Enabling Smart Dynamical Downscaling of Extreme Precipitation Events with Machine Learning

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Key Points:

- Dynamical downscaling at ∼1 km resolution produces reliable estimations of extreme rainfall but is computationally expensive.
- Machine learning (ML) makes smart dynamical downscaling (SDD) possible, where ML models filter out irrelevant large-scale patterns.
- We demonstrate that SDD can be enabled by deep neural networks, which do not necessarily have to involve sophisticated structures.

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Abstract

The projection of extreme convective precipitation by global climate models (GCM) exhibits significant uncertainty due to coarse resolutions. Direct dynamical downscaling (DDD) of regional climate at kilometer-scale resolutions provides valuable insight into extreme precipitation changes, but its computational expense is formidable. Here we document the effectiveness of machine learning in enabling smart dynamical downscaling (SDD), which selects a small subset of GCM data to conduct downscaling. Trained with data for three subtropical/tropical regions, convolutional neural networks (CNNs) can retain 92% to 98% of extreme precipitation events (rain intensity higher than the 99th percentile) while filtering out 88% to 95% of circulation data. When applied to two different reanalysis data sets, the CNNs' skill in retaining extremes decreases modestly in subtropical regions but sharply in the deep tropics. Nonetheless, one of the CNNs can still retain 62% of all extreme events in the deep tropical region in the worst case.

Plain Language Summary

Climate scientists use supercomputers to simulate the climate and predict how it may change under global warming. Extreme precipitation, which can disrupt society by causing disasters like floods and landslides, is of great interest in climate studies. However, replicating severe rainstorms on a supercomputer, especially the storms in tropical and subtropical areas, is not easy. Because those rainstorms often contain fine-scale details that cannot be represented confidently without extensive computational resources. If we use computationally affordable computer models to simulate those rainstorms, we obtain results with substantial uncertainties. If we use computationally expensive ones, we cannot simulate many scenarios and cannot be confident about the results. The power of machine learning in pattern recognition is here used to help modelers use their computational resources more efficiently. Instead of simulating all kinds of weather events, including unimportant ones, at high resolutions, we use machine learning algorithms to search coarse resolution climate data for those large-scale weather patterns that are more likely to cause severe rainstorms. Then modelers can make more efficient use of supercomputing resources by simulating severe weather events only and advance our understanding of them.

1 Introduction

Extreme precipitation events often disrupt society by causing disasters such as floods and landslides. Thus, predicting the response of precipitation extremes to global warming is crucial for our adaptation to climate change. Climate models agree well with each other on the potential response of extreme extratropical precipitation to global warming, but their results for subtropical and tropical extremes diverge (O'Gorman & Schneider, 2009). Predicting such changes is not straightforward, because the performance of numerical simulation of extreme precipitation is sensitive to model resolution (Li et al., 2018; Van Der Wiel et al., 2016), and grid spacings of current-generation climate models are still at coarse $\sim 1^\circ$ resolutions. Previous studies have demonstrated that to accurately predict future changes in extreme precipitation events, especially those associated with severe convection, it is necessary to resolve local storm dynamics with kilometer-scale grid spacings, which are the so-called convection-permitting resolution (Kendon et al., 2014, 2017). Such a high resolution is necessary not only because of the small spatial scale of convective cells, but also because the essential roles played by the interaction between convection and large-scale dynamics, air-sea coupling, and topographic forcing in determining the intensity of extreme events (Nie et al., 2016; Kendon et al., 2017; Rainaud et al., 2017).

Modelers have been attempting to refine the resolution of global climate models, but the current highest resolution is only $\sim 25\,\mathrm{km}$ (Haarsma et al., 2016). A direct dynamical downscaling (DDD) approach has been adopted in the regional climate simulations at convection-permitting resolutions. Valuable findings have been obtained due to improved representation of fine-scale processes, but DDD at the convection-permitting resolution has a very high demand on computational resources (Prein et al., 2015).

