Data-driven discovery of mechanisms underlying present and

2 near-future precipitation changes and variability in Brazil

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- 8 Abstract. Untangling the complex network of physical processes driving regional precipitation regimes in the present 9 (1979-2014) and near-future climates (2020-2050) is fundamental to support a more robust scientific basis for decision 10 making in the water-energy-food nexus. We propose a data-driven mechanistic approach to: (Goal 1) identify changes and 11 variability of the regional precipitation mechanisms and (Goal 2) reduce the ensemble spread of future projections by 12 weighting and filtering models that satisfactorily represent these drivers in present climate. Goal 1 is achieved by applying 13 the Partial Least Squares (PLS) technique, a two-sided variant of principal component analysis (PCA), on a reanalysis 14 dataset and 30 simulations of the future climate submitted to CMIP6 to discover the links between global sea-surface 15 temperature (SST) and precipitation in Brazil. Goal 2 is achieved by selecting and weighting the future climate simulations 16 from climate models that better represent the dominant modes discovered by the PLS in the present climate; with this subset 17 of climate simulation, we produce precipitation change maps following IPCC's WG1 methodology. The main mechanistic 18 link discovered by the technique is that the generalised warming of the oceans promotes a suppression of precipitation in 19 Northeast and Southeast Brazil, possibly mediated by the intensification of the Hadley circulation. We show that this pattern 20 of precipitation suppression is stronger in the near-future precipitation change maps produced using our methodology. This 21 demonstrates that a reduction of epistemic uncertainty is achieved after we select models that skillfully represent these 22 mechanisms in the present climate. Therefore, the approach is capable of supporting both a quantitative analysis of regional 23 changes as well as the construction of storylines supported by mechanistic evidence.

24 1 Introduction

- 25 Information about near-future regional precipitation change is crucial for planning and managing critical infrastructure, such
- 26 as hydropower plants, water reservoirs, and city planning. Unpreparedness for changes and variations in regional
- 27 precipitation regimes may lead to disruption in the water-food-energy supply chains as well as avoidable deaths and damages
- 28 by flooding and landslides. Although there is a degree of certainty about global precipitation changes (Shepherd et al., 2018),

- 29 such as the intensification of the hydrological cycle, a current major challenge in climate change science is informing
- 30 planners and decision-makers about regional changes within the critical time-frame of the next three decades.
- 31 Within this time frame, the two main sources of uncertainty in regional precipitation changes are model uncertainty and
- 32 internal variability (Hawkins and Sutton, 2011). Uncertainty due to the internal variability of the climate system is
- 33 impossible to reduce and is aleatoric and related to the chaotic nature of the system (Shepherd, 2019). Model uncertainty, on
- 34 the other hand, is epistemic in nature and stems from our limited knowledge of Earth's climate system and from the
- 35 challenges in translating this system into computer models. Currently, there are 131 available models on the CMIP6
- 36 database, each representing Earth's climate with a range of parameterizations and numerical modelling strategies.
- 37 In this study, we seek for a reduction of the epistemic uncertainty of regional precipitation changes in Brazil through a
- 38 data-driven process-based methodology of model selection and weighting. The method discovers the relationships between
- 39 sea surface temperature and precipitation in Brazil and evaluates the capability of CMIP6 models to reproduce these
- 40 precipitation mechanisms in the present climate. Later, the best models are selected and weighted to produce refined
- 41 precipitation maps. Due to the process-based nature of the method, it is also possible to isolate mechanisms and draw
- **42** storylines of plausible futures. The paper answers the following questions:
- What are the spatiotemporal links between global sea-surface temperature (SST) and regional precipitation change and variability in Brazil?
- Many patterns have been identified in the literature (Grimm et al., 2000; Coelho et al., 2002), but here we choose to
 use a supervised ML approach to systematically identify and quantify their importance
- Can we take advantage of these mechanisms to filter CMIP6 simulations and reduce the epistemic uncertainty of
 regional precip changes?
- How precipitation will look like in the next 30 years in Brazil; as predicted by a filtered model ensemble, in which
- we can consider the mean, the trend or individual model runs as possible futures. What are the predictions for
- 51 precipitation in Brazil over the next 30 years based on a mechanistic filtering and weighting procedure?

52 2 Materials & Methods

53 2.1 Data-driven discovery of precipitation mechanisms

- 54 To discover the underlying mechanisms linking the SST spatiotemporal variability and regional precipitation in Brazil we
- 55 employ a data-driven dimensionality reduction method known as Partial Least Squares (PLS) adapted to a lat-lon-
- 56 latitude-longitude grid; which has been recently shown to successfully identify circulation mechanisms leading to
- 57 precipitation (Perez et al, 2022).
- 58 The PLS method identifies pairs of latent variable vectors and ξ and ω that maximises the information present in X(Y, X'Y).
- 59 This means finding latents variables that represent the maximum covariance between X and Y, where X and Y represent two

60 arrays of SST and precipitation, respectively; rows of X and Y represent the monthly averaged temporal samples while the

61 columns represent the spatial lat-lon grid points. The more familiar Principal Component Analysis (PCA) can be seen as a

62 special case where X=Y. The initial set, or mode, of latent variables is determined through the following covariance Eq. (1):

63
$$Cov(1,1) = max||u|| = ||v|| = 1Cov(Xu, Yv), Cov(\xi_1, \omega_1) = max_{||u|| = ||v|| = 1} Cov(Xu, Yv),$$
64 (1)

65 where u and v are temporally invariant arrays of loadings; in contrast to PCA, PLS yields a pair of loading matrices per 66 component rather than a single loading matrix; the first pair of loading matrices is the one in which the corresponding latent 67 vectors $\frac{\text{and}}{\xi}$ and ω are the most correlated. The following modes are found through repeating the process on the residuals

68 of each preceding pair.

