

Simultaneous Modelling of Rainfall Occurrence and Amount using a Hierarchical Nominal-Ordinal Support Vector Classifier

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Abstract

In this paper we propose a novel computational system for simultaneous modelling of rainfall occurrence and amount. The proposed system is based on a hierarchical system of Nominal-Ordinal Support Vector Classifiers, the former to set the rainfall occurrence, and the latter to obtain the expected rainfall amount from a set of four different ordinal classes. In addition to the proposed model, we use a novel set of predictive meteorological variables, which improve the classifiers performance in this problem. We evaluate the proposed system in a real problem of rainfall forecast at Santiago de Compostela airport, Spain, where we have shown that the system is able to obtain an accurate prediction of occurrence and rainfall amount, and we discuss the usefulness of the proposed system as part of the airport weather forecast and warning system, in order to improve airport operations.

Key words: Rainfall occurrence; rainfall amount; nominal and ordinal classifiers;

ordinal regression.

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1 Introduction

Rainfall modelling is a very important problem that arises in many applications such in Agriculture [1], water resources management [2,3] or facilities maintenance and control [4], among others [5]. Currently, numerical weather prediction models have improved their performance, but they are still unable to provide accurate models for expected precipitation amount at high spacial and time resolutions. Different previous works have applied Soft-Computing approaches to overcome this difficulty, mainly based on neural networks and related approaches. These approaches have several advantages over global numerical models: they are much more easy and fast to train, can be applied to data from a specific point of measurement, and their performance is really competitive compared to global techniques.

Neural computation models for precipitation prediction started to be applied about twenty years ago [6–8]. Some of these first works applied multi-layer perceptrons to a set of predictive variables, carefully chosen to be related to rainfall, and with data from precipitation gauges (pluviometers) to obtain rainfall quantity [8,10,11]. The majority of these approaches considered short-term precipitation prediction, from 6 hours to 24 hours time-horizons, obtaining good results in the prediction [12]. There are other approaches focused on long-term rainfall prediction and precipitation trends in a given zone, such as [13], where the rainfall trend in the southern part of Indian Peninsula is analyzed by using an Adaptive Basis Function Neural Network with a back-propagation training algorithm. In [14] a multi-layer perceptron is applied to a problem of long-term precipitation prediction in California. More recently, in [15] an artificial neural network has been applied to model and forecast

1 precipitation in Athens, Greece. In [16] a neural network was applied to fore-
2 cast precipitation during the summer Monsoon station in India, using El Niño
3 South Oscillation (ENSO) indices. In [17] a neural computation approach is
4 applied to the short-term forecasting of thunderstorms rainfall.

5 Alternative classification and regression techniques have also been applied to
6 problem of rainfall prediction and modelling. In [18] a comparison of machine
7 learning algorithms (decision trees (DT), neural networks (ANN) and Support
8 Vector Machines (SVMs)) has been carried out for a short-term precipitation
9 prediction problem in Thailand. In [19] a hybrid SVM for regression with par-
10 ticle swarm optimization was applied to a problem of rainfall prediction. In
11 [20] a SVM approach with different kernel functions is presented to predict
12 monthly rainfall in a region of China. In [21] an novel wavelet-SVM approach
13 was applied to precipitation forecasting from past data. SVMs have also been
14 recently applied to precipitation related studies, such as precipitation down-
15 scaling [22,23] or streamflow prediction [37].

16 In spite of this huge work on rainfall prediction, there are not many papers
17 focussed on the modelling and forecast of precipitation occurrence and amount
18 together. There are two main articles dealing with this problem. In [24] several
19 types of neural network models are applied to solve a problem of rainfall
20 occurrence and amount modelling in northwest and southeast of England.
21 The input data of this study are different measurement stations and also
22 some large-scale climate predictors such as atmospheric circulation, thickness
23 or moisture content at the surface, 850 and 500 hPa. More recently, in [25]
24 a simple model for modelling rainfall occurrence and amount simultaneously
25 has been proposed. It is based on a tweedy generalized linear modelling and
26 the authors show that it performs well in modelling both occurrence and

1 precipitation amount in Australia. Data from over 200 measurement stations
2 spread all over Austria are used as inputs to the model. The use of joint
3 models for simultaneous modelling of rainfall occurrence and amount is a hot
4 topic in hydrology, since it provides information that can then be used in
5 agriculture production systems and other applications.

