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Performance evaluation of a simple feed-forward deep neural network model applied to annual rainfall anomaly index (RAI) over Indramayu, Indonesia

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Abstract

Indramayu is a district in West Java that is known for being the leading producer of rice and brackish salt. The production of these two commodities is strongly influenced by hydroclimatological conditions, making accurate and reliable long-term estimates crucial. In this study, we evaluated a simple feed-forward deep neural network (DNN) model that could potentially be used as a candidate for statistical guidance to improve the accuracy of numerical climate models.

We used the spatial average of the accumulated annual rainfall of the Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Precipitation with Station (CHIRPS) data as an input time series with a time range from 1981 to 2022. This data was then processed into annual rainfall anomaly index (RAI) data. The Annual RAI was divided into training and test sets, and the feed-forward DNN model was fitted to the annual RAI in the training set. The accuracy of the model was then tested in the test set using the root-mean-square error (RMSE) metric.

Our study shows that the feed-forward DNN model is not suitable for estimating the annual RAI over Indramayu. This is because the RMSE values are significantly high in both the training and test sets.

1 Introduction

Indramayu is a district located in the northern coastal area (Pantura) of West Java, approximately 190 km east of Jakarta. Topographically, Indramayu is a lowland area with an elevation ranging from 5 to 20 meters above sea level (m.a.s.l.) and a slope between 0 to 2% (1; 2) (Figure 1).

Geologically, Indramayu is classified as part of the alluvial plain of northern Java in the tectono-physiographic zoning division of West Java (3; 4). Its surface geology consists of river deposits, coastal deposits, deltaic deposits, flood-plain deposits, tufaceous sandstone and conglomerate, and beach-ridge deposits, all of which are of Quaternary age (2).

According to the study of rainfall delineation over the Maritime Continent conducted by Aldrian and Susanto (5), Indramayu is classified as Region A. This region has an average annual precipitation with one peak between November to March and one trough between May to September due to the movement of the northwest and southeast monsoons (Figure 2).

Indramayu is known for being one of the largest areas in West Java for producing rice and brackish salt (6; 7; 8). However, the sustainability of these commodities is threatened by hydroclimatological disasters

43 such as floods and droughts (9). It is therefore necessary to adapt to and mitigate these disasters. Ad-
44 ditionally, greenhouse gas levels are increasing at an unprecedented rate, which is projected to increase
45 hydroclimatological disasters (10).

46 To prepare for this, local hydroclimatological projections need to be evaluated quantitatively so that local
47 government agencies can make use of them. One way to make these projections is by using a mesoscale
48 climate numerical model for an area the size of the Indramayu District (11; 12). However, this can be difficult
49 due to the distinct cloud mixture properties that occur in tropical regions (13).

50 In this study, we evaluated the feasibility of using the annual rainfall anomaly index (RAI) statistical model,
51 based on feed-forward deep neural networks (DNN), as a candidate for providing statistical guidance (14)
52 on mesoscale numerical models. This can help produce more realistic long-term hydroclimatological pro-
53 jections in Indramayu.

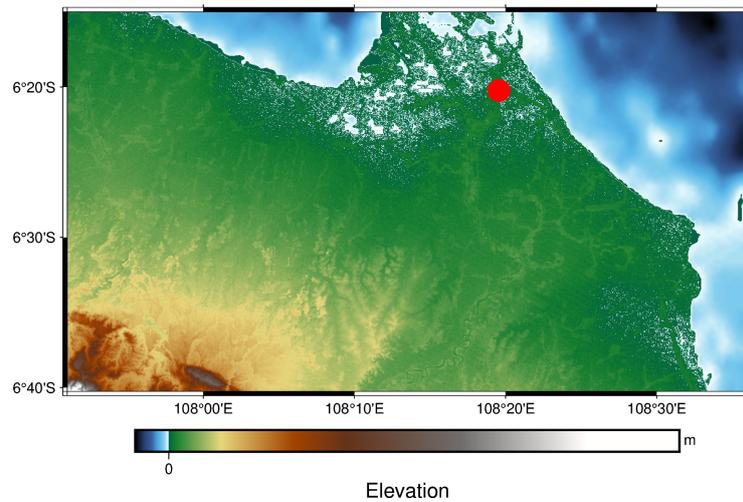


Figure 1: Study area representing the digital elevation model (DEM) of Indramayu District (rendered using PyGMT library (15; 16)). The red dot indicates the capital city, located at $108^{\circ} 19' 27.6276''\text{E}$, $6^{\circ} 21' 10.0728''\text{S}$.