69 The interpretation of PLS results should always consider scores and loadings concurrently. A positive loading correlation,

70 coupled with a positive trend in the scores, indicates an increase in signal strength over time. Conversely, when loadings

71 exhibit the same signal but are associated with a negative trend in scores, this suggests a decrease in signal intensity. When

72 evaluating the relationship between two loadings, we first observe how the loading patterns are linked through the score time

73 series. This connection allows us to infer the response of the Y pattern from the X pattern. For instance, if the SST signal is

74 negative at a particular location while the score is positive, this indicates a negative association with the corresponding

75 precipitation loading pattern. A detailed explanation of the method can be found in Wegelin (2000).

76 2.2 Present and future climate datasets

77 The PLS method was applied to two kinds of climate datasets: firstly, to present climate data from AMIP experiments and

78 reanalysis and, secondly, to the future climate simulations. In the AMIP experiments, atmospheric models are forced by

79 prescribed sea surface temperatures. The subsections below describe the methodologies and data behind the present and

80 future climate results.

81 2.2.1 Present climate (AMIP)

82 The first step was to establish a transfer function linking SST and precipitation month-to-month co-variability using the PLS

83 technique, for the reanalysis and atmosphere-only experiments. The goal is to identify models that accurately represent the

84 transfer function identified in the reanalysis in the present climate. To achieve this, we employ precipitation data derived

85 from the ERA5 reanalysis (Hersbach and Dee, 2016), in addition to precipitation data from 29 AMIP models from the

86 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6), as outlined in Table 1. Before the PLS technique was employed,

87 the ERA5 precipitation data underwent systematic error correction using observations from the Global Precipitation

88 Climatology Project (GPCP, Adler et al., 2018) as a reference through the quantile mapping method, which adjusts

89 probability distributions by individually matching each quantile to the respective quantile of the reference dataset (Jakob et

90 al., 2011). GPCP data has a shorter time period (from 1979) when compared to ERA5 data, which has been available since

- 91 1950. Since we aimed to investigate interannual/interdecadal variability and climate change, we chose the longer dataset.
- 92 Each precipitation dataset was conservatively gridded to a regular 1°x1° lat-lon grid in a monthly temporal resolution
- 93 between 1979 and 2014. SST data was obtained from the COBE dataset, produced by the Japan Meteorological Agency
- 94 (Hiragana et al., 2014), which has long temporal availability and is observations-based.

95 Table 1 - CMIP6 simulations, their native resolutions, vertical levels and source institutions

Model	Horizontal resolution	Vertical levels	Variant label	Institution
ACCESS-CM2	1.875° × 1.25°	85	r1i1p1f1	CSIRO
ACCESS-ESM1-5	1.875 ° x 1.25°	38	r1i1p1f1	CSIRO
BCC-CSM2-MR	2.81° x 2.81°	46	r1i1p1f1	BCC
CAMS-CSM1-0	1° x 1°	31	r1i1p1f1	CAMS
CanESM5	2.81° x 2.81°	49	r1i1p1f1	CCCma
CESM2-WACCM	0.9° x 1.25°	70	r1i1p1f1	NCAR
CIESM	1° x 1°	30	r1i1p1f1	THU
CMCC-CM2-SR5	1° x 1°	30	r1i1p1f1	CMCC
CNRM-CM6-1	1.4° x 1.4°	91	r1i1p1f2	CNRM-CERFACS
CNRM-CM6-1-HR	1.4° x 1.4°	91	r1i1p1f2	CNRM-CERFACS
CNRM-ESM2-1	1.4° x 1.4°	91	r1i1p1f2	CNRM-CERFACS
EC-Earth3-CC	0.7° x 0.7°	91	r1i1p1f1	EC-Earth-Consortium
EC-Earth3-Veg	0.7° x 0.7°	91	r1i1p1f1	EC-Earth-Consortium
EC-Earth3-Veg-LR	1.1° x 1.1°	62	r1i1p1f1	EC-Earth-Consortium
FGOALS-f3-L	1° x 1°	32	r1i1p1f1	IAP/CAS
FGOALS-g3	2° x 2°	26	r1i1p1f1	IAP/CAS
GFDL-CM4	1° x 1°	33	r1i1p1f1	NOAA-GFDL
GFDL-ESM4	1° x 1°	49	r1i1p1f1	NOAA-GFDL
IITM-ESM	2° x 2°	64	r1i1p1f1	CCCR-IITM
INM-CM4-8	2° x 1.5°	21	r1i1p1f1	INM
INM-CM5-0	2° x 1.5°	73	r1i1p1f1	INM
IPSL-CM6A-LR	2.5° x 1.3°	79	r1i1p1f1	IPSL
KACE-1-0-G	1.9° x 1.3°	85	r1i1p1f1	NIMS-KMA
MIROC6	1.4° x 1.4°	81	r1i1p1f1	MIROC
MPI-ESM1-2-HR	0.93° x 0.93°	95	r1i1p1f1	MPI-M
MPI-ESM1-2-LR	1.9° x 1.9°	47	r1i1p1f1	MPI-M