6 In this paper we propose a novel system for simultaneous modelling of rain-
7 fall occurrence and amount, based on a hierarchical classifier, composed of a
8 nominal and ordinal SVM classifier. First, a nominal SVM is used to set the
9 rainfall occurrence model. A second ordinal SVM is then hybridized with the
10 previous nominal classifier, in order to obtain the expected rainfall amount
11 from a set of four different ordinal classes. In addition to the proposed model,
12 we use a novel set of predictive variables, which improve the classifiers perfor-
13 mance in this problem. First, we consider significant meteorological variables
14 from atmospheric soundings. We also include as predictive variable the synop-
15 tic configuration of the atmosphere (synoptic situation using Hess-Brezowsky
16 classification), that, to our knowledge, has not been either considered in pre-
17 cipitation prediction studies with machine learning techniques, in spite of its
18 significance to establish precipitation regimes in mid-latitude regions [26]. We
19 also evaluate the importance of other predictive variables such as humidity
20 and Equivalent Potential Temperature (both measured in vertical soundings),
21 and groups of these variables in the proposed hierarchical SVM performance.
22 Regarding the objective variables, real rainfall data from a measurement sta-
23 tion at Santiago de Compostela (Airport), Spain, are considered to establish
24 the performance of the proposed system.

25 The rest of this paper is structured as follows: next section presents a re-
26 view of the main predictive variables and precipitation data used in the study.

1 We also estate the exact modelling carried out, which includes the estima-
2 tion/forecasting of rainfall occurrence and amount in the next 12 hours. Sec-
3 tion 4 presents the proposed nominal and ordinal SVM bank for rainfall mod-
4 elling. Section 5 presents the experimental part of the paper. Finally, we give
5 some concluding remarks for closing the paper in Section 6.

6 **2 Predictive and objective variables used**

7 Rainfall requires the existence of adequate clouds to produce precipitation.
8 Therefore in order for precipitation to occur, three basic factors should be com-
9 bined in an adequate way: condensation nuclei, enough water vapor (moist)
10 and vertical movements (updrafts and downdrafts as well as the atmospheric
11 stability). As a consequence, data selection should cover all these three ele-
12 ments so as to obtain a robust group of predictive meteorological variables
13 related to the physical processes involved in the production of precipitation.
14 Fortunately, an adequate number of condensation nuclei (such as smoke from
15 industrial, particles of salt, etc.) on which water vapor undergoes condensation
16 to form water droplets or deposition to form ice crystals are almost always
17 present in the atmosphere. Then, it is only necessary to select meteorological
18 variables related to the presence of enough water vapor and vertical move-
19 ments.

20 As has been shown in some studies [8,10], it is difficult to determine the cri-
21 teria that should be followed to select the best set of meteorological variables
22 to use in machine learning classifiers, based solely on an understanding of
23 the physical mechanism of precipitation. Moreover, because precipitation is
24 highly dependent on small-scale processes and local geography [27] a stan-

1 dardized pool of meteorological variables to forecast precipitation would be
2 difficult to set. Nevertheless, considering the satisfactory results obtained in
3 [8] using neural networks and those obtained in [10] using a neural approach
4 with back-propagation training, it is possible to choose a reasonable group of
5 meteorological variables following similar criteria.

6 In our study we combine observed variables, taken from an upper air sound-
7 ing station, and meteorological variables derived from a numerical weather
8 prediction model, plus the observed precipitation.

