

1 **Comparing skill of historical rainfall data based monsoon rainfall prediction**
2 **in India with NWP forecasts**

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9 ABSTRACT: We consider the problem of forecasting rainfall across India during the four monsoon
10 months, one day as well as three days in advance. We train neural networks using historical daily
11 gridded precipitation data for India obtained from IMD for the time period 1901 – 2023, at spatial
12 resolutions of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ as well as $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$. Additional weather variables from ECMWF
13 (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) reanalysis data, including cloud cover,
14 humidity, temperature, soil moisture, vorticity, and wind speed, are also incorporated into the
15 models. The forecasts from these models at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ are compared with the numerical weather
16 prediction (NWP) forecasts obtained from ECMWF HRES (High Resolution Ensemble System),
17 and at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ with those from NCEP (National Centre for Environmental Prediction) available
18 for the period 2011-2023. We conduct a detailed country wide analysis, as well as, separately
19 analyze some of the most populated cities in India. Our conclusion is that forecasts obtained by
20 applying transformer-based and other deep learning methods to historical rainfall data and other
21 weather variables are more accurate compared to NWP forecasts as well as predictions based on
22 persistence. Specifically, our forecasts are better than HRES forecasts and significantly outperform
23 NCEP forecasts. On average, compared to our predictions, forecasts from HRES and NCEP model
24 have about 22% and 43% higher error, respectively, for a single day prediction, and over 27%
25 and 66% higher error respectively, for a three day prediction. Similarly, persistence estimates
26 report a 40% higher error in a single day forecast, and over 69% error in a three day forecast. We
27 observe that deep learning based forecasts also exhibit a better balance of tracking heavy rainfall
28 and giving false positives compared to other methods. We further observe that data up to 20 days
29 in the past is useful in reducing errors of one and three day forecasts, when a transformer based
30 learning architecture, and to a lesser extent when an LSTM is used. Reassuringly, this information
31 in the past data is more pronounced for landlocked regions compared to coastal ones. A key
32 conclusion suggested by our analysis is that NWP forecasts can be substantially improved through
33 more and diverse data relevant to monsoon prediction combined with carefully selected neural
34 network architecture.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Accurate rainfall prediction in India during monsoons is crucial for a variety of reasons -
37 for agriculture planning, disaster management, day to day transportation planning and so on.
38 Anecdotally, it is well known that international numerical weather predictors (NWP) do not perform
39 well in rainfall prediction for India (see Rajeevan (23-12-2023)). It is also conjectured that during
40 monsoons, rainfall data across India has spatial-temporal memory so that information on rainfall
41 early on in neighbouring parts may be useful for future rainfall prediction (see Goswami and Xavier
42 (2003)). Moreover, rainfall has been shown to be also affected by a variety of other atmospheric,
43 land and ocean variables (Prasad and Singh 1988), such as temperature, wind, soil moisture, etc.

44 In this paper, we consider daily gridded precipitation data from India Meteorological Department
45 (IMD) (Pai et al. 2014) available from 1901 - 2023, at a spatial resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$, as well
46 as $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ (each degree roughly corresponds to 111 km). We use this to predict rainfall for all of
47 India, one day as well as three days into the future. We also use daily atmospheric and land data
48 as additional covariates in an attempt to improve our forecasts. We compare our performance with
49 operational NWP forecasts including HRES-IFS (High Resolution Integrated Forecast System)
50 from ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) (ECMWF 2021), and
51 those from NCEP (National Centre for Environmental Prediction), see (Copernicus Climate Change
52 Service 2018). HRES is widely regarded as the top operational weather forecasting system in the
53 world (Lam et al. 2023). NCEP is used as it forms the base model for IMD Global Forecasting
54 System (see (IMD 19-04-2017))

55 We compare and contrast the deep-learning based forecasts generated using historical rainfall
56 data from IMD (referred to as DL-HD forecasts) and the forecasts generated using IMD rainfall
57 data and additional covariates (called DL-HD+Covariates), with the NCEP-NWP and HRES-NWP
58 forecasts. In an attempt to arrive at improved forecasts, we also combine the NWP forecasts with
59 DL-HD+Covariates using a simple neural network, to generate ensemble forecasts. Much of the
60 rainfall in India occurs during the four monsoon months June, July, August and September (JJAS),
61 and we focus our forecasts on these. The results for experiments at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ resolution are given in
62 the Appendix. All our experiments involving deep learning are transformer based, except in Figure
63 9, where we compare the performance of transformer based DL-HD forecasts with LSTM-based
64 forecasts.

65 Our key observations based on forecasts for all of India as well as for 20 most populated cities,
66 are:

- 67 1. Both HRES-NWP and NCEP-NWP forecasts exhibit higher errors compared to those based
68 on historical rainfall data (DL-HD forecasts) and those incorporating additional covariates
69 (DL-HD + Covariates). Across all of India, HRES-NWP forecasts show 22% and 27.2%
70 higher errors for 1-day and 3-day forecasts, respectively, compared to DL-HD + Covariates.
71 Similarly, NCEP-NWP forecasts have 43.2% and 65.9% higher errors for 1-day and 3-day
72 predictions, respectively. The results for 1-day and 3-day predictions over India are detailed
73 in Tables 2 and 3 respectively for 0.25° resolution, and in Tables A1 and A2 respectively for
74 1° resolution.
- 75 2. Forecasts based on persistence (where the rainfall observed on a given day is the forecast
76 for rainfall the next day, as well as the next three days) perform poorly for all over India.
77 Persistence estimates for all of India on average, compared to DL-HD + Covariates, report
78 39.3% higher error in a single day forecast, and 69.5% error in a three day forecast.
- 79 3. We also test to see if DL-HD+Covariates forecasts can be combined with NWP forecasts to
80 arrive at further improvements in our predictions. While the overall improvement in terms of
81 error is only marginal, in some cities we see that the ensemble performs better.
- 82 4. We compare the ability of different forecasts to warn of heavy rainfall (if the actual rainfall
83 in a day was above 30 mm and the forecast was higher than 10 mm) as well as to raise false
84 alarms (if the forecast was above 30 mm and the actual rainfall was less than 10 mm). For
85 3-day forecasts, the lower and upper thresholds are 20 mm and 60 mm, respectively. These
86 thresholds could not be made higher as the amount of data available was insufficient for
87 higher values in most regions. We find that while HRES-NWP forecasts show a balanced
88 performance with 81.9% accuracy for heavy rainfall prediction and a 41.2% false alarm rate,
89 NCEP-NWP forecasts tend to overestimate 1-day rainfall. This results in a higher accuracy
90 for heavy rainfall prediction at 83.9% but a poorer performance on the false alarm metric
91 at 43.2%. In contrast, DL-HD + Covariates reports the smallest false alarm rate of 27.1%
92 while still maintaining a high rate of heavy rainfall prediction at 82.2%. They also show a
93 high correlation of 0.82 with the IMD ground truth data. For 3-day forecasts, the ensemble of

94 DL-HD + Covariates and NWP outperforms the other models both in heavy rainfall prediction
95 accuracy (74.8%) and in minimizing false alarms, with a 37.4% miss rate. These results are
96 detailed in Table 6 for experiments at 0.25° resolution, and in Table A3 for 1° resolution.

