation set. It uses terrain-following,
94 hydrostatic-pressure for the vertical coordinate, which has constant pressure surface at the
95 top of the model. The horizontal grid uses Arakawa C-grid staggering. Its time integration
96 scheme uses the third-order Runge-Kutta scheme, with a smaller time step for acoustic and
97 gravity-wave modes. Further information on WRF can be found in Skamarock et al. (2008).
98 All WRF configurations used a domain with quasi-regular grid spacing of approximately 50
99 km ($0.44^\circ \times 0.44^\circ$ on a rotated coordinate system) covering the CORDEX-Australasia region.
100 Model performance was evaluated for Australia only (Fig. 1). The four configurations of the
101 WRF RCM (UNSW-WRF360J, UNSW-WRF360K, UNSW-WRF360L, and MU-WRF330) used
102 different parameterisations for planetary boundary layer physics, surface physics, cumulus
103 physics, and radiation (Table 1). The UNSW-WRF360J, UNSW-WRF360K, and UNSW-WRF360L
104 configurations were selected from a larger ensemble of WRF RCMs that accurately simulated
105 the south-eastern Australian climate, whilst retaining as much independent information as
106 possible (Evans et al. 2012; Evans et al. 2014; Ji et al. 2014). Parameterisations selected for
107 MU-WRF330 were based on results from a prior sensitivity analysis of WRF to different
108 physics and input data over southwest Western Australia (Kala et al. 2015). The MU-WRF330
109 simulation (Andrys et al. 2015) was conducted using WRF version 3.3, whereas the three
110 other WRF simulations were conducted using version 3.6.0.

111 CCAM is a non-hydrostatic, variable-resolution global atmospheric model that
112 includes a number of distinctive features. It uses two-time level, semi-implicit time
113 differencing and semi-Lagrangian horizontal advection with bi-cubic horizontal interpolation.
114 It also incorporates total-variation-diminishing (TVD) vertical advection (McGregor 1993) and

115 reversible staggering (McGregor and Dix 2008). CCAM (version 1209) was run with a global
116 uniform grid configuration at 50 km resolution and used the setup shown in Table 1. When
117 forced with ERA-Interim data, the model setup was similar to the setups described in Katzfey
118 et al. (2016) and Thevakaran et al. (2016), except that a scale-selective filter (i.e., spectral
119 nudging, Thatcher and McGregor, 2009) with a scale of 9000 km was used every six hours
120 for temperature, winds above approximately 900 hPa, and surface pressure. In addition,
121 CCAM used ERA-Interim sea surface temperatures (SST) rather than the bias and variance
122 corrected SSTs developed for CCAM by Hoffmann et al. (2016).

123 The COSMO model in CLimateMode ('CCLM') is a non-hydrostatic RCM developed
124 from the Local Model (LM) of the German Weather Service. It solves the thermo-
125 hydrodynamic equations for compressible flow in a moist atmosphere on an Arakawa-C grid
126 which is defined on a rotated coordinate system. The vertical grid uses a hybrid coordinate
127 that is terrain-following near the surface and flat near the top of the model. The standard
128 land surface model (LSM) used by CCLM is TERRA-ML (Schrodin and Heise 2001). Further
129 information on the dynamics and physical parametrisations in COSMO-CLM can be found in
130 Doms and Baldauf (2015). For the present simulations, CCLM used a domain with quasi-
131 regular grid spacing of approximately 50 km ($0.44^\circ \times 0.44^\circ$ on a rotated coordinate system)
132 covering the CORDEX-Australasia region. Initial 'trial' simulations using the standard version
133 of CCLM (CCLM4.8_clm17) were conducted using a number of different model
134 configurations. These initial simulations showed large temperature overestimates over
135 Australia in comparison to observed near-surface temperature from the CRU TS 3.10 data
136 set (Harris et al. 2014). Subsequent simulations conducted using CCLM coupled to the
137 community land model version 3.5 (CLM3.5, Dickinson et al. 2006) showed a substantial
138 reduction in temperature overestimation. We therefore ran the simulations using the
139 coupled model CCLM4.8_clm17-CLM3.5 (CCLM4-8-17-CLM3-5 in the CORDEX archive
140 nomenclature). The model parameterisations used for CCLM are shown in Table 1.

141 The namelists used for all simulations evaluated by this study are provided in Online
142 Resource 1. All RCM data were interpolated from the models' native grid to a common
143 regular 0.5° grid for comparison and analysis using a nearest-neighbour algorithm.

144 2.2 Observations

145 Australian Gridded Climate Data (AGCD; Jones et al. 2009) were used to evaluate RCM
146 performance. This daily gridded maximum and minimum temperature and precipitation data
147 set has a spatial resolution of 0.05° , and is obtained from an interpolation of station
148 observations across the Australian continent (Jones et al 2009). Observations include
149 temperature minima and maxima only; hence, the ability of RCMs to reproduce mean
150 temperature was not assessed. The majority of these stations are located in the more
151 heavily populated coastal areas with a sparser representation inland, and there are more
152 precipitation stations than temperature stations (refer to Figure 2 of Jones et al. 2009).
153 Cross-validated root mean squared errors (RMSEs) for monthly maximum and minimum
154 temperatures over Australia for 2001–2007 are typically between 0.5 to 1°C , and 10 to 25
155 mm mo^{-1} for monthly precipitation (Jones et al. 2009). In order to compare models with
156 slightly different spatial resolutions with gridded observations of a higher resolution, two
157 different approaches can be adopted. One is that model output can be interpolated to
158 match the higher resolution of the gridded observations such that the latter remain
159 unchanged (see for example Vautard et al. 2013 and Zollo et al. 2016). However, in our case,
160 the resolution of the observations is approximately 10 times higher than that of the models
161 (5 by 5 km as compared to approximately 50 by 50 km). A major issue with using the native
162 resolution of the observations as the common grid when evaluating lower resolution model
163 output is that statistics with a strong dependence on the spatial scale (particularly extremes)
164 will not be well evaluated. That is, a perfect model at 50 km would disagree with the
165 observations at 5 km resolution, e.g. due to missing small-scale features. Moreover,
166 interpolating the model output to the much higher resolution of the observational grid
167 provides no additional information than the models' original 50 km grid. Of course, when
168 interpolating the observations to a lower resolution the spatial scale mismatch has also to be
169 taken into account. Here, this is handled by using a conservative re-gridding approach. The
170 AGCD data were therefore re-gridded to correspond with the RCM data on a common 0.5°
171 regular grid using the conservative area-weighted re-gridding scheme of the *Iris version 2.1*
172 library (Met Office 2017) for the *Python version 3.6* programming language. Given AGCD
173 observations are terrestrial data with no coverage over the ocean, only land points were
174 evaluated.