Model	Horizontal resolution	Vertical levels	Variant label	Institution
ACCESS-CM2	1.875° × 1.25°	85	r1i1p1f1	CSIRO
MRI-ESM2-0	1.125° x 1.125°	80	r1i1p1f1	MRI
NESM3	1.9° x 1.9°	47	r1i1p1f1	NUIST
NorESM2-LM	2° x 2°	32	r1i1p1f1	NCC
TaiESM1	1.25° x 0.9°	30	r1i1p1f1	AS-RCEC

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97 The models listed above, through their computational representations of the atmosphere, choices of parameterisation, vertical 98 levels etc, provide unique numerical representations of the physical climate system. Each of these representations have a 99 distinct level of skill in simulating the mechanisms of precipitation variability and changes in Brazil. Therefore, we rank and 100 select the models with higher performance to represent the SST-precipitation transfer function revealed by the PLS analysis. 101 This ranking is based on the Normalised Root Mean Square Error (NRMSE), which is obtained by comparing the PLS scores 102 and loadings between each model and those derived from the ERA5 reanalysis. Models that exhibit NRMSE < 0.6 in at least 103 two out of the first four PLS components, are singled out as more reliably representing mechanisms that cause the 104 precipitation in Brazil while the rest is discarded for the remaining analysis, for each x and y information, between every 105 single model and those derived from the ERA5 reanalysis. In other words, the X score of model A had its correlation 106 calculated with the X score of ERA5, and so on. That means, the scores and loadings were separately calculated and after 107 that, used a normalisation. The models that exhibit NRMSE values below 0.6 in at least two out of the first four PLS 108 components were selected. This value is chosen after a visual analysis of all the PLS components among the models. These 109 selected models are singled out as more reliably representing mechanisms that cause the precipitation in Brazil while the rest 110 is discarded for the remaining analysis.

111

After the model ranking and selection step, we provide a set of weights that will be later used for model averaging. This set of weights is found by multiplying the inverse of the NRMSE by the importance of each PLS component; this is done so that models that perform well in representing more relevant mechanisms are favoured during the model pooling step. The importance of each PLS component is quantified by the coefficient of determination (r²) of the reconstructed precipitation using only that component and the original ERA5 precipitation.

117 2.2.2 Future climate

118 We employ the same PLS methodology on future climate simulations under the SSP2-2.45 scenario between 2020 and 2050; 119 in this near-future temporal range, we do not expect the choice of scenario to influence the results because scenario 120 uncertainty in regional precipitation changes only becomes relevant in later decades (Hawkins and Sutton, 2011). 121 Finally, the effectiveness of this methodology in reducing the uncertainty of near-future precipitation changes in the CMIP6 122 ensemble is assessed by comparing the uncertainty of all CMIP6 models listed in Table 1 with the uncertainty of the subset 123 of models selected by our methodology. The uncertainty of the climate change signal was computed for each grid cell by 124 determining the ratio (in %) between the ensemble mean climatologies of the SSP2 4.5 scenario for the years 2020 2050 and 125 the historical period of 1979 2014. The climate change signal was computed for each grid cell by calculating the ratio (in %) 126 between the anomaly of the ensemble mean climatologies of the SSP2-4.5 scenario for the years 2020-2050 and the 127 historical period of 1979-2014, divided by the historical. To assess the robustness of the models, we apply the procedure 128 adopted by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), as outlined in its Sixth Assessment Report, made 129 available through the Interactive Atlas developed by Working Group I (WGI). This approach determines the robustness of 130 climate change signals based on a strong model consensus, highlighting where at least 80% of the models agree on the sign 131 of the predicted changes.

132 3 Results and discussion

133 In this section, we present the results of the analysis for the present and future climates, discussing the underlying 134 precipitation mechanisms in reanalysis and model data. We also discuss the reduction of epistemic uncertainty of regional 135 precipitation changes obtained through the selection of models that skillfully represent precipitation mechanisms in the 136 present climate. In all resultsPLS analysis, the Legal Amazon area was cropped off; this is because precipitation in the 137 Amazon region presents significantly higher variability in magnitude, dominating the results and washing out patterns in 138 other areas that are also socioeconomically relevant.