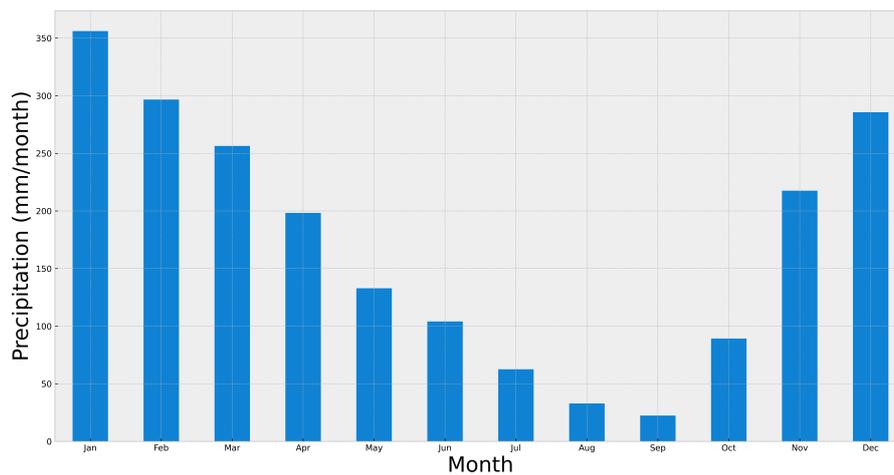


Figure 2: 1981 - 2022 average annual precipitation by month in Indramayu from CHIRPS dataset (17; 18).

54 2 Data and Methods

55 2.1 Data

56 In this study, we used quasi-global monthly precipitation from the Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Pre-
57 cipitation with Station data (CHIRPS) dataset (17; 18) with a spatial resolution of $0.05^{\circ} \times 0.05^{\circ}$ (<https://>

58 [//data.chc.ucsb.edu/products/CHIRPS-2.0/](https://data.chc.ucsb.edu/products/CHIRPS-2.0/) accessed on 19 June 2023) from 1981 to 2022. This
 59 dataset was sliced to the Indramayu District grids (108° - 108°36'E, 6°40' - 6°15'S). Based on previous
 60 studies (e. g. 19; 20; 21; 22), we used this dataset because the CHIRPS dataset shows a reasonably good
 61 performance in representing precipitation over the Maritime Continent.

62 2.2 Methods

63 2.2.1 RAI calculation

64 We used RAI (23) as an index to describe rainfall anomalies over Indramayu. RAI is a simple meteorological
 65 drought/wetness index widely used as an alternative to more complex hydroclimatological indexes such as
 66 the standardized precipitation index (SPI) and standardized precipitation-*evapotranspiration* index (SPEI)
 67 (24; 25).

68 In addition, RAI has also been demonstrated to be capable of characterizing hydrometeorological drought
 69 in one of the areas over the Maritime Continent, namely in Kupang, East Nusa Tenggara (26).

70 The following is the equation that we used to calculate the annual RAI over Indramayu, where R is the
 71 current annual precipitation amount, \bar{R} is the average annual precipitation from 1981 to 2022, M is the
 72 average of the 90th percentile, and N is the average of the 10th percentile. Before calculating the annual
 73 RAI, we first accumulated the monthly precipitation dataset into an annual format using the `xarray` library
 74 (27).

$$\text{RAI} = \begin{cases} 3 \left(\frac{R - \bar{R}}{M - \bar{R}} \right) & , \text{ for } R > \bar{R} \\ -3 \left(\frac{R - \bar{R}}{N - \bar{R}} \right) & , \text{ for } R < \bar{R}. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

75 2.2.2 Data Preprocessing

76 To preprocess the spatiotemporal RAI dataset, we first took the spatial average of the dataset. Next, us-
 77 ing the `xarray` library, we transformed the dataset, which was still a `DataArray` object, into a `DataFrame`
 78 object in `pandas` library (28). We then added a third-degree polynomial feature to the time index to cap-
 79 ture nonlinearity in the dataset (29; 30). This was done automatically using the `PolynomialFeatures()`
 80 function in the `scikit-learn` library (31). Finally, we separated the data into 80% for training (1981-2013) and
 81 20% for testing (2014-2022).