9 As mentioned before, observed precipitation (target variable) data was ob-
10 tained from Santiago de Compostela Airport ground automatic station (lat-
11 itude: 42.89; longitude: -8.41; altitude: 370 m). We chose this target area
12 because Santiago de Compostela is located in one of the rainiest area of the
13 Iberian Peninsula, without a dry season and with an average annual precipi-
14 tation of 1886 mm [9]. This station is part of the State Meteorological Agency
15 of Spain (AEMET) surface observing network and reports all meteorological
16 data every 10 min (it calculates the average value for each meteorological vari-
17 able every 10 min). Although the data are available on a ten-minute basis, we
18 consider the rainfall prediction in a time horizon of 6 hours. Thus, the pre-
19 cipitation data's temporal resolution selected for this study is 6 hours. The
20 meteorological data and variables employed for this study span the dates from
21 1st September 2009 to 31st August 2010, i.e., this study covers the 2009-2010
22 hydrological year.

23 We have used different predictive variables in order to predict precipitation
24 occurrence and amount. Data from La Coruña (latitude: 43.36; longitude: -
25 8.41; altitude: 67 m) radiosonde station, which is the nearest upperair station

1 to our study area. This station belongs to AEMET and its data are freely
2 available on the Internet [28]. The second set is formed by data from the
3 medium-range global prediction model GFS (Global Forecast System) main-
4 tained by the National Center for Environmental Prediction (USA) [29]. In
5 this case, the variables were taken at the grid point closest to the ground sta-
6 tion used in this study. Likewise, the reason for using this numerical weather
7 model is that data from GFS are freely available on the Internet. In addition,
8 in this study we have used a novel predictive variable, trying to get better re-
9 sults in the forecast precipitation model proposed: the synoptic situation. As
10 it is well known, some atmospheric circulation patterns promote precipitation
11 whereas others make it difficult. In fact, some recent studies have been de-
12 voted to determine the more probable weather patterns that cause rainfall as
13 well as the possible changing influence of the atmospheric circulation on sur-
14 face precipitation [30,31]. In line with this idea, we have selected the subjective
15 Hess-Brezowsky classification [32] of large scale circulation patterns as another
16 predictive variable. This classification has shown its ability to improve the skill
17 of a predictive model in a problem of daily maximum temperature prediction
18 using a support vector regression algorithm [33]. In order to take into account
19 water vapor content in the atmosphere, we have selected as predictors the
20 meteorological variables shown in Table 1, whereas the meteorological vari-
21 ables chosen to determine updrafts and downdrafts as well as the atmospheric
22 stability are shown in Table 2.

23 The target variable is the observed precipitation, which in this work is consid-
24 ered as a continuous variable describing the amount of rainfall in mm within a
25 6 hours interval. This variable has been discretized in four classes in order to
26 transform the problem into an ordinal classification problem. It can be argued

1 that the problem can be tackled as a standard regression problem, however the
2 large amount of rain values equal to zero is a handicap for applying a regres-
3 sor algorithm. The rainfall amount is mapped to different classes according to
4 Table 3.

5 Briefly, an ordinal classification problem, also known as ordinal regression,
6 is a supervised classification problem in which there is an order arrangement
7 between categories. That order is often induced by the problem nature, as it is
8 the case since $\{C_1 \prec C_2 \prec C_3 \prec C_4\}$ (see Table 3). Ordinal classifiers exploit
9 this relationship of the data with the goal of improving performance. However,
10 this performance cannot be measured as in nominal classification tasks, here,
11 in addition to the error rate, the magnitude of the error should be considered.
12 For instance, if we have a new unseen pattern of class C_3 , an error classifying
13 it as C_1 is more severe than classifying the pattern as C_4 . For this reason
14 specific performance metrics should be used (see Experimental Section).

15 **3 Background**

16 This section briefly introduces computational intelligence methods that are
17 necessary to understand the paper proposal.

18 *3.1 Support Vector Machine for Nominal Classification*

19 The SVM [35,36] is perhaps the most common kernel learning method for
20 statistical pattern recognition. The basic idea behind SVMs is to find a hyper-
21 plane that separates two different classes – positive and negative classes. This
22 hyperplane, $b + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}$, is specified by its normal vector \mathbf{w} and the bias b . The

1 SVMs overcome the limitations of the linear models by working with the pat-
2 terns via a mapping function ϕ which transforms the patterns representation
3 in the attributes or input space \mathcal{X} to a high dimensional Reproducing Kernel
4 Hilbert Space (RKHS). The reproducing kernel function is used, defined as
5 $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle$, where $\langle \cdot \rangle$ denotes inner product in the RKHS.

