

# Improving annual precipitation prediction using extreme learning machine with wavelet packet decomposition

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## Research Article

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2                               **machine with wavelet packet decomposition**

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35       **Abstract:** Accurate precipitation prediction can help plan for different water resources  
36       management demands and provide an extension of lead-time for the tactical and  
37       strategic planning of courses of action as well as activity. In this paper, a novel merged  
38       precipitation prediction framework (ELM-WPD) is proposed on the Extreme learning  
39       machine (ELM) with wavelet packet decomposition (WPD). The model can be

40 described as the following: (a) we use the WPD to decompose the original precipitation  
41 data into several sub-layers; (b) ELM model is employed to complete the forecasting  
42 calculation for the decomposed series; (c) the results are integrated to complete the final  
43 prediction. Four quantitative indexes (RMSE, MAE, R and NSEC) are employed for  
44 the comparison criteria. The results are compared with Back-propagation neural  
45 network (BPNN), autoregressive integrated moving average model (ARIMA), ELM,  
46 BPNN-WPD model, ARIMA-WPD, indicating that the ELM-WPD model has better  
47 performance than other models used in this paper. Hence, the proposed method can  
48 provide higher accuracy and reliability for annual precipitation forecasting and can be  
49 extended to similar situations for precipitation forecasting.

50 **Key words:** Precipitation prediction; Extreme learning machine; Artificial neural  
51 network; Wavelet packet decomposition; Hybrid intelligent computing

## 52 1 Introduction

53 Precipitation prediction modeling is the key in many practical applications, i.e.,  
54 agriculture ([Wei et al. 2005](#)), streamflow forecasting ([Kisi and Cimen 2011](#); [Wang et al.](#)  
55 [2013](#)), flood prediction ([Wang et al. 2019](#)), water resources management ([Hartmann et](#)  
56 [al. 2016](#)), urban flooding predictions ([Nguyen and Bae 2020](#)), facilities maintenance  
57 and control ([Benedetto 2002](#)) and so on ([Ortiz-García et al. 2014](#)). Accurate  
58 precipitation prediction can help plan for different environmental water demands and  
59 provide an extension of lead-time for the tactical and strategic planning of courses of  
60 action as well as activity. In hydrology, the forecasts of precipitation are commonly  
61 obtained from numerical weather prediction models or by applying various techniques,

62 such as time series regression, artificial neural network (ANN), support vector  
63 machines (SVMs), etc. But, numerical weather prediction models are still unable to  
64 provide quantitative precipitation forecasts at enough spacial and time resolution  
65 compatible with the time-space variability of precipitation processes (Kuligowski and  
66 Barros 1998). Soft computing approaches have several advantages: they are easy to  
67 operate and can carry out large-scale data operation, and can adjust the model structure  
68 and parameters according to the characteristics of the watershed, and their performance  
69 is indeed very competitive compared to numerical models (Ortiz-García et al. 2014).

70 The Box-Jenkins models (Box et al. 1994), which can be considered as the most  
71 conventional and comprehensive technology for time series prediction, contains AR  
72 (auto-regressive), ARMA (autoregressive moving average), and ARIMA (auto-  
73 regressive integrated moving average), etc. These methods have been extensively  
74 utilized in non-stationary data analysis and prediction in recent decades (Mohammadi  
75 et al. 2006; Pektaş and Kerem Cigizoglu 2013; Valipour et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2009;  
76 Wang et al. 2015). Many studies in which time series analysis methods have been  
77 successfully applied in precipitation (rainfall) modeling can be found in recent decades.  
78 Rainfall forecasting is approached assuming that hourly rainfall follows an  
79 autoregressive moving average (ARMA) process (Burlando et al. 1993). The  
80 performance of the SSA (singular spectrum analysis) and MA are investigated as data-  
81 preprocessing technology, and combined with forecasting model to improve model  
82 accuracy for precipitation prediction (Wu and Chau 2013). A hybrid the maximal  
83 overlap discrete wavelet transform (MODWT) and the ARMA model is presented for

84 daily rainfall prediction, and the combined model is an effective way to improve  
85 forecasting accuracy (Zhu et al. 2014). The Box-Jenkins method is applied to forecast  
86 short term monthly rainfall, and model is fit to both generate the reliable future forecasts  
87 and describe the past precipitation data (Papalaskaris et al. 2016). Seasonal  
88 Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (SARIMA) model is adopted to predict  
89 monthly precipitation at thirty station in Bangladesh with twelve months lead-time  
90 (Mahmud et al. 2017). The Box–Jenkins forecasting method with ARIMA model is  
91 used to predict the changes in precipitation for projected years (Al Balasmeh et al. 2019).

92 In recent years, Artificial Intelligent (AI) such as Artificial Neural Networks (ANN)  
93 have been a powerful technology to solve the forecasting problems. Hung et al. (2009)  
94 developed ANN technique to improve rainfall forecast performance for Bangkok,  
95 Thailand, with lead times of 1 to 6h. Nastos et al. (2014) developed ANNs to forecast  
96 the maximum daily precipitation for the next coming year in Athens, Greece. Abbot and  
97 Marohasy (2014) used ANNs to forecast Queensland monthly rainfall, and ANNs  
98 forecasts are superior to Australian official forecasts. Abbot and Marohasy (2017)  
99 skillful achieved seasonal and monthly rainfall forecasts by mining the historical  
100 climate data using ANNs. A comparison of several advanced AI methods, namely  
101 ANFIS (Adaptive Network based Fuzzy Inference System) optimized with PSO  
102 (Particle Swarm Optimization), SVM and ANN, for the forecasts of daily rainfall were  
103 introduced by Pham et al. (2020).

104 In the last few years, many works have been done to enhance the prediction ability  
105 of soft computing approaches by data preprocessing technology such as wavelet

106 analysis. The WT (Wavelet Transform) is a multi-resolution signal identify and analysis  
107 tool, which can provide a time-frequency representation of signal ([Balasubramanian et](#)  
108 [al. 2018](#); [Feng et al. 2015](#)). Time series modelling techniques with wavelet (WT) has  
109 seen to made enormous interests in hydrologic data analysis and prediction. Wavelet  
110 regression (WR) technique is proposed for short-term runoff forecasting, and results  
111 illustrate that the performance of WR is better than those of ARMA and ANN models  
112 ([Kisi 2010](#)). The accuracy of wavelet and SVM hybrid model is investigated in monthly  
113 streamflow prediction, and the experiment results indicated that the hybrid model can  
114 improve the prediction accuracy ([Kisi and Cimen 2011](#)). A new wavelet-SVM hybrid  
115 model is proposed for daily rainfall forecasting, and the results indicated that the model  
116 can dramatically improve the forecasting accuracy of single SVM ([Kisi and Cimen](#)  
117 [2012](#)). A wavelet predictor–corrector model is developed by ([Zhou et al. 2008](#)) for the  
118 simulation and prediction of monthly discharge time series. The SSA-ARIMA model is  
119 developed to forecast mid- to long-term streamflow and results shows that the  
120 conjunction model can provide the best performance ([Zhang et al. 2011](#)). Karthikeyan  
121 and Nagesh Kumar ([2013](#)) ascertained the predictability of four non-stationary runoff  
122 sites using EMD (Empirical Mode Decomposition) and wavelet based ARMA. The  
123 wavelet neural network was studied to predict the monthly rainfall series ([Venkata](#)  
124 [Ramana et al. 2013](#)). Three different methods (generalized regression neural network;  
125 radial basis function; feed forward back propagation) based WT were utilized for daily  
126 rainfall forecasting ([Partal et al. 2015](#)). The wavelet analysis-support vector machine  
127 coupled model (WA-SVM) is evaluated for 1, 3 and 6 months ahead rainfall forecasting,

