

# Application of Data-driven Deep Learning Model in Global Precipitation Forecasting

Wan Liu<sup>1,2</sup> and Yongqiang Wang<sup>1,2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Changjiang River Scientific Research Institute of Changjiang Water Resources Commission,  
23 Huangpu Street, Wuhan, China

<sup>2</sup>Hubei Provincial Key Laboratory of Basin Water Resources and Ecological Environment,  
23 Huangpu Street, Wuhan, China

**Keywords:** Precipitation Forecasting, Deep Learning, ConvLSTM, ConvGRU.

**Abstract:** With the improvement of data acquisition ability and the rapid increase of computer storage capacity and transmission rate, it is possible to solve the problem of precipitation prediction by using big data and deep learning. In this paper, the three most advanced deep learning models, namely Convolution model, ConvLSTM model and ConvGRU model, are applied to the study of precipitation prediction, and analyze the prediction ability of this method for global short-term precipitation. The experimental results show that the deep learning method can effectively predict global precipitation, and the correlation coefficient of precipitation prediction for the next 6 h is more than 0.75. The performance of convolution model is better when the prediction period is less than 12 h, Otherwise ConvLSTM model and ConvGRU model are more efficient. However, it is difficult to predict precipitation over northern Africa, the west coast of South America, the eastern coast of the South Pacific and the South Atlantic.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Precipitation has a great impact on human production and social development. In addition, precipitation is an important part of water resources ecosystem, and plays an important role in hydrology, meteorology, and other aspects. Short-term heavy rainfall is prone to flood, mudslides, urban waterlogging, and other disasters, resulting in casualties and property losses. Therefore, it is of great significance to forecast precipitation, especially extreme rainfall. Precipitation is the result of the interaction of multi-scale air system, which is affected by a variety of environmental factors. These complex physical mechanisms make it very difficult to predict precipitation (Tran, 2019, Song, 2019). At present, numerical model prediction (Simonin, et al., 2017, Bauer, et al., 2015) and echo extrapolation (Wang, et al., 2013, Ayzel, et al., 2019b) are the most commonly used methods in precipitation prediction. However, both have certain limitations for short-term forecasting (Bližňák, et al., 2017). Therefore, due to the complex dynamic changes of the atmosphere and the real-time requirements of short-term precipitation forecast, large-scale and high-precision forecast

models are urgently needed, which poses great challenges to the fields of meteorology and hydrology.

With the development of satellite and radar detection technology, a mass of earth system data can be obtained. Meanwhile, the rapid increase of computer storage capacity and transmission rate makes it possible to use big data and deep learning to solve the problem of short impending precipitation prediction (Song, et al., 2019, Su, et al., 2020, Qiu, et al., 2017). As a kind of nonlinear mathematical model driven by data, deep learning technology has excellent feature learning ability (Reichstein, et al., 2019). It can automatically learn massive data, consequently mine the inherent characteristics of data and the inherent physical laws. For the complex spatio-temporal dynamic system, without a complete understanding of its internal mechanism, the nonlinear characteristics of the complex atmospheric can be characterized by learning historical data through machine learning method even without using the mathematical and physical equations controlling the atmosphere. In recent years, artificial intelligence technology represented by deep learning has made major breakthroughs in image recognition,

nowcasting and other fields, and even surpassed the level of human intelligence in some tasks (LeCun, et al., 2015).

Precipitation forecast can be regarded as a spatio-temporal series prediction problem, which is to predict the spatial distribution of precipitation in the future on the premise of knowing the continuous spatial distribution of some variables in the past period (Shi, et al., 2015). Therefore, Recurrent neural network (RNN) (Wang, et al., 2021) which is good at learning temporal features of data, and Convolutional neural network (CNN) (Ayzel, et al., 2019a) which is good at extracting spatial features of data, are often used to study short-term precipitation forecast. (Klein et al., 2015) present Dynamic Convolutional Layer, which is a generalization of convolutional layer, and apply it to short range weather prediction. (Wang, et al. 2018) proposed a Memory in Memory (MIM) network for precipitation nowcasting. (Shi, et al., 2015) combined CNN and RNN for the first time and proposed a convolutional long short-term memory (ConvLSTM) model to perform precipitation nowcasting. Subsequently, (Shi, et al., 2017) further proposed Trajectory Gated Recurrent Unit (TrajGRU) model, which is more effective than Convolutional Gated Recurrent Unit (ConvGRU) (Ballas et al., 2015) in capturing temporal and spatial correlation. (Tian, et al., 2020) proposed a generative adversarial ConvGRU (GA-ConvGRU) model, which significantly outperforms ConvGRU.