Is there a way to avoid the expensive computational cost of long-term DDD but still allow a convection-permitting resolution? This question is the core problem we want to address in this study. When our concern is not the mean climate but instead a special kind of weather (e.g., extreme precipitation), we can save a tremendous amount of computational resources if we do not have to perform the DDD for every day of an extended period. In this study, we harness the power of machine learning to fulfill the goal of selecting a small subset of GCM data for the dynamic downscaling of extreme precipitation events. We call this strategy smart dynamical downscaling (SDD).

Machine learning has been increasingly used in geoscience in recent years. In the atmospheric science community, it has applied to real-time nowcasting (Han et al., 2017; McGovern et al., 2017), physical parameterization (Brenowitz & Bretherton, 2019; Gagne et al., 2020), and weather forecasting (Weyn et al., 2019; Chattopadhyay et al., 2020). In the area of extreme precipitation, previous authors have documented the potential of machine learning in identifying the synoptic-scale patterns responsible for extreme events (Agel et al., 2018; Conticello et al., 2018; Knighton et al., 2019). However, they mostly focused on synoptic-scale weather patterns in the extratropics. The current study differs from previous ones in that we intentionally chose subtropical and tropical regions for potential applications on convective rainfall, which might be more difficult to capture based on large-scale circulation. Also, because the purpose of this study is to evaluate the potential of SDD, we used machine learning for the classification problem of circulation patterns, instead of attempting to predict the exact precipitation amount like other statistical downscaling studies (e.g., Sachindra et al., 2018).

In this study, we evaluated three machine learning models, a dual support vector machine (SVM) model, an 8-layer deep convolutional neural network (CNN), and a sophisticated 58-layer deep CNN, in classifying circulation patterns responsible for 6-hourly precipitation extremes. The performance of these machine learning models with increasing complexity is documented, and we found the deep CNN with a simpler structure appears to suffice for SDD.

2 Data and Methods

2.1 Reanalysis and Satellite Data

In this study, we train machine learning models with reanalysis data of circulation and satellite data of 6-hourly precipitation. Our study focused on the areas surrounding three Asian cities, Hong Kong (HK), Manila (MN), and Singapore (SG). The extreme rainfall of these regions is often related to intense convection, though not always. Their different latitudes can contrast applicability of the methodology developed here for subtropical and tropical climate.

The precipitation data we used is the final precipitation, Level 3 data of the Integrated Multi-satellitE Retrievals for Global Precipitation Measurement (GPM IMERG; Huffman et al., 2019). This data set has 0.1° spatial resolution and 30 min temporal resolution originally. We used the data set between the period of June 2000 to May 2019. Because the reanalysis data has a 6-hour temporal resolution, we average the original data in time to get the mean precipitation rate in 6-hour intervals. We also used area averaging of the precipitation data to coarse-grain the data onto a $0.5° \times 0.5°$ grid to ignore sporadic events that affect only a small area.

Multiple reanalysis data sets were used in the training and evaluation of machine learning models. For the training of SVM models, we use the NCEP/NCAR Global Reanalysis Products (Kalnay et al., 1996) to represent the state of the atmospheric circulation. This data set has $2.5° \times 2.5°$ horizontal resolution. We use data on eight pressure levels between 1000 hPa to 300 hPa. The variables we chose to depict the large-scale circulation include 7 three dimensional variables: geopotential height, relative humidity, temperature, u- and v-components of horizontal wind, vertical (pressure) velocity, and vorticity, in addition to 3 single-level variables — surface pressure, tropopause pressure, and precipitable water. The temporal resolution of the reanalysis data is 6 hours. The circulation variables were normalized with the mean and standard deviation at each level. The precipitation data from reanalysis was not used because they represent precipitation from large-scale circulation and have a significant bias. Supplementary Figure S1 shows that precipitation data from the reanalysis data suggest wrong timing and intensities compared with GPM observation.

An SVM takes the circulation data in the 15° × 15° square region centered at one of the three cities as input. Each time slice is categorized as producing "significant rain" or "no significant rain" (with the 30th percentile of rain rate as the threshold), "light rain" or "heavy rain" (with the 60th, 70th, or 80th percentile as the threshold, see Section 3.1), based on next-6-hour precipitation in the 0.5° × 0.5° cell centered at the same city. The SVMs were trained to classify the large-scale circulation patterns accordingly.