175 **2.3 Evaluation methods**

176 We calculated annual and seasonal means for maximum and minimum temperature and
177 precipitation using monthly averages for each variable. Mean diurnal ranges and 5th and 95th
178 percentiles were calculated for maximum temperature using daily values. The performance
179 of the RCMs in reproducing the observations over these timescales was assessed by
180 calculating the model bias, defined as model outputs minus AGCD observations. The
181 statistical significance of mean annual and seasonal biases compared to the AGCD
182 observations was calculated for each grid cell using t-tests for maximum and minimum
183 temperature ($\alpha = 0.05$) assuming equal variance. The Mann–Whitney U test was used for
184 precipitation given its non-normality. Results on ensemble mean statistical significance were
185 separated into three classes following Tebaldi et al. (2011). Specifically, statistically
186 insignificant areas are shown in colour, denoting that fewer than half of the models are
187 significantly biased. In these areas model bias is generally small; the most desired outcome.
188 In areas of significant agreement (stippled), at least half of RCMs are significantly biased and
189 at least 66% of the RCMs that show a significant difference agree on the direction of bias. In
190 these regions, ensemble bias tends to be in one direction; an undesirable outcome. Areas of
191 significant disagreement are shown in white, where at least half of the models are
192 significantly biased and fewer than 66% of significant models agree on the bias direction.
193 The 66% threshold was selected because it allowed for a single model to disagree with the
194 consensus.

195 Model performance against observations was also assessed using the RMSE of
196 simulated fields relative to observations. To evaluate the spatial agreement between RCM
197 outputs and observations, we calculated the pattern correlation between simulated and
198 observed fields (Walsh and McGregor 1997). The RMSE and pattern correlation were
199 calculated for each RCM using the annual and seasonal means for each variable of interest.

200 We also examined the ability of the RCMs to simulate observed temperature and
201 precipitation at daily time scales by comparing the probability density functions (PDFs) for
202 AGCD daily mean observations versus those of the RCMs. PDFs were calculated for the
203 whole study domain and for each natural resource management (NRM) climate region
204 shown in Figure 1. For the PDFs only, all daily values of precipitation below 0.1 mm were
205 omitted from the RCM output, as rates below this amount fall below the detection limit of
206 the stations used to produce the AGCD data. Additionally, the daily rainfall observational

207 network used to produce the AGCD has large gaps in several areas of central Australia;
208 hence, RCM output was masked over these areas. Daily PDFs were compared by calculating
209 the Perkins Skill Score (PSS; Perkins et al. 2007), which measures the common area between
210 two PDFs whereby a PSS value of 1 indicates that the distributions overlap perfectly.

211 **3. Results**

212 **3.1 Maximum temperature**

213 All RCMs overestimate the frequency of lower than average temperatures, as shown by the
214 PDFs of mean daily maximum temperatures across Australia, and underestimate the
215 observed peaks (Fig. 2). The RCMs differ in their simulation of the frequency of warmer than
216 average events, with the four configurations of the WRF RCM underestimating higher
217 temperatures, whereas CCAM and CCLM overestimate occurrences of maximum
218 temperatures higher than 312 K and 314 K, respectively. Overall, MU-WRF330 and CCLM
219 show the best agreement with observations (see PSS scores in Table 2), while the
220 performance of UNSW-WRF360L is comparatively poor. This is generally consistent for the
221 seven NRM climate regions, although the magnitude of the error varies between regions
222 (Fig. 1 and Online Resource 2: Figs. S1-S7).

223 Ensemble annual mean maximum temperature shows a statistically significant cold
224 bias over most of Australia, which is most intense over the eastern regions (Fig. 3b). Mean
225 bias shows few areas of significant disagreement (white) across Australia, with the majority
226 occurring along portions of the northern and south-eastern coastlines. Additionally, the
227 ensemble mean shows a significant warm bias along sections of the north-western coastline.
228 In terms of individual RCMs, the statistically significant cold bias is the largest for UNSW-
229 WRF360L, which exceeds -5 K over south-eastern Australia (Fig. 3e). UNSW-WRF360L is
230 exceptional in this regard because other WRF configurations display a substantially smaller
231 cold bias. CCAM shows a significant warm bias over a larger area as compared to the other
232 RCMs, being 0.5 to 2.0 K warmer than observations in the semi-arid areas of central and
233 northern Australia. Overall, CCLM has the lowest bias.

234 Cold biases are reflected in the spatial variation of RMSEs for simulated maximum
235 surface temperatures (Online Resource 2: Fig. S8). For example, UNSW-WRF360L shows a
236 large area of RMSEs > 5 K over south-eastern Australia, whilst RMSEs are lower for CCLM and

237 MU-WRF330 over the most of the continent. Mean pattern correlations and RMSEs are also
238 consistent with these results, with CCLM having the lowest RMSE (0.97 K, versus the
239 ensemble mean of 1.63 K; Table 3) and MU-WRF330 having the highest mean spatial
240 agreement between observed and simulated fields.