In this work, we apply the deep learning model to the precipitation prediction project, using the most advanced convolution model, ConvLSTM model and ConvGRU model to achieve global precipitation forecast. Analyse and compare the advantages and disadvantages of the three models, and test their forecasting ability in different regions of the world.

## 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1 Data Collection and Pre-processing

The data used in this study are NCEP FNL Operational Global Analysis Data from 2015-2021, which is a global reanalysis data jointly produced by National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) and National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR). These data are from the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS), which continuously collects observational data from the Global Telecommunications System (GTS), and other sources, for many analyses. These data are on

1-degree by 1-degree grids prepared operationally every six hours.

We selected four meteorological variables associated with precipitation as predictors of the model, which are relative humidity ( $x_1$ ), temperature ( $x_2$ ), radial wind speed ( $x_3$ ) and zonal wind speed ( $x_4$ ) at 500 hPa height. Precipitation systems are often controlled by weather systems of 500 hPa. Relative humidity represents the moisture content of the precipitation system and is the most basic condition for the occurrence of precipitation. Temperature affects the internal energy of a precipitation system. Radial wind speed and zonal wind speed affects the direction and speed of precipitation system movement.

Data preprocessing is required for the predictors to be able to enter the model and predict precipitation effectively. Firstly, to save the training and prediction time of the model, the spatial resolution of the data including the predictors and precipitation data was compressed to 2 degrees. As the units and orders of magnitude of each predictor are different, data need to be normalized to achieve a unified dimension, cancel the difference of orders of magnitude between data, and avoid large network prediction errors caused by large difference of orders of magnitude between input and output data. One of the most commonly used data normalization methods is min-max normalization. It standardizes the data to between 0 and 1. The normalization formula of min-max is as follows:

$$x^* = \frac{x - x_{\min}}{x_{\max} - x_{\min}} \quad (1)$$

Where,  $x$  represents a value in the sequence of primitive variables,  $x^*$  represents the normalized value of  $x$ ,  $x_{\max}$  and  $x_{\min}$  represent the maximum and minimum values in variables, respectively.

Subsequently, all predictors at the same time were spliced together to form a tensor  $X$  with a size of (90, 180, 4). Data were sampled according to the time sequence to obtain the input samples  $\{X_{t-7}, \dots, X_{t-1}, X_t\}$  at time  $t$ , where  $X_{t-1}$  and  $X_t$  are a group of predictors with a time interval of 6 hours. Similarly, sample output  $\{Y_t, Y_{t+1}, Y_{t+2}, Y_{t+3}\}$  corresponding to sample input at time  $t$  can be obtained, where  $Y_t$  is the precipitation in the next 6 hours starting from time  $t$ .

### 2.2 Deep Learning Model for Precipitation Forecasting

Deep learning methods for precipitation forecasting usually need to consider the temporal and spatial

correlation of data, therefore the commonly used models are Convolution model, ConvLSTM model and ConvGRU model. From the spatial viewpoint, P observations of weather system at same time over a spatial region with an  $M \times N$  grid can be treated as a tensor  $x \in \mathbf{R}^{P \times M \times N}$ . From the temporal viewpoint, a sequence of tensors  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_t$  can be obtained by collecting observations at fixed time intervals over time. Thus, this precipitation nowcasting problem can be illustrated as:

$$\hat{Y}_1, \dots, \hat{Y}_{t+L} = \underset{Y_1, \dots, Y_{t+L}}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(Y_1, \dots, Y_{t+L} | X_{t-K+1}, \dots, X_t) \quad (2)$$

Where,  $\{X_{t-K+1}, \dots, X_t\}$  is the historical observation sequence data of length K, and  $\{Y_t, \dots, Y_{t+L}\}$  is the predicted precipitation sequence data of length L in the future.