For the training of deep neural networks (R**a**Net and R**x**Net described below), we used the NCEP FNL operational analysis data on 1° × 1° grids (NCEP/NWS/NOAA, 2000). The NCEP/NCAR reanalysis data was not used for the training of CNNs, because its coarse resolution hampers the use of multiple convolutional layers. To reduce the computational cost in training the CNNs, we only used five variables (geopotential height, temperature, relative humidity, and u- and v-components of wind) on six pressure levels (300, 500, 700, 850, 925 and 1000 hPa). Normalization procedure depends on the choice of network structures (see Section 2.3).

When training the deep neural networks, we included the precipitation data for about 40 to 50 additional 0.5° × 0.5° grid cells surrounding each of those three cities (and the accompanying circulation data) to obtain more samples, which helps prevent overfitting. The extent of the surrounding areas was determined by applying the trained SVMs to new nearby grid cells and evaluate the performance of the SVMs. The relatively high performance suggests the weather patterns governing precipitation at the new location are similar to those at the original training location. Thus, it is appropriate to include the new grid cell's data to increase the total sample size. The exact extent of the selected HK, MN, and SG regions is shown in Supplementary Figure S2, with selection threshold provided in the caption of Fig. S2.

6-hourly precipitation data of each 0.5° × 0.5° cell within a selected region are used to categorize the corresponding time and location as producing "extreme rain" or "non-extreme rain" (with the 90th percentile of rain rate as the threshold). The input data for the neural networks are the FNL data spline interpolated onto 12° × 12° square regions, which are centered at each of the 0.5° × 0.5° rain data cells and have 1° × 1° resolution (Supplementary Figure S3).

Finally, to evaluate the sensitivity of the trained neural networks to potential model biases in climate simulations. We evaluated the performance of the FNL-trained neural networks with another two reanalysis data sets, ERA5 (Copernicus Climate Change Service, 2017) and JRA-55 (Japan Meteorological Agency, 2013), which were spline interpolated onto 1° × 1° grid and used by the FNL-trained CNNs to make predictions. Leading-order model "biases" in the ERA5 and JRA-55 data were removed by adjusting their mean and root-mean-square perturbation amplitude at each pressure level to be the same as FNL data.

2.2 Support Vector Machine

An SVM is a machine learning model for classification problems (Cristianini et al., 2000). At its core, SVMs find a hyperplane in the feature space of data and separate points in the feature space into different groups. The hyperplane in feature space is defined as the set of points $\mathbf{x}$ satisfying

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b = 0 \tag{1}$$

The vector $\mathbf{w}$ and scalar b for the best hyperplane are determined by an optimization procedure that maximizes the margin between two classes in the feature space. For a linearly separable problem, $\mathbf{w}$ and b are entirely determined by those sample points that are closest to the best hyperplane. Those sample points are called support vectors. When data are not linearly separable, one can use a soft margin technique to allow a small number of misclassified instances.

Furthermore, in nonlinear classification problems, it is common to use a kernel function to replace dot product for operating the optimization algorithm in a transformed feature space implicitly. In our application, we used the Gaussian radial basis function,

$$G(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \tag{2}$$

where $\sqrt{2}\sigma$ is called kernel scale. Besides σ, the other hyperparameter for training an SVM is the box constraint which appears in the soft margin formula and determines the tolerance level of misclassification.

We first attempted to select instances for extreme events by training a pair of SVMs. The first SVM (SVM1) tells whether the circulation data of a time slice can produce “significant” rainfall or not, with the 30th percentile of rain rate as the threshold. The subset of circulation data, which SVM1 predicts to produce significant rain, is then adopted by the second SVM (SVM2), which uses a higher percentile (60th, 70th, or 80th) as its threshold for “extremes”. We found that this dual-SVM strategy can yield higher precision and recall than using a single SVM to directly predict “extremes”.

MATLAB R2019b was used to train SVMs and the CNNs described below. The SVMs were trained using Bayesian optimization to find out the best hyperparameters. Its performance was evaluated with 10-fold cross-validation, in which input data set was partitioned into ten subsets, and each subset was sequentially used as validation set while the other nine used for training. Performance metrics are based on ten-time averages.