82 2.2.3 Model Development and Fitting

83 The statistical model used in this study is the DNN model. Based on the universal approximation theorem
 84 (29), this model can approximate any continuous function if given the right combination of inputs, weights,
 85 and biases. Furthermore, due to the development of the graphics processing unit (GPU) and the success of
 86 AlexNet (30), DNN is now widely used to solve problems in all fields of science. In hydrology, for example,
 87 it is currently a trend to predict dryness/wetness indexes statistically using DNN (e. g. 31; 32; 33; 34; 35;
 88 36).

89 We chose a feed-forward DNN architecture for our model, consisting of one input layer, three hidden layers,
 90 and one output layer. The input layer has three neurons, which resulted from scaling the third-degree
 91 polynomial feature. Each hidden layer contains 100 neurons, and the output layer has only one neuron.
 92 We used dense and fully connected layers. This architecture was selected for its success in projecting
 93 statistical long-term CO₂ increases (37) (Figure 3). The feed-forward DNN was chosen to align with Occam's
 94 Razor, which states that the simplest model with the best predictability power should be selected (38; 39).
 95 After transforming the features in the dataset into the third-degree polynomial, we entered them as input
 96 x_i into the DNN feed-forward architecture (Figure 3). They were then multiplied by the weight w_i and
 97 added with bias b , resulting in the output prediction \hat{y} . This process is illustrated in the following set of
 98 equations.

$$\begin{cases} z = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i w_i + b \\ \hat{y} = \sigma(z) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

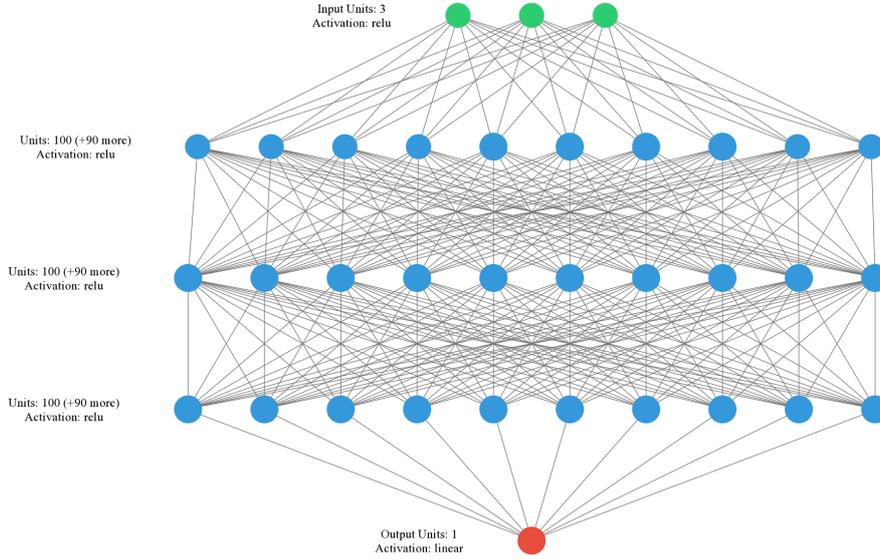


Figure 3: Architecture of a simple feed-forward DNN used in this study (rendered using `keras-visualizer` library (40)).

99 This study utilized rectified linear units (ReLU) as the activation function σ for each layer. ReLU offers several
 100 advantages over the sigmoid activation function: it avoids the vanishing gradient problem, is computation-
 101 ally more efficient (as it only specifies a maximum value between 0 and z), and exhibits better convergence
 102 performance than sigmoid (41; 42).