- 97 5. We also analyze the results for the 20 most populated cities in India. We find that DL-
98 HD+Covariates performs slightly better in these cities compared to its performance across the
99 entire country. On average, in these cities, HRES and NCEP report 27.8% and 46% higher
100 errors, respectively, than forecasts from DL-HD + Covariates for a single-day prediction. For
101 a 3-day prediction, HRES and NCEP report 28.4% and 47.2% higher errors, respectively.
102 The results for these select cities are given in Tables 4 and 5 for 1-day and 3-day predictions
103 respectively, for 0.25° resolution, and Tables A4 and A5 for 1° resolution.
- 104 6. Rainfall in India, as recorded by IMD, may exhibit long-term memory. We observe that
105 forecasts improve as the historical rainfall data context increases from 3 to 20 days, particularly
106 when using the transformer-based learning architecture. The improvement is less pronounced
107 when Long-Short Term Memory (LSTM) networks are used. Additionally, the long-term
108 memory effect is evident for key cities in India. Specifically, forecasts for landlocked cities
109 and region improve as the past data context increases to about 20 days, whereas there is no
110 significant improvement for coastal regions. This is illustrated in Figures 9 and 10.

111 *Literature Review*

112 Several attempts have been made to predict rainfall using machine learning (ML) techniques. For
113 long-range forecasting of monsoon rainfall in India, Rajeevan et al. (Rajeevan et al. 2000, 2007)
114 employed a host of methods such as multivariate principal component regression, simple neural
115 networks, linear discriminant analysis, ensemble multiple linear regression and projection pursuit
116 regression. They used multimodal data such as air temperature, sea surface temperature, rainfall,
117 air pressure etc. These developments helped support IMD's two-stage monsoon forecasting system
118 with the first stage forecast given in mid April and an updated second stage forecast given at the
119 end of June.

120 Kumar et al. (Kumar et al. 2021) conducted a comparative analysis of LSTM models trained using
121 ground-based IMD rainfall data and satellite data from the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission
122 for Indian summer monsoon rainfall. They showed correlation coefficients between the observed

123 and predicted rainfall of 0.67 for 1 day and 0.42 for 2 day lead time, respectively, indicating a
124 reasonable skill in short-range precipitation forecasting. However, they observe that the model's
125 efficiency quickly goes down after 2 days lead time.

126 Another line of work studies oscillations of weather elements (such as dry spells and active spells
127 of rain, and periods of high and low pressures and temperatures) in monsoons. Goswami and
128 Xavier (Goswami and Xavier 2003) showed that it is possible to predict dry spells (i.e., periods of
129 scanty rains) in monsoons with a significantly higher lead time of 18 days as compared to 10 days
130 for active spells (i.e., periods of abundant rains). Goswami et al. (Goswami et al. 2006) found a
131 physical mechanism linking Atlantic climate and monsoon, discovering the influence of Atlantic
132 weather oscillations on variability of Indian monsoon on both interdecadal and interannual time
133 scales.

134 Rao et al. (Rao et al. 2022) evaluated the skill of NCEP-NWP rainfall forecasts for a few
135 flood-prone basins in India. They observed that as the forecast horizon increased from 1 to 5 days,
136 the bias in rainfall estimation shifted from overestimation to underestimation. They proposed bias
137 correction using a simple multiplicative factor that helped them reduce the mean squared error.

138 Globally, there has also been an advent of models using sophisticated architectures such as
139 Autoformer (Wu et al. 2021), GraphCast (Lam et al. 2023) and ClimaX (Nguyen et al. 2023).
140 Graphcast uses high frequency reanalysis data from across the globe to predict weather upto 10
141 days in advance, and outperforms HRES forecasts on all error metrics. Climax is a transformer-
142 based, foundation weather and climate model that is pre-trained on climate simulations from CMIP6
143 (Eyring et al. 2016). Once pre-trained, the model can be used for multiple climate and weather
144 tasks, where it outperforms all existing data-driven baselines including the Integrated Forecasting
145 System (IFS) from ECMWF (Wedi et al. 2015). While both these models use reanalysis data as
146 the ground truth, we rely on IMD data. It is well known that reanalysis datasets are not fully
147 representative of the surface weather observations in India (Kishore et al. 2016).

148 Our work adds to the growing literature on using ML for short-term rainfall prediction, primarily
149 using historical IMD data, and benchmarking against NWP forecasts.

150 2. Data and Experiments

151 a. Data Sources

- 152 1. **IMD Ground Truth:** We use daily gridded precipitation data obtained from IMD spanning
153 the period from 1901 to 2023, at a spatial resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ (Pai et al. 2014). At
154 this resolution, the geographical extent of India is discretized into 12,422 grids. We also
155 use gridded data at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ resolution (Rajeevan et al. 2008) during the same period, which
156 provides data at 357 grids. This forms the ground truth dataset against which our predictions
157 and other models are compared.
- 158 2. **Additional weather variables:** Apart from precipitation, we also use daily atmospheric
159 and land data at 0.25° resolution provided by ECMWF as part of their reanalysis products
160 (Copernicus Climate Change Service 2019). These variables include: horizontal and vertical
161 components of wind at 10m, temperature, soil moisture, cloud cover, vorticity at 850hPa, hu-
162 midity, and divergence at 700hPa. These are the lower tropospheric pressure levels, indicative
163 of cloud development and rainfall processes. The data is available from 1950 onwards.
- 164 3. **NWP forecasts:** We conduct all comparisons against two popular NWP bechmarks, HRES
165 and NCEP forecasts. The HRES daily forecasts are obtained from ECMWF (ECMWF 2021)
166 for all years 2011 onwards, at a resolution of 0.25° , for both 1 and 3 days into the future. The
167 NWP benchmark from NCEP is obtained from (Copernicus Climate Change Service 2018).
168 It is available more or less on alternate days through the years 2011 – 2019, capturing about
169 60% of the days. Thereafter the data is available daily. The NCEP dataset provides gridded
170 forecasts at 6 hour intervals, for three time periods: 1, 2 and 3 days into the future. The spatial
171 resolution of these forecasts is $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$, with predictions recorded as cumulative values over
172 the subsequent 24 hours at 6-hour intervals. Both the datasets are downloaded only for the
173 JJAS months.

174 b. Dataset Preparation

175 We compare the 6 am daily NWP forecasts for lead time of 1 and 3 days with the corresponding
176 deep-learning based forecasts. All datasets are available at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ resolution without any
177 grid mismatch. However, for $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ comparisons simple linear interpolation is needed to bring

178 all datasets to the same resolution. More details on this alignment process for 1° data are given
179 in the Appendix. For DL-HD and DL-HD+Covariates training, the IMD dataset is partitioned
180 into training and test subsets, covering the periods 1901 to 2011 and 2012 to 2023, respectively.
181 Within the training dataset, individual samples are constructed using a time window approach.
182 Each sample represents d contiguous days of rainfall data from all grid points, serving as the input
183 for the model. The corresponding output is the rainfall data for the $(d + 1)^{th}$ day at the same grid
184 points.