2.3 Convolutional Neural Network

In its essence, a neural network transforms the signal from one layer of neurons to the next through a linear transformation and the use of a nonlinear activation function,

$$\mathbf{z}^{[k]} = \mathbf{W}^{[k]}\mathbf{a}^{[k-1]} + \mathbf{b}^{[k]}, \qquad \mathbf{a}^{[k]} = g^{[k]}(\mathbf{z}^{[k]}) \tag{3}$$

where $\mathbf{a}^{[k]}$ is the activation of Layer k, $\mathbf{W}^{[k]}$ is a weight matrix, and $\mathbf{b}^{[k]}$ is a bias vector. $g^{[k]}$ is a non-linear activation function. For Layer 0, the activation $\mathbf{a}^{[0]}$ is the vector of input data $\mathbf{x}$. A fully connected layer in a deep neural network connects every neuron in the previous layer to every neuron in the current layer. A convolutional layer, by contrast, has multiple filters, which are used to convolve a sub-block of the activation data from the previous layer and connect that subset of neurons to a neuron in the current layer.

Two CNN structures are tested in this study (Fig. 1). They are motivated by the AlexNet (Krizhevsky et al., 2012) and Xception (Chollet, 2017) models, respectively, which showed excellent performance in computer vision competitions. This first CNN used in this study is named as R**a**Net (motivated by AlexNet, Fig. 1a). It has 3 convolution layers and 5 fully connected layers. Differing from the original AlexNet, R**a**Net here uses three-dimensional filters in its convolutional layers; thus, its input layer has five channels (variables). By contrast, R**x**Net (motivated by Xception, Fig. 1b) treats the data on each pressure level as one individual variable; thus its input layer has 30 channels (5 variables × 6 levels). Such a design of R**x**Net is used for closely following the original Xception model, which was applied to two-dimensional images. R**x**Net is 58-layer deep and includes multiple residual connections.

Input data for R**a**Net are scaled perturbations. We define base-state profiles of geopotential height and temperature as their climatological means and the base-state profiles for u,