Then, the hyperplane can be given as $\langle \mathbf{w} \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}) \rangle + b = 0$, what yields the
corresponding decision function:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = y^* = \text{sgn}(\langle \mathbf{w} \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}) \rangle + b), \quad (1)$$

6 where $y^* = +1$ if \mathbf{x} belongs to the corresponding class and $y^* = -1$ otherwise.

7 SVMs are linear models, based on a linear combination of a kernel function
8 evaluated at the training data points. The solution to the problem of finding
9 the maximum separating hyperplane is proven to be a convex optimization
10 problem with a single global optimum. This optimization process implicitly
11 selects a subset of patterns for building the model, which are known as *sup-*
12 *port vectors*. The initial formulation of SVMs is known as the hard-margin
13 approach, which tends to suffer overfitting. Latter approaches included the
14 concept of softmargin in order to better generalize in the presence of noise,
15 outliers or pre-labeling errors, which are common in real world problems. The
16 soft margin is achieved with the inclusion of slack-variables ξ_i in the optimiza-
17 tion process [36].

As Vapnik [36] shows, the optimal separating hyperplane is the one which
maximizes the distance between the hyperplane and the nearest points of
both classes (called margin) and results in the best prediction for unseen data.
In this way, the optimal separating hyperplane with maximal margin can be

formulated as the following Quadratic Programming (QP) problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^n} L(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i, \quad (2)$$

subject to:

$$y_i \cdot (\langle \mathbf{w} \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}) \rangle + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad \xi_i \geq 0, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (3)$$

1 where y_i is the class of the input pattern \mathbf{x}_i .

2 In order to deal with the multiclass case, a “1-versus-1” approach can be
 3 considered, following the recommendations of Hsu and Lin [42]. The idea is to
 4 construct a binary classifier per each pair of classes and joining their multiple
 5 responses to obtain a final prediction.

6 Finally, among other specific issues, SVMs can have problems when dealing
 7 with imbalanced data (i.e. the number of patterns of each class significantly dif-
 8 fers). This can lead to models that tend to ignore minority populated classes.
 9 The rainfall prediction problem is a clear example of imbalanced dataset,
 10 where the non-rain case is much more frequent than the rain cases. For deal-
 11 ing with imbalanced datasets, recently, the Cost Support Vector Classifier
 12 (CSVC) has been proposed [41]. In this case, different missclassification costs
 13 are assigned to each class, so the total missclassification cost $C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$ is
 14 placed with two terms:

$$C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \rightarrow C_+ \sum_{i \in I_+} \xi_i + C_- \sum_{i \in I_-} \xi_i, \quad (4)$$

15 being C_+ and C_- the soft-margin constants for positive and negative samples
 16 and I_+ and I_- the sets of positive and negative samples. This constants are
 17 set in such a way that the total penalty for each class should be equal [43],

1 this is:

$$C_+n_+ = C_-n_-, \quad (5)$$

2 where n_+ and n_- are the number of positive and examples.

3 3.2 Support Vector Machines for Ordinal Regression (SVOR).

4 The SVM formulation has been ported to the ordinal classification case (SVOR).

5 In this case, classes are separated by different thresholds b_j and the QP prob-

6 lem is adapted [39]. In contrast to the binary case, where the class of the

7 pattern is determined by the sign of the projection $\mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{x}$, the corresponding

8 real line will be split into different intervals by using a threshold vector \mathbf{b} . This

9 defines a set of parallel hyperplanes with the same \mathbf{w} and different thresholds

10 b_j .

11 In this paper we will work with SVOR with Implicit constraints of Chu and

12 Keerthi (SVORIM) [40]. In contrast to the binary case, where only a pair

13 of classes contributes to the error when finding the separating hyperplane,

14 SVORIM redefines the QP problem for considering errors from the samples

15 of all the categories when defining each hyperplane. In this way, the ordinal

16 inequalities on the thresholds are *implicitly* satisfied at the optimal solution.