241 At seasonal time-scales, the cold bias tends to be lower in intensity and spatial extent
242 during summer (DJF, Fig. 4) relative to during winter (JJA, Fig. 5). This change is the most
243 apparent for UNSW-WRF360L, which shows a large cold bias over south-eastern Australia on
244 an annual time-scale that is greatly reduced during DJF (Fig. 4e). Areas of closer agreement
245 between simulated and observed temperatures are also evident across several other regions
246 during DJF, particularly for the WRF RCM configurations (Fig. 4c–f). In contrast, most RCMs
247 display larger and more widespread statistically significant cold biases during the cooler
248 months. This is most apparent during JJA (Fig. 5); however, CCLM and to a lesser extent MU-
249 WRF330, do not follow this pattern. The poor annual performance of UNSW-WRF360L can
250 be attributed to errors during MAM and JJA because RMSEs for the model are markedly
251 higher as compared to other RCMs during these seasons (Table 3).

252 Figure 6 shows the biases of the 5th and 95th percentiles of daily maximum
253 temperature. CCLM shows the closest agreement with observed 5th percentile temperatures.
254 Whereas the RCMs clearly differ in terms of their representation of annual and seasonal
255 mean maximum temperatures, some similarities are apparent in their simulation of 95th
256 percentile maximum temperatures. Spatial patterns of 95th percentile temperature bias are
257 remarkably similar among the four WRF configurations (Fig. 6i–l), and CCAM and CCLM also
258 share very similar patterns of bias (Fig. 6m–n). MU-WRF330 shows the lowest bias of all WRF
259 RCMs in simulating the 95th percentile across the heavily populated south-eastern coastline.
260 Performance improves slightly for the WRF RCM configurations when simulating 95th
261 percentile maximum temperatures relative to annual mean maximum temperatures (i.e.
262 mean RMSEs are 1.32 K and 1.85 K respectively; Tables 3–4).

263 **3.2 Minimum temperature**

264 Daily minimum temperature PDFs for UNSW-WRF360J and WRF360K match observations
265 more closely as compared to the other simulations (Fig. 7) and produce the highest PSS
266 scores (both scoring 0.98; Table 2). As compared to maximum temperatures, these two
267 RCMs show a reduced tendency to over (under) estimate the occurrence of temperatures at

268 the lower (upper) ends of the distribution. MU-WRF330, CCAM, and CCLM underestimate
269 the frequency of colder than average events and overestimate the occurrence of warmer
270 than average temperatures. Results over specific regions can differ substantially as
271 compared to those over the whole of Australia (Online Resource 2: Figs. S11–17). For
272 example, in contrast to the Australia-wide distribution, both UNSW-WRF360J and WRF360K
273 show larger overestimates of the observed peak over the East Coast region as compared to
274 the other RCMs.

275 The ensemble annual mean minimum temperature shows a statistically significant
276 warm bias for several central and eastern regions (Fig. 8b). In contrast to the simulation of
277 maximum temperature, all RCMs display significant warm bias over larger areas of the
278 topographically complex eastern coastline. However, there were some prominent areas of
279 significant disagreement over sections of western and northern Australia (Fig. 8b). This can
280 be attributed to MU-WRF330, CCAM, and CCLM having significant warm biases across most
281 of Australia (Fig. 8f–h), while UNSW-WRF360J-K-L show significant cold biases over Western
282 Australia, and several northern and eastern regions (Fig. 8c–e). Notably, UNSW-WRF360J and
283 WRF360K show closer agreement with observed minimum temperatures as compared to the
284 other RCMs, with biases typically in the range of ± 1.5 K (Fig. 8c–d), and their performance is
285 considerably improved relative to maximum temperatures. These two RCMs have the lowest
286 mean RMSEs and low RMSEs across the domain (Table 3 and Fig. S18).

287 Seasonally, the spatial variation of the signs and magnitudes of the biases for each
288 RCM are fairly similar to their corresponding performance at the annual time-scale (Figs.
289 S19–22). We note that while UNSW-WRF360J and UNSW-WRF360K are fairly consistent
290 across seasons in terms of mean RMSEs (Table 3), RMSE magnitudes are much higher during
291 MAM and JJA for the remaining models and in most cases start increasing in March (Online
292 Resource 2 Fig. S23). Similar to maximum temperatures, the poor annual performance of
293 UNSW-WRF360L can be attributed to difficulties in simulating temperatures during MAM
294 and JJA (Table 3).

295 **3.3 Diurnal temperature range**

296 All RCMs show relatively poor skill in simulating the observed distribution of mean diurnal
297 ranges (Fig. 9). Models overestimate the frequency of smaller temperature ranges and
298 underestimate the observed peak and occurrence of larger diurnal ranges. UNSW-WRF360L

299 and MU-WRF330 perform marginally better than the other RCMs, whereas CCLM has the
300 poorest performance (Table 2).

301 The ensemble mean diurnal range bias shows widespread areas of significant
302 agreement (Fig. 10b); however, simulated ranges are generally smaller as compared to
303 observed ranges (Fig. 10c-h). The magnitude of this negative bias is the largest over eastern
304 Australia; however, bias decreases in a westerly direction and in some cases its sign is
305 reversed. The ensemble bias shows the largest disagreement over southwest Western
306 Australia. Similar to seasonal maximum and minimum temperatures, most RCMs tend to
307 simulate diurnal ranges more accurately during DJF–SON as compared to during MAM–JJA
308 (Figs. S24–27).

309 **3.4 Precipitation**

310 The PDFs for mean daily precipitation show that UNSW-WRF360J and MU-WRF330 simulate
311 the occurrence of light rainfall events up to 0.5 mm day^{-1} fairly accurately (Fig. 11). UNSW-
312 WRF360J, MU-WRF330, and CCLM simulate the frequency of precipitation events of $\geq 3 \text{ mm}$
313 day^{-1} more accurately than the other models. However, the PSS for these models are only
314 marginally higher as compared to the other RCMs with the exception of UNSW-WRF360K
315 (Table 2). There are some interesting differences in RCM performance between regions (Figs.
316 S28–34). For example, light rainfall events (up to 0.5 mm day^{-1}) are overestimated by several
317 RCMs over the East Coast, while they are simulated more accurately over the Murray Darling
318 Basin, which is adjacent to the East Coast and further inland.