For Convolution model, since the 2D convolution model cannot capture the information on the time sequence well, the 3D convolution model is adopted. Model regards the time dimension as the third dimension and forms a cube by stacking multiple consecutive frames to calculate the 3D convolution in the cube. The 3D convolution formula is as follows:

$$Y = \sigma(W * X + b) \quad (3)$$

Where,  $\sigma$  represents the Sigmoid activation function,  $W$  represents the convolution kernel,  $*$  represents the convolution operator, and  $b$  represents the offset.

ConvLSTM model, Shi et al proposed, combines convolutional neural network with LSTM to determine the future state of a cell by its adjacent input units and past states. The input in LSTM model is extended to three dimensions, and the state-to-state and input-to-state are realized by convolution layer. The calculation formula of ConvLSTM is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} i_t &= \sigma(W_{xi} * x_t + W_{hi} * h_{t-1} + W_{ci} \circ c_{t-1} + b_i) \\ f_t &= \sigma(W_{xf} * x_t + W_{hf} * h_{t-1} + W_{cf} \circ c_{t-1} + b_f) \\ o_t &= \sigma(W_{xo} * x_t + W_{ho} * h_{t-1} + W_{co} \circ c_{t-1} + b_o) \\ c_t &= f_t \circ c_{t-1} + i_t \circ \tanh(W_{xc} * x_t + W_{hc} * h_{t-1} + b_c) \\ h_t &= o_t \circ \tanh(c_t) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Where,  $x_t, h_t$  and  $c_t$  represent the inputs, hidden states, and unit outputs respectively,  $i_t, f_t$  and  $o_t$  represent the three gate controls, and  $\circ$  represents the Hadamard product.

ConvGRU network is ConvLSTM network variant. ConvGRU has fewer parameters and faster training convergence time than ConvLSTM, because ConvGRU controls the information flow and removes the memory unit by two gates, the update and reset gates, while ConvLSTM has three gates. The main formulas are given as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} z_t &= s(W_{xz} * x_t + W_{hz} * h_{t-1}) \\ r_t &= s(W_{xr} * x_t + W_{hr} * h_{t-1}) \\ h'_t &= f(W_{xh} * x_t + r_t \circ (W_{hh} * h_{t-1})) \\ h_t &= (1 - z_t) \circ h'_t + z_t \circ h_{t-1} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Where,  $f$  is the activation function,  $h_t, z_t, r_t$ , and  $h'_t$  are the memory state, update gate, reset gate, and new information, respectively. The reset gate is used to control the previous timestamp state  $h_{t-1}$  into the ConvGRU. The update gate controls the extent to which the previous timestamp state  $h_{t-1}$  and the new input  $h'_t$  affect the new state vector  $h_t$ .

### 2.3 Model Structure

The model structure includes three parts: data dimension reduction, sequence prediction and feature reconstruction. Firstly, there are three convolution layers, each of which has 16, 32, 32 convolution kernels respectively. The maximum pooling layers are added after the last two convolution layers to reduce data dimension. The sequence prediction part has 6 layers, and each layer has 64 convolution kernels. For the convolution model, layers are convolution networks. For ConvLSTM and ConvGRU, the ConvLSTM networks or ConvGRU networks. Finally, there are 4 convolution layers, with 32, 16, 3 and 1 convolution kernel respectively. Upsampling layers are added after the first two convolution layers to restore the data. In addition, batch normalization layer (BN) was added after each convolutional layer and ConvLSTM layer to speed up the training process and improve performance. The size of all 3D convolution kernels in the model is (3,3,3). The convolution kernels of ConvLSTM and ConvGRU are (5,5). The model structure of ConvLSTM model is shown in Figure 1.

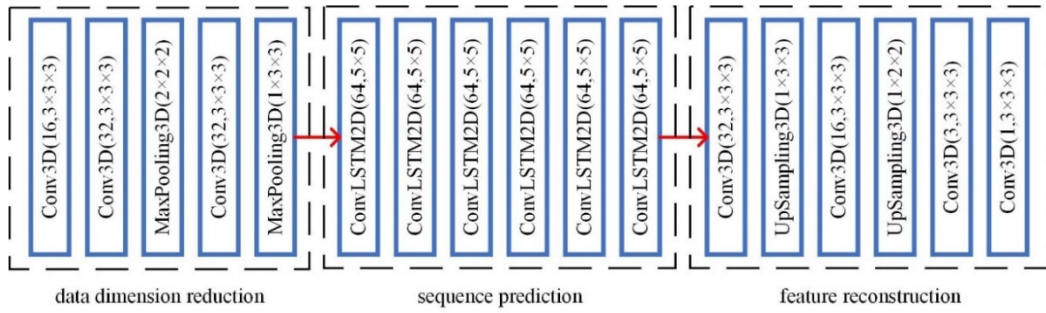


Figure 1: The model structure of ConvLSTM model.