17 4 Proposed Hierarchical Nominal-Ordinal SVM

18 This paper proposes to address the rainfall prediction problem as an ordi-

19 nal regression problem that will be tackled by using a hierarchical classifier.

1 This hierarchical classifier is composed of a binary classifier and an ordinal
2 classifier. The binary one determines whether or not rain can occur, and an
3 ordinal classification model is applied to perform a finer classification of the
4 predicted rain cases. We call this method BInary and ORdinal Kernel classifier
5 (BIORK).

6 The training process consist on simultaneously training the binary and the
7 ordinal model with different subsets of the training patterns. For the binary
8 model $f(\mathbf{x})$, rainfall classes (C_2, C_3, C_4) are grouped as the positive class ($y =$
9 $+1$) whereas the no-rain class (C_1) is the negative class ($y = -1$) of the binary
10 problem. The ordinal model $g(\mathbf{x})$ is trained only with rain classes so the model
11 predicts $z \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ with $C_2 = 1, C_3 = 2, C_4 = 3$. Hyper-parameters of binary
12 and ordinal models are adjusted independently with the purpose of getting a
13 better fit of the models to the data. In addition, since the current data set
14 is highly imbalanced regarding non-rain and rain patterns (see Table 3), we
15 have selected the CSVC classifier for the binary model, where the cost C_+ is
16 weighted according to the criteria shown in Eq. 5.

17 The prediction phase consist on first getting the binary prediction, and then
18 perform a second classification of the positive class patterns with the ordinal
19 model. Figure 1 shows the two models decision flow.

1 5 Experiments

2 5.1 Performance evaluation metrics

3 In this section experimental results are measured in terms of three metrics
4 to observe different features of the models regarding classification perfor-
5 mance of predicted labels $\{y^*_1, y^*_2, \dots, y^*_N\}$, with respect to the true targets
6 $\{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N\}$:

- *Acc*: the accuracy (*Acc*), also known as Correct Classification Rate, is the rate of correctly classified patterns:

$$Acc = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \llbracket y^*_i = y_i \rrbracket,$$

7 where y_i is the true label, y^*_i is the predicted label and $\llbracket c \rrbracket$ is the indicator
8 function, being equal to 1 if c is true, and to 0 otherwise. *Acc* values range
9 from 0 to 100 and they represent a global performance on the classification
10 task being not suitable for imbalanced datasets [44].

- *GM*: The geometric mean of the Sensitivity or precision for each class is typically used to evaluate performance in imbalanced problems [45]:

$$GM = \sqrt[j]{\prod_{j=1}^J S_j},$$

11 where J is the number of classes and S_j is the accuracy of the classifier
12 for patterns of class j . *GM* varies from 0 to 100. In the case $GM = 0$ this
13 means that the classifier is not correctly labelling any pattern of one or more
14 classes.

- *MAE*: This measure evaluates the mean of the Mean Absolute Error (*MAE*) across classes [46]. It has been proposed as a more robust alternative

to MAE (the most extended measure in ordinal regression) for imbalanced datasets. $AMAE$ is defined as:

$$AMAE = \frac{1}{J} \sum_{j=1}^J MAE_j = \frac{1}{J} \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{1}{n_j} \sum_{i=1}^{n_j} e(\mathbf{x}_i),$$

where n_j is the number of patterns in class j and MAE is defined as:

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N e(\mathbf{x}_i),$$

1 where $e(\mathbf{x}_i) = |\mathcal{O}(y_i) - \mathcal{O}(y^*_i)|$. $AMAE$ values range from J to $J - 1$.

2 As previously mentioned, ordinal regression problems need specific perfor-
 3 mance metrics.

4 5.2 Comparison methods

5 A wide selection of computational intelligence methods has been done for the
 6 experiments including ordinal classification state-of-the-art SVMs methods
 7 and artificial neural network methods. The nominal SVM classifier is included
 8 also as a reference method.

9 • Binary and ORdinal classification Kernel method (BIORK), that is the
 10 proposal of the paper. The method is implemented in Matlab by using Cost
 11 SVC available in LibSVM 3.0 [47] for the binary model and SVORIM for
 12 the ordinal model.