128 and results indicate that the WA-SVM model provides high accuracy and reliability  
129 ([Feng et al. 2015](#)). Wavelet transform and Frank copula function are combined in a  
130 mutual information-based input variable selection for non-linear rainfall forecasting  
131 models ([Abdourahamane et al. 2019](#)). The performance enhancement model is  
132 developed for rainfall forecasting over the Langat River Basin through the integration  
133 of WT and convolutional neural network ([Chong et al. 2020](#)). The main deficiency of  
134 the WT is that the number of frequency bands is restricted, and WPD is a further  
135 extension of WT technique ([Ben messaoud et al. 2016](#)). The WPD can provide a more  
136 complete wavelet packet tree, and which extracts the features of original signal more  
137 comprehensively ([Balasubramanian et al. 2018](#)). The WPD has been proved to exhibit  
138 good performance for time series forecasting, such as wind speed forecasting ([Liu et al.](#)  
139 [2018](#); [Yu et al. 2018](#)), River Stage Forecasting ([Seo et al. 2016](#)). However, few studies  
140 investigated the performance of combined WPD and time series models for prediction  
141 in hydrology field, which needs further exploration.

142 Motivated by the principle of “decomposition and ensemble” ([Guo et al. 2012](#); [Tan](#)  
143 [et al. 2018](#)), the raw annual rainfall data can be decomposed into different components.  
144 Each component can be predicted with the purpose of fine results and easy forecasting  
145 task, and the forecasting results of all components are aggregated to generate the final  
146 prediction ([Wang et al. 2015](#); [Wang et al. 2013](#)). In this paper, a novel merged  
147 precipitation prediction framework is presented based on the Extreme learning machine  
148 (ELM) with WPD. The framework can be described as the following: (a) we use the  
149 WPD to decompose the original precipitation data into several sub-layers; (b) ELM

150 model is employed to complete the forecasting calculation for the decomposed series;  
 151 (c) Integrate the results of (b) are integrated to complete the final prediction. To  
 152 ascertain the performance of the proposed framework, six models are employed for  
 153 benchmark comparison as: ARIMA, ARIM-WPD, BPNN, BPNN-WPD, ELM, and  
 154 ELM-WPD. Validation of the models was done using four criteria, which are RMSE  
 155 (root mean square errors), R (coefficient of correlation), NSEC (Nash-Sutcliffe  
 156 efficiency coefficient), and MAE (mean absolute error).

## 157 **2 Methods**

### 158 2.1 Wavelet Packet Decomposition WPD

159 WPD is identical to WD except that the former extends the abilities of the later  
 160 (Alickovic et al. 2018). The three-layer binary trees of WPD are illustrated in Fig. 1.  
 161 The WPD splits the signal into approximation coefficients and detail coefficients by  
 162 mother wavelet function. The decomposition levels and mother wavelet function have  
 163 a deep influence on the performance of the WPD. The WPD contains continuous  
 164 wavelet transform (CWT) and discrete wavelet transform (DWT). The CWT is as  
 165 follows:

$$166 \quad CWT_x(a, b) = \langle x(t), \psi_{a,b}(t) \rangle = \int x(t) \psi^*((t-b)/a) / \sqrt{a} dt \quad (1)$$

167 where  $x(t)$  is the input signal,  $a$  the scale parameter,  $b$  the translation parameter,  $*$  the  
 168 complex conjugate,  $\psi(t)$  the mother wavelet function. The  $a$  and  $b$  in DWT are:

$$169 \quad \begin{cases} a = 2^i \\ b = j2^i \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

170 where  $i$  and  $j$  denotes the scale parameter and translation parameter, respectively.

171

172

Insert Fig. 1.

173 2.2 Extreme Learning Machine (ELM)

174 ELM proposed by Guang-Bin et al. (2004) is a single hidden layer feed-forward  
175 network (SLFN) with the characteristic that without adjusting the internal parameters,  
176 which is a modified version of traditional ANN (Yaseen et al. 2019). ELM selects the  
177 hidden threshold randomly in training the network, and the calculation of output weight  
178 does not need complicated iterative, which greatly heighten the training speed.

179 For the vector  $(x_i, y_i)$ ,  $x_i = [x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{im}]^T \in R^m$ ,  $y_i = [y_{i1}, y_{i2}, \dots, y_{in}]^T \in$   
180  $R^n$ , ELM can be modeled by:

$$181 \quad \sum_{i=1}^L \beta_i G(\omega_i \cdot x_j + \alpha_i) = z_j, j = 1, L, N \quad (3)$$

182 The variables in Eq. (3) denote:  $\beta_i$  (the weight connecting the nodes of hidden  
183 layer and output layer),  $G(x)$  (activation function),  $\omega_i = [\omega_{i1}, \omega_{i2}, \dots, \omega_{im}]$  (the  
184 weight vector connecting the nodes of input layer and output layer),  $x_j$  (input vectors),  
185  $\alpha_i$  (threshold of the hidden node),  $z_j$  (output value),  $L$  (hidden nodes number).

186 The goal of ELM is to minimize the error between the original and predicted  
187 values,  $\sum_{j=1}^N \| z_j - y_j \| = 0$ , there exist  $\beta_i$ ,  $\omega_i$  and  $\alpha_i$ . So,

$$188 \quad \sum_{i=1}^L \beta_i G(\omega_i \cdot x_j + \alpha_i) = y_j, j = 1, L, N \quad (4)$$

189 Eq. (4) can be expressed into the following equations:

$$190 \quad H\beta = Y \quad (5)$$

191 where

$$H(\omega_i, \alpha_i, x_j) = \begin{bmatrix} g(\omega_1 \cdot x_1 + \alpha_1) & L & g(\omega_L \cdot x_1 + \alpha_L) \\ M & L & M \\ g(\omega_1 \cdot x_N + \alpha_1) & L & g(\omega_L \cdot x_N + \alpha_L) \end{bmatrix}_{N \times L} \quad (6)$$

$$\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1^T \\ M \\ \beta_L^T \end{bmatrix}_{L \times 1} \quad \text{and,} \quad Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1^T \\ M \\ y_N^T \end{bmatrix}_{N \times 1} \quad (7)$$

194  $H$  stands for the output matrix of hidden,  $\beta$  the output weight,  $Y$  the target output. Thus  
 195 the minimum norm least-squares solution  $\hat{\beta}$  of Eq. (5) is:

$$\hat{\beta} = H^+ Y \quad (8)$$

197 where  $H^+$  represents the MPGI (Moore-Penrose generalized inverse) of  $H$  and  $Y$  is the  
 198 target.