185 *c. Experiments*

186 Below we outline how forecasts are generated using different models for lead times of 1 and 3
187 days.

- 188 1. **DL-HD:** We generate forecasts for all n grids across India using historical rainfall data from
189 IMD, utilizing varying lengths of past information, spanning from 3 to 20 days (d). The
190 input dimensions for the models are structured as $n \times d$, capturing the historical rainfall
191 data for all grids over the specified timeframe. The output dimension is n , representing the
192 forecasted rainfall for the subsequent day at each grid point. This is implemented using
193 two separate architectures, LSTM and Autoformer based (Autoformer has a transformer
194 architecture specifically designed for time series data, as described in (Wu et al. 2021)). We
195 train the models from 1901 to 2011, while the test forecasts are generated for the subsequent
196 years from 2012 to 2023. All results are reported only for the Autoformer-based model, as it
197 always outperforms LSTM. This comparison is shown in figure 9.
- 198 2. **DL-HD + Covariates:** This is an extension of the above model where we use past d days
199 of precipitation data ($3 \leq d \leq 20$) from IMD, and past 3 days of reanalysis data. As stated
200 earlier, the additional covariates include wind speed, temperature, soil moisture, cloud cover,
201 vorticity, humidity, and divergence. The choice of these variables is justified later in Section
202 e. The number of past days for reanalysis data were fixed to 3 as we did not observe any
203 significant reduction in errors when incorporating information beyond 3 days. The input
204 dimensions are now structured as $n \times d \times v$, where v is the number of covariates. The output
205 is again n -dimensional, forecasting the rainfall value at each grid.

- 206 3. **NWP:** HRES-NWP daily forecasts are available at 0.25° resolution for lead times of 1 and
207 3 days. These are compared with forecasts made using IMD data at 0.25° . NCEP-NWP
208 forecasts are available at 1° resolution on nearly all alternate days within the test period, and
209 we make comparisons on the days when these forecasts are available with forecasts made
210 using IMD data at 1° resolution. For each grid in the IMD dataset, we identify the best match
211 within the NCEP-NWP re-aligned set and its four adjacent grids based on the criterion of the
212 lowest forecast error. The forecast error is computed for each candidate grid, and the one
213 with the minimum error is taken as the best matching grid. The forecast associated with this
214 identified grid is considered the NCEP-NWP forecast for that specific location.
- 215 4. **NWP+:** We combine the HRES-NWP forecasts at the target grid and the 4 neighbouring
216 grids using a deep neural network, which is trained to minimize the error between the forecast
217 and IMD ground truth for the particular grid. The resulting forecast is called HRES-NWP+
218 prediction. A similar routine is followed for NCEP-NWP forecasts to generate NCEP-NWP+.
219 The models here are trained from 2011 to 2020 and test forecasts are generated for 2021 -
220 2023. A higher number of surrounding grids does not result in improved forecasts, so we only
221 consider the 4 nearest neighbours.
- 222 5. **Ensemble:** We combine the DL-HD + Covariates forecasts, and the NWP forecasts of the 5
223 grids, to generate an ensemble forecast for each grid. This is done using a deep neural network.
224 The models here are trained from 2011-2020, and forecasts are generated for 2021-2023.
- 225 6. **Persistence:** This is a naive forecast which estimates the rainfall on day $d + 1$ and the average
226 of rainfall in days $d + 1, d + 2$ and $d + 3$ as the observed rainfall on day d for each grid. This is
227 reported for the period 2012-2023.

228 *d. Loss function*

229 **Peak biased loss function for training:** Since training on rainfall data is a regression problem,
230 mean squared error (MSE) is the default choice of the loss function. However, using MSE as
231 the loss function often resulted in generated forecasts that were almost constant, resembling the
232 long-term mean of past rainfall. Moreover, to motivate the fact that error of underestimation is
233 more important than the error of overestimation and to be able to capture heavy rainfall better,

we assign different exponents to the two errors to obtain the resulting average 'peak-biased' loss function (L). Let $(r_t, t = 1, \dots, N)$ denote the observed rainfall and $(\hat{r}_t, t = 1, \dots, N)$ the prediction over N time periods. Then,

$$L = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N \mathbf{I}(\hat{r}_t < r_t) |r_t - \hat{r}_t|^{1.5} + \mathbf{I}(\hat{r}_t > r_t) |\hat{r}_t - r_t|}{N} \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{I}(\cdot)$ denotes the indicator function.

The choice of exponent 1.5 in (1) is empirical. In our experiments, we observed that higher exponents resulted in substantial overestimation of peaks, while lower exponents led to underestimation that did a poor job of tracking high rainfall values. We observed a similar trend in the Mean Squared Error (MSE) on the test data, which aligns with the loss function L used for training. See Tables 2 and 3 for details.

e. Feature selection

The input variables for the model are chosen greedily using one feature at a time. We start by considering one variable at a time as input to predict the rainfall in the future, and select the variable with minimum forecasting error as per our loss function. We proceed iteratively. Given that a few variables have been selected at a given stage, we observe the forecasting error resulting from an additional variable, and select the one that gives maximum improvement among all additional variables. The sequential selection process with the errors recorded is outlined in Table 1. It can be seen that past precipitation turns out to be the variable with highest predictive power, followed by cloud cover, vorticity, humidity, soil moisture, wind, and temperature.

TABLE 1: Peak-biased loss ($mm^{1.5} + mm$) recorded for different combinations of input variables using a greedy approach. In each row, we consider the combination of variables indicated in the first column and report the loss when another variable corresponding to the different columns is added to the bucket.

Variables	Cloud Cover (CC)	H Wind (HW)	V Wind (VW)	Temperature (T)	Humidity (H)	Soil Moisture (SM)	Vorticity (Vo)
Precipitation (Ppt)	19.95	21.13	21.48	21.01	20.71	20.52	20.39
Ppt + CC	-	19.63	19.88	20.20	20.01	19.38	19.47
Ppt + CC + Vo	-	19.73	19.71	19.36	19.07	19.33	-
Ppt + CC + Vo + H	-	18.91	18.96	18.99	-	18.56	-
Ppt + CC + Vo + H + SM	-	18.42	18.59	18.53	-	-	-

252 *f. Model Configuration and Training*

253 All experiments are conducted in Python, utilizing the TensorFlow and Keras libraries. DL-HD
254 and DL-HD+Covariates forecasts are made using LSTM and transformer architectures. Both of
255 these are recurrent models and we use past d days of v variables as input, where d ranges from
256 3 to 20. Both models are designed to have nearly the same number of parameters depending
257 roughly linearly on d , with the number of parameters being approximately 200M for $d = 12$. The
258 transformer architecture is adopted from (Wu et al. 2021). Since there are fewer data points, the
259 models for NWP+ and Ensemble are trained using smaller feed-forward neural networks, with
260 2 hidden layers. All models are trained using the Adam optimizer, optimizing the peak-biased
261 loss specified in (1). More details on the architecture of these models are given in Table B1
262 in the Appendix. To ensure robustness of our models, each experiment is conducted across 10
263 independent runs, employing randomly generated seeds to initialize neural network parameters
264 differently. Performance metrics are reported on the average prediction obtained from these 10
265 runs.

266 **3. Results**

267 The predictions based on the models specified in Section c are compared with the ground truth
268 daily rainfall data from IMD. Below we present results corresponding to IMD data at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$
269 resolution. The results for $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ IMD data are given in the Appendix.

270 1. *Comparison for entire India:*

271 The average peak-biased loss over India for 1-day and 3-day forecasts at 0.25° resolution
272 are presented in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. We also compare the spatial distribution of
273 prediction skill for 1 and 3 day prediction on July 15, 2022 in Figures 1 and 2. We make the
274 following observations:

- 275 (a) DL-HD+Covariates outperforms other models significantly for both 1-day and 3-day
276 forecasts.
- 277 (b) Persistence estimates record the highest errors, being 39.36% worse than DL-
278 HD+Covariates 1-day forecasts and 69.52% worse for 3-day forecasts. HRES-NWP,

279 while performing better than persistence, still reports higher errors compared to DL-
280 HD+Covariates: 21.98% for 1-day forecasts and 27.21% for 3-day forecasts.

