
RainBench: Enabling Data-Driven Precipitation Forecasting on a Global Scale

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Abstract

Climate change is expected to aggravate extreme precipitation events, directly impacting the livelihood of millions. Without a *global* precipitation forecasting system in place, many regions – especially those constrained in resources to collect expensive groundstation data – are left behind. To mitigate such unequal reach of climate change, a solution is to alleviate the reliance on numerical models (and by extension groundstation data) by enabling machine-learning-based global forecasts from satellite imagery. Though prior works exist in regional precipitation nowcasting, there lacks work in global, medium-term precipitation forecasting. Importantly, a common, accessible baseline for meaningful comparison is absent. In this work, we present **RainBench**, a multi-modal benchmark dataset dedicated to advancing global precipitation forecasting. We establish baseline tasks and release **PyRain**, a data-handling pipeline to enable efficient processing of decades-worth of data by any modeling framework. Whilst our work serves as a basis for a new chapter on global precipitation forecast from satellite imagery, the greater promise lies in the community joining forces to use our released datasets and tools in developing machine learning approaches to tackle this important challenge.

1 Introduction

Extreme precipitation events, such as violent rain and hail storms, can devastate crop fields and disrupt harvests [12, 22]. Although these events can be locally forecasted with sophisticated numerical weather models that rely on extensive ground and satellite observations, such approaches require access to compute and data resources that developing countries in need – particularly in South America and West Africa – cannot afford [5, 11]. The lack of advance planning for precipitation events impedes socioeconomic development and ultimately affects the livelihoods of millions around the world. Given the increase in global precipitation and extreme precipitation events driven by climate change [6], the need for accurate precipitation forecasts is ever more pressing.

To mitigate such unequal reach of climate change, a solution is to alleviate the reliance on numerical models (and by extension ground-station data) by enabling machine-learning-based forecasts from global satellite imagery. Several notable prior works exist in applying machine learning techniques to precipitation forecasting. Early work by Xingjian et al. [24] proposed a convolutional recurrent neural

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network for precipitation nowcasting. Most recently, S nderby et al. [21] proposed a “(weather)-model-free” approach, MetNet, which forecasts precipitation in continental USA using geostationary satellite images and radar measurements as inputs. This approach performs well up to 7-8 hours, but inevitably runs into a forecast horizon limit as information from global or surrounding geographic areas is not incorporated into the system. Such short time windows do not enable substantial disaster preparedness for disadvantaged populations. Moreover, there lacks a common and accessible dataset for meaningful comparison in global precipitation forecasting research.

Most related to our work, Rasp et al. [17] developed WeatherBench, a benchmark suite for global data-driven medium-range weather forecasting. Although WeatherBench forms an excellent first step in weather forecasting (focusing on temperature and geopotential), it falls short at enabling precipitation forecasts. First, WeatherBench does not include any observational raw data (e.g. satellite imagery) and only contains ERA5 precipitation data, which has limited skill in representing extreme precipitation events. Further, WeatherBench does not include a fast dataloading pipeline to train ML models, which has been found to be a significant bottleneck in our model development.

In this work, we present **RainBench**, a multi-modal benchmark dataset dedicated to advancing global precipitation forecasting. We establish baseline end-to-end forecasting tasks covering realistic data conditions. Together with the release of an efficient data-handling pipeline, **PyRain**, we are hopeful that this work will facilitate future machine learning research in tackling the important challenge of precipitation forecasting.

2 RainBench

We introduce **RainBench** a dataset to facilitate research efforts into global precipitation forecasting from satellite imagery. **RainBench** results from the combination of the following sources of data.

SimSat. We integrate Simulated Satellite (SimSat) data to minimize data processing requirements and to simplify the prediction task. SimSat data is model-simulated satellite data generated from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECWMF)’s high-resolution weather-forecasting model using the RTTOV radiative transfer model [20]. SimSat emulates three spectral channels from the Meteosat-10 SEVIRI satellite [1]. SimSat provides information about global cloud cover and moisture features and has a native spatial resolution of about 0.1° – i.e. about 10 km – at three-hourly intervals. The product is available from April 2016 to present (with a lag time of 24 h). Using real satellite data adds unnecessary complication which deviates from the core precipitation forecasting problem (e.g. the need to account for instrument error and missing values) and is left as future work.