319 The ensemble bias for annual mean precipitation shows significant agreement across
320 the eastern, southern, western, and central regions of Australia (Fig. 12b), with areas of
321 significant disagreement occurring mainly over northern Australia and a narrow strip along
322 the eastern coastline. With the exception of MU-WRF330, RCMs show wet biases across
323 large areas of the eastern, central, and southern regions. Some dry biases are also apparent;
324 for example, UNSW-WRF360K, CCAM, and CCLM underestimate rainfall over the monsoonal
325 north, whereas the remaining RCMs display a wet bias in this region. RMSEs are also
326 comparatively high along the northern coastline for all RCMs (Fig. S35). MU-WRF330 displays
327 a wet bias along the eastern coastline, and a dry bias over the lowlands to the west of the
328 Great Dividing Range (Fig. 1) and across the southern half of Australia. Furthermore, MU-
329 WRF330 overestimates rainfall over much of the northern half of Australia and as such, the

330 spatial variation of its bias is an approximate mirror-image to that of CCAM. CCLM has the
331 lowest annual mean RMSE of 15.58 mm mo^{-1} as compared to the ensemble mean of 20.62
332 mm mo^{-1} (Table 3).

333 Seasonally, many RCMs remain significantly wet-biased over much of eastern
334 Australia, albeit with some regional variations in the sign of the bias. For example, several
335 RCMs show a dry bias over northern regions during DJF, which subsequently switches to a
336 wet bias during MAM, JJA, and SON (Figs. S36–39). The majority of RCMs are better able to
337 capture the spatial pattern of precipitation during DJF, as compared to other seasons or
338 annually, as evidenced by the mean pattern correlations (Table 3). Conversely, when RMSEs
339 are considered, RCMs are most inaccurate during DJF, while accuracy is highest during JJA
340 (Table 3). The strong seasonality of RCM skill is summarised by the RMSE annual cycles in
341 Fig. S40.

342 **4. Discussion**

343 In summary, RCMs were generally cold-biased for maximum temperature, warm-biased for
344 minimum temperature, and overestimated precipitation. However, model performance
345 varied considerably between seasons and the different RCMs and RCM configurations. The
346 following sections discuss potential mechanisms for these differences.

347 **4.1 WRF**

348 Cold biases were more widespread and typically larger for the four WRF configurations as
349 compared to CCAM and CCLM. The unified Noah LSM used by all the WRF configurations is a
350 potential source of this bias. Previous studies have demonstrated that use of this LSM can
351 result in cold biases over European snow-covered regions during winter and overestimations
352 of soil moisture and evaporation during summer (Garcia-Diez et al. 2015). While snow
353 occupies a small proportion of the land surface in south-eastern Australia during cooler
354 months, an excess of soil moisture is a potential explanation for the simulated cold bias. To
355 investigate this hypothesis, the temporal correlation of the 29-year time series between
356 monthly biases in precipitation and monthly biases in maximum temperature was calculated
357 (Fig. 13). A strong negative correlation between mean monthly precipitation biases and
358 mean monthly maximum temperature biases was apparent over most of Australia. Pearson's
359 r values averaged across Australia for the four WRF configurations ranged from -0.44 to $-$

360 0.18. These associations also displayed strong seasonal variability; negative correlations
361 between biases were larger and more widespread during DJF as compared to during JJA (e.g.
362 for UNSW-WRF360J mean $r = -0.60$ versus $r = -0.18$, respectively; see Online Resource 2:
363 Figs. S41–S42). These findings support the hypothesis that precipitation overestimation is a
364 likely cause of the large maximum temperature cold bias in the WRF simulations. This is
365 consistent with previous studies which have identified Australia as a soil moisture-
366 atmosphere coupling "hot spot" for maximum temperature (Hirsch et al. 2014). Importantly,
367 this negative correlation was reversed for biases in minimum temperature and precipitation
368 (Fig. S43). Moreover, the more accurate simulation of 95th percentile maximum
369 temperatures than annual mean maximum temperatures by the WRF RCM configurations
370 may also be linked to this precipitation bias. Hot extremes in Australia often occur during dry
371 conditions and are hence less affected by the mean precipitation overestimate. Future
372 studies will investigate the drivers of the maximum temperature cold bias using soil moisture
373 observations. Furthermore, since soil moisture is influenced by the LSM, it would also be
374 informative to trial several LSMs with WRF with the aim of improving the representation of
375 land surface processes, and subsequently, the simulation of near-surface temperatures.

376 The cold bias was more intense for UNSW-WRF360L as compared to other WRF
377 configurations. UNSW-WRF360L was the only configuration to use CAM3 radiation schemes,
378 suggesting that the strong cold bias can be partially attributed to the radiative scheme. This
379 is supported by Katragkou et al. (2015) who also found that using CAM3 resulted in large
380 cold biases.

381 The WRF configurations showed significant warm biases along portions of the north-
382 western coastline, which were consistent with dry biases over this region. The spatial
383 patterns of 95th percentile maximum temperature bias were also remarkably similar over
384 this region for the four WRF RCM configurations. This consistent north-western bias must be
385 viewed in the context of the relative sparseness of meteorological stations in this region, and
386 the fact that many stations are located near the coastline where temperatures are lower
387 than further inland. These issues increase the uncertainty of the AGCD observations relative
388 to areas with denser station coverage. The strong relationship between station density and
389 AGCD errors over the north-west and the western interior was noted by Jones et al. (2009),
390 with these regions showing much larger cross-validated RMSEs than elsewhere (see their
391 Figures 2 and 5). Given that other physical settings varied between the different WRF RCMs,

392 it is difficult to identify a specific physical parameterisation that underlies this bias. However,
393 it could also be partially inherited from the ERA-Interim lateral boundary conditions
394 (Moalafhi et al. 2016).