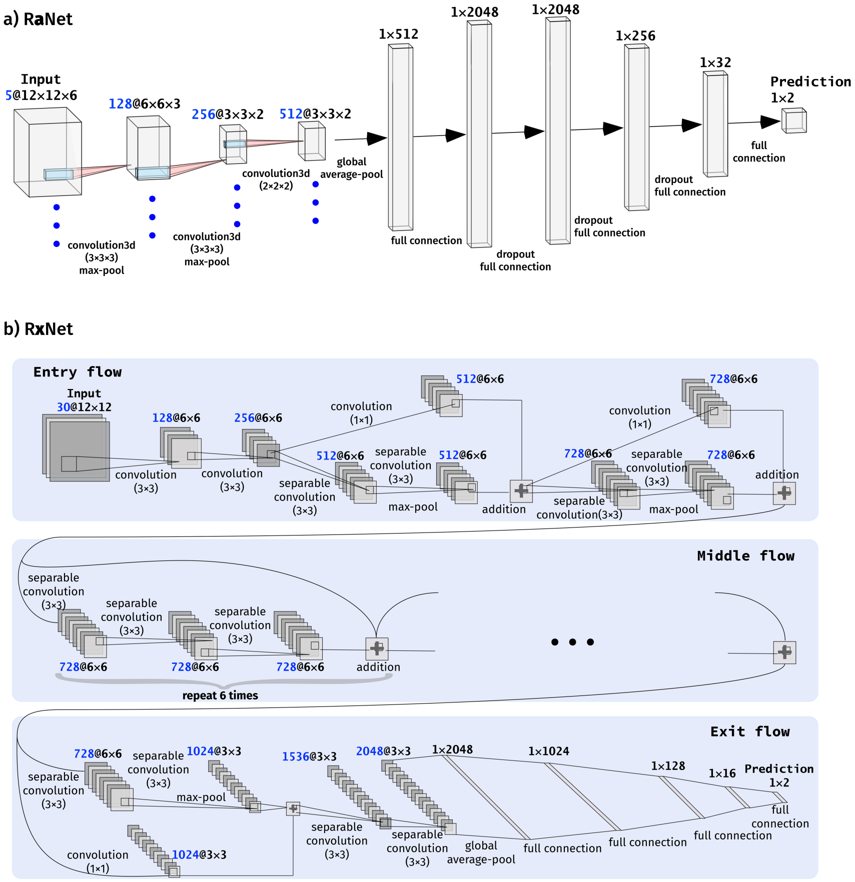

Figure 1. Structure of a) R**a**Net and b) R**x**Net. R**a**Net uses three-dimensional filters in the convolutional layers and leaky ReLU activation for all layers; the first two convolutional layers are followed by batch normalization layers which are not shown. R**x**Net uses two-dimensional filter in its regular convolution and channel-wise separable convolution operations, and used the ReLU activation function for all layers; all convolutional layers are followed by batch normalization layers which are not shown. Blue-font values before @ indicate the number of channels of each layer. The expression after @ indicate the size of activation arrays of a channel. The expression in brackets indicate the size of filters used by convolutional layers.

v, and relative humidity as zero. The deviations of variables from base states are defined as perturbations and then scaled by their root-mean-square amplitudes. Because R**x**Net treats the data on each pressure level as separate variables, input data of each channel for R**x**Net are simply rescaled to be in the range of -1 to 1 using minimum and maximum values.

These two CNNs were trained using the 90th percentile to partition data into the categories of "extreme" and "non-extreme" rain. Because deep neural networks are expected to be more competent than SVMs, we did not use the two-step procedure as in the Dual SVM model. These two CNNs were trained with Adam (adaptive moment estimation) optimizer, which iterates to minimized the weighted cross-entropy loss function,

$$L = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\sum_{j=1}^{K} w_j T_{ij} \log(Y_{ij}) \,. \tag{4}$$

where T is training targets, Y is predicted probability, N is the number of instances, K is the number of classes, and w is the weighting factor. Instead of an unweighted loss function, this weighted loss function was used because the number of non-extreme events is much larger than that of extremes. The weighting factor w is set to 0.95 for extreme events and 0.05 for the other. Therefore, predicting an extreme event wrong causes a much larger increase in the loss function than doing the same to a non-extreme event. R**a**Net and R**x**Net were optimized with 30 epochs of iteration and a learning rate of 1×10^{-4}. Training them with more iteration cycles can increase their accuracy and precision, but leads to deterioration in recall, which suggests overfitting and is not favorable for retaining extreme events.

For these two CNNs, 60% of the FNL data were used to train the models, and 20% used for validation, which helped decide if early stopping was needed during training. The other 20% data was held out as a test data set for evaluating trained models' performance. 70-15-15 partitioning of the train-validation-test data sets was also evaluated and did not cause a significant difference in results.

2.4 Performance Metrics

In the training of SVMs and CNNs, algorithms try to achieve the highest classification accuracy. However, because extreme events are only a small fraction of the data, accuracy of trained models is always intuitively high. Thus, in our discussion, we report the performance of trained models primarily with precision and recall. Precision quantifies the skill of a trained model in filtering out irrelevant circulation patterns, whereas recall quantifies how well the relevant patterns are retained. Specifically,

$$P_y^{\mathrm{M}} = \frac{|\{r > r_y\} \cap \{r' > r_y\}|}{|\{r' > r_y\}|}\,, \tag{5}$$

$$R_y^{\mathrm{M}} = \frac{|\{r > r_y\} \cap \{r' > r_y\}|}{|\{r > r_y\}|}\,, \tag{6}$$

where P_y^{M} and R_y^{M} are precision and recall of the model M when cases with precipitation rates greater than the y-th percentile, r_y, are labeled as positive. r_y may *differs* from the actual threshold used in labelling data when training M. $\{r > r_y\}$ represent the set of instances for which real rain rate (r) exceeds r_y, and $\{r' > r_y\}$ is the set of instances for which the model M predicts rain rate (r') exceeds r_y. r' was not computed by the machine learning models explicitly, but rather the condition, $r' > r_y$, was judged by the model M.