### 199 2.3 Back-propagation Neural Network (BPNN)

200 BPNN proposed by McClelland and Rumelhart (1986) is a commonly multilayered  
 201 ANN. BPNN includes input nodes, hidden layers and output layer. The characteristic  
 202 of BPNN is the forward transmission of the signal and the reverse transmission of the  
 203 error. BPNN minimize the global error according to gradient descent approach (Wang  
 204 et al. 2017). The connection weights are modified based on the errors between the input  
 205 data and output data in the reverse transmission. Forward and afterword propagation  
 206 are repeated until the errors reach the expected precision. In this study, Levenberg-  
 207 Marquardt (LM) method, sigmoid function and perlin formula are adopted as the  
 208 training function, transfer function and output function, respectively. The mathematical  
 209 formula of BPNN model can be expressed as follows:

$$x_j^m = f \left( \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^{m-1} w^m + \beta^m \right) \quad (8)$$

211 where  $x_i^{m-1}$  represents the input data of node  $I$  in layer  $m-1$ ,  $w^m$  the weight of  
 212  $x_i^{m-1}$ ,  $\beta^m$  the bias of layer  $m$ ,  $x_j^m$  the output value of node  $I$  in layer  $m$ ;  $f(x)$   
 213 denotes the transfer function of layer  $m$ , which is written as:

$$214 \quad f(x) = \tan \operatorname{sig}(x) = (e^x - e^{-x}) / (e^x + e^{-x}) \quad (9)$$

215 The purelin formula is as the following:

$$216 \quad f(x) = x \quad (10)$$

## 217 2.4 ARIMA

218 ARIMA, proposed by Box (2013), is normally utilized to time series analysis. The  
 219 mathematical forecasting equation of ARIMA is linear in which the predictors include  
 220 autoregressive (AR) terms and moving average (MA) terms. The representation of  
 221 ARIMA is ARIMA ( $p, d, q$ ), and the representation of SARIMA (seasonal ARIMA) is  
 222 ARIMA ( $p, d, q$ )  $\times$  ( $P, D, Q$ )<sub>s</sub>, where ( $p, d, q$ ) represents the non-seasonal order and ( $P,$   
 223  $D, Q$ )<sub>s</sub> denotes the seasonal order. ARIMA model can be expressed as:

$$224 \quad y_{t+1} = \mu + \phi_1 y_t + \phi_2 y_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p y_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_{t+1} - \theta_1 \varepsilon_t - \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-1} - \dots - \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q+1} \quad (11)$$

225 where  $y_t$  is the time series,  $\phi_i$  the AR coefficient,  $\theta_i$  the MA coefficient,  $\mu$  the  
 226 model parameter,  $p$  the order of AR component,  $q$  the order of MA component,  $d$  the  
 227 order of differentiation.

## 228 2.5 Framework of the proposed hybrid model

229 The methodological architecture of merged precipitation prediction framework  
 230 (ELM-WPD) is presented in Fig. 2. The content of the model is expressed as:

231 Step 1: Data pre-processing. (a) the WPD is adopted to decompose the original  
 232 precipitation series into several sub-series; (b) the data both in original series and sub-

233 series are partitioned into training and testing sets; (c) all data are tested by the ADF  
 234 (Augmented Dickey-fuller Test); (d) normalize all data between [0, 1] by:

$$235 \quad x'_i = \frac{x_i - \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{x_i\}}{\max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{x_i\} - \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{x_i\}} \quad (12)$$

236 where  $x_i$  is the original data,  $x'_i$  the normalized data series,  $n$  the number of data.

237 Step 2: Model building. (a) the PACF (partial autocorrelation function) and  
 238 precipitation theory are employed to select the number of input variables; (b) set the  
 239 values of model parameter, such as the number of hidden layers in ANN and the  
 240 optimized parameters for ARIMA; (c) the ELM, ARIMA and BPNN are used as  
 241 forecasting tools to model and predict each decomposed sub-sequence separately; (d)  
 242 the results are integrated to complete the final prediction.

243

## 244 2.6 Evaluation indicators

245 The results of the models are evaluated with respect to four numerical indicators.  
 246 These indexes include root mean square errors (RMSE), mean absolute error (MAE).  
 247 Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency coefficient (NSE), and coefficient of correlation (R). Their  
 248 equations are provided below.

$$249 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_e(i) - y_o(i))^2} \quad (13)$$

$$250 \quad MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_e(i) - y_o(i)| \quad (14)$$

$$251 \quad NSEC = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_e(i) - y_o(i))^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_o(i) - \bar{y}_o)^2} \quad (15)$$

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_o(i) - \bar{y}_o)(y_e(i) - \bar{y}_e)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_o(i) - \bar{y}_o)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_e(i) - \bar{y}_e)^2}} \quad (16)$$

where  $y_e(i)$ ,  $y_o(i)$ ,  $\bar{y}_e$  and  $\bar{y}_o$  are the estimated value, observed value, mean estimated value, and mean observed value of precipitation, respectively.

Insert Fig. 2.

### 3 Case study

#### 3.1 Study area and used data

The annual rainfall data of Jinsha weather station on Chishui river in the northwest of Guizhou Province were used. Fig. 3 displays the precipitation area of this paper. Jinsha county, with about 2524 km<sup>2</sup> area, spans 105°47'-105°44' E and 27°07'-27°46' N, covering a total of 2524 km<sup>2</sup>. There are four distinct seasons, abundant rainfall, uneven distribution of rainfall, and frequent occurrences of disasters such as mudslides and landslides, which endanger the lives and property of the people. Therefore, it is necessary to carry out high-precision precipitation simulation and forecast around Jinsha County, to provide theoretical guidance for regional water resources management and flash flood early warning.

The annual rainfall data from 1958 to 2016 are studied. Fig.4 shows rainfall data for Jinsha station, data from 1958 to 2011 are adopted for training and the final 5 y are selected for testing. The statistical parameters of the original data are list in Table 1, and the original data shows relatively obvious skewness, indicating that the difficulty of

272 modeling is very high.

273

274 [Insert Fig. 3.](#)

275 [Insert Fig. 4.](#)

### 276 3.2 Decomposition results

277 The WPD is adopted to split the original annual precipitation data into eight sub-  
278 series. The frequency of sub-series is different, and each sub-series plays different role  
279 in the original dataset. The decomposed results for Jinsha station using WPD at level 3  
280 are shown in Fig. 5.