13 • Evolutionary extreme learning machine for ordinal regression (EELMOR)
 14 [48]. This algorithm applies differential evolution to improve neural network
 15 models trained with the extreme learning machine algorithm.

16 • Kernel Discriminant Learning for Ordinal Regression (KDLOR) [49] extends
 17 the Kernel Discriminant Analysis (KDA) using a rank constraint.

- 1 • ONN adapts the data replication method proposed in [50] to neural net-
- 2 works.
- 3 • The Proportional Odds Model (POM) is one of the first models specifically
- 4 designed for ordinal regression [51], and it adapts the standard logistic re-
- 5 gression to the ordinal case. For the POM model, the `mnrfit` function of
- 6 Matlab software has been used.
- 7 • RED-SVM¹, by [52], applies the reduction from cost-sensitive ordinal rank-
- 8 ing to weighted binary classification (RED) framework to SVM.
- 9 • SVM classifier, SVC, implemented in LibSVM 3.0 [47]. The “1-versus-1”
- 10 multiclass approach is applied².
- 11 • The SVM for ordinal regression with implicit constraints, SVORIM.
- 12 • Pairwise Class Distances for Ordinal Classification (PCDOC) [53] with the
- 13 *epsilon* Support Vector Regression (SVR) as the underlying regressor (SVR-
- 14 PCDOC).

15 5.3 Experimental results

16 Regarding the experimental procedure, 30 different random splits of the dataset
 17 have been considered, with 75% and 25% of the instances in the training and
 18 generalization sets respectively. The partitions were the same for all compared
 19 methods. All the variables were property standardized and the SVM hyper-
 20 parameters have been adjusted by using a grid search in the parameters values
 21 space. The grid search consisted on a 5-fold validation procedure (exclusively
 22 using training data) with *AMAE* as the parameters selection criteria.

¹ Source code available at <http://home.caltech.edu/htlin/program/libsvm/>

² Source code available at <http://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvm/>

1 All the kernel methods were configured to use the Gaussian kernel. For the sup-
 2 port vector algorithms, i.e. BIORK, SVC, RED-SVM, SVORIM and ϵ -SVR
 3 (for SVRPCDOC), the corresponding hyper-parameters (regularization pa-
 4 rameter, C , and width of the Gaussian functions, γ), were adjusted using
 5 a grid search over each of the 30 training sets by a 5-fold nested cross-
 6 validation with the following ranges: $C \in \{10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, \dots, 10^3\}$ and $\gamma \in$
 7 $\{10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, \dots, 10^3\}$. Regarding ϵ -SVR, the additional ϵ parameter was ad-
 8 justed considering the range $\epsilon \in \{10^0, 10^1, 10^2, 10^3\}$. For KDLOR, the width of
 9 the Gaussian kernel was adjusted by using the range $\gamma \in \{10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, \dots, 10^3\}$,
 10 and the regularization parameter, u , for avoiding the singularity problem
 11 values were $u \in \{10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, \dots, 10^{-5}\}$. For ONN, the number of neurons
 12 in the hidden layer was selected by considering the following values, $M \in$
 13 $\{5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40\}$. In the case of EELMOR, M value was chosen from
 14 the set $\{5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, 50\}$, and the number of iterations was
 15 fixed to 50, and the population size 40. Finally, POM does not have hyper-
 16 parameters.

17 Table 4 shows the generalization performance of the different algorithms in
 18 terms of mean and standard deviation in the 30 generalization partitions. The
 19 results correspond to the previous explained metrics: Accuracy (Acc), geo-
 20 metric mean of the Sensitivities (GM) and $AMAE$. For each metric, the best
 21 result is highlighted in bold face and the second best result is highlighted in
 22 italics. Note that Accuracy alone is not enough to assess the performance of
 23 a classifier. As an illustrative example, a trivial classifier labelling all the pat-
 24 terns as no-rain class (C_1) will obtain an Accuracy performance near 69.04%.
 25 Observe than EELMOR have the best Acc performance, however it is not able
 26 of classifying any pattern of one or more classes since GM result is zero. Re-

1 guarding the proposed method, it obtained the best performance both in *GM*
2 and *AMAE*, which are more suitable performance metrics for the rainfall
3 problem nature.