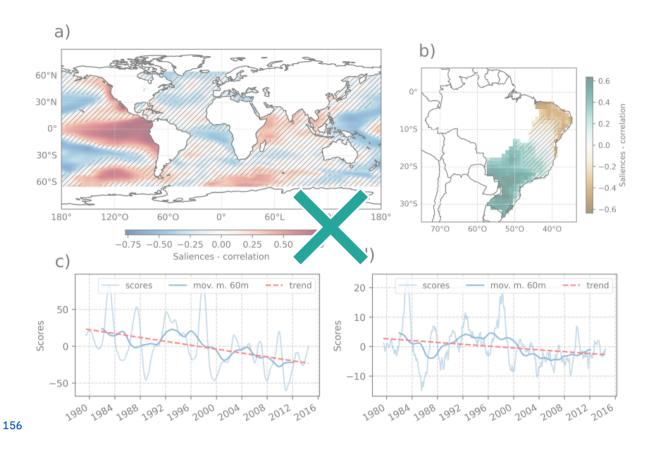
139 3.1 Precipitation mechanisms in the present climate (1979-2014)

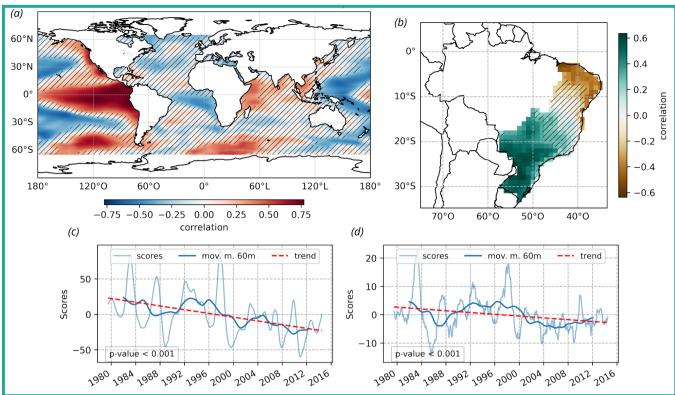
140 In the present climate, the first PLS loadings matrix of the SST reveals a prominent positive pattern in the central Pacific 141 Ocean that aligns with the region dominated by the El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phenomenon (Fig. 1a). This 142 ENSO-like pattern with high statistical significance (unhatched area) extends from the west coast of South America to the 143 Maritime Continent in the equatorial region, surrounded by a pattern of opposite signal. There is a negative trend in Fig. 1c 144 scores, indicating a change of sign in the patterns of Fig. 1a. This suggests that in the first half of the timeseries, El Niño 145 conditions were dominant, while in the second half of the time series, La Niña conditions were. The associated PLS loadings 146 matrix for precipitation shows a significant positive correlation in South Brazil and a negative correlation in Northeast Brazil 147 (Fig. 1b). The time series of the associated scores do not show a strong linear trend, reinforcing that this PLS mode is more 148 associated with a natural variability mechanism like ENSO than to climate change (Fig. 1d).

149 The global warming trend can explain the mostly positive SST loadings matrix and the increasingly positive scores time 150 series of the second PLS component (Fig. 2a,c). This warming oceanic pattern is linked to a precipitation reduction in most

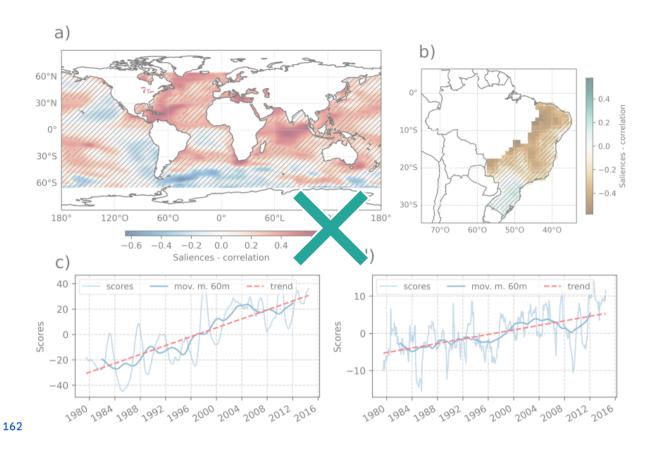
151 of Southeast and Northeast Brazil (Fig. 2b,d). A possible explanation for this precipitation suppression is the expansion of

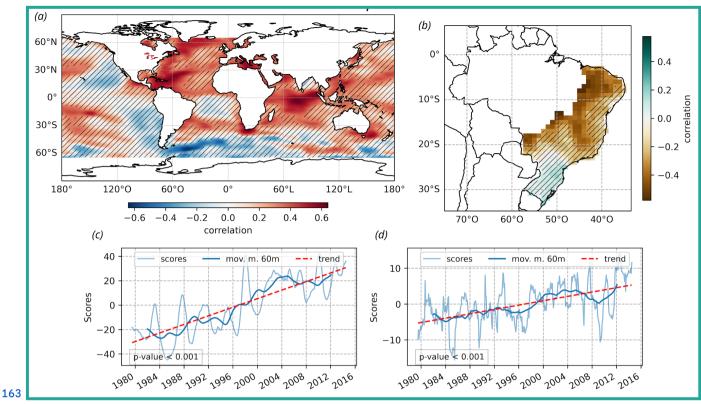
152 the Hadley cell under climate change (Lu et al., 2007; Grise & Davis, 2020) and, consequently, the restriction of the 153 equatorward motion of extratropical cyclones and their fronts, which are important precipitation mechanisms in Southeast 154 Brazil (Perez et al., 2021). Perez et al. (2022) has shown that a temporary intensification of the Hadley circulation during 155 positive NAO events leads to precipitation suppression in Southeast Brazil.