281 [Insert Fig. 5.](#)

### 282 3.3 The selection of input variable

283 The selection of input variables is a prior step for the final predicted results. In this  
284 paper, two methods are utilized to select the input combinations: (a) trial and error  
285 method; (b) PACF statistical approach. PACF values for all series of Jinsha station are  
286 shown in Fig. 6, where PACF denotes the original rainfall series and the others are the  
287 sub-series. We conduct twelve ANN models with different input combinations. Table 1  
288 list the input variables for different series with respect to the information in Fig. 7 and  
289 trial-and-error method, where  $q_{(t)}$  represents the estimated value of rainfall and  
290  $q_{(t-p)}$  is the rainfall at time  $t-p$ .

291

292 [Insert Fig. 6.](#)

293 [Insert Table 1.](#)

## 294 3.4 Model development

295 To verify the ELM-WPD model, these six models, that is, ELM, BPNN, ARIMA,  
296 ELM-WPD, BPNN-WPD, ARIMA-WPD, are employed for comparison. Detailed  
297 information relating to these models are presented in this part.

### 298 (1) ELM and BPNN models

299 For conventional ELM and BPNN models, the observed rainfall values were  
300 adopted as the target value. The nodes' number of input and output layers are equal to  
301 the number of input variables and one, respectively. The best hidden nodes' number is  
302 determined by trial-and-error method. In this paper, the best hidden nodes' number in  
303 ELM and BPNN are set to twenty and eight, respectively. The LM algorithm is adopted  
304 to train the BPNN model, and the training epoch is set to 500. Selecting sigmoidal  
305 function as the activation function of ELM, and MPGI method is adopted to determine  
306 the hidden output weights after randomly setting its hidden threshold and weight vector  
307 between the hidden layer and input layer.

### 308 (2) ARIMA

309 First, ADF (augmented Dickey-Fuller) unit root test is employed to judge the  
310 stationarity of input series. If the dataset is nonstationary, difference and MA can be  
311 used to smooth it. The results are shown in Table 2. Value  $h=1$  means that the test rejects  
312 the null hypothesis of unit root. The significance level of  $p$ Value is determined as 0.05,  
313 when the t-statistic value is less than the critical value and  $p$ Value  $< 0.05$ , the test results  
314 can be considered as feasible and it will reject the null hypothesis. It can be seen from  
315 Table 2 that the sample dataset is stationary without single root effect. Subsequently,

316 the optimal ARIMA ( $p, d, q$ ) structure is chiefly determined according to the minimum  
317 BIC (Bayes information criteria) value. The obtained best ARIMA models are shown  
318 in Table 3.

319 [Insert Table 2.](#)

320 [Insert Table 3.](#)

### 321 (3) ANN-WPD and ARIMA-WPD

322 For the ELM-WPD, BPNN-WPD and ARIMA-WPD models, the original rainfall  
323 is split into eight sub-series using WPD, and several special hybrid models are  
324 reconstructed for each subsequence. For the WPD model, the selection of the  
325 appropriate wavelet basis function is very significant. Symlet wavelet is an improved  
326 approximate symmetric wavelet function based on Daubechies wavelet, which can  
327 avoid signal distortion during decomposition and reconstruction. Thus, a three-scale  
328 and four order Symlet wavelet is considered as the wavelet basis function in this paper.

### 329 3.5 Comparative analysis

330 The forecast of the series was implemented using the above models with the input  
331 data of original annual precipitation and extracted subseries. The assessment results  
332 obtained by different models in training and test phases are shown in Tables 4 and 5.  
333 Fig 8 exhibits rainfall forecasting results using six models.

334 Table 4 indicates the following: (a) when comparing the single models with the  
335 hybrid model, the hybrid models evidently attain better performance during both  
336 training and testing periods; (b) the ELM outperforms other single methods (c) the  
337 ARIMA-WPD demonstrates the optimal performance in terms of all measures in the

338 training period, and ELM-WPD attains the best forecasting accuracy in terms of all  
339 measures during the testing phase; (d) ARIMA provides the worst results during both  
340 training and testing periods; (e) there is no significant difference in the results between  
341 BPNN and ELM and that between BPNN-WPD and ELM-WPD.

342 Table 5 lists the improvements obtained by several models. Compared with  
343 BPNN-WPD and ELM-WPD, ARIMA-WPD can exhibit the best improvements in  
344 terms of all measures during both training and testing periods. For example, in the  
345 training period, the ARIMA-WPD method improves the ARIMA method with 85.20  
346 and 85.08% reduction in MAE and RMSE, and improvements of the predicted results  
347 in terms of NSEC and R are 607.65 and 138.81%. In the testing phase, the ARIMA-  
348 WPD method improves the ARIMA method with 73.67 and 74.8% reduction in MAE  
349 and RMSE, and the improvements of the predicted results in terms of NSEC and R are  
350 268.63 and 413.25%. Meanwhile, we can see that the improvements of the BPNN-WPD  
351 is superior to ELM-WPD, whilst there is no dramatic difference between them.

352 In addition, the prediction accuracy is different in terms of different phrase. The  
353 performance of ARIMA method during the testing period is far inferior to that during  
354 the training period. The ARIMA-WPD method is in the highest level in the training  
355 period, but the performance in the testing period is the worst among several hybrid  
356 models. This kind of model usually has poor generalization ability. However, it is  
357 considered that the model has strong generalization capability for a reliable  
358 performance when it shows modest during the training period and performs well in the  
359 testing period, e.g., BPNN, BPNN-WPD, ELM, ELM-WPD.

360 The performances of all forecasting models developed in this paper during the  
361 training and testing phases is shown in Fig. 7. One can clearly see that the performances  
362 of the hybrid models are better than those single methods as their trend line are very  
363 close to the original data line. Meanwhile, the algorithm prior to improvement is  
364 difficult to capture the drastic changes in rainfall.

365 The following should be considered before analyzing the above. The forecasting  
366 performance of the testing phase plays a greater role than that of the training phase.  
367 Because the training phase is utilized to train the model, and its performance is  
368 measured by the data related to the modeling. But the testing dataset does not participate  
369 in modeling, so its performance can truly reflect the model application efficiency. Based  
370 on the above considerations, we can draw the following conclusions from the above  
371 analysis. Firstly, the ELM-WPD, proposed in this paper, can attain the best performance  
372 in terms of all statistical measures. Secondly, WPD is suitable for decomposing the  
373 annual rainfall series as it can overcome the complicated abrupt change of precipitation.  
374 Thirdly, there are obvious difference between the ARIMA, BPNN, and ELM models,  
375 which means the important role of training tool in modeling. Finally, the annual rainfall  
376 series decomposed by WPD as input in modeling can substantially enhance forecasting  
377 accuracy.