### 3 EXPERIMENTS

#### 3.1 Evaluation Methods

In this paper, we use root mean square error (RMSE) and correlation coefficient (CC) to evaluate the accuracy of the model. The calculation formula of RMSE and correlation coefficient is as follows:

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y'_i)^2} \quad (6)$$

$$CC = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(y'_i - \bar{y}')}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y'_i - \bar{y}')^2}} \quad (7)$$

Where,  $y_i$  and  $y'_i$  are measured value and model predicted value respectively,  $\bar{y}$  and  $\bar{y}'$  are measured average value and model predicted average value respectively, and  $n$  is the number of samples. The larger CC value is, the higher the positive correlation between  $y$  and  $y'$  is, the better the prediction effect is.

In addition, to analyze the impact of the model on rainstorm forecast, a precipitation threshold  $k$  was set, and the samples were classified according to the relationship among observed precipitation, predicted precipitation and threshold, as shown in Table 1. According to the successful prediction times (A), empty prediction times (B) and prediction failure times (C), the commonly used evaluation indexes of precipitation prediction such as critical success index (CSI), false alarm rate (FAR) and probability of detection (POD) were obtained to evaluate the effect of the model. The calculation formula of CSI, FAR and POD is as follows:

$$CSI = \frac{A}{A+B+C} \quad (8)$$

$$FAR = \frac{B}{A+B} \quad (9)$$

$$POD = \frac{A}{A+C} \quad (10)$$

Table 1: Test index classification table of precipitation nowcasting.

| Observed Value | predicted value           |                       |
|----------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|
|                | $\geq k$                  | $< k$                 |
| $\geq k$       | A (successful prediction) | C (missed prediction) |
| $< k$          | B (empty prediction)      | D (invalid data)      |

#### 3.2 Results

We chose three deep learning models to conduct precipitation prediction experiments, namely, convolution model, ConvLSTM model and ConvGRU model. The RMSE and CC of the predicted results are shown in Table 2. Set the threshold value  $k = 0.5$  mm and  $k = 3$  mm to calculate the evaluation indexes of precipitation forecast, including CSI, FAR and POD. The results are shown in Table 3.

As shown in Table 2, the application of deep learning model to precipitation forecast projects can achieve good performance, and the forecast accuracy will decrease with the increase of forecast period. Correlation coefficient of results in the first 6 hours are all greater than 0.75 and RMSE are all less than 1.395 mm. The RMSE and CC of the ConvLSTM and ConvGRU models are always very similar, nevertheless the ConvGRU model had fewer parameters and faster training and prediction times. When the prediction period is less than 12 h, the performance of the convolution model is the best. While the prediction period is more than 12 h, ConvLSTM and ConvGRU models are superior to Convolution model due to the weak time correlation extraction ability of the Convolution model.

Table 2: The RMSE and CC of the predicted results.

| Model             | 6 h          |              | 12 h         |              | 18 h         |              | 24 h         |              |
|-------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
|                   | RMSE         | CC           | RMSE         | CC           | RMSE         | CC           | RMSE         | CC           |
| Convolution model | <b>1.345</b> | <b>0.785</b> | <b>1.389</b> | <b>0.750</b> | 1.448        | 0.697        | 1.492        | 0.648        |
| ConvLSTM model    | 1.384        | 0.755        | 1.401        | 0.742        | <b>1.428</b> | 0.713        | <b>1.459</b> | 0.683        |
| ConvGRU model     | 1.395        | 0.750        | 1.405        | 0.740        | 1.431        | <b>0.717</b> | 1.461        | <b>0.685</b> |

Table 3: The evaluation indexes of predicted results.