395 UNSW-WRF360J and WRF360K both showed close agreement with regards to
396 observed minimum temperatures with fairly small biases. This may partially stem from their
397 use of the Mellor-Yamada-Janjic local PBL scheme, which was found to contribute to an
398 accurate simulation of minimum temperature over Southern Spain (Argueso et al. 2011).
399 These two RCM configurations differed only in terms of the cumulus scheme used (UNSW-
400 WRF360J - Kain-Fritsch; UNSW-WRF360K - Betts-Miller-Janjic). Previous sensitivity studies
401 for eastern Australia found that in WRF, these cumulus schemes do not have a large
402 influence on minimum temperature (Evans et al. 2012).

403 In terms of precipitation biases, similarities between the WRF configurations
404 included dry biases over parts of Western Australia and wet biases over the topographically
405 complex terrain of south-eastern Australia. This south-eastern wet bias changed to a dry bias
406 during winter, which coincides with a substantial improvement in model performance.
407 Rainfall over south-eastern Australia is typically more frequent during the cooler months due
408 to cold fronts moving across southern Australia. These wet biases may be partially inherited
409 from the ERA-Interim lateral boundary conditions, which has a positive precipitation bias
410 over eastern Australia as compared to the Global Precipitation Climatology Centre version 7
411 observed precipitation (Tuinenburg and de Vries 2017). Most of the model wet biases
412 observed in the present evaluation were largest over eastern Australia. However, despite the
413 fact that the RCMs assessed were driven by ERA-Interim, in many respects they showed
414 quite different patterns of precipitation biases, suggesting that other factors also
415 contributed to this bias. For example, precipitation biases demonstrated by ERA-Interim-
416 forced WRF models over Germany were linked to the models' cumulus scheme not being
417 tuned to European conditions (Warrach-Sagi et al. 2013). While Australia and Germany are
418 very different regions, the cumulus scheme employed by Warrach-Sagi et al. (2013; Kain
419 Fritsch) was used in three of the WRF configurations in the present study. As was the case in
420 Germany, this cumulus scheme was not tuned for Australian conditions. Future work should
421 assess whether using a higher resolution, such as the 20 km resolution selected for
422 CORDEX2, together with more recent cumulus physics schemes, such as Grell-Freitas (Grell

423 and Freitas 2014) and multiscale Kain-Fritsch (Zheng et al. 2016), will yield precipitation
424 simulations over Australia that are more accurate than the current results.

425 **4.2 CCLM**

426 CCLM simulations have been performed over several CORDEX domains (e.g. Africa – Panitz
427 et al. 2014, the Middle East North Africa - Bucchignani et al. 2016, and Europe - Kotlarski et
428 al. 2014). Given that CCLM is based on the COSMO weather forecast model, it has been
429 developed to provide good results for the European domain. For other CORDEX domains,
430 the optimal setup differs from that of the European domain, and also between the various
431 domains. A comparison of results between regions should therefore be performed with
432 caution. The CCLM setup for CORDEX Australasia was based on CORDEX Africa simulations
433 with two major differences. Firstly, the Bechtold et al. (2008) convection scheme was used
434 instead of the Tiedtke (1989) scheme. The former was chosen due to the findings of Lange et
435 al. (2015) who compared both schemes over South America and found that the Bechtold
436 scheme resulted in an improved representation of precipitation. Tests during the setup
437 phase of the present CCLM simulation confirmed that these findings also applied to
438 Australia. Secondly, as described above in section 2.1 Model configurations, the standard
439 LSM, TERRA-ML (Schrodin and Heise 2001), was replaced by CLM3.5 (Dickinson et al. 2006)
440 in order to obtain a better representation of land surface processes.

441 Although generally cold biased, CCLM resulted in the most accurate representation
442 of maximum temperatures in terms of mean annual and seasonal RMSEs. CCLM showed a
443 maximum temperature bias that was also low, i.e. ± 2 K across most of Australia. The
444 reasonable results for annual and seasonal mean maximum temperature are partially due to
445 the change of the LSM as described above, which is consistent with previous results for
446 CCLM simulations (e.g. Panitz et al. 2014). Furthermore, we compared the surface solar
447 radiation intensity simulated by CCLM with Surface Radiation Budget (SRB) data (SRB Science
448 Team 2012). This revealed that CCLM simulated lower global radiation (i.e. direct + diffuse
449 solar radiation) and lower net radiation as compared to the SRB data values, a tendency that
450 would lead to lower simulated maximum surface temperatures. However, attribution of the
451 radiation bias shown by CCLM to an overestimation of cloud cover and/or aerosols has not
452 been established. This is because a comparison of observed and modelled cloud cover is not
453 straightforward and requires a tool such as the International Satellite Cloud Climatology

454 Project (ISCCP) data simulator. Hence, an analysis of cloud cover using satellite
455 measurements of this type merits future investigation. Furthermore, Zubler et al. (2011) and
456 Kothe et al. (2014) found major deficiencies (over Europe and Africa, respectively) when
457 using the aerosol climatology of Tanré et al. (1984) which is the default aerosol climatology
458 used in CCLM. However, both of these studies changed the CCLM program code to
459 accommodate alternative aerosol climatologies to that of Tanré et al., and therefore used
460 unofficial CCLM versions. The Tanré aerosol climatology is the only aerosol scheme
461 implemented in the official released CCLM version 4.18_clm17 used in the CORDEX-
462 Australasia simulations. Therefore, it is not currently possible to conduct sensitivity tests to
463 assess the relationships between different aerosol climatologies and uncertainties in the
464 radiation components. However, in the most recent official version of CCLM (version 5.0), an
465 alternative aerosol climatology can be selected via a namelist setting. An analysis of the
466 influence of aerosol climatology on radiation bias over Australia will therefore be possible
467 for future simulations.

468 CCLM overestimated the occurrence of warmer than average mean daily minimum
469 temperatures, and overestimated annual mean minimum temperatures by approximately 3
470 to 4 K over most of Australia. A comparison of the simulated terrestrial radiation budget to
471 SRB data (SRB Science Team 2012) showed that CCLM overestimated nighttime downward
472 fluxes and also net fluxes, both factors which would contribute to an overestimation of
473 minimum surface temperatures. The combined underestimation of maximum temperatures
474 together with an overestimation of minimum temperatures is one explanation for CCLM's
475 estimates of small diurnal temperature ranges.