281 (c) Pooling surrounding grids to form NWP+ slightly reduces errors compared to raw
282 HRES-NWP forecasts. However, these forecasts still report higher errors than DL-
283 HD+Covariates forecasts by about 21.33% for 1-day and 25.07% for 3-day predictions.

284 (d) The ensemble NWP+DL-HD+Covariates exhibits improved performance over NWP
285 alone, and is comparable with DL-HD+Covariates forecasts in most grids. However, it re-
286 ports slightly higher overall errors, approximately 3.95% worse than DL-HD+Covariates
287 for 1-day forecasts and 11.07% worse for 3-day forecasts.

288 (e) To evaluate long-term memory in historical data, we conducted experiments using con-
289 texts ranging from 3 to 20 days. The detailed experiment and results are given in Section
290 b.

291 2. *Comparison for key cities:* We also analyzed the model performance separately for 20 of
292 the most populated cities spread across India. The average peak-biased loss on these cities
293 is shown in Table 4 for 1-day forecasts, and in Table 5 for 3-day forecasts. The last row in
294 the two figures shows the excess error percentage in the different forecasts compared to DL-
295 HD+Covariates forecast. We make similar observations here as for whole of India. Figures
296 3 to 5 graphically compare the different forecasts with the ground truth for cities Mumbai,
297 Ahmedabad and Chennai, for the months of July and August in 2022, for 1-day forecasts.
298 Similar comparisons for 3-day forecasts are shown in Figures 6 to 8. It is clear from the
299 figures that DL-HD+Covariates forecasts consistently outperform other methods in tracking
300 actual rainfall.

301 a. *Additional performance comparisons*

302 In this section we perform additional comparisons between different predictors related to predict-
303 ing heavy rainfall and generating false alarms for heavy rainfall. We also measure the correlation
304 of different predictors with observed rainfall. Recall that $(r_t, t = 1, \dots, N)$ denotes the observed
305 rainfall and $(\hat{r}_t, t = 1, \dots, N)$ the prediction over N time periods.

TABLE 2: Average peak-biased loss ($mm^{1.5} + mm$) and MSE (mm^2) for 1-day forecasts across all the grids in India. Naive persistence estimates have the largest error. HRES-NWP performs significantly better than persistence, yet it remains outperformed by DL-HD. Pooling NWP grids together to form NWP+ gives modest improvement over vanilla NWP. Adding other weather variables along with precipitation gives the lowest errors. The ensemble NWP + DL-HD + Covariates shows significant improvement over NWP alone, although it falls slightly short of DL-HD+Covariates.

Model	Peak-biased Loss	%age Higher Error than DL-HD	MSE (mm^2)
DL-HD + Covariates	18.24	-	268.59
DL-HD	20.90	14.58	312.11
HRES-NWP	22.25	21.98	356.97
HRES-NWP+	22.13	21.33	344.18
Ensemble	18.96	3.95	294.25
Persistence	25.42	39.36	448.10

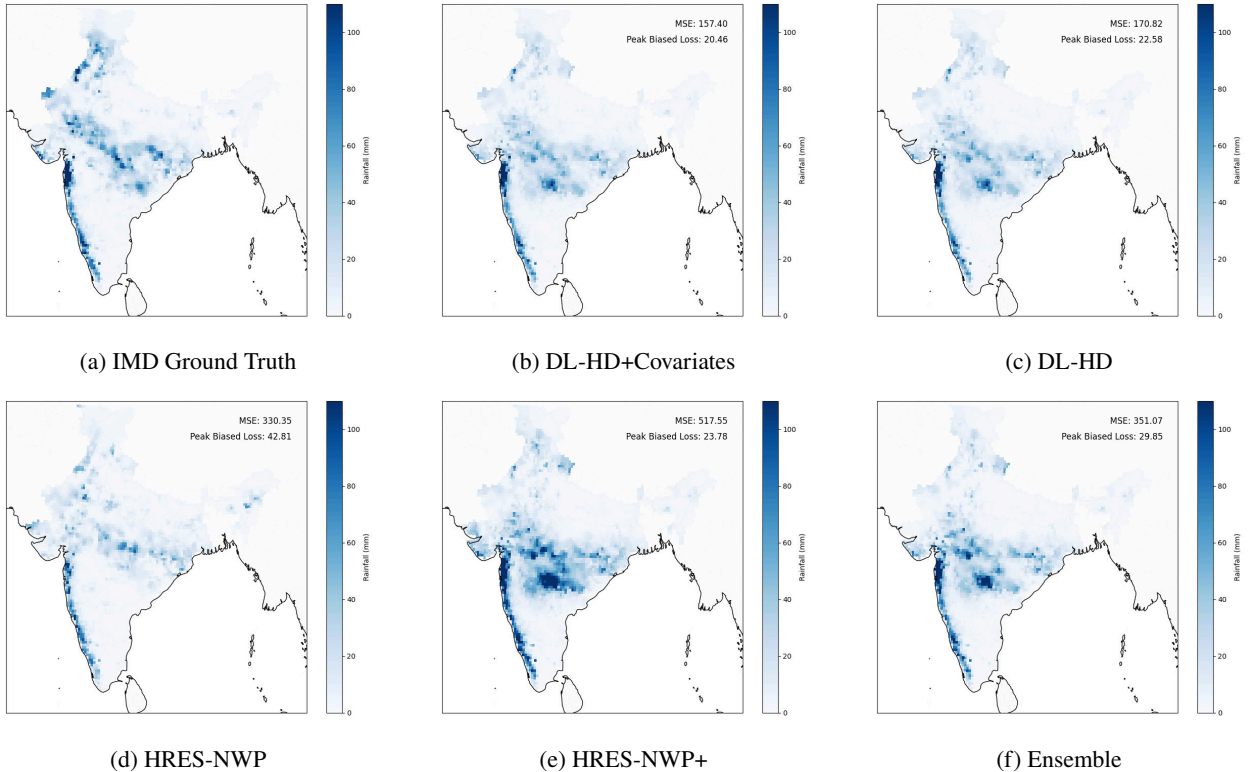
TABLE 3: Average peak-biased loss ($mm^{1.5} + mm$) and MSE (mm^2) for 3-day cumulative forecasts across all the grids in India. The trends are similar to 1-day forecasts. Naive persistence estimates have the largest error, closely followed by NCEP-NWP. HRES-NWP performs significantly better than NCEP-NWP, yet it remains outperformed by DL-HD. Pooling NWP grids together to form NWP+ slightly improves over vanilla NWP. Adding other weather variables along with precipitation gives the lowest errors. The ensemble NWP + DL-HD + Covariates shows significant improvement over NWP alone, although it falls slightly short of DL-HD + Covariates.