| Model             | $k = 0.5 \text{ mm}$ |              |              | $k = 3 \text{ mm}$ |              |              |
|-------------------|----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------------|--------------|--------------|
|                   | CSI                  | FAR          | CSI          | FAR                | CSI          | FAR          |
| Convolution model | 0.546                | 0.402        | 0.546        | 0.402              | 0.546        | 0.402        |
| ConvLSTM model    | <b>0.576</b>         | 0.335        | <b>0.576</b> | 0.335              | <b>0.576</b> | 0.335        |
| ConvGRU model     | 0.572                | <b>0.327</b> | 0.572        | <b>0.327</b>       | 0.572        | <b>0.327</b> |

We chose three deep learning models to conduct precipitation prediction experiments, namely, convolution model, ConvLSTM model and ConvGRU model. The RMSE and CC of the predicted results are shown in Table 2. Set the threshold value  $k = 0.5 \text{ mm}$  and  $k = 3 \text{ mm}$  to calculate the evaluation indexes of precipitation forecast, including CSI, FAR and POD. The results are shown in Table 3.

As shown in Table 2, the application of deep learning model to precipitation forecast projects can achieve good performance, and the forecast accuracy will decrease with the increase of forecast period. Correlation coefficient of results in the first 6 hours are all greater than 0.75 and RMSE are all less than 1.395 mm. The RMSE and CC of the ConvLSTM and ConvGRU models are always very similar, nevertheless the ConvGRU model had fewer parameters and faster training and prediction times. When the prediction period is less than 12 h, the performance of the convolution model is the best. While the prediction period is more than 12 h, ConvLSTM and ConvGRU models are superior to Convolution model due to the weak time correlation extraction ability of the Convolution model.

As shown in Table 3, when  $k = 0.5 \text{ mm}$ , the evaluation index scores of the three deep learning models have their own advantages and disadvantages. The highest CSI score of ConvLSTM model is 0.576, the lowest FAR score of ConvGRU model is 0.327, and the highest POD score of Convolution model is 0.863. The POD scores of the three models are all higher than 0.8, but the CSI scores are only slightly higher than 0.5, indicating that the missed times of

the model are far less than the number of successful predictions and the number of empty predictions. When  $k = 3 \text{ mm}$ , the performance of evaluation indexes of each model decreased significantly, especially POD scores.

To further analyze the forecasting ability of the deep learning model for global precipitation, the precipitation data was compressed again and the correlation coefficients of the forecast results at each grid were calculated respectively, shown in Figure 2. Overall, the correlation coefficients in most regions of the world are above 0.75, particularly in 30°S-60°S and the West Pacific coast. However, the prediction effect is very poor in part of the areas, and even the correlation coefficient is less than zero, such as the Antarctic region, near the equator, northern Africa and so on.

The Antarctic region has little precipitation due to low temperatures, and forecasts of precipitation don't make much sense. The Sahara Desert is located in the north of Africa, and the special surface conditions have a great impact on precipitation. However, the model does not take the surface variables as a predictor, so the performance of the model in this region is not good. The conditions that affect precipitation systems are complex around the equator so that it's difficult to predict under global models. Especially the west coast of South America and the east coast of the South Pacific exists El Nino phenomenon. If this area is forecasted separately, the effect may be improved effectively. In addition, there is a poor forecast in the east coast of South America, the southern Atlantic region.