IMERG. We use Integrated Multi-satellitE Retrievals (IMERG), a global half-hourly precipitation estimation product provided by NASA [8]. Specifically we use the Final Run product which primarily uses satellite data from multiple polar-orbiting and geo-stationary satellites. This estimate is then corrected using data from reanalysis products (MERRA2, ERA5) and rain-gauge data. IMERG is produced at a spatial resolution of 0.1° – about 10 km – and is available from June 2000 to present, with a lag time of about three to four months.

ERA5. As an alternate source of precipitation estimates, we use the ERA5 Reanalysis Product [7] which provides a global hourly estimate. Additionally, we include the broad spectrum of physical and atmospheric variables provided in ERA5, such as specific humidity, temperature and geopotential height at different pressure levels. Estimates cover the full globe at a spatial resolution of 0.25° and are available from 1979 to present, with a lag time of five days.

Alongside RainBench, we release **PyRain**, an out-of-the-box experimentation framework to make our released dataset as user-friendly as possible². While being optimised for use with RainBench, PyRain is also compatible with the WeatherBench. PyRain is based on NumPy *memmap* arrays³ with optimised software-side access patterns. Empirically we have found this to accelerate data-reading operations by as much as 60 times when compared to a conventional NetCDF+Dask⁴ [18] dataloader.

²Dataloading limitations have been previously identified as a decisive bottleneck by the Pangeo community in <https://pangeo.io/index.html>

³<https://docs.python.org/3/library/mmap.html> (2021)

⁴<https://www.unidata.ucar.edu/software/netcdf/> (2021)

Table 1: Precipitation forecasts evaluated with Latitude-weighted RMSE (mm). All rows except the last show models trained with data from 2016 onwards. ERA* uses data from 1979 and 2000 onwards for predicting ERA5 and IMERG precipitation respectively. Best results (except ERA*) are shown in bold.

	ERA5			IMERG		
	1-day	3-day	5-day	1-day	3-day	5-day
Persistence	0.6249	0.6460	0.6492	1.1321	1.1497	1.1518
Climatology	0.4798	0.4802	0.4803	0.8244	0.8249	0.8246
SimSat	0.4610	0.4678	0.4691	0.8166	0.8201	0.8198
ERA	0.4562	0.4655	0.4677	0.8182	0.8224	0.8215
SimSat + ERA	0.4557	0.4655	0.4675	0.8134	0.8185	0.8185
ERA*	0.4485	0.4670	0.4699	0.8085	0.8194	0.8214

2.1 Benchmark Tasks

We define two benchmark tasks on RainBench for precipitation forecasting, with the ground truth precipitation values taken from either ERA5 or IMERG. For each benchmark task, we consider three different input data settings: SimSat, reanalysis data (ERA5), or both. When using input data from ERA5, we use 17 atmospheric state variables that we determine as useful for precipitation reconstruction through correlation analysis and domain knowledge. Additionally, we use 5 static variables describing the location and surface of the Earth. We normalize each variable with its global mean and standard deviation.

We use Convolutional LSTMs [24] as the neural model baseline and structure our forecasting task based on MetNet’s configurations [21], where a single model is capable of forecasting at different lead times. Specifically, the network’s input is a time series of features from $t = T$ to $t = 0$, and the output is a precipitation forecast at lead time $t = \tau$. The input time series is a concatenation of the aforementioned temporal features, static features, time features and a one-hot lead-time vector. We provide more details in Appendix E.

The tasks are approached as a regression problem. Following [17], we use the mean latitude-weighted Root-Mean Squared Error (RMSE) as loss and evaluation metric. This is a meaningful metric for precipitation forecasts as it corrects the oversampling of locations at higher latitudes caused by degree-based resolutions. We compare the results to two common baselines in weather forecasting (1) a *persistence* forecast in which the precipitation at $t = 0$ is used as prediction at $t = \tau$, and (2) a *climatology* forecast in which the mean precipitation in the training data is used as prediction.

3 Benchmarks and Experiments

3.1 Precipitation Forecasting

Table 1 shows our neural model baseline for the two benchmark forecasting tasks.

When predicting ERA5 precipitation, all neural results outperform baselines. Training from SimSat alone gives the worst results across all data settings. This confirms the difficulty in precipitation forecast from satellite data alone, which does not contain as much information about the atmospheric state as sophisticated reanalysis data such as ERA5. Importantly, the complementary benefits of utilizing data from both sources is already visible despite our simple concatenation setup, as training from both SimSat and ERA5 achieves the best results across all lead times (when holding the number of training instances constant).