378

379 [Insert Table 4.](#)

380 [Insert Table 5.](#)

381 [Insert Fig. 7.](#)

## 382 **4 Conclusions**

383 Improving accuracy of long-term annual precipitation forecasting is an important  
384 yet challenging work in the management of water resources. We proposed a novel  
385 merged precipitation prediction framework (ELM-WPD). First, WPD is adopted to  
386 decompose the original annual precipitation series into several sub-series. Second,  
387 ANN models are utilized to predict each sub-series. Finally, the results are integrated  
388 to complete the final prediction. The annual precipitation series collected from Jinsha  
389 weather station of Guizhou Province in China is taken to develop the empirical study.  
390 The results obtained in this paper reveal that the presented framework can effectively  
391 enhance forecasting accuracy with respect to four numerical indicators. Thus, the  
392 proposed method based on data decomposition can be particularly relevant for  
393 precipitation prediction, and provides more accurate and reliable results, hence may be  
394 a promising alternative for long-term precipitation prediction.

### 395 **Authors' Contributions**

396 **Hua Wang:** Methodology, Software, Writing- original draft. **Wen-chuan Wang:**  
397 Conceptualization, Writing - original draft. **Yu-jin Du:** Program implementation,  
398 Writing - original draft. **Dong-mei Xu:** Formal analysis. **Yi-duo Zhang:** Data curation,  
399 Program implementation.

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#### 405 **Availability of data and materials**

406 All authors made sure that all data and materials support our published claims and  
407 comply with field standards.

#### 408 **Ethics declarations**

409 **Ethics Approval:** All authors kept the ‘Ethical Responsibilities of Authors’.

410 **Consent to Participate:** All authors gave explicit consent to participate in this work.

411 **Consent to Publish:** All authors gave explicit consent to publish this manuscript.

412 **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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553

554 **Figure captions**

555 Fig. 1. Sketch map of the WPD method.

556 Fig. 2. The framework of the proposed hybrid model.

557 Fig. 3. Study area and location of the Jinsha weather station.

558 Fig. 4. Annual rainfall time series in Jinsha station.

559 Fig. 5. Decomposed results for annual rainfall in Jinsha station.

560 Fig. 6. PACF values for all series.

561 Fig. 7. Observed and forecasted rainfall during training and testing period by six methods.

562

563

564 **Table captions**

565 Table 1. The number of Input variables for different series.

566 Table 2. ADF test results.

567 Table 3. ARIMA models based on BIC.

568 Table 4. Performance measures of models.

569 Table 5. Comparison results of model prediction performance.

570

571

# Figures

Input signal

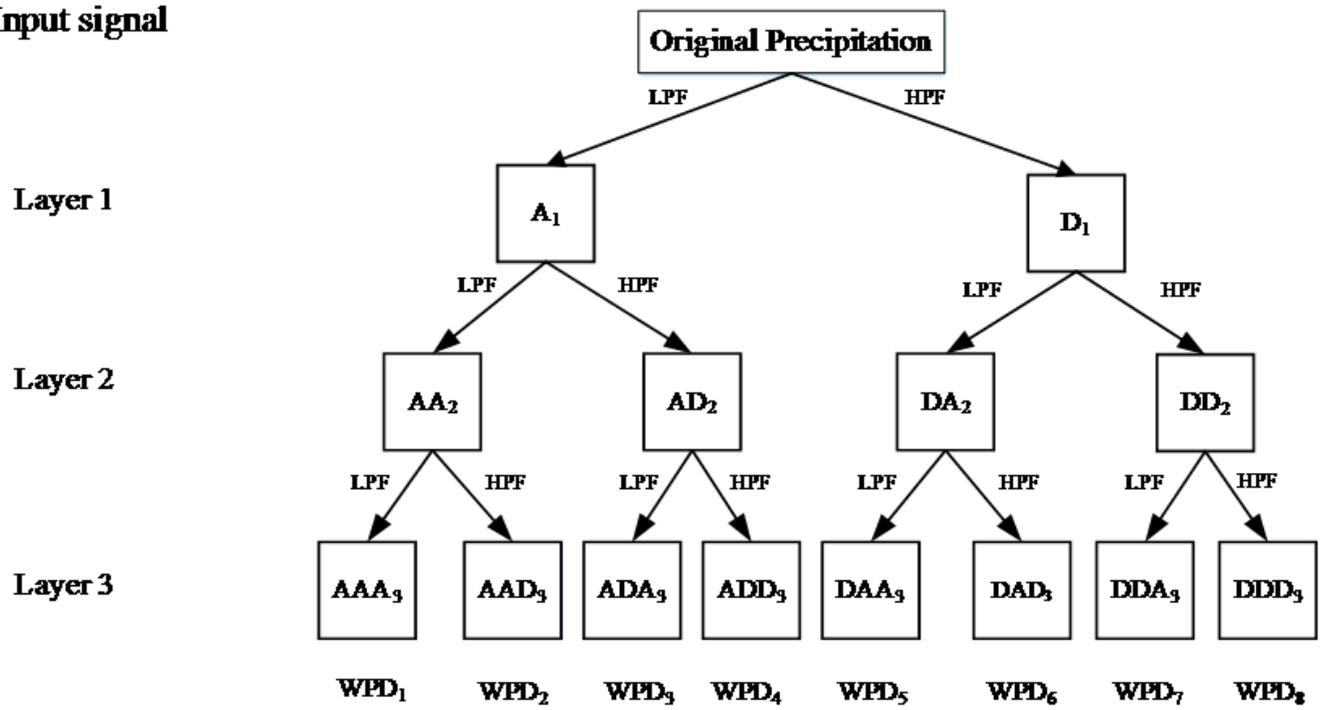


Figure 1

Sketch map of the WPD method.