3 Results

3.1 Dual SVM Model

Figure 2 shows the performance of the Dual SVM model trained with the data for the three cities, HK, MN, and SG. The precision of SVM1 for its training criteria, P_{30}^{SVM1}, is around 0.7, and the recall of SVM1 for its training criteria, R_{30}^{SVM1}, is between 0.48 and 0.59. These recall values are not very high. However, if we target to retrieve precipitation event with rain rate higher than the 90th and 99th percentiles, we can find that the corresponding recall, R_{90}^{SVM1} and R_{99}^{SVM1}, is between 0.82 and 0.92 for HK and MN, and between 0.69 and 0.79 for SG. It should be noted that because we did not include rain rate lower than $0.05\,\mathrm{mm\,h^{-1}}$ in calculating the percentiles, SVM1 eliminates much more than 30% circulation data from all time slices. Precipitation rates in HK, MN, and SG exceed the corresponding 30th percentiles only in 14.5%, 28.9%, and 29.4%, respectively, of time slices of the 19 years (not shown).

Figure 2 also shows the performance of SVM2 for training criteria, as well as for real extreme events defined by the 90th and 99th percentiles. For SG, we were unable to obtain a converged solution when the training criterion was set as the 80th percentile. Therefore, it is likely that those circulation patterns, responsible for the extreme events defined with the 80th percentile, are inseparable from others by an SVM.

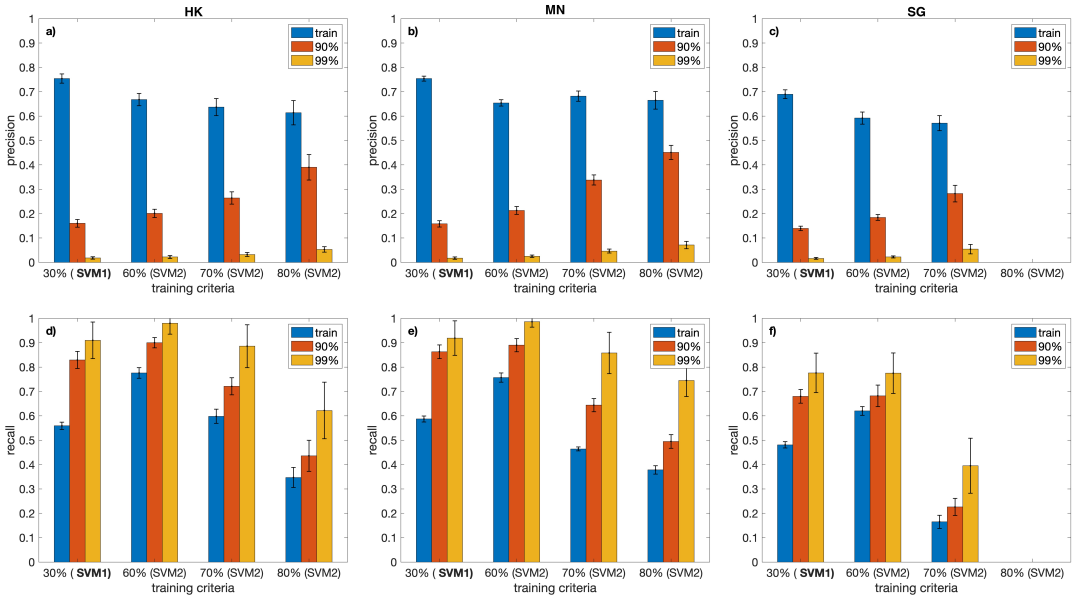

Figure 2. Precision (a–c) and recall (d–f) of the trained SVMs. a) and d) are the SVMs for HK, b) and e) for MN, c) and f) for SG. The SVMs were trained for the thresholds indicated below the horizontal axis, but their performance is evaluated against the training criteria and the 90th and 99th percentiles of rain rates.

The precision of SVM2 for the 90th and 99th percentiles (red and yellow bars in Fig. 2a-c) increases as the training criteria increase to become close to the evaluation criteria. However, those values are relatively low because SVM2 was trained with different criteria (e.g., the 70th percentile). The recall of SVM2 decreases as the training criteria increases. A higher training threshold means that we can filter out more "irrelevant" instances. However, it also increases our chance of losing actual extreme events due to misclassification. Based on Fig. 2, the SVM2 trained with the 70th percentile of rain rate appears to be the most balanced model for applications. If we target to retrieve extreme events defined by the 99th percentile in the selection, the SVM1 and the SVM2 trained with the 70th percentile can yield combined recall (product of the recall of SVM1 and SVM2) of $R_{99}^{\mathrm{SVM1}} R_{99}^{\mathrm{SVM2}} = 0.81,\ 0.79,$ and 0.31, for HK, MN, and SG, respectively.