When predicting IMERG precipitation, the similar performance between the climatology baseline and neural model suggests that this is a considerably more difficult task. Forecasting skill based on ERA5 input is only mildly better than the climatology baselines for 1-day and 3-day forecasts. Upon inspection we found IMERG to feature a longer tail distribution of extreme precipitation events (Appendix B), which contributes to the increased difficulty of the task.

Table 2: Same-timestep estimation of IMERG precipitation with and without balanced sampling, reported in RMSE. Best results are shown in bold.

		Slight	Moderate	Heavy	Violent	Micro Avg.	Macro Avg.
Unbalanced	ERA	0.20	4.08	16.2	63.1	0.65	20.9
	SimSat	0.20	4.38	16.8	54.1	0.65	18.9
	SimSat + ERA	0.20	4.03	16.5	53.0	0.65	18.4
Balanced	ERA	1.05	2.75	12.4	58.0	1.40	18.6
	SimSat	1.17	3.10	13.3	50.1	1.26	16.9
	SimSat + ERA	1.30	3.15	11.8	44.3	1.38	15.1

We also see the importance in using a larger training dataset, since extending the considered training instances to the full ERA5 dataset outperforms the baselines further in the 1-day forecasting regime (shown in the last rows). A key limitation in the baseline setup is that only the overlapping time frames (from 2016 onwards) of ERA5, IMERG and SimSat are used. This suggests that there is still significant room for improvement above the presented baselines, especially by developing alternative modeling setups that adequately make use of the full available data from each source.

3.2 Balanced Sampling Approach

To better understand the challenges posed by an imbalanced occurrence of precipitation events, we carried out a separate analysis focusing on *same-timestep* precipitation estimation on IMERG. We adopted a balanced-sampling approach and measured its effect on model performance in four precipitation classes (defined according to [15]).

For this analysis, we use LightGBM methods [10]. We use 1 million randomly-sampled pixels as training data, and compare the (not latitude-adjusted) RMSE for two pixel sampling variants. A) unbalanced sampling, meaning grid points are chosen randomly from the raw data distribution and B) balanced sampling, in which we bin IMERG precipitation into four classes and sample grid points until there is an equal amount of pixels per bin.

In Table 2, we find that balanced sampling reduces the per-class validation RMSE of moderate, heavy and violent precipitation, resulting in improved macro-averaged RMSE. However, the micro-averaged RMSE increases due to worsen performance on the ‘Slight Rain’ class, which dominates the dataset (detailed in Appendix B)

4 Discussion

Designing an appropriate class-balanced sampling may play a crucial role towards improving predictions of extreme precipitation events, a potential solution may lie in a mixture of pixelwise-weighting and balanced sampling strategies. A closely related issue is data normalization, where a more sophisticated feature scaling approach should be developed to account for any local weather patterns and spatial differences, such as the Local Area-wise Standardization (LAS) approach proposed in [4]. We suggest refining LAS and adjust the kernel size with latitude, such that the spatial normalization context remains constant over the globe.

Further, the spherical input and output data topology of global forecasting contexts poses interesting questions regarding the choice of neural network architectures. While a multitude of approaches to handle spherical input topologies has been suggested (see [13] for an overview), it seems yet unclear which approach works best. Our dataset might constitute a valuable benchmark for such research.

Beyond improving upon the proposed benchmark forecasting tasks, RainBench also enables other exciting research avenues. The availability of a comprehensive list of atmospheric state variables in RainBench makes feasible a physics-informed learning approach, for instance by taking a multi-task learning approach to forecast precipitation while simulating physical state variables. Apart from this, developing approaches which allow for effective use of high-resolution data might provide performance gains due to the increased amount of information captured, for example by taking a multi-fidelity approach [9] or by incorporating a local high-resolution model [3]. Investigating a

multi-time-step loss function to train the forecast model is another possible approach to improving generalization performance [14, 2, 23]. Lastly, a local encoder network may be build to provide low-dimensional embeddings, which could then be fed into a late fusion network architecture similar to Rudner et al. [19, Multi³Net]; this might reduce the time lag in obtaining an Early-Run IMERG product, which is currently constrained by the resource-heavy transfer of high-dimensional observational data.

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A PyRain

PyRain introduces an efficient dataloading pipeline for complex sample access patterns that scales to the terabytes of spatial timeseries data typically encountered in the climate and weather domain. Previously identified as a decisive bottleneck by the Pangeo community, PyRain overcomes existing dataloading performance limitations through an efficient use of NumPy memmaps⁵ in conjunction with optimised software-side access patterns.