158 Figure 1: First component of the PLS methodology applied using monthly precipitation data from ERA5 and SST data from 159 COBE between 1979 and 20154. The spatial maps represent the loadings matrices and the time series represent the scores. The 160 hatchings represent areas where the statistical confidence on the sign of the anomaly is lower than 95%. The p-values indicate the 161 statistical significance of the results.





164 Figure 2 - Second component of the PLS methodology applied using monthly precipitation data from ERA5 and SST data from 165 COBE between 1979 and 20154. The spatial maps represent the loadings matrices and the time series represent the scores. The 166 hatchings represent areas where the statistical confidence on the sign of the anomaly is lower than 95%. The p-values indicate the 167 statistical significance of the results.

168 For the third and fourth components (Annex), we observe more divergence in the results. Despite this, we consider these 169 components in our evaluation due to their assigned weights and the potential for providing additional representation of 170 driving mechanisms beyond the first and second components. Moreover, these third and fourth components might reveal 171 important patterns that affect precipitation in Brazil, especially the Atlantic SST variability (Hastenrath and Greischar, 1993; 172 Yoon and Zeng, 2010; Perez et al, 2022).

173 Through the analysis of the PLS components in the present climate datasets, we are able to select and rank the models based 174 on their performance to reproduce these components. The model selection is based on a threshold of NRMSE< 0.6, and the 175 individual model weights are based on the inverse of the average NRMSE among the PLS components scaled by the 176 importance of each component, as described in the Methodology section. The table below 2 lists the selected models and their 177 respective weights along with the components these models skillfully represent, later employed to construct the weighted 178 ensemble mean in the future climate section. These models selected through our approach are those that showed better 179 performance in the task of simulating the impacts of precipitation in Brazil. This way, for example, the high weight of 180 GFDL-ESM4, indicates that this model performs well in representing the overall components more accurately when 181 compared to other models. While it is true that component 1 relates to the ENSO dynamics, the overall evaluation takes into

182 components that represent other important forcings of the Brazilian precipitation regime. For instance, the Atlantic SST 183 variability drives the Brazilian precipitation variability in the Amazon (Yoon and Zeng, 2010), Northeast Brazil (Hastenrath 184 and Greischar, 1992) and subtropical regions (Perez et al., 2022). Furthermore, by including multiple components in the 185 analysis, we acknowledge that climate dynamics are multifaceted, and a comprehensive evaluation should account for more 186 than just the primary modes of variability like ENSO. This approach rests on the importance of a holistic evaluation of model 187 performance across various components, rather than focusing solely on the primary modes.

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189 Table 2 - List of selected models and their weights represented as a percentage of their contribution to the ensemble mean.

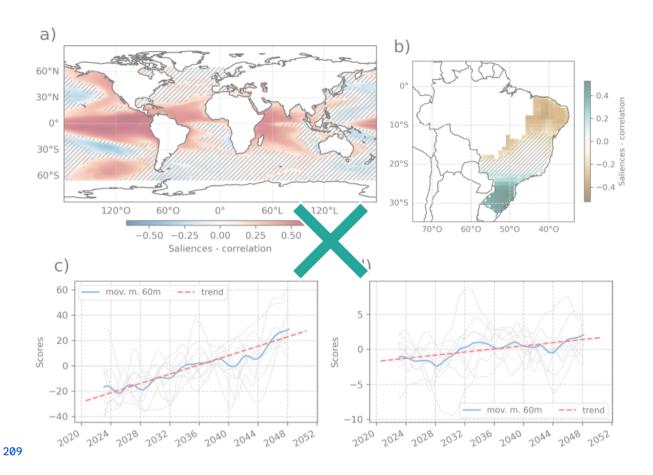
	0	1 1
Model	Components	Weight (%)
CAMS-CSM1-0	1, 2, 4	7.76
CNRM-ESM2-1	1, 3, 4	7.73
GFDL-ESM4	2, 4	7.59
BCC-CSM2-MR	1, 2, 4	7.37
EC-Earth3-CC	1, 2	7.11
EC-Earth3-Veg-LR	1, 2	7.08
EC-Earth3-Veg	2, 4	6.83
IPSL-CM6A-LR	2, 3, 4	6.69
KACE-1-0-G	1, 2	6.61
CNRM-CM6-1-HR	2, 3, 4	6.56
MPI-ESM1-2-HR	1, 4	6.28
CMCC-CM2-SR5	1, 2	6.19
FGOALS-f3-L	2, 3	6.18
MIROC6	1, 4	5.94
CESM2-WACCM	1, 4	4.08

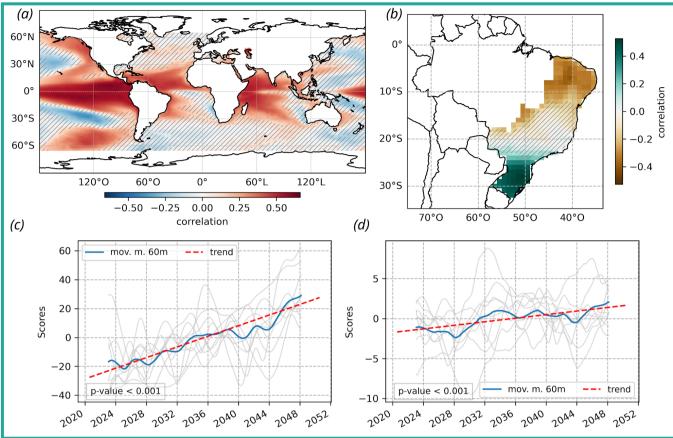
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191 3.2 Precipitation mechanisms in the future climate (2020-2050)