4 In order to better compare the performance of the algorithms, each pair of
5 algorithms are compared by means of the Wilcoxon test [54]. A level of signif-
6 icance of $\alpha = 0.05$ was considered, and the corresponding correction for the
7 number of comparisons was also included. The results of these tests are shown
8 in Table 5.

9 5.4 Discussion: system usefulness for improving airports operations

10 Among other meteorological phenomena, precipitation can seriously affect air-
11 port operations. When heavy or very heavy rainfall rates are expected, rain-
12 drops impacting airplane windscreens can lead to a reduction of the visibility,
13 and depending on the atmospheric conditions, windscreen wipers may not
14 be able to fully cope with the rainfall rate. Not to mention that light, non-
15 pressurised aircraft may find the heaviest rain rates allow water ingestion into
16 the cabin, the cockpit or the engine compartments with subsequent risks to
17 electronic equipment. On the other hand, precipitation can lead to runway
18 flooding, what may directly affect take-off and landing performances.

19 Aiming at getting improved meteorological information for each airport, the
20 International Civil Aviation Organization, in collaboration with the World
21 Meteorological Organization (WMO), regulates the provision of meteorologi-
22 cal services in support of airport operations. Specifically, the Annex 3 to the
23 Convention on International Civil Aviation states that it is necessary to deliver

1 specific weather forecasts and warnings to meet the needs of flight operations
2 at each aerodrome. Thus, aeronautical meteorological service providers pre-
3 pare and disseminate specific aeronautical weather forecasts for airports, such
4 as TAF as well as Aerodrome Warnings:

- 5 1. TAF is the name of the code for reporting weather forecast information
6 (“TAF” is an acronym of Terminal Aerodrome Forecast). The TAF describes
7 weather conditions that are expected to occur over a specific period of time,
8 that can range from 9 up to 30 hours. The TAF is one of the most valuable
9 sources for the predicted weather at a specific airport. Among others, TAF
10 specifies the occurrence of precipitation.
- 11 2. Aerodrome Warnings give concise information of meteorological conditions
12 which could adversely affect aircraft on the ground, including parked air-
13 craft, and the aerodrome facilities and services. An aerodrome warning is
14 issued when a specific weather phenomena is observed or forecasted. Among
15 others, accumulated precipitation is one of them.

16 Therefore, it is clear that aeronautical meteorological services providers need
17 specific tools to accurate forecast precipitation occurrence and amount at each
18 specific airport in order to deliver weather forecasts and warnings appropri-
19 ated to contribute towards the safety, regularity and efficiency of airport op-
20 erations. Thus, the BIORK system proposed in this paper could be useful
21 as complementary system to obtain TAF reports and aerodrome warnings of
22 rain occurrence and expected rainfall amount. The good performance in terms
23 of accuracy and probability of error exhibited by BIORK system makes it a
24 very interesting tool in rainfall prediction (which is one of the most difficult
25 meteorological variables to be forecasted).

1 In future works we plan to improve the performance of the system by including
2 specific predictive and objective data from convective – non-convective precip-
3 itation and extreme events, with a larger range of applications in alternative
4 facilities or cases.

5 **6 Conclusions**

6 In this paper we have proposed a system for simultaneous prediction of rain-
7 fall occurrence and amount. The proposed system is based on a hierarchical
8 system of nominal and ordinal Support Vector Classifiers, so called BInary
9 and ORdinal classification Kernel method (BIORK), and we have also used a
10 novel set of predictive meteorological variables, which improve the classifiers
11 performance in this problem. We have evaluated the proposed system in a real
12 problem of rainfall forecast at Santiago de Compostela airport, Spain, compar-
13 ing the BIORK system against several alternative computational intelligence
14 methods in the literature. We have shown that the BIORK approach is able
15 to obtain the best results in terms of different metrics and according to the
16 Wilcoxon test, these results are significant. This system can be used as part of
17 the airport weather forecast and warning system, in order to improve airport
18 operational performance.