103 After obtaining the temporary output, we used the backpropagation procedure to optimize the weights
 104 and biases. This is done using the cost function \mathcal{C} , which is based on the weights and biases in each layer
 105 and is calculated using the following equation,

$$\mathcal{C} = -\ln(\hat{y}) \quad (3)$$

106 The gradient was calculated by working backward through the cost function, considering the weights and
 107 biases in each layer until the input layer was reached. This gradient, along with the cost function, was
 108 used to optimize the parameters in the feed-forward DNN architecture using a gradient-descent-based
 109 optimization algorithm (43). Set of equations 4 and 5 illustrate this process.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial \hat{y}} = -\frac{1}{\hat{y}} \\ \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} = \sigma'(z) \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_i} = x_i \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial b} = 1 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial \hat{y}} \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial b} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial \hat{y}} \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_i} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

110 When updating the network weights, it is necessary to decrease the gradient. This decrease aims to min-
 111 imize the network's cost function by shifting the hyperparameters along the negative gradient direction.

112 The gradient is a vector that stores all partial derivatives of the hyperparameter functions. At each iteration
 113 step (epoch), the model's hyperparameters are updated according to the following rules.

$$\begin{cases} w^* := w_i - \alpha \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial w_i} \\ b^* := b_i - \alpha \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial b_i} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

114 Here, w_i and b_i are the updated weights and biases, w and b are the current weights and biases, \mathcal{C} is the
 115 cost function, and α is the learning rate (0.001). In this study, the Adam optimizer algorithm was used for
 116 this process. The entire process of building and fitting this model to the training and test data was done
 117 automatically using the **Keras** interface (44) in the **TensorFlow** library (45).

118 2.2.4 Model Evaluation

119 We used the root-mean-square error (RMSE) (equation 7) to evaluate the accuracy of the RAI estimates
 120 from the feed-forward DNN on both the training and test data.

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{N}} \quad (7)$$

121 Here, N represents the total number of years in the time series, y_i represents the actual RAI observations,
 122 and \hat{y}_i represents the estimated RAI from our feed-forward DNN algorithm. To evaluate the overfitting of
 123 the model, we used equation 8.

$$\varepsilon = \frac{(\text{RMSE}_{\text{test}} - \text{RMSE}_{\text{train}})}{\text{RMSE}_{\text{train}}} \times 100\% \quad (8)$$

124 ε is the ratio of the RMSE on test data to the RMSE on training data. If ε is very large, then it may indicate
 125 that the model is overfitted. The next step is to compare our model with a naïve model as a benchmark
 126 (46; 47). In this case, we compared the test RMSE of the DNN feed-forward model with that of a simple
 127 model that assumes the estimated RAI value in the following year is the same as the actual RAI value in the
 128 previous year. The equation for this model is shown below.

$$\hat{y}_{i+1} = y_i \quad (9)$$

129 Following the Occam's Razor principle discussed earlier, if the test RMSE on the naïve model is better than
 130 the test RMSE of the model we built, then we can conclude that the feed-forward DNN fails to predict
 131 the annual RAI over Indramayu. The final step is to assess the model's sensitivity to hyperparameters.
 132 This involves varying the number of epochs and neurons in the hidden layers and changing the degree of
 133 polynomial features (37). Finally, we compare the test RMSEs of these models with the initial feed-forward
 134 DNN architecture.

135 3 Results and Discussion

136 Figure 4 shows the evolution of the spatial average of RAI over Indramayu. In 1997, there was a severe
 137 drought event with a spatial average of RAI -3.65, which falls under the extremely dry category (23) (Figure
 138 5a). This event coincided with one of the most significant El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and Indian
 139 Ocean Dipole (IOD) positive anomalies of the 20th century, resulting in many droughts, forest fires, and
 140 the death of coral reefs in the Maritime Continent (48; 49; 50; 51).

141 On the other hand, the wettest event occurred in 2016 (Figure 5), when the spatial average of RAI over
 142 Indramayu reached 4.05, classified as extremely wet (23). This event coincided with a strong negative IOD
 143 and weak La Niña events (52; 53; 54). .