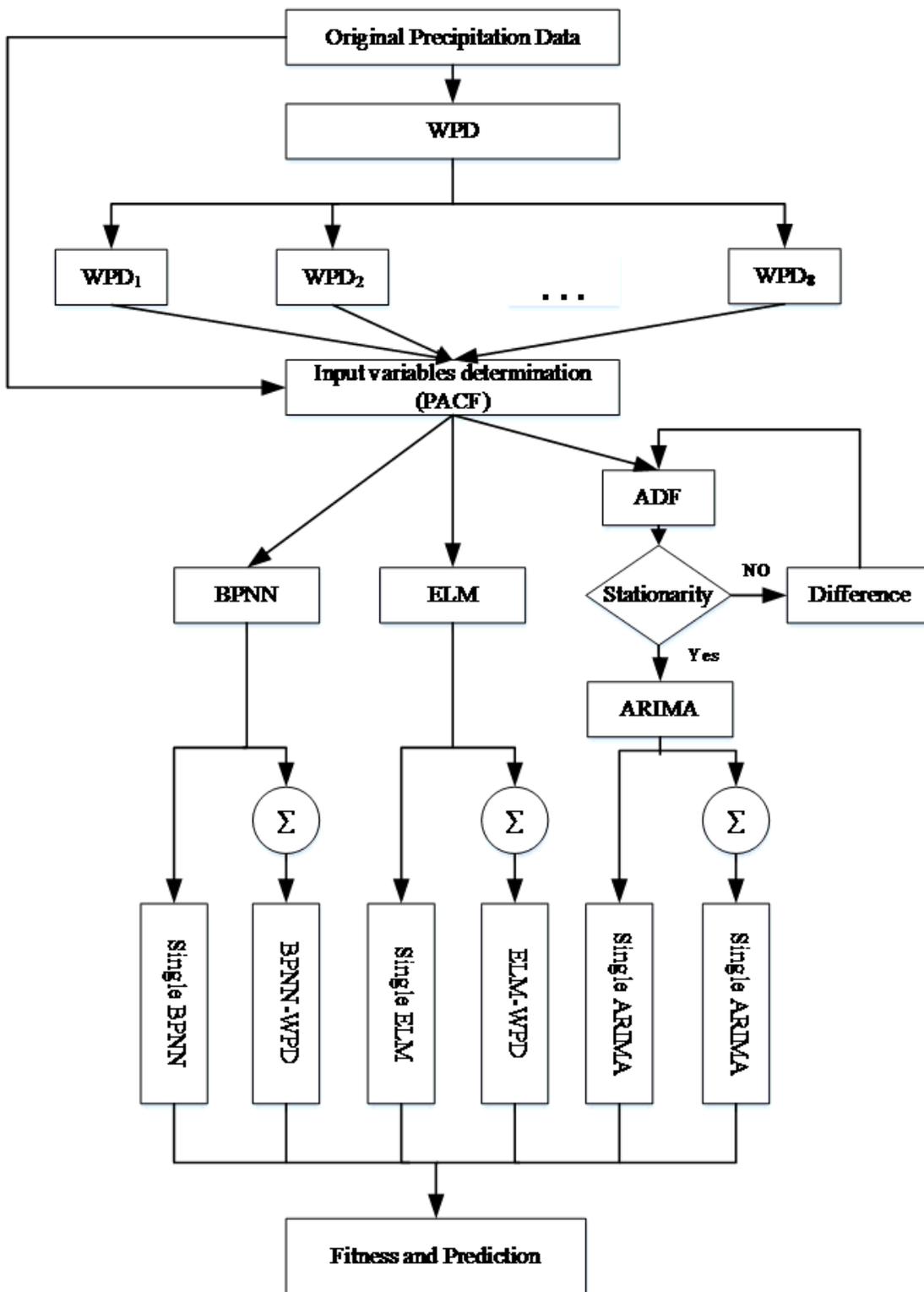
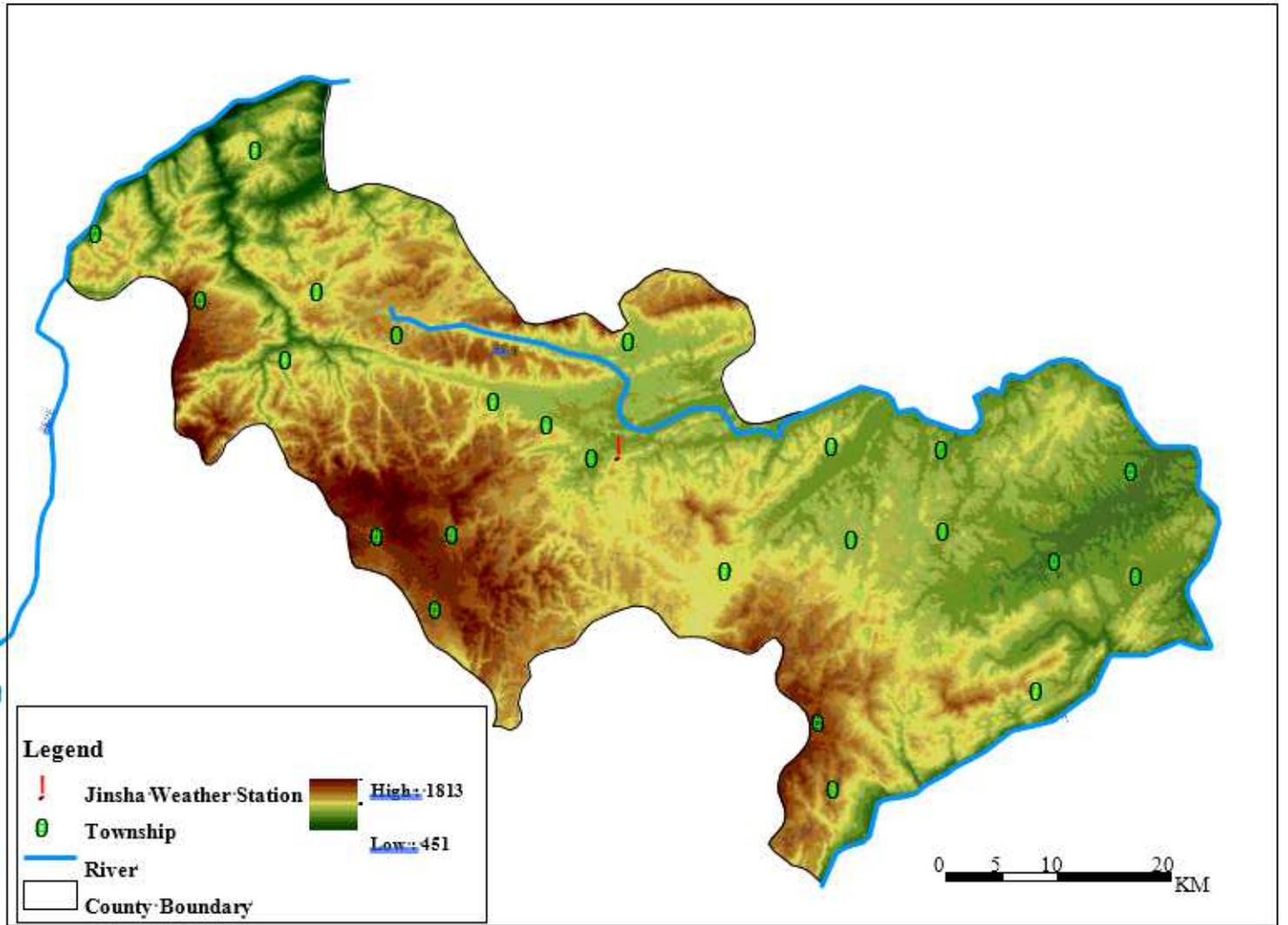