Model	Peak-biased Loss	%age Higher Error than DL-HD	MSE (mm^2)
DL-HD + Covariates	67.28	-	2878.52
DL-HD	81.87	21.69	3752.44
HRES-NWP	85.59	27.21	4486.25
HRES-NWP+	84.15	25.07	3884.24
Ensemble	74.73	11.07	3019.81
Persistence	114.06	69.52	8300.21

306 1. *Heavy rainfall predictor (HRP)*: This is calculated as the fraction of times predicted rainfall
307 exceeds a value L when the actual rainfall exceeds a higher value H . A higher HRP value
308 indicates that the model is effective in providing warnings for heavy rainfall. This is important
309 in providing early warnings to people and authorities to prepare for contingencies related to
310 high rainfall. For 1-day forecasts we use $L = 10, H = 30$, and for 3-day forecasts, we use
311 $L = 20, H = 60$. These values were chosen as a sufficient number of events were observed in
312 the key cities for these ranges.

$$HRP = \frac{\#(\hat{r}_t > L, r_t > H)}{\#(r_t > H)} \quad (2)$$

FIG. 1: Spatial distribution of 1-day forecasts for 15 July 2022. DL-HD and NWP+DL-HD predictions detect areas with high rainfall with reasonable effectiveness. NWP forecasts tend to overestimate rainfall across almost all parts of India.

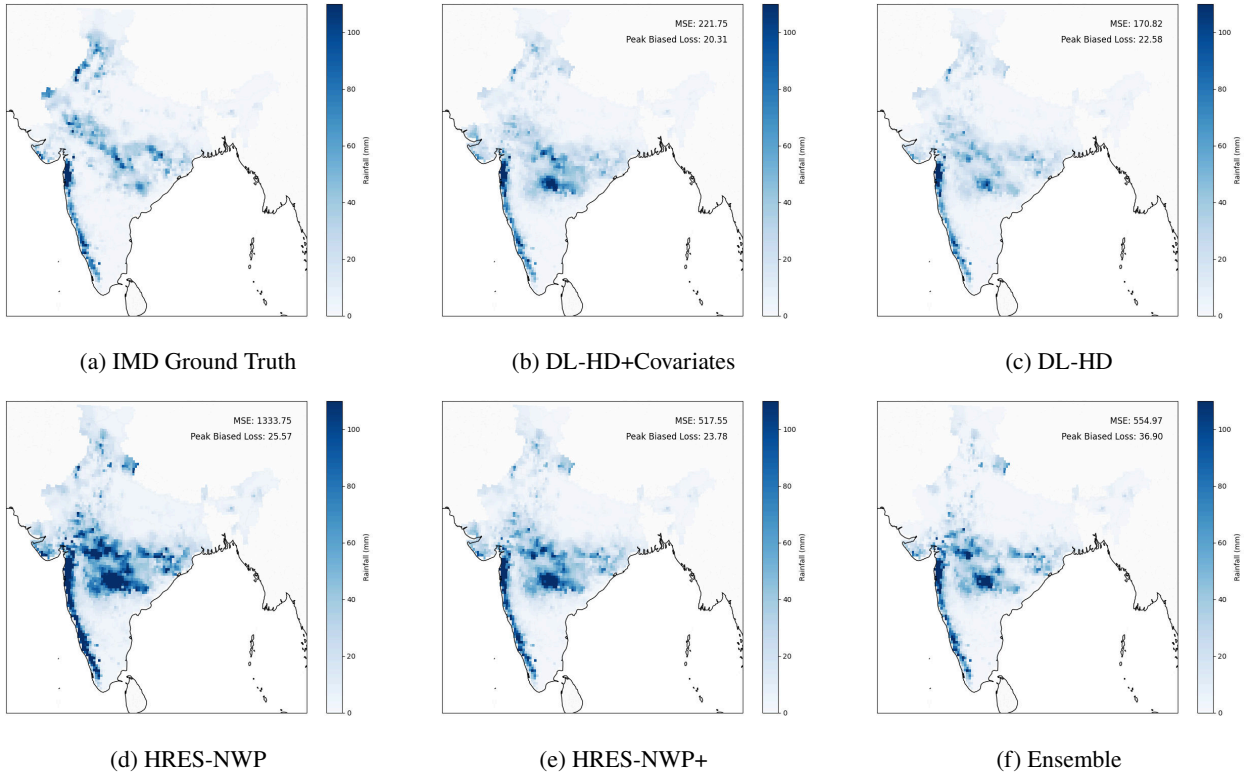


313 2. *False alarm rate (FAR)*: This is given by the fraction of times predicted rainfall was above a
 314 large value H when the actual rainfall was below a small value L . FAR affects the credibility
 315 of the model. Higher the FAR, more likely that the warnings of heavy rainfall will be taken
 316 less seriously. For 1-day forecasts, we again set $L = 10$ and $H = 30$.

$$FAR = \frac{\#(\hat{r}_t > H, r_t < L)}{\#(\hat{r}_t > H)}. \quad (3)$$

317 3. *Correlation Coefficient (CC)*: As in Kumar et al. (2021), we also study the correlation between
 318 the prediction over N time periods and the observed rainfall. A higher absolute value of CC
 319 indicates a stronger linear relationship between the predicted and observed time series. Letting
 320 $\bar{r} = N^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^N r_t$, the CC equals

FIG. 2: Spatial distribution of 3-day forecasts for 15 July 2022. Transformer based predictions detect areas with high rainfall with reasonable effectiveness. NWP forecasts tend to overestimate rainfall across almost all parts of India.



$$\frac{\sum_{t=1}^N (\hat{r}_t - \hat{\bar{r}})(r_t - \bar{r})}{\sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^N (\hat{r}_t - \hat{\bar{r}})^2 (r_t - \bar{r})^2}}. \quad (4)$$

321 Table 6 displays these metrics for all of India for 1-day as well as 3-day forecasts. Note that all
 322 numbers are reported as average of the respective metrics over all the grids.

323 We make the following observations:

- 324 1. At all India level, in case of 1-day forecasts, NCEP-NWP outperforms other models in terms
 325 of HRP, detecting about 84% of high rainfall events. This however, is due to its tendency
 326 to overestimate rainfall on most days. DL-HD+Covariates and the ensemble model follow
 327 closely behind with HRP 82.24% and 82.61% respectively. Persistence reports a poor HRP
 328 of 59.11%. The strength of DL-HD and DL-HD+Covariates lies in that they have a high HRP

TABLE 4: Average peak biased loss ($mm^{1.5} + mm$) for 1-day forecasts in grids corresponding to 20 major cities across India. Overall, and in most cities, DL-HD+Covariates outperforms other models by a significant margin. The ensemble model combining NWP and DL-HD+Covariates follows closely behind in the total error, and even performs better than just DL-HD+Covariates in some cities. HRES-NWP performs the poorest, having a 27.77% higher error.