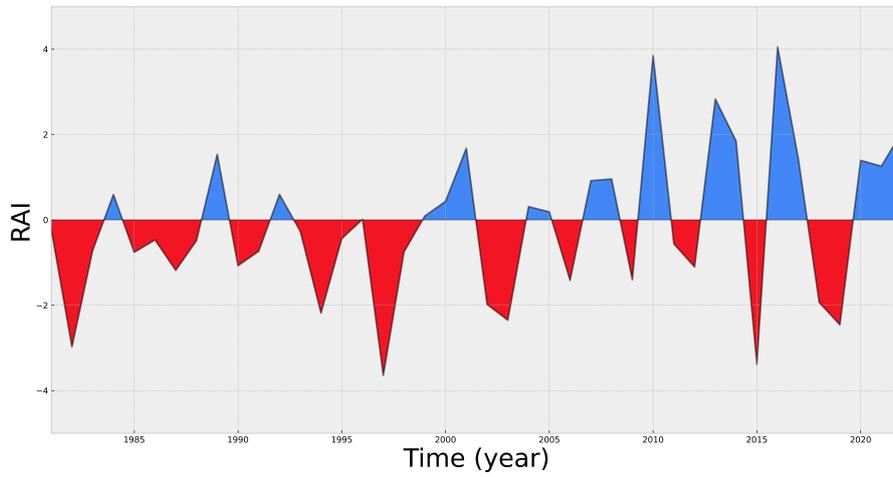
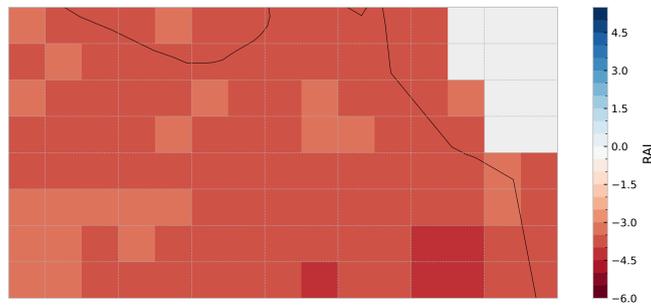
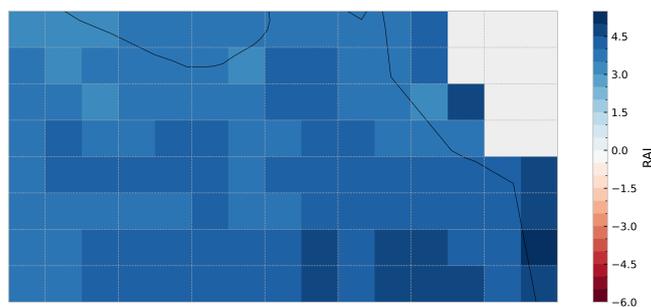


Figure 4: Evolution of the annual RAI over Indramayu from 1981 to 2022.



(a)



(b)

Figure 5: Spatial maps of the annual RAI over Indramayu during (a) the driest event (1997) and (b) the wettest event (2016). The gray area is the Java Sea, where precipitation data was intentionally not included in the dataset.

144 The graph in Figure 6 shows the values of the mean squared error (MSE) loss function relative to the number
145 of iterations (100 epochs) when fitting the DNN feed-forward architecture (Figure 3) to the RAI training data
146 from 1981 to 2013. The MSE slopes in the range of 0.7 – 0.8 after the 60th epoch. The input and three
147 hidden layers of the model contain a total of 20,701 hyperparameters that were trained.

148 However, the estimation results of the model on training data have a root mean squared error (RMSE) of
149 132.9%, and the RMSE on test data is 259.58% with the comparison testing - training parameter of 96.07%.
150 The large RMSE on both the training and test data suggests that the feed-forward DNN architecture we de-
151 veloped failed to accurately estimate the annual RAI in Indramayu. Furthermore, the significant difference
152 between the RMSE on the test data and the training RMSE indicates the possibility of overfitting.

153 This fact is also supported by the feed-forward DNN's ability to estimate drought events due to El Niño in
154 1997, which was within the training set range, while failing to estimate extreme drought and wetness in
155 2015-2016, which were outside the training set (Figure 7). However, our sensitivity test results showed no
156 significant change in the test RMSE, even though we varied the number of hyperparameters in each hidden
157 layer (Table 1). Therefore, the feed-forward DNN architecture we used failed to provide a realistic estimate
158 of the annual RAI in Indramayu using annual input data for the 42 years from 1981 to 2022.