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1 List of Tables

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Table 1

Variables selected to take into account the content of water vapor present in the atmosphere.

Variable	Measurement units	Pressure level (hPa)	Source
Total Precipitable Water	mm	Entire column	upper air sounding
Equivalent Potential Temperature	K	950, 850, 700, 500	upper air sounding
Humidity	%	950, 850, 700, 500	upper air sounding

Table 2

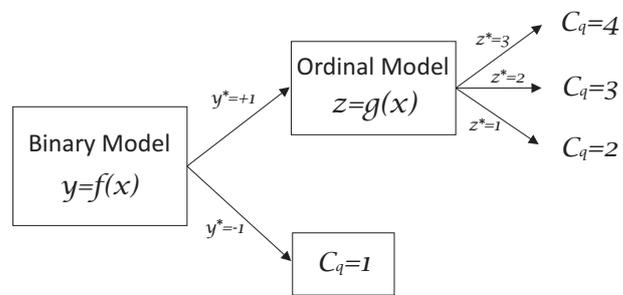
Variables selected to determine updrafts, downdrafts and the atmospheric stability.

Variable	Measurement units	Pressure level (hPa)	Source
Temperature	K	950, 850, 700, 500	upper air sounding
Wind Speed	m/s	950, 850, 700, 500, 300	upper air sounding
Wind direction	Degrees	950, 850, 700, 500, 300	upper air sounding
CAPE	J/kg	Entire column	upper air sounding
CIN	J/kg	Entire column	upper air sounding
ω	m/s	850, 500	GFS numerical model

Table 3

Observed rainfall in mm/6 h mapping to class labels.

Observed rainfall mm/6 h (w)	Label	Class number	Number of patterns
$w = 0.0$	class C_1 (no rain)	1	899
$w > 0.0$ and $w \leq 0.2$	class C_2	2	329
$w > 0.2$ and $w \leq 0.4$	class C_3	3	51
$w > 0.4$	class C_4	4	23



(a)

Fig. 1. Hierarchical classifier prediction process.

Table 4

Mean and standard deviation (SD) of the generalization performance of the proposed method and state-of-the-art methods for different performance metrics.

Method/DataSet	Accuracy Mean _{SD}	GM Mean _{SD}	AMAE Mean _{SD}
BIORK	76.500 _{2.210}	35.470 _{20.560}	0.710 _{0.090}
EELMOR	80.440 _{1.450}	0.000 _{0.000}	0.900 _{0.040}
KDLOR	73.290 _{3.750}	30.840 _{21.620}	<i>0.770</i> _{0.100}
ONN	70.900 _{2.450}	9.310 _{16.060}	1.170 _{0.290}
POM	78.840 _{1.450}	0.000 _{0.000}	0.890 _{0.060}
REDSVM	77.920 _{2.660}	33.230 _{19.390}	<i>0.770</i> _{0.100}
SVC	<i>79.220</i> _{2.120}	29.960 _{20.420}	0.780 _{0.090}
SVORIM	77.940 _{2.650}	<i>33.330</i> _{19.470}	<i>0.770</i> _{0.100}
SVRPCDOC	75.710 _{2.620}	22.640 _{20.490}	0.870 _{0.110}

Table 5

Wilcoxon tests over different performance metrics.

Method	<i>Acc</i>			<i>GM</i>			<i>AMAE</i>		
	Wins	Draws	Loses	Wins	Draws	Loses	Wins	Draws	Loses
BIORK	2	3	3	4	4	0	7	1	0
EELMOR	7	1	0	0	2	6	1	2	5
KDLOR	0	2	6	3	5	0	4	4	0
ONN	0	1	7	0	3	5	0	0	8
POM	4	3	1	0	2	6	1	2	5
REDSVM	2	5	1	3	5	0	4	3	1
SVC	4	4	0	3	5	0	4	3	1
SVORIM	2	5	1	3	5	0	4	3	1
SVRPCDOC	1	4	3	2	5	1	1	2	5