476 CCLM showed fairly close agreement with observed rainfall across the semi-arid
477 inland regions of Australia, whereas it underestimated precipitation across northern
478 Australia and along most of the coastline. This dry bias over coastal areas and tropical
479 Northern regions is consistent with findings by Panitz et al. (2014). The precipitation
480 intensity simulated by CCLM shows a steep gradient between the northern Australian
481 peninsulas and the adjacent ocean areas (not shown). Panitz et al. (2014) stated that "CCLM
482 seems unable to fully transport inland the moisture from the ocean". This may not only
483 affect the water vapor transport, but also the transport of cloud and precipitable water.
484 More recently, Li et al. (2018) observed that precipitation biases shown by CCLM over the
485 CORDEX-East Asian domain were closely linked to biases of water vapor transport. Although

486 the model versions and domains of these studies are different to those of our study,
487 inaccuracy in simulating water vapor transport processes is a possible reason for the
488 precipitation biases observed over some Australian regions. Further investigation is required
489 to understand the causes of the precipitation biases shown by CCLM over Australia, and in
490 particular to test whether they are related to biases in water vapor transport.

491 **4.3 CCAM**

492 In contrast to the other models, the CCAM simulation was conducted on a global
493 even/uniform grid and spectrally nudged towards the ERA-Interim data using a scale-
494 selective filter. Hence, the parameterisations were selected to perform well globally and not
495 for a particular region or resolution. In addition, the filter settings used to force the ERA-
496 Interim data were not restrictive (i.e. mainly forcing features with scales larger than 9000
497 km). Furthermore, CCAM was not constrained by lateral boundary data.

498 CCAM overestimated occurrences of maximum temperatures at both the lower and
499 upper ends of the observed distribution and was similar to CCLM in this regard. CCAM
500 overestimated maximum temperatures across large regions of northern and central Australia
501 at an annual timescale and during most seasons. Conversely, it was generally cold-biased
502 over the southern half of the country, particularly over the temperate regions of south-
503 western and eastern Australia. Similar to the WRF results, the regions of maximum
504 temperature bias correspond strongly with those of precipitation bias, which suggests that
505 maximum temperature underestimation is related to excessive soil moisture and
506 evaporation and vice versa.

507 CCAM simulated minimum temperatures more accurately than maximum
508 temperatures. In their evaluation of the current climate of Vietnam, Katzfey et al. (2016)
509 found that CCAM simulated maximum temperatures less accurately than minimum
510 temperatures, which is consistent with our findings. Notably, these results are consistent
511 across very different domains. Although more detailed analysis is required, the CABLE LSM
512 used by CCAM may have some inaccuracies related to the simulation of prescribed soil
513 surface albedo and parameterised vegetation albedo (Wang et al. 2011), issues which would
514 primarily affect the simulation of maximum temperatures.

515 CCAM's diurnal temperature range PDF, like the observed PDF, has only one major
516 peak, though this peak is shifted slightly towards the lower values. In contrast, the PDFs of

517 the other models show bimodal peaks. The seasonal biases in diurnal temperature are also
518 smaller than those of the other models, except possibly during JJA. Consequently, the CCAM
519 results show a general temperature offset, but a fairly accurate simulation of the diurnal
520 cycle, which could be informative for impact modelling and assessment studies in fields such
521 as agriculture (e.g. Lobell 2007) and human health (e.g. Lambrechts et al. 2011).

522 CCAM was generally dry-biased over northern regions and wet-biased over the
523 southern half of Australia. However, this northern dry bias was only associated with the
524 wetter seasons (DJF and MAM) because it was reduced during JJA and switched to a wet bias
525 during SON. The CCAM version used by the present study (version 1209) also
526 underestimated precipitation during the Vietnamese wet season (summer) and
527 overestimated precipitation during the dry season (winter) (Katzfey et al. 2016). Similar to
528 the results reflected in the daily precipitation PDFs of the present study, CCAM also
529 accurately simulated daily observed light rainfall events over Vietnam for a threshold rate of
530 1 mm day^{-1} (Nguyen et al. 2014). Initial experiments that tested different convection scheme
531 settings showed that simulated rainfall over tropical regions was sensitive to the profiles and
532 rates of entrainment and detrainment, which are configured by various settings in the
533 *kuonml* namelist options (see Online Resource 1). As described below, experiments that
534 have used updated convection scheme settings have substantially improved the simulation
535 of rainfall as compared to the results noted here.

536 The CCAM code evaluated by the present study used a new prognostic aerosol
537 scheme which overestimated the concentration of SO_2 . This overestimation of SO_2
538 concentrations would affect CCAM's cloud microphysics (indirect effects), shortwave
539 radiation (direct effects) and rainfall (via the number of condensation nuclei). Subsequent
540 refinements to the CCAM code (version 3355) have alleviated the SO_2 overestimation
541 issue. Furthermore, additional refinements have been made to the convective
542 parameterisation and explicit cumulus scheme, as well as to the CABLE LSM. More recent
543 simulations that incorporate these refinements show substantial improvements in the
544 simulation of maximum and minimum temperatures and precipitation over Australia (i.e. the
545 magnitudes of biases are substantially reduced). These model refinements and new results
546 will be discussed in a future paper.