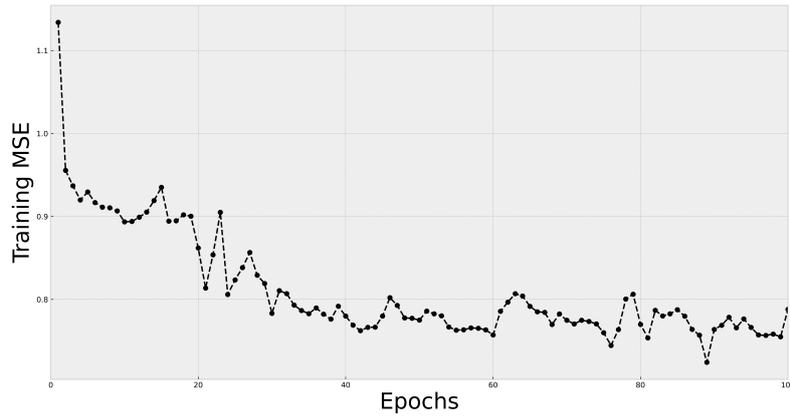


Figure 6: Training MSE for 100 epochs.

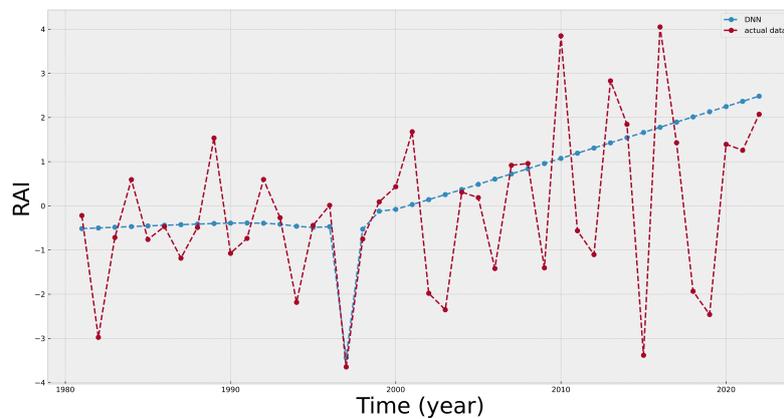


Figure 7: Comparison of two time series between actual RAI observations (red line) and RAI estimated results from fitting the feed-forward DNN model on the training data (blue line).

Table 1: Test RMSE using different hyperparameters in the original feed-forward DNN architecture.

polynomial degree	epochs	number of neurons per hidden layer	test RMSE
1	50	50	233.32 %
1	50	100	233.57 %
1	100	50	238.67 %
1	100	100	239.89 %
2	50	50	232.95 %
2	50	100	232.98 %
2	100	50	239.87 %
2	100	100	239.25 %

4 Conclusion and Outlooks

159

160 Based on the annual RAI data currently used in Indramayu, we conclude that our simple feed-forward DNN
 161 algorithm did not produce an accurate estimation. Hyperparameter tuning did not improve the accuracy
 162 of this model either. To test the accuracy of this algorithm in the future, more data points are needed.
 163 However, we can also try using another statistical model that is simpler and more transparent than our
 164 DNN model to get a more accurate estimate. One candidate that can be tested for future studies is the
 165 Bayesian structural time series (BSTS) model (55), as demonstrated by Herho et al. (56), which presented
 166 a reasonably accurate statistical estimate of the quite noisy monthly station precipitation data from the
 167 Natuna Islands. Moreover, BSTS provides prior belief features that can be easily assimilated with estimates

168 from mesoscale climate models and exogenous features (covariates), which can be filled with large-scale
169 climate indices considered to affect the annual RAI in Indramayu. In addition, we can also take advantage of
170 a more comprehensive annual rainfall dataset in areas with the same climatic characteristics as Indramayu,
171 for example, Jakarta, to train our feed-forward DNN model, which is then used to estimate the annual RAI
172 over Indramayu. This transfer learning method is widely used for runtime constraints when training models
173 and data imputation in time series studies in hydrology and environmental sciences (e.g. 57; 58; 59; 60;
174 61).

175 Open Research

176 The quasi-global monthly CHIRPS dataset can be downloaded at [https://data.chc.ucsb.edu/products/
177 CHIRPS-2.0/](https://data.chc.ucsb.edu/products/CHIRPS-2.0/). Although the entire analysis can be made using publicly available data, the intermediate
178 data required for the main analysis, as well as Python code are freely available at [https://github.com/
179 sandyherho/IndraAnnDeepEval](https://github.com/sandyherho/IndraAnnDeepEval).

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