In contrast to storage formats requiring read system calls, including HDF5 Zarr⁸ or xarray⁹, memory-mapped files use the mmap system call to map physical disk space directly to virtual process memory, enabling the use of OS demand paging and circumventing the kernel buffer. While less beneficial for chunked or sequential reads and spatial slicing, memmaps can efficiently handle the fragmented random access inherent to the randomized sliding-window access patterns along the primary axis as required in model training.

In Table 3, we compare PyRain's memmap data reading capacity against a NetCDF4¹⁰ disk dataloader. We find empirically that PyRain's memmap dataloader offers significant speedups over other solutions, saturating even SSD I/O with few process workers when used with PyTorch's [inbuilt dataloader].

⁵<https://pangeo.io/index.html> (2021)

⁶<https://docs.python.org/3/library/mmap.html> (2021)

⁷<https://portal.hdfgroup.org/display/HDF5/HDF5> (2021)

⁸<https://zarr.readthedocs.io/en/stable/> (2021)

⁹<http://xarray.pydata.org/en/stable/> (2021)

¹⁰<https://www.unidata.ucar.edu/software/netcdf/> (2021)

Table 3: Number of data samples loaded per second using PyRain versus a conventional NetCDF framework. Typical configurations assumed and performed on a NVIDIA DGX1 server with 64 CPUs.

	NetCDF	PyRain	Speedup
16 workers	40	2410	60.3
64 workers	70	1930	27.6

B Precipitation Events in ERA5 and IMERG

RainBench provides precipitation values in two forms: ERA5 precipitation and IMERG precipitation. The ERA5 precipitation is accumulated precipitation over the last hour and is calculated as an averaged quantity over a grid-box. IMERG precipitation has been aggregated into hourly accumulated precipitation – imm – and should be considered as a point estimate of the precipitation.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of precipitation for the years 2000-2017 with both ERA5 and IMERG. Their different distributions indicate that the quality of global precipitation estimates, in particular related to extreme precipitation events, varies with the choice of precipitation data. IMERG has significantly larger rainfall tails than ERA5, and these tails rapidly vanish with decreasing dataset resolution. The underestimation of extreme precipitation events in ERA5 is clearly visible.

Figure 2 shows the pixel-wise precipitation class histograms derived from IMERG at native resolution (0.1°) with max-pooling as downscaling to preserve pixel-wise extremes.

Figure 1: Precipitation histogram for the years 2000-2017 with both ERA5 and IMERG at different resolutions. Vertical lines delineate convection rainfall types: slight (0.1 mm h^{-1} to 2 mm h^{-1}), moderate (2 mm h^{-1} to 10 mm h^{-1}), heavy (10 mm h^{-1} to 50 mm h^{-1}), and violent (over 50 mm h^{-1}) [15].

C Data Preprocessing for Benchmark Tasks

To facilitate efficient experimentation, we convert all data from their original resolutions to lower resolutions using bilinear interpolation. Throughout this paper, we consider data at

The chosen input features for benchmark tasks are as follows. From the ERA5 dataset, we select a subset of variables as input to the forecast model based on our data analysis results; the inputs are geopotential (z), temperature (t), humidity (q), cloud liquid water content (clwc), cloud ice water content (ciwc), each sampled at 300 hPa, 500 hPa and 850 hPa geopotential heights; to these we add the surface pressure and the 2-meter temperature (t2m), as well as static variables that describe the location and surface of the Earth, i.e. latitude, longitude, land-sea mask, orography and soil type. From the SimSat dataset, the inputs are cloud-brightness temperature (clbt) taken at three wavelengths. We normalize each variable with its global mean and standard deviation.

Since the data from each source are available at different times, we use the subset of data available from April 2016 train all models for the benchmark tasks, unless specified otherwise. We use data from 2018 and 2019 as validation and test sets respectively. To make sure no overlap exists between training and evaluation data, the first evaluated date is 6 January 2019 while the last training date is 31 December 2017.