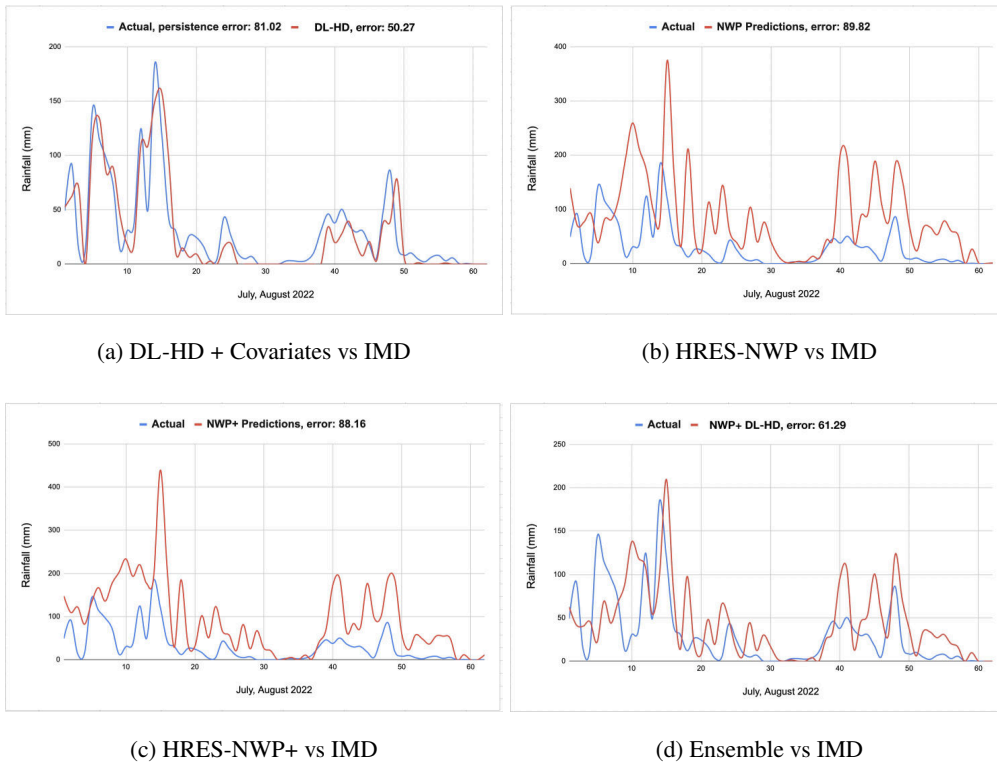
City	DL-HD+Covariates	DL-HD	HRES-NWP	HRES-NWP+	Ensemble
Ahmedabad	16.23	18.46	25.34	23.15	17.32
Bangalore	11.76	12.28	14.67	12.33	11.12
Bhopal	24.35	26.76	28.92	27.14	23.98
Bhubaneswar	26.42	29.11	28.04	27.91	27.74
Chandigarh	18.45	18.35	20.42	20.18	19.65
Chennai	10.33	11.15	12.40	12.26	12.18
Coimbatore	10.27	10.77	11.55	11.31	10.09
Delhi	7.44	7.86	12.79	11.77	8.85
Gangtok	38.71	41.47	42.29	41.93	39.33
Hyderabad	18.55	20.28	26.51	23.14	20.08
Indore	11.22	11.41	15.65	15.41	10.40
Kochi	19.26	22.77	26.13	25.42	19.07
Kolkata	35.96	37.58	41.75	40.59	36.86
Lucknow	11.86	11.72	16.46	16.11	11.99
Mumbai	42.48	47.50	66.13	63.81	45.05
Patna	12.71	13.33	15.58	15.51	12.46
Pune	15.11	16.85	25.46	25.29	16.78
Raipur	26.38	27.51	29.53	28.17	28.47
Shimla	9.62	11.77	12.21	11.61	9.82
Vishakhapatnam	23.49	26.75	27.21	27.18	22.53
Total Error	390.60	423.69	499.36	481.01	402.77
%age higher	0	8.38	27.77	23.05	3.08

329 and at 31.11% and 27.16%, respectively, a low FAR. HRES-NWP and NCEP-NWP on the
330 other hand have high FAR of 41.2% and 48.14% respectively. Persistence reports a FAR of
331 46.24%.

332 2. For 3-day forecasts, DL-HD+Covariates reports a 74.8% HRP compared to 71.23% and
333 67.85% HRP by HRES-NWP and NCEP-NWP respectively, and 58.54% HRP by persistence.
334 The ensemble represents a significant improvement over NWP alone, with HRP of 74.78%.

335 3. DL-HD+Covariates has the highest overall correlation with IMD data, for both 1-day (0.82)
336 as well as 3-day forecasts (0.64). HRES-NWP reports much lower respective correlations of
337 (0.69 and 0.59), persistence reports respective correlations (0.49, 0.57).

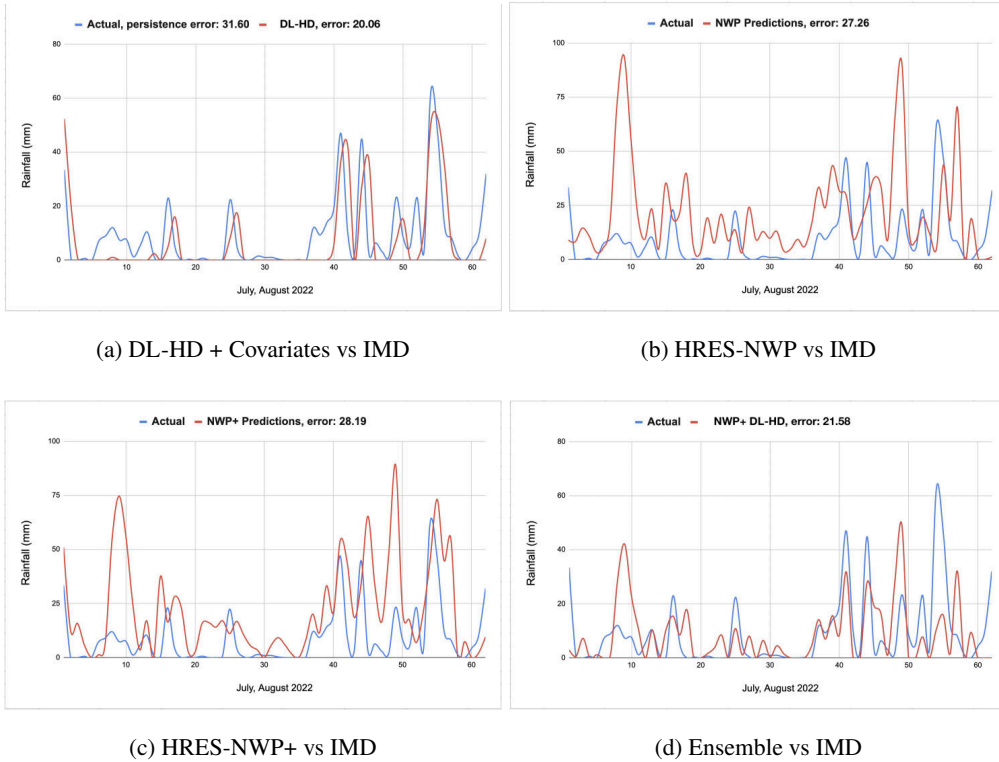
FIG. 3: 1-day forecasts for Mumbai in July and August 2022. DL-HD+Covariates predictions closely track the ground truth, while HRES-NWP predictions tend to over estimate the rainfall. The ensemble is a significant improvement over NWP alone, and can be seen to capture most of the high rainfall events during this period.



338 *b. Spatio-temporal information in rainfall observations across India*

339 To check for long-term memory in historical data, we conducted experiments for contexts ranging
 340 from 3-20 days. We observed a pattern of small but consistently decreasing errors with increasing
 341 lag as shown in Figure 9. It can also be observed that there are no significant changes in error for
 342 information beyond 12 days at an all India level. We also show the effect of this long-term memory
 343 for a few key cities in India. We observe that the improvement in forecasts with historical context is
 344 more significant for landlocked cities (such as Bangalore, Hyderabad, Delhi) as compared to coastal
 345 regions (such as Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata). In Figure 10b, we compare the aggregated land-
 346 locked regions with the coastal ones. This further strengthens our observation that improvement
 347 in forecasts with historical context is more significant for landlocked regions compared to coastal
 348 ones. This also suggests that coastal region prediction accuracy may improve a little if rainfall data
 349 from neighbouring regions was available.