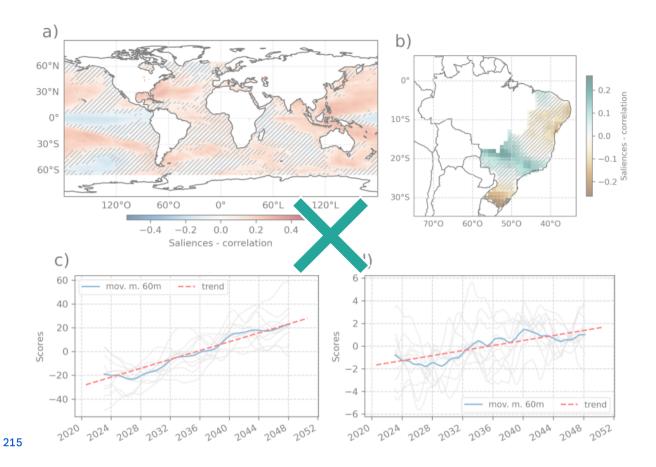
The oceanic mechanisms driving precipitation in Brazil in the future climate (2020-2050) are discovered by applying the PLS methodology in CMIP6 future climate simulations (Fig. 3 and 4). Figure 3 shows the first PLS component and Figure 4 the second PLS component; for each component, only models that performed well (NRMSE < 0.6) in the present climate are considered. The spatial maps show the average loadings matrices of the model ensemble, where each model is weighed by its skill in the present climate (Table 2); the hatched areas represent regions where at least 80% of the models disagree on the 197 sign of the loadings matrix.

The first component shows a strong Niño-like pattern in the Central Pacific, similarly to what is found in the present climate 199 (Fig. 3a). However, unlike the present climate analysis, this Niño-like component shows a strong linear trend in the time 200 series of scores (Fig. 3c), suggesting that the climate models are mixing the natural variability of the ENSO phenomenon and 201 anthropogenic global warming; this warming trend can also be seen in the increasingly positive patterns in the tropical 202 Atlantic and Indian oceans. The impact of this warming trend in the Brazilian regional precipitation is a wetting pattern in 203 South Brazil and a drying pattern in Northeast Brazil, interfaced by a large region of uncertainty (Fig. 3b).
204 The second component illustrates a generalised warming trend in most regions of model agreement (Fig. 4a,c). This 205 component impacts precipitation in Brazil through a drying trend in the southernmost border of the country and a wetting 206 trend in the southeastern area. Some coastal areas in Northeast Brazil are significantly affected by a drying trend (Fig. 4b,d). 207 Although the linear trend was observed in most models (Fig. 3c,d and Fig. 4c,d), it becomes clearer and more robust in the 208 model subset; this reflects how sifting models in a mechanistic approach helps reduce the epistemic uncertainties.





211 Figure 3 - First component of the PLS methodology applied using monthly precipitation data from CMIP6 models under the 212 SSP2-4.5 scenario, listed in Table 2, between 2020 and 2050. The spatial maps represent the loadings matrices and the time series 213 represent the scores. The regions with hatching indicate areas of uncertainty with < 80% agreement in the sign change among the 214 models. The p-values indicate the statistical significance of the results.



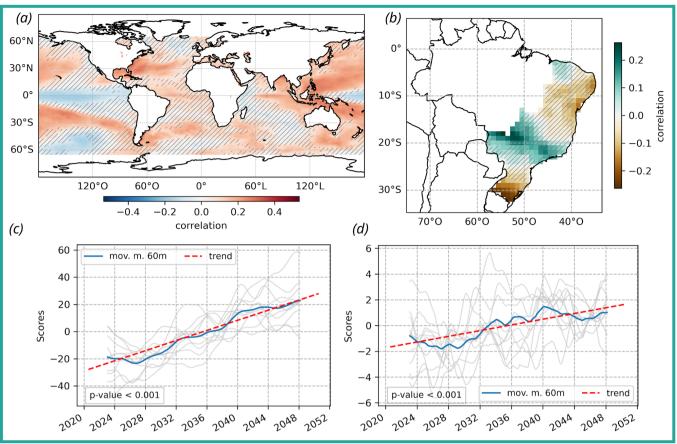


Figure 4 - Second component of the PLS methodology applied using monthly precipitation data from CMIP6 models under the SSP2-4.5 scenario, listed in Table 2, between 2020 and 2050. The spatial maps represent the loadings matrices and the time series represent the scores. The regions with hatching indicate areas of uncertainty with < 80% agreement in the sign change among the models. The p-values indicate the statistical significance of the results.