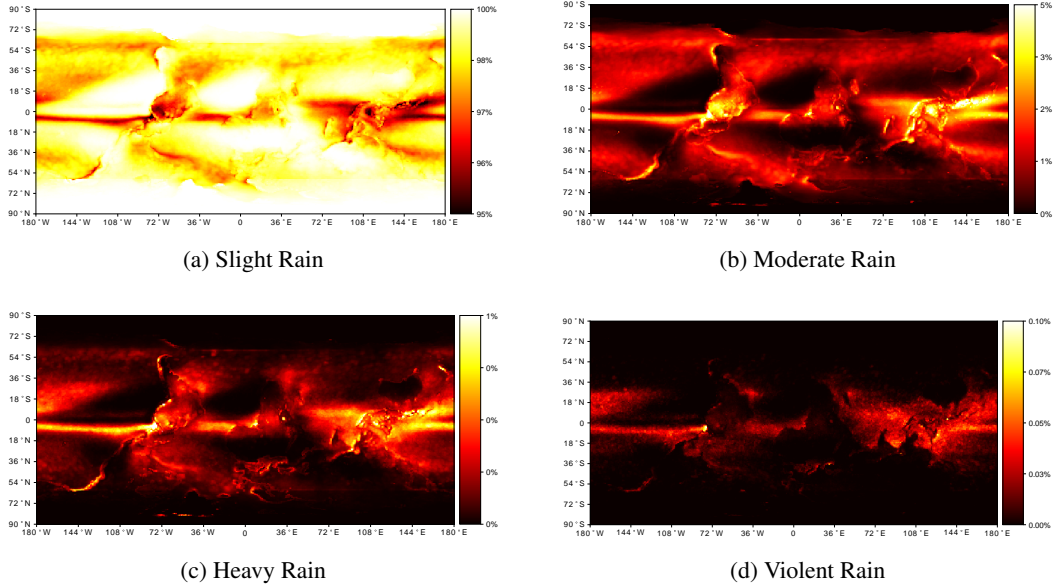


Figure 2: Global distribution of rain events (% of total events).

D Correlation Analysis

In Figure 3, we analyse the dependencies between all RainBench variables, we calculate pairwise Spearman’s rank correlation indices over latitude band from -60 to 60° and date range from April 2016 to December 2019. In contrast to Pearson’s correlation coefficient, Spearman’s correlation coefficient is significant if there is a, potentially non-linear, monotonic relationship between variables, while Pearson’s considers only linear correlations. This allows to capture relationships between variables such as between temperature and absolute latitude. Comparing correlations at altitude pressure levels 300 hPa (about 10 km) and 850 hPa (1.5 km), we can see that they are almost identical, save for a few exceptions: Specific humidity, q , and geopotential height, z , correlate strongly at 300 hPa but not at 850 hPa, cloud ice water content, $ciwc$, generally correlates more strongly at higher altitude (and cloud liquid water content, $clwc$, vice versa). A careful examination of the underlying physical dependencies results in the realisation that all of these asymmetries stem mostly from latitudinal correlations or effects related to cloud formation, e.g. ice and liquid form in clouds at different temperatures/altitudes.

As we are particularly interested in variables that have predictive skill on precipitation, we note that all SimSat spectral channels moderately anti-correlate with both ERA5 and IMERG precipitation estimates. Interestingly, SimSat signals correlate much stronger with specific humidity and cloud ice water content at higher altitude, which might be a consequence of spectral penetration depth. ERA5 state variables that correlate most with either precipitation estimates are specific humidity and temperature. Cloud ice water content correlates moderately strongly with precipitation estimates at high altitude, but not at all at lower altitude (where ice water content tends to be much lower). Interestingly, a number of time-varying ERA5 state variables correlate more strongly with IMERG precipitation than ERA5 precipitation, as do SimSat signals. Conversely, a number of constant variables, such as land-sea mask, orography and soil type are significantly anti-correlated with ERA5 precipitation, but not at all correlated with IMERG. Overall, we find that all variables that are significantly correlated or anti-correlated with both ERA5 tp and IMERG are also correlated or anti-correlated with SimSat clbt:0-2, suggesting that precipitation prediction from simulated satellite data alone may be feasible.

E Model Implementation

We use Convolutional LSTMs [24] and structure our forecasting task based on MetNet’s configurations [21]. An overview of our setup is shown in Figure 4.