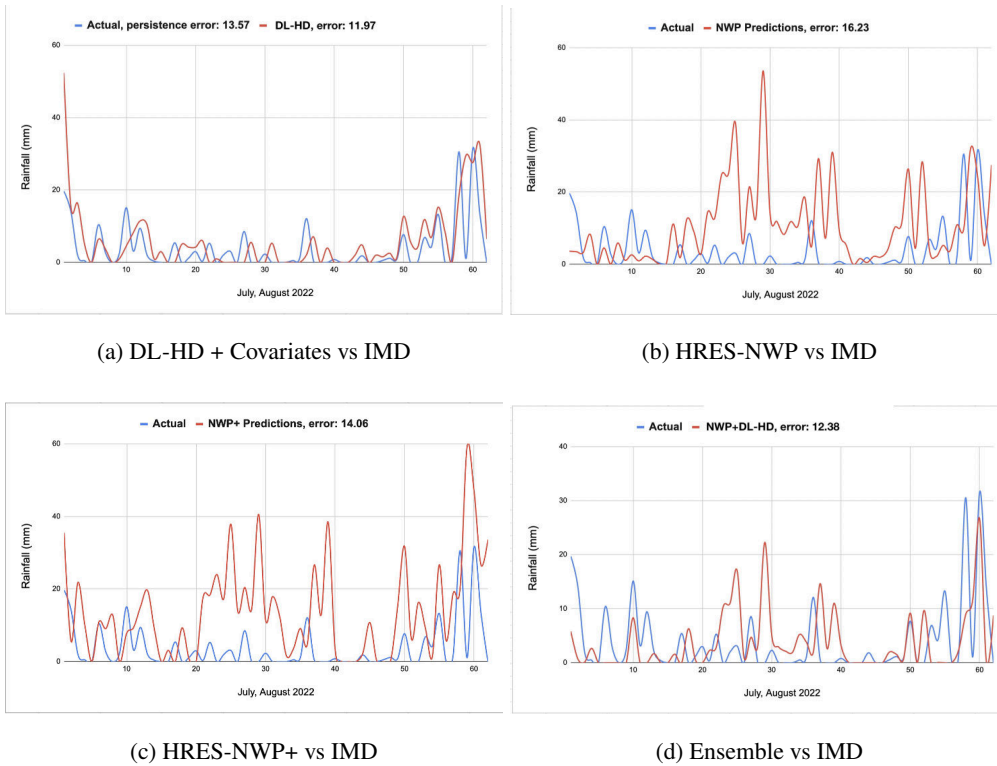
FIG. 4: 1-day forecasts for Ahmedabad in July and August 2022. DL-HD+Covariates closely track the ground truth, capturing most high rainfall events during this period. HRES-NWP predictions consistently overestimate the rainfall. The ensemble performs well in tracking the rainfall but tends to underestimate the precipitation.



4. Conclusion

In this paper, we compared monsoon rainfall forecasts across India, one day as well as three days in advance at a spatial resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$, as well as $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$. We trained a deep neural network using historical rainfall data and other weather variables to arrive at DL-HD+Covariates forecasts. These were compared to persistence based forecasts as well as NWP forecasts obtained from NCEP and ECMWF. We found that forecasts obtained by DL-HD+Covariates are substantially more accurate compared to NWP forecasts as well as predictions based on persistence. We also discussed the improvement in performance of our predictions when they are combined with NWP predictions. We further observed that data up to 20 days in the past is useful in reducing errors of one and three day forecasts, especially when the transformer based learning architecture is used. As noted in the abstract, a key conclusion suggested by our preliminary analysis is that more and diverse data relevant to monsoon prediction, including satellite and radar based data, combined

FIG. 5: 1-day forecasts for Chennai in July and August 2022. DL-HD+Covariates closely track the IMD ground truth. HRES-NWP predictions consistently overestimate the rainfall. The ensemble performs well in tracking the rainfall but tends to underestimate the precipitation, resulting in a larger loss than DL-HD+Covariates



362 with carefully selected neural network architecture is likely to substantially improve upon existing
 363 NWP forecasts.

TABLE 5: Average peak biased loss ($mm^{1.5} + mm$) for 3-day forecasts in grids corresponding to 20 major cities across India. Overall, and in most cities, DL-HD+Covariates outperforms other models by a significant margin. The ensemble model combining NWP and DL-HD+Covariates follows closely behind in the total error. HRES-NWP performs the poorest, having a 28.51% higher error.

City	DL-HD+Covariates	DL-HD	HRES-NWP	NWP+	Ensemble
Ahmedabad	58.89	65.22	66.29	65.96	59.88
Bangalore	40.39	44.73	49.11	48.47	38.80
Bhopal	72.25	79.16	82.43	81.57	75.49
Bhubaneswar	56.76	69.46	74.03	74.14	64.32
Chandigarh	45.87	50.25	55.27	53.34	48.19
Chennai	33.53	43.10	51.54	49.78	40.22
Coimbatore	42.15	47.36	50.96	50.48	46.14
Delhi	32.16	32.53	40.53	39.81	32.11
Gangtok	79.56	100.39	112.74	109.56	88.46
Hyderabad	42.27	50.27	54.13	54.22	44.91
Indore	57.42	57.29	62.94	60.41	56.71
Kochi	59.49	69.56	74.21	74.44	62.24
Kolkata	94.26	112.73	118.36	115.40	99.18
Lucknow	30.71	34.58	53.91	51.76	32.15
Mumbai	153.56	201.28	215.68	211.42	166.77
Patna	29.93	34.22	41.39	41.14	30.28
Pune	40.75	50.45	54.23	52.61	46.86
Raipur	64.66	73.29	81.64	80.11	70.13
Shimla	22.42	31.58	34.75	34.49	21.94
Vishakhapatnam	72.48	80.56	76.50	75.93	76.54
Total Error	1130.85	1331.49	1449.77	1423.93	1223.65
%age higher	0	17.62	28.51	26.23	6.37

TABLE 6: Comparison of performance metrics for 1-day and 3-day forecasts for entire India. Transformer-based deep learning forecasts do a good job of tracking heavy rainfall while also maintaining a low false alarm rate.

Model	1-day			3-day		
	FAR (%)	HRP (%)	Correlation Coefficient	FAR (%)	HRP (%)	Correlation Coefficient
DL-HD + Covariates	27.16	82.24	0.82	37.41	74.80	0.64
DL-HD	31.11	80.77	0.75	40.66	74.12	0.62
HRES-NWP	41.20	81.86	0.69	41.39	71.23	0.59
NWP+	39.55	83.02	0.62	41.26	72.59	0.61
Ensemble	28.23	82.61	0.81	37.18	74.78	0.62
Persistence	46.24	59.11	0.49	48.83	58.54	0.57

FIG. 6: 3-day forecasts for Mumbai in July and August 2022. None of the forecasts track the IMD ground truth well. However, DL-HD+Covariates capture some of the high and low rainfall events well. HRES-NWP predictions consistently underestimate the rainfall, and we see a significant improvement using HRES-NWP+.