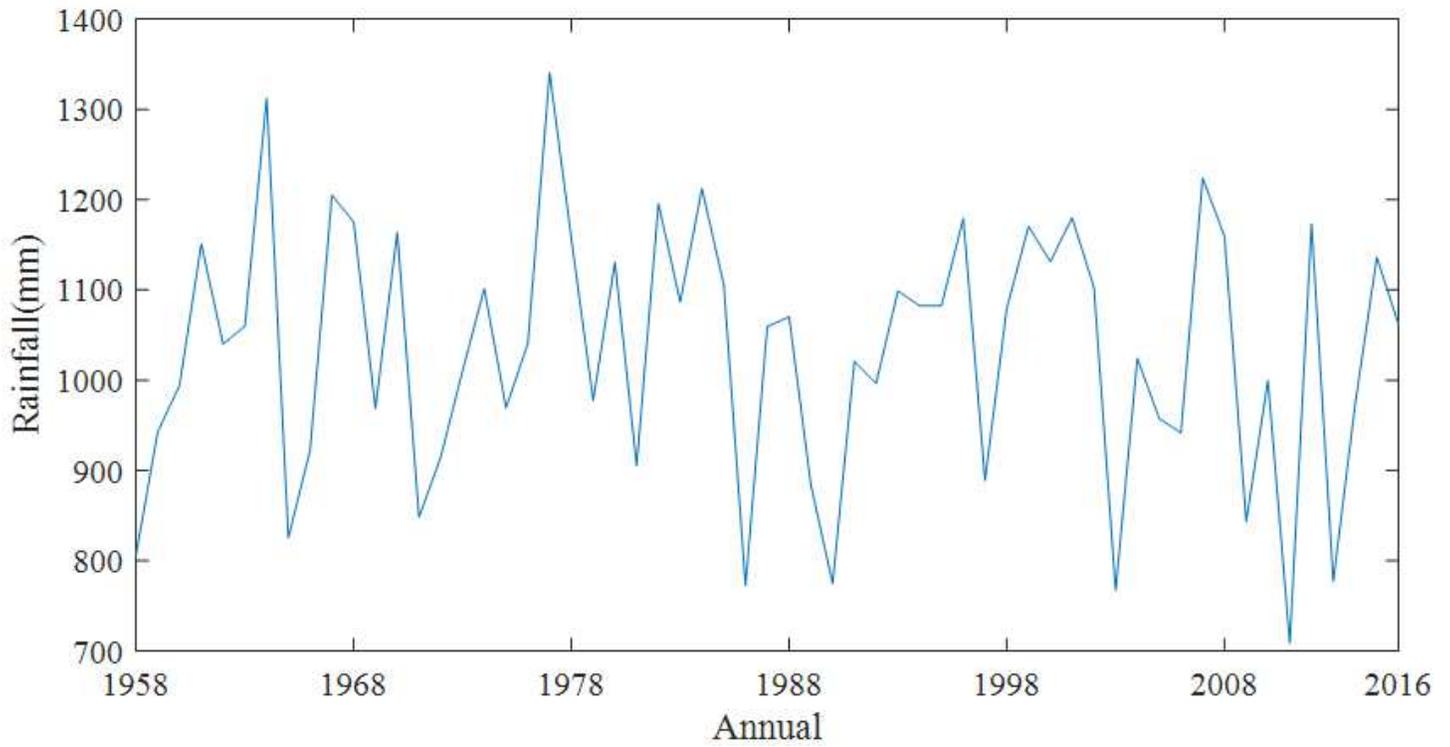
Figure 2

The framework of the proposed hybrid model.



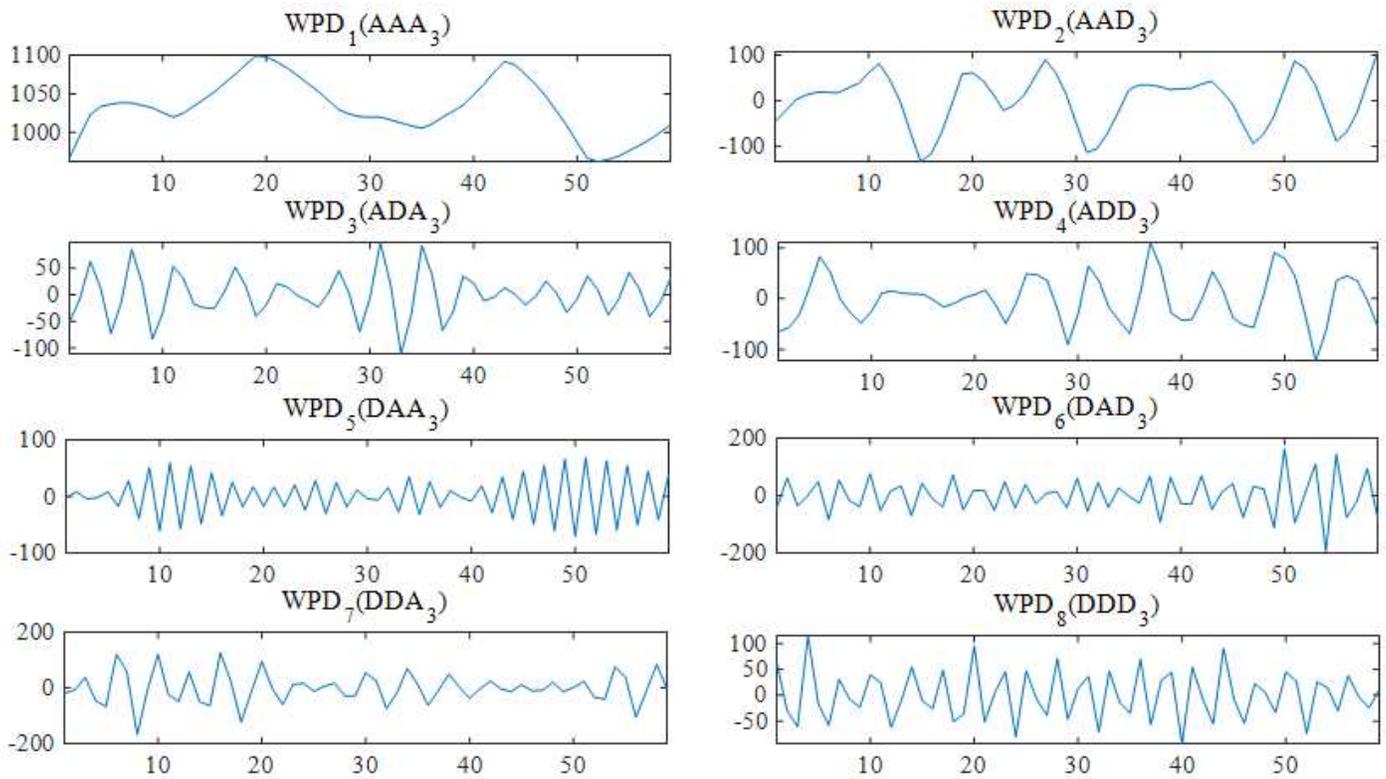
**Figure 3**

Study area and location of the Jinsha weather station. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



**Figure 4**

Annual rainfall time series in Jinsha station.



**Figure 5**

Decomposed results for annual rainfall in Jinsha station.