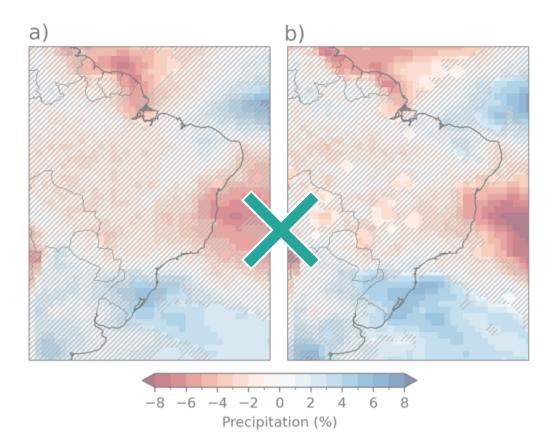
221 3.3 Future climate precipitation changes and uncertainty reduction

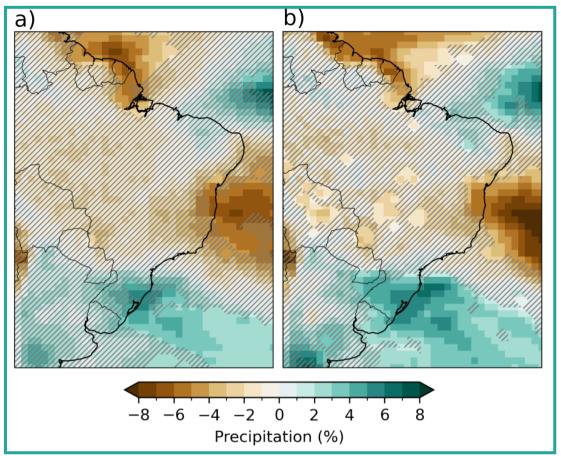
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While the analysis of individual PLS components may support storyline approaches and mechanistic understanding, a quantitative precipitation change map is often required by decision-making bodies. With that in mind, we provide an uncertainty map based on the methodology employed by the IPCC in its 6th Assessment Report (Fig. 5). Here, we focus on the percentage of projected changes in 2020-2050 relative to 1979-2014. The hatching highlights regions where there is a significant lack of consensus, with at least 80% of the models analysed showing non-concordance, similar to the PLS uncertainty maps shown in the previous section.

Figure 5a shows the ensemble mean of the future precipitation changes using all CMIP6 models, listed in Table 1, while Fig. 229 5b uses the mean of the subset of models in Table 2 weighted by their skill in simulating precipitation mechanisms in the 230 present climate (Fig. 5b). Firstly, we notice that the reduction of epistemic uncertainty by the proposed methodology is 231 revealed by stronger anomalies and fewer hatched areas. Particularly, the South Atlantic Subtropical High (SASH) shows

232 stronger negative anomalies, suggesting a trend towards drier conditions in the region via an intensification of the Hadley 233 cell descending branch. Moreover, the positive changes in South Brazil have increased after the application of the 234 methodology; this enhanced dipole between the SASH and South Brazil is consistent with the mechanism of restriction of 235 cold fronts revealed by the PLS in the present climate and discussed in Sect. 3a. In other words, selecting and weighting 236 models that reproduce important precipitation mechanisms in the present climate has increased the clarity of what may 237 happen in the region in the near-future climate.





240 Figure 5 - Percentual precipitation changes in 2020-2050 relative to 1979-2014 based on all assessed models, as listed in Table 1, (a) 241 and the percentual changes based on the selected models listed in Table 2 (b) from CMIP6 under the SSP2-4.5 scenario. The 242 regions with hatching indicate areas of uncertainty with < 80% agreement in the sign change among the models.

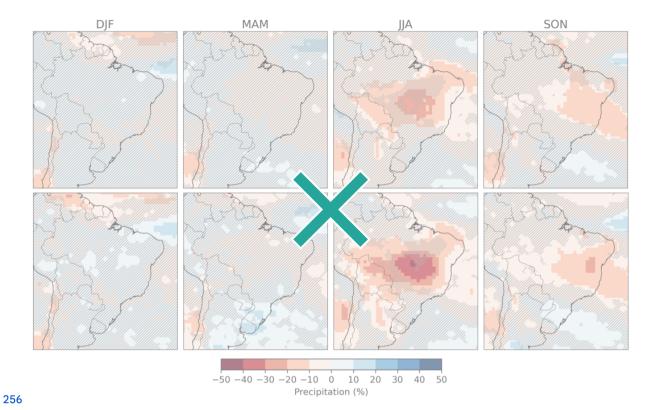
243 Figure 6 shows the future precipitation changes broken down by season based on all models listed in Table 1 and only using