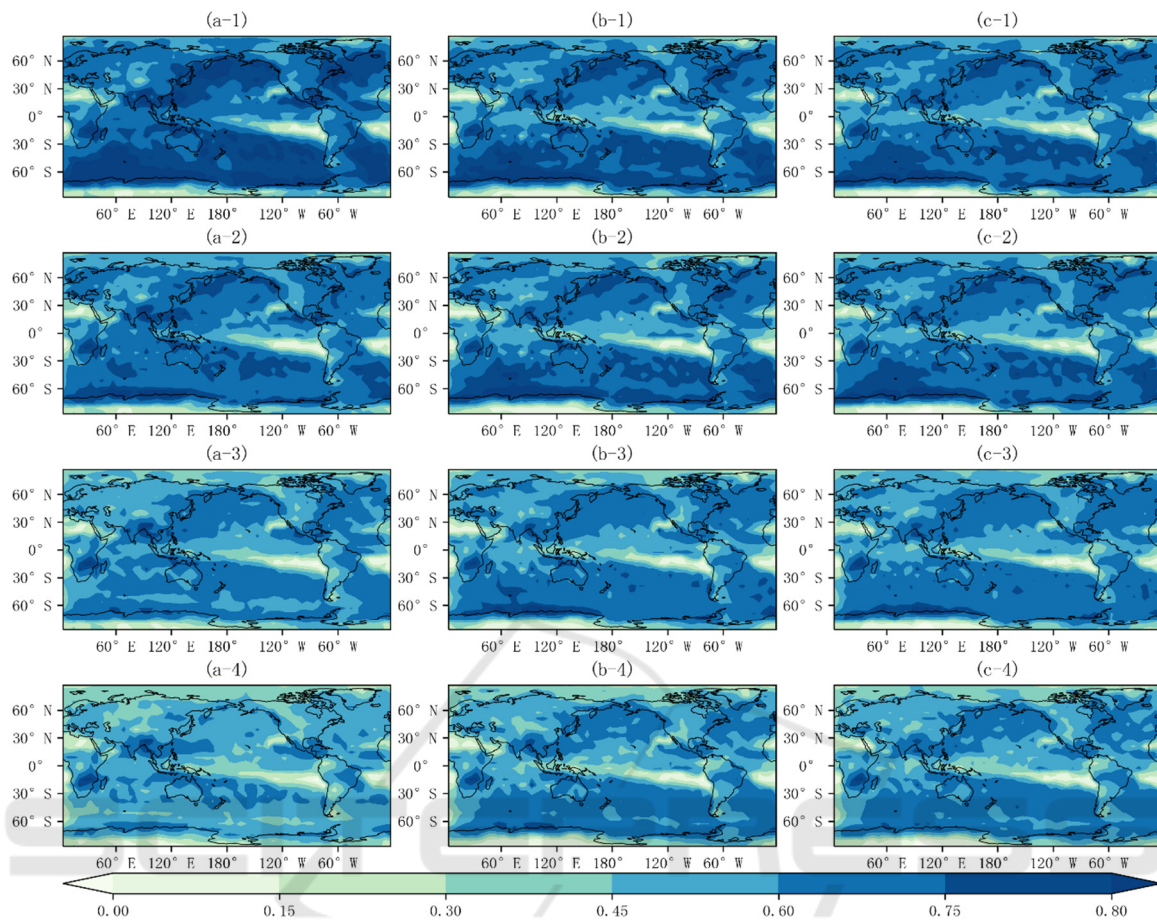


Figure 2: The correlation coefficients of the forecast results at each grid. From left to right, models are (a) Convolution model, (b) ConvLSTM model, (c) ConvGRU model; from top to bottom, the prediction period are (1) 6 h, (2) 12 h, (3) 18 h, and (4) 24 h.

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

We introduced the deep learning model into the precipitation forecast project, using the most advanced convolution model, ConvLSTM model and ConvGRU model to achieve global precipitation forecast. Experimental results show that the overall forecasting performance of the data-driven method is excellent. The convolution model has better prediction results for short-term precipitation. ConvLSTM and ConvGRU models are more effective in long-term forecasting. In addition, this method has strong forecasting ability in 30°S-60°S and the West Pacific Coast. But in North Africa, the west coast of South America, the east coast of the South Pacific, the South Atlantic, this method is completely unavailable.

In the future, we plan to further study the application of deep learning in precipitation prediction and try different network structures and loss functions to achieve better forecast performance and faster computational efficiency. Meanwhile, the study focuses on the influence factors of precipitation in the west coast of South America, the east coast of the South Pacific and the South Atlantic region, and finds out the specific reasons for the difficulty of forecast in this region, to realize the precipitation forecast in complex areas.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was financially supported by the Key Research and Development Program of Ningxia (2020BCF01002), Water Resource Science and

Technology Innovation Program of Guangdong Province (2017-03), National Natural Science Foundation of China (51779013, U2040212), Fundamental Research Funds for Central Public Welfare Research Institutes (CKSF2021486/SZ, CKSF2019478/SZ), and National Public Research Institutes for Basic R & D Operating Expenses Special Project (CKSF2017061/SZ).