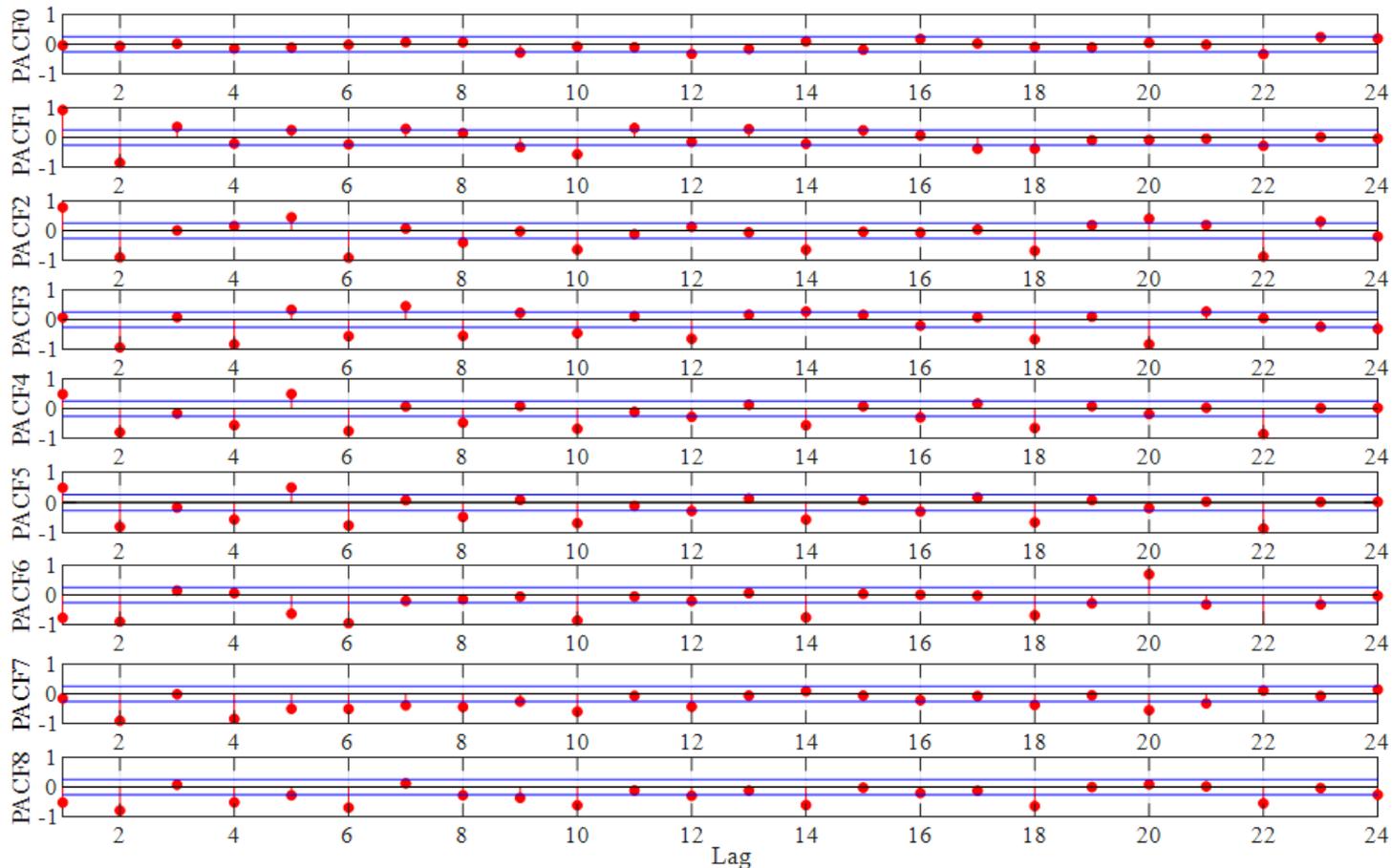
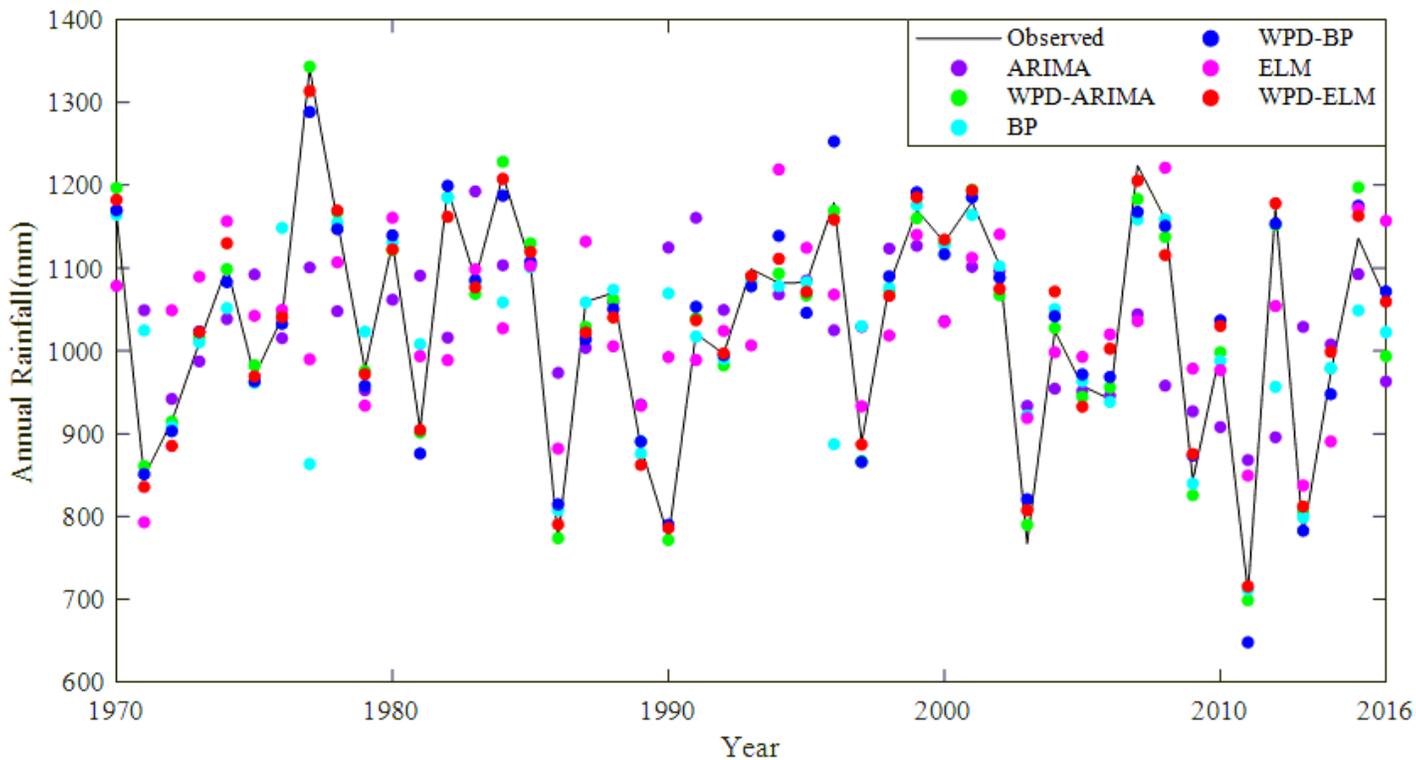


Figure 6

PACF values for all series.



## Figure 7

Observed and forecasted rainfall during training and testing period by six methods.