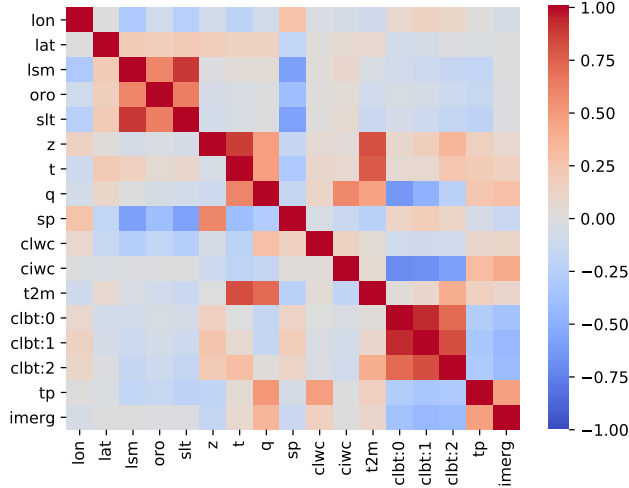


Figure 3: Spearman’s correlation of RainBench variables from April 2016 to December 2019 at a spatial resolution of 5.625° in latitude band $[-60^\circ; 60^\circ]$ at pressure levels 300 hPa (about 10 km) (upper triangle) and 850 hPa (1.5 km) (lower triangle). Legend: *lon*: longitude, *lat*: latitude, *lsm*: land-sea mask, *oro*: orography (topographic relief of mountains), *slt*: soil type, *z*: geopotential height, *t*: temperature, *q*: specific humidity, *sp*: surface pressure, *clwc*: cloud liquid water content, *ciwc*: cloud ice water content, *t2m*: temperature at 2m, *clbt*:*i*: *i* th SimSat channel, *tp*: ERA5 total precipitation, *imerg*: IMERG precipitation. All correlations in this plot are statistically significant ($\rho < 0.05$).

The network’s input is composed of a time series $\{x_t\}_t$, where each x_t is the set of standardized features at time t , sampled in regular intervals Δt from $t = T$ to $t = 0$; the output is a precipitation forecast y at lead time $t = L$. In addition to the aforementioned atmospheric features, static features (e.g. latitude) along with three time-dependant features (hour, day, month) are repeated per timestep. The input vector is then concatenated with a lead-time one-hot vector x_T . In our experiments, we adopt $T = 12$ h, $\Delta t = 3$ h and forecasts at 24-hour intervals up to $L = 120$ h. We note that we do not include precipitation as an input temporal feature.

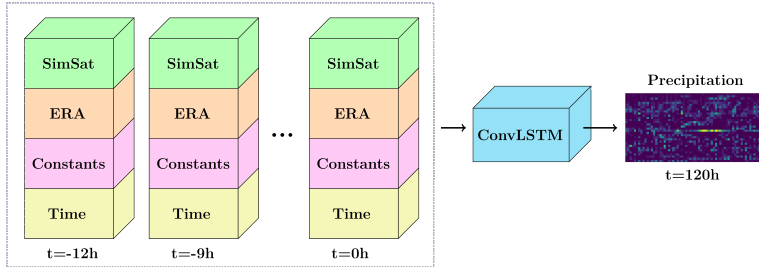


Figure 4: Modelling setup for the benchmark forecasting tasks.

F Forecast Visualization

Figure 5 shows example forecasts from one random input sequence across the different data settings for predicting ERA5 precipitation. We observe that the forecasts can capture the general precipitation distribution across the globe, but there is various degrees of blurriness in the outputs. As we shall discuss later in the paper, considering probabilistic forecasts would be a promising solution to blurriness, which might have arisen as the mean predicted outcome.

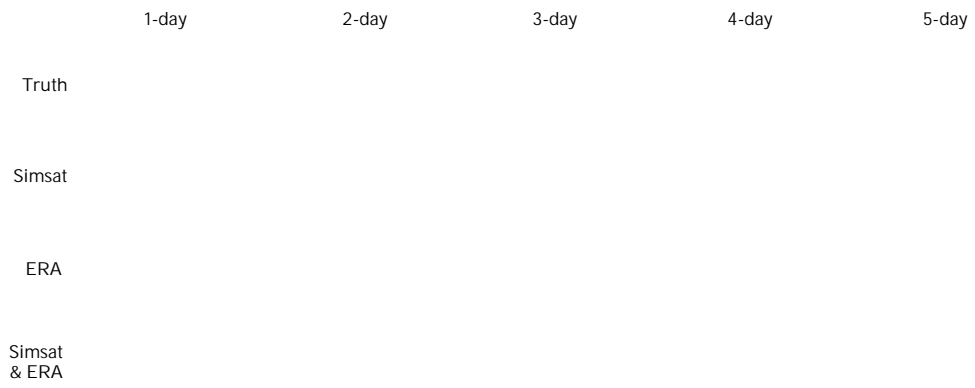


Figure 5: ERA5 Precipitation forecasts on a random sample.