547 **5. Conclusions**

548 This study evaluated the ability of six reanalysis-driven RCMs/RCM configurations within the
549 CORDEX Australasia framework to simulate maximum and minimum temperature and
550 precipitation over Australia at daily, seasonal, and annual time scales. In doing so, we
551 address an important knowledge gap because no such RCM evaluations currently exist for
552 Australia. RCMs were generally cold-biased when simulating maximum temperatures over
553 Australia, behaviour that was particularly characteristic of the WRF RCM configurations.
554 Negative correlations were observed between mean monthly biases in precipitation and
555 maximum temperature which supports the general conclusion that RCM cold bias is
556 associated with precipitation overestimation. The configurations of CCAM and CCLM were
557 quite different to those of the WRF models. Taking this into account, CCAM and CCLM
558 performed quite well and offer useful complements to the WRF configurations assessed.
559 Future refinements to model configurations in the CORDEX Australasia ensemble that
560 reduce overestimation of precipitation, and subsequently soil moisture and evaporation,
561 would improve model performance for this region. Since soil moisture is influenced by the
562 LSM, it would also be beneficial to test different LSMs with the aim of improving the
563 representation of land surface processes, and subsequently of surface temperatures.
564 Overall, the CORDEX Australasia ensemble is valuable for use in further studies. The RCM
565 configurations assessed here are currently being used to perform future climate change
566 projections for Australia, forced by GCM outputs from CMIP5. Our assessment of the
567 abilities of these RCMs/RCM configurations to simulate Australian temperature and
568 precipitation, particularly over heavily populated regions, can thus help inform decision-
569 making by the adaptation community. Furthermore, the varying model capabilities reported
570 here can also help guide experiment design and model configuration for climate change
571 impact studies over Australia.

572 **Author contributions**

573 JE, AD, RO and DA designed and ran the UNSW WRF experiments. JK and JA ran the MU WRF
574 experiments. PH and JJK ran the CCAM experiment. GD and JE conceived the research aims.
575 GD designed and performed the analyses. GD prepared the manuscript with contributions
576 from all co-authors.

577 **Competing interests**

578 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

579 **Acknowledgments**

580 We thank the NCAR Mesoscale and Microscale Meteorology Division for developing and
581 maintaining WRF. We thank Marcus Thatcher and John McGregor at CSIRO Oceans and
582 Atmosphere for developing CCAM, for help with the post-processing software to produce
583 the CORDEX output, and for helpful discussions regarding CCAM. Logistical support was
584 provided by the Climate Change Research Centre at the University of New South Wales, by
585 the National Computing Infrastructure National Facility at Australian National University and
586 by the Pawsey Supercomputing Centre. This project is supported through funding from the
587 Earth Systems and Climate Change Hub of the Australian Government's National
588 Environmental Science Programme and the NSW government Office of Environment and
589 Heritage. JK is supported by an Australian Research Council (ARC) Discovery Early Career
590 Researcher Grant (DE170100102). AD is also supported by ARC grant (DE170101191). RO
591 was supported by the Basic Science Research Program through National Research
592 Foundation of Korea (NRF-2017K1A3A7A03087790), and through the Institute for Basic
593 Science (project code IBS-R028-D1). DA received funding from the European Union's Horizon
594 2020 research and innovation programme under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant
595 agreement No.743547. We thank two anonymous reviewers for their constructive feedback
596 on this manuscript.

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Tables

Table 1. List of CORDEX RCMs analysed and their configurations.

Model / Version	Responsible institution	Planetary boundary layer physics / surface layer physics	Cumulus physics	Microphysics	Shortwave and longwave radiation physics	Land surface	Vertical levels
UNSW-WRF360J		Mellor-Yamada-Janjic/ETA Similarity	Kain-Fritsch	WRF Double-Moment 5	Dudhia/RRTM	Noah LSM	30
UNSW-WRF360K	University of New South Wales (UNSW)	Mellor-Yamada-Janjic/ETA Similarity	Betts-Miller-Janjic	WRF Double-Moment 5	Dudhia/RRTM	Noah LSM	30
UNSW-WRF360L		Yonsei University/MM5 Similarity	Kain-Fritsch	WRF Double-Moment 5	CAM3/CAM3	Noah LSM	30
MU-WRF330	Murdoch University	Yonsei University/MM5 Similarity	Kain-Fritsch	WRF Single-Moment 5	Dudhia/RRTM	Noah LSM	30
CCAM	CSIRO	Monin-Obukhov Similarity Theory stability-dependent boundary-layer scheme (McGregor 1993)	Mass-flux closure (McGregor 2003)	Liquid and ice-water scheme (Rotstayn 1997)	GFDL (Freidenreich and Ramaswamy 1999)	CABLE (Kowalczyk et al. 2006)	27
CCLM4-8-17-CLM3-5	Climate Limited-area Modelling Community	Prognostic turbulent kinetic energy (Raschendorfer 2001)	Bechtold et al. (2008)	Seifert and Beheng (2001), reduced to one moment scheme	Ritter and Geleyn (1992)	CLM; (Dickinson et al. 2006)	35

Table 2. Perkins skill scores (PSS) for the six RCMs for daily minimum and maximum temperature, diurnal temperature, and daily precipitation. Bold values indicate the RCM with the highest PSS.

RCM	Temp. max.	Temp. min.	Diurnal range	Precipitation
UNSW-WRF360J	0.94	0.98	0.56	0.76
UNSW-WRF360K	0.94	0.98	0.57	0.69
UNSW-WRF360L	0.88	0.91	0.64	0.72
MU-WRF330	0.95	0.91	0.68	0.76
CCAM	0.90	0.94	0.62	0.76
CCLM	0.95	0.90	0.17	0.78

Table 3. Diagnostics for six RCMs for annual and seasonal mean minimum and maximum temperature and precipitation for the period January 1981 to January 2010 with Australian Gridded Climate Data as reference data. Bold values indicate the RCM with the best diagnostic score.