## REFERENCES

- Ayzel, G., Heistermann, M., Sorokin, A., Nikitin, O. and Lukyanova, O. (2019a). All convolutional neural networks for radar-based precipitation nowcasting. *Procedia Computer Science*. 150, 186-192.
- Ayzel, G., Heistermann, M. and Winterrath, T. (2019b). Optical flow models as an open benchmark for radar-based precipitation nowcasting (rainymotion v0.1). *Geoscientific Model Development*. 12(4), 1387-1402.
- Ballas, N., Yao, L., Pal, C. and Courville, A. (2015). Delving Deeper into Convolutional Networks for Learning Video Representations. arXiv:1511.06432.
- Bauer, P., Thorpe, A. and Brunet, G. (2015). The quiet revolution of numerical weather prediction. *Nature*. 525(7567), 47-55.
- Bližňák, V., Sokol, Z. and Zacharov, P. (2017). Nowcasting of deep convective clouds and heavy precipitation: Comparison study between NWP model simulation and extrapolation. *Atmospheric Research*. 184, 24-34.
- Klein, B., Wolf, L. and Afek, Y. 2015. A Dynamic Convolutional Layer for short rangeweather prediction. In *2015 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 4840-4848.
- LeCun, Y., Bengio, Y. and Hinton, G. (2015). Deep learning. *Nature*. 521(7553), 436-44.
- Qiu, M., Zhao, P., Zhang, K., Huang, J., Shi, X., Wang, X. and Chu, W. 2017. A Short-Term Rainfall Prediction Model Using Multi-task Convolutional Neural Networks. In *2017 IEEE International Conference on Data Mining (ICDM)*, pages 395-404.
- Reichstein, M., Camps-Valls, G., Stevens, B., Jung, M., Denzler, J., Carvalhais, N. and Prabhat (2019). Deep learning and process understanding for data-driven Earth system science. *Nature*. 566(7743), 195-204.
- Shi, X., Chen, Z., Wang, H., Yeung, D.-Y., Wong, W.-k. and Woo, W.-c. (2015). Convolutional LSTM Network: A Machine Learning Approach for Precipitation Nowcasting. arXiv:1506.04214.
- Shi, X., Gao, Z., Lausen, L., Wang, H., Yeung, D.-Y., Wong, W.-k. and Woo, W.-c. (2017). Deep Learning for Precipitation Nowcasting: A Benchmark and A New Model. arXiv:1706.03458.
- Simonin, D., Pierce, C., Roberts, N., Ballard, S. P. and Li, Z. (2017). Performance of Met Office hourly cycling NWP-based nowcasting for precipitation forecasts. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*. 143(708), 2862-2873.
- Song, K., Yang, G., Wang, Q., Xu, C., Liu, J., Liu, W., Shi, C., Wang, Y., Zhang, G., Yu, X., Gu, Z. and Zhang, W. 2019. Deep Learning Prediction of Incoming Rainfalls: An Operational Service for the City of Beijing China. In *2019 International Conference on Data Mining Workshops (ICDMW)*, pages 180-185.
- Su, A., Li, H., Cui, L. and Chen, Y. (2020). A Convection Nowcasting Method Based on Machine Learning. *Advances in Meteorology*. 2020, 1-13.
- Tian, L., Li, X., Ye, Y., Xie, P. and Li, Y. 2020. A Generative Adversarial Gated Recurrent Unit Model for Precipitation Nowcasting. In *IEEE Geoscience and Remote Sensing Letters*, pages 601-605.
- Tran, Q.-K. and Song, S.-k. (2019). Computer Vision in Precipitation Nowcasting: Applying Image Quality Assessment Metrics for Training Deep Neural Networks. *Atmosphere*. 10(5).
- Wang, G., Wong, W., Liu, L. and Wang, H. (2013). Application of multi-scale tracking radar echoes scheme in quantitative precipitation nowcasting. *Advances in Atmospheric Sciences*. 30(2), 448-460.
- Wang, Y., Wu, H., Zhang, J., Gao, Z., Wang, J., Yu, P. S. and Long, M. (2021). PredRNN: A Recurrent Neural Network for Spatiotemporal Predictive Learning. arXiv:2103.09504.
- Wang, Y., Zhang, J., Zhu, H., Long, M., Wang, J. and Yu, P. S. (2018). Memory In Memory: A Predictive Neural Network for Learning Higher-Order Non-Stationarity from Spatiotemporal Dynamics. arXiv:1811.07490.