The unsatisfactory performance of the Dual SVM model for SG data suggests we cannot obtain a very reliable subset of data if we want to study extreme rainfall in deep tropics with SVMs. Moreover, because we can only use the 70th percentile of rain rate in the training of SVM2, we still need to "waste" a notable fraction of our computation to ensure the SVMs keep most extreme events. Can we overcome these difficulties with deep neural networks?

3.2 Convolutional Neural Networks

The performance of R**a**Net and R**x**Net is shown in Table 1. For the test set of FNL data, the precision of the two CNNs, P_{90}^{RaNet} and P_{90}^{RxNet}, is between 0.23 and 0.33, which is not very impressive, but their recall, R_{90}^{RaNet} and R_{90}^{RxNet}, is high, between 0.75 and 0.92. When evaluated for the 99th percentile, the recall of the CNNs, R_{99}^{RaNet} and R_{99}^{RxNet}, reaches 0.93 to 0.98. Those high values contrast with the much lower recall values of the dual SVM models, especially for the SG regions. Therefore, the deep neural networks R**a**Net and R**x**Net are indeed more powerful in recognizing large-scale patterns responsible for extreme events. The relative low precision values partially result from the weighted cross-entropy loss, which

Table 1. Performance metrics of RaNet and RxNet. Three data sets, FNL, ERA5, and JRA-55, were used to evaluate the models. For FNL, only the test dataset (20% of all) was used to evaluate the performance of trained models, whereas, for ERA5 and JRA-55, entire data sets were used. The rows of "precision" and "recall" are computed for the training threshold, the 90th percentile values. The rows of "recall (99%)" is the recall when the trained models are evaluated for the 99th percentile values. "retention" refers to the fraction of data retained (as relevant to extreme events) by the trained models.

		HK Region		MN Region		SG Region	
		RaNet	RxNet	RaNet	RxNet	RaNet	RxNet
accuracy	FNL	0.936	0.961	0.897	0.933	0.900	0.920
	ERA5	0.948	0.964	0.904	0.938	0.905	0.931
	JRA-55	0.950	0.957	0.907	0.931	0.883	0.926
precision	FNL	0.238	0.331	0.229	0.307	0.230	0.274
	ERA5	0.257	0.326	0.224	0.292	0.201	0.238
	JRA-55	0.259	0.276	0.217	0.241	0.148	0.180
recall	FNL	0.921	0.858	0.832	0.748	0.770	0.749
	ERA5	0.777	0.663	0.725	0.553	0.557	0.428
	JRA-55	0.738	0.645	0.650	0.462	0.475	0.299
recall (99%)	FNL	0.985	0.983	0.955	0.935	0.927	0.936
	ERA5	0.927	0.843	0.904	0.800	0.742	0.643
	JRA-55	0.901	0.798	0.864	0.695	0.622	0.465
retention	FNL	0.082	0.055	0.126	0.084	0.120	0.098
	ERA5	0.064	0.043	0.112	0.065	0.099	0.064
	JRA-55	0.060	0.049	0.104	0.066	0.115	0.059

ensures the high values of recall. We trained RaNet with unweighted cross-entropy loss, it exhibits precision of 0.38 to 0.49, and recall (for the 90th percentile) drops to 0.58 to 0.67, leading to the misclassification of a large number of extreme events.

Different climate models potentially have their intrinsic biases, can the CNNs trained with FNL data perform well when applied to climate simulation data? To evaluate the tolerance of RaNet and RxNet to potential GCM biases, we apply them to another two reanalysis datasets, ERA5 and JRA-55, to compute the performance metrics of the FNL-trained CNNs (while still using the GPM precipitation to label instances). Different reanalysis data sets are known to represent some parts of the general circulation differently (Kossin, 2015). Although we have adjusted the mean and amplitude of ERA5 and JRA-55 data (Section 2.1) to correct leading order biases, significant changes in the performance of trained CNNs can still be found when applied to the ERA5 and JRA-55 data.