	Period	Pearson's <i>r</i>							RMSE						
		UNSW-WRF360J	UNSW-WRF360K	UNSW-WRF360L	MU-WRF330	CCAM	CCLM	Ensemble Mean	UNSW-WRF360J	UNSW-WRF360K	UNSW-WRF360L	MU-WRF330	CCAM	CCLM	Ensemble Mean
Temp. Max. (K)	Annual	0.895	0.899	0.869	0.908	0.904	0.903	0.90	1.73	1.55	2.85	1.28	1.37	0.97	1.63
	DJF	0.837	0.839	0.856	0.858	0.845	0.841	0.85	1.90	1.66	1.70	1.66	1.77	1.28	1.66
	MAM	0.894	0.898	0.858	0.904	0.897	0.906	0.89	2.10	1.95	3.36	2.02	1.86	1.27	2.09
	JJA	0.917	0.919	0.817	0.922	0.919	0.925	0.90	2.43	2.23	5.87	1.67	2.18	1.32	2.62
	SON	0.906	0.909	0.901	0.915	0.908	0.904	0.91	1.47	1.45	1.77	1.09	1.70	1.04	1.42
Temp. Min. (K)	Annual	0.902	0.897	0.896	0.900	0.899	0.889	0.90	0.84	0.87	1.57	1.83	1.25	2.33	1.45
	DJF	0.908	0.901	0.904	0.909	0.912	0.901	0.91	1.09	1.11	1.19	2.00	1.10	1.84	1.39
	MAM	0.896	0.891	0.876	0.894	0.888	0.876	0.89	1.18	1.21	2.02	1.79	1.56	2.62	1.73
	JJA	0.855	0.852	0.826	0.856	0.852	0.844	0.85	1.19	1.14	2.95	1.89	2.15	2.86	2.03
	SON	0.915	0.909	0.906	0.907	0.915	0.907	0.91	1.03	1.15	1.39	2.29	1.43	2.23	1.59
Prec. (mm mo⁻¹)	Annual	0.730	0.630	0.775	0.766	0.712	0.681	0.72	28.00	20.31	18.63	21.64	19.59	15.58	20.62
	DJF	0.818	0.753	0.818	0.836	0.789	0.796	0.80	60.93	48.99	51.90	58.89	50.80	37.06	51.43
	MAM	0.630	0.547	0.682	0.660	0.611	0.471	0.60	41.65	35.68	35.19	40.10	36.36	26.08	35.84
	JJA	0.720	0.715	0.771	0.775	0.788	0.794	0.76	19.89	18.31	15.28	15.72	21.24	11.40	16.97
	SON	0.741	0.739	0.803	0.756	0.803	0.752	0.77	30.08	20.82	19.39	21.74	25.01	13.02	21.68

Table 4. Summary diagnostics for six RCMs when simulating extreme (5th and 95th percentile) maximum and minimum temperature for 1981 to 2010 using Australian Gridded Climate Data as reference data. Bold values indicate the RCM with the best diagnostic score.

		Pearson's r							RMSE						
	Percentile	UNSW-WRF360J	UNSW-WRF360K	UNSW-WRF360L	MU-WRF330	CCAM	CCLM	Ensemble Mean	UNSW-WRF360J	UNSW-WRF360K	UNSW-WRF360L	MU-WRF330	CCAM	CCLM	Ensemble Mean
Temp. Max. (K)	5th	0.93	0.93	0.80	0.93	0.94	0.94	0.91	2.42	2.21	7.87	1.66	2.24	1.17	2.93
	95th	0.87	0.88	0.88	0.87	0.80	0.79	0.85	1.63	1.35	1.26	1.03	1.66	1.38	1.38
Temp. Min. (K)	5th	0.88	0.88	0.84	0.89	0.88	0.87	0.87	1.03	1.07	2.85	2.18	1.72	3.14	2.00
	95th	0.90	0.90	0.89	0.90	0.91	0.89	0.90	0.92	0.95	1.04	2.54	1.08	2.19	1.45

Figure captions

Fig. 1 Topographic variation across the study domain, Australia. Approximate location of the Great Dividing Range is delineated in white. NT=Northern Territory; QLD=Queensland; NSW=New South Wales; ACT = Australian Capital Territory; TAS = Tasmania; VIC = Victoria; SA = South Australia; WA = Western Australia. Inset **a** shows natural resource management (NRM) climate regions (MDB = Murray Darling Basin). Inset **b** shows the CORDEX Australasia domain

Fig. 2 Probability density functions of mean daily maximum near-surface air temperatures (K) across Australia. Panels a-f show the PDF of a specific RCM/RCM configuration relative to that of Australian Gridded Climate Data (AGCD) observations

Fig. 3 Annual mean near-surface atmospheric maximum temperature bias with respect to Australian Gridded Climate Data (AGCD) observations for the RCMs. Stippled areas indicate locations where an RCM shows statistically significant bias ($P < 0.05$). **b** Significance stippling for the ensemble mean bias follows Tebaldi et al. (2011). Statistically insignificant areas are shown in colour, denoting that less than half of the models are significantly biased. In areas of significant agreement (stippled), at least half of RCMs are significantly biased, and at least 66% of the significant RCMs agree on the direction of the bias. Areas of significant disagreement are shown in white, which are where at least half of the models are significantly biased and less than 66% significant models agree on the bias direction - see main text for additional detail on the stippling regime

Fig. 4 Summer (DJF) maximum temperature bias with respect to AGCD observations with stippling as per Fig. 3

Fig. 5 Winter (JJA) maximum temperature bias with respect to AGCD observations with stippling as per Fig. 3

Fig. 6 Biases in 5th percentile (panels a-g) and 95th percentile (panels h-n) mean maximum temperatures simulated by the RCMs, relative to AGCD with stippling ($P < 0.05$)

Fig. 7 Probability density functions of mean daily minimum near-surface air temperatures across Australia

Fig. 8 Annual mean minimum temperature bias (K) with respect to AGCD observations for the RCMs with stippling as per Fig. 3

Fig. 9 Probability density functions of mean diurnal ranges across Australia

Fig. 10 Bias in the mean diurnal ranges simulated by RCMs relative to observed mean diurnal ranges

Fig. 11 Probability density functions of mean daily precipitation

Fig. 12 Annual mean precipitation bias of the RCMs with stippling as per Fig. 3

Fig. 13 a Temporal correlations between observed mean monthly maximum temperature (tasmax) and precipitation (pr), **b-c** Biases in modelled versus observed tasmax and pr, **d-i** Temporal correlations between mean monthly biases in maximum temperature and precipitation