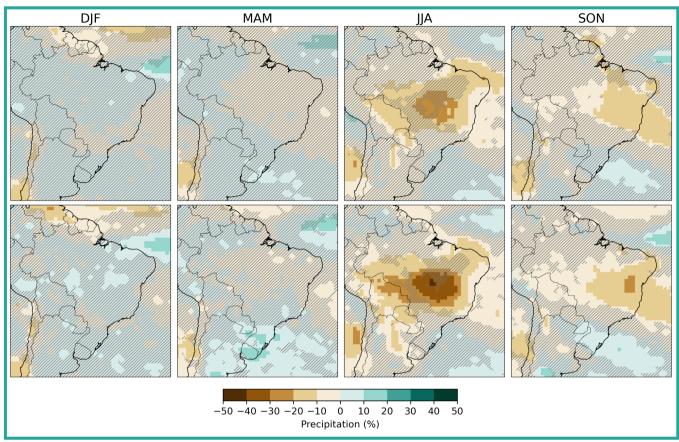
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the models selected by the methodology (Table 2). A noticeable reduction of uncertainty across all seasons is evident when comparing the hatched areas using all models versus only using the selected models, underscoring the success of our models process-based model selection methodology in enhancing our confidence in regional climate projections. The period from December to May corresponds to the rainy season, characterised by a prevalence of uncertainties; this is in agreement with Bazzanela et al. (2023) and Firpo et al. (2022), that also indicate that CMIP6 models perform better in the dry season than in the wet season.

From June to November the Central and Northeast regions exhibit a clear drying pattern. In JJA, in particular, precipitation in most of Brazil is largely driven by cold fronts, which, as previously discussed, can be restrained in higher latitudes if the SASH is intensified. In SON, we expect an intensified SASH to also contribute to a later onset of the rainy season. This drying pattern in JJA and SON is intensified in the subset of selected models. This is unsurprising, since the SASH

254 subsidence associated with an intensification of the Hadley circulation is one of the mechanisms discovered by the PLS 255 analysis in the present climate and used to select the best performing models.





258 Figure 6 - Seasonal percentual precipitation changes in 2020-2050 relative to 1979-2014 based on all assessed models, as listed in 259 Table 1, (up) and the percentual changes based on the selected models listed in Table 2 (down) from CMIP6 under the SSP2-4.5 scenario. The regions with hatching indicate areas of uncertainty with < 80% agreement in the sign change among the models.

261 4 Summary and Conclusions

This study aims to reduce the epistemic uncertainty of regional precipitation changes in Brazil through a data-driven process-based methodology of model selection and weighting. To achieve this, we first employ the methodology to discover the main precipitation drivers in the present climate (1979-2014) in a reanalysis dataset (Sect. 3a), revealing that the El Niño and the generalised warming of the oceans are linked to significant precipitation impacts in Brazil (Fig. 1 and 2). A distinct propose that the linking mechanism between these SST and precipitation patterns is the intensification of the Hadley circulation (Hu and Fu, 2007) and, consequently, of the subsidence at the South Atlantic Subtropical High. (Carvalho et al., 2011).

270 The same methodology is then applied to CMIP6 present-climate simulations (Table 1) to evaluate the capability of CMIP6 271 models to simulate these precipitation drivers, thus creating a process-based model selection and weighting approach to

272 underpin the future climate analysis. From a total of 30 models, we select 15 models that are capable of simulating at least **273** two (Table 2) of the main regional precipitation drivers. 274 The mechanism discovery methodology is then applied to the near-future (2020-2050) climate simulations of the selected 275 models. We find that an ENSO-like pattern, tied to a generalised warming of the tropical oceans, is linked to an increase of 276 precipitation in South Brazil and a decrease in Northeast Brazil (Fig. 3 and 4), consistently with the present-climate 277 indication of an intensification of the Hadley circulation. This mechanistic view of regional precipitation changes can 278 underpin the development of storylines in future studies to support decision-making bodies in the water-energy-food nexus. 279 We go further to provide a quantitative view of regional precipitation changes based on the IPCC WG1 approach, contrasting 280 the uncertainty of precipitation changes using 30 CMIP6 models versus using the 15 selected models. We show that the 281 approach increased model agreement, particularly in South Brazil and SASH region. In the next 30 years (Fig. 6), a 282 noticeable reduction in uncertainty across all seasons is evident mostly from June to November. This period is characterised 283 by a clear drying pattern due to the strengthening of SASH, intensified within the subset of selected models, which leads to a 284 suppression of precipitation in Northeast and Southeast Brazil, possibly delaying the rainy season in these regions. 285 Our methodology employs an approach focused on understanding of model selection and weighting considers the underlying 286 precipitation drivers rather than simply comparing CMIP6 model precipitation with observations. By selecting and weighting 287 models mechanistically, we achieve a reduction of the epistemic uncertainty of precipitation changes in Brazil in the CMIP6 288 ensemble. This approach, as highlighted by Shepherd (2014), is a more appropriate way to address the uncertainties of 289 regional precipitation changes and to support physically sound storylines regarding shifts in precipitation patterns. The 290 method is based on the discovery of statistical relationships between SST patterns and precipitation through the PLS and the 291 assumption that models with an accurate representation of these statistical relationships have a better representation of 292 atmospheric processes leading to precipitation. Considering that the atmospheric flow is the medium connecting SST and 293 precipitation and the statistical significance of the PLS loadings, we believe this assumption to be robust. However, as with 294 any data-driven methodology, there could be instances where confounding factors may influence the results; this highlights 295 the need of other mechanistic approaches capable of isolating rainfall mechanisms individually, such as atmospheric rivers,

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296 convergence zones, hurricanes and fronts (Catto et al., 2015; Franco-Diaz et al., 2019; Perez et al., 2024).

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