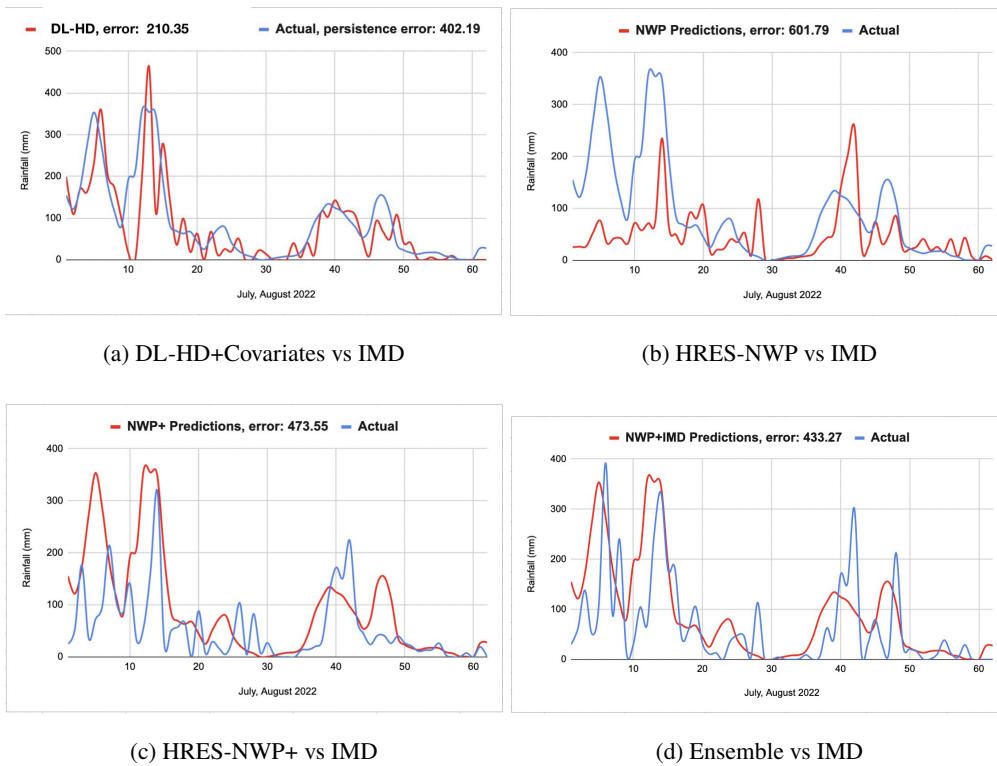


FIG. 7: 3-day forecasts for Ahmedabad in July and August 2022. DL-HD+Covariates track the IMD ground truth closely, and further improve on combining with HRES-NWP forecasts as in the Ensemble, capturing most of the high rainfall events. HRES-NWP predictions too align closely with the IMD ground truth but tend to under estimate the rainfall.

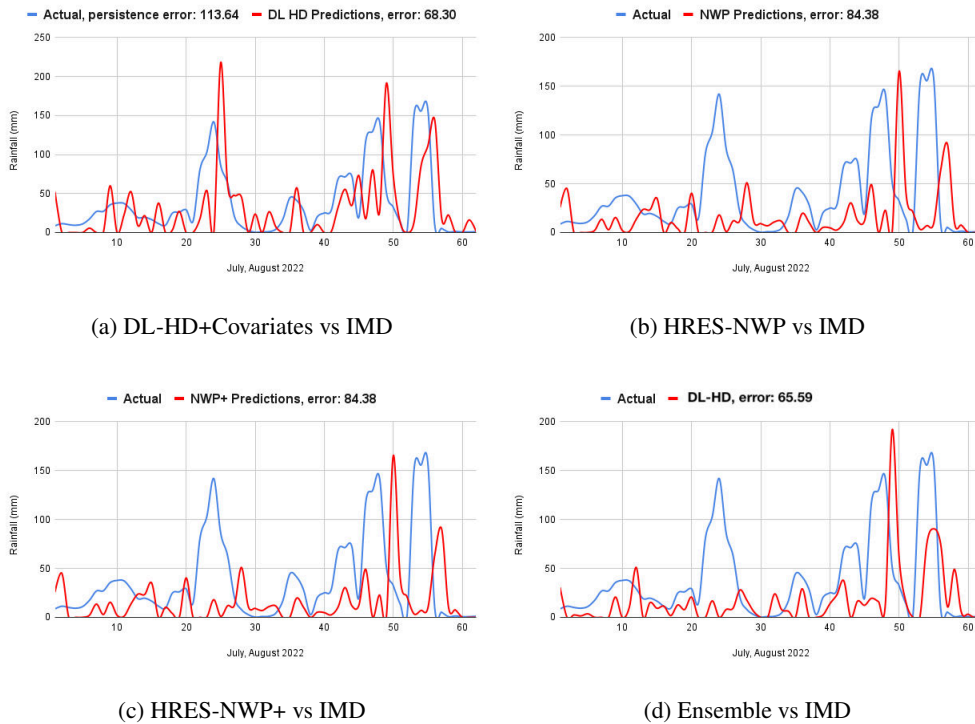


FIG. 8: 3-day forecasts for Chennai in July and August 2022. DL-HD+Covariates and Ensemble track the IMD ground truth closely, capturing most of the high rainfall events. Their errors on the peak-biased loss are also comparable. HRES-NWP predictions are not able to capture most rainfall events. We see some improvement with HRES-NWP+, but here too the predictions tend to overestimate the rainfall.

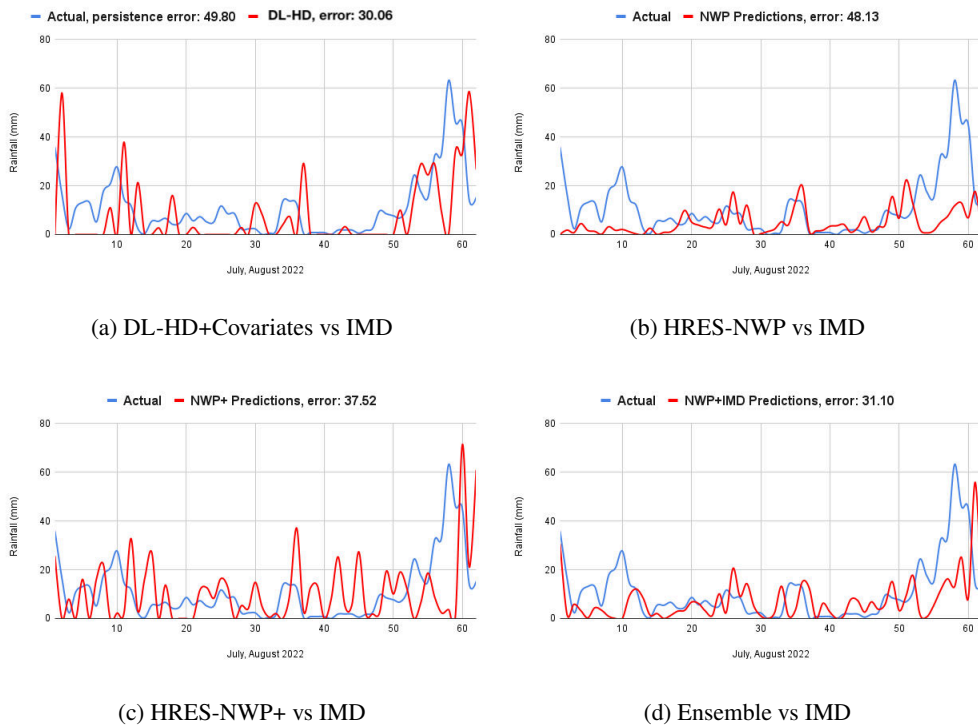