In Table 1, application of the FNL-trained CNNs to EAR5 data does not result in a large decrease in the accuracy and precision, but leads to a sharp drop in the recall, especially for the SG region. The recall corresponding to the training criterion (90th percentile) for the SG region is around 0.76 for the FNL test data set but drop to 0.56 and 0.43 for RaNet and RxNet, respectively, for the ERA5 data. When considering the 99th percentile, R_{99}^{RaNet} and R_{99}^{RxNet} are higher than 0.80 for the HK and MN regions with the ERA5 data, but show recall of 0.74 and 0.64, respectively, for the SG region.

The JRA-55 data set appears to differ from the FNL data even more than the ERA5 data. Recall values of RaNet and RxNet, when applied to the JRA-55 data, becomes even lower than those for ERA5. For the HK region, the recall R_{99}^{RaNet} and R_{99}^{RxNet} are 0.90 and 0.80, respectively, with the JRA-55 data, which are still satisfactory. However for the SG region,

R_{99}^{RaNet} and R_{99}^{RxNet} are only 0.62 and 0.47, respectively, with the JRA-55 data. These results suggest that if the CNNs are trained with one circulation data set and applied to deep tropics in climate simulations, they may not capture all the extreme events that can potentially be generated by the circulation patterns in climate models.

Overall, R**x**Net exhibits higher accuracy and precision than R**a**Net for all three regions. However, R**a**Net exhibits higher recall values and appears to be more resilient to potential model biases. For example, R_{99}^{RaNet} is consistently higher than R_{99}^{RxNet} by more than 0.10 in all three regions. However, the relatively higher recall comes with a price in computational cost, that is, less "irrelevant" data can be filtered out if the recall needs to be high. For example, when using ERA5 data for the MN region, R**a**Net retains twice as much data as R**x**Net.

4 Discussion and Summary

In this study, we demonstrated that the SDD of extreme rainfall is viable through the use of deep neural networks. For the subtropical region, this methodology appears to be very robust. The trained CNNs performed well even when different reanalysis data sets were used to evaluate their performance, and 92% to 96% of circulation data can be filtered out as irrelevant patterns for extreme events in the HK region. For deep tropics, the methodology is still useful but appears to be not highly reliable (at least for the CNNs we tested here). The trained CNNs performed well for the FNL data, which was used to train them. However, performance deteriorates when different reanalysis data sets were used in evaluation, especially for the SG region with JRA-55 data.

From simple SVMs to sophisticated CNNs, the model performance is always worse for the SG region than the other two regions. We speculate this is because the link between large-scale circulation and local precipitation in deep tropics is just not as strong as those in subtropics. *k*-medoid clustering analysis (Supplementary Figure S4-S6) suggests that extreme precipitation events in the HK region are typically associated with warm-sector convection, frontal rainfall, and tropical cyclones (Fig. S4), of which the first type comprises the majority (Wu et al., 2020). Those weather patterns have distinct large-scale features. In contrast, extreme precipitation appears to be connected with squall lines and cold pools for the SG regions (Porson et al., 2019), which exhibit significant variability at smaller grid scales (Fig. S6). It is probably not surprising that fitting small-scale features is more complicated than fitting large-scale ones.

Therefore, the SDD of extreme precipitation in deep tropics appears to be challenging. Including multiple reanalysis data when training CNNs might alleviate the problem of overfitting (low tolerance to potential model biases). Using a model structure with an intermediate level of sophistication, like the R**a**Net here, may also help. In subtropical regions, the potential of advanced deep neural networks, such as R**x**Net here, can be fully exploited to reduce computational expense while confidently retaining the majority of the circulation patterns causing extreme rainfall. In our study, the recall $R_{99}^{\mathrm{RxNet}} \geq 0.80$ for the HK region with all circulation data sets. It is the next step for our research to apply deep neural networks to SDD of climate simulations and explore the response of extreme rainfall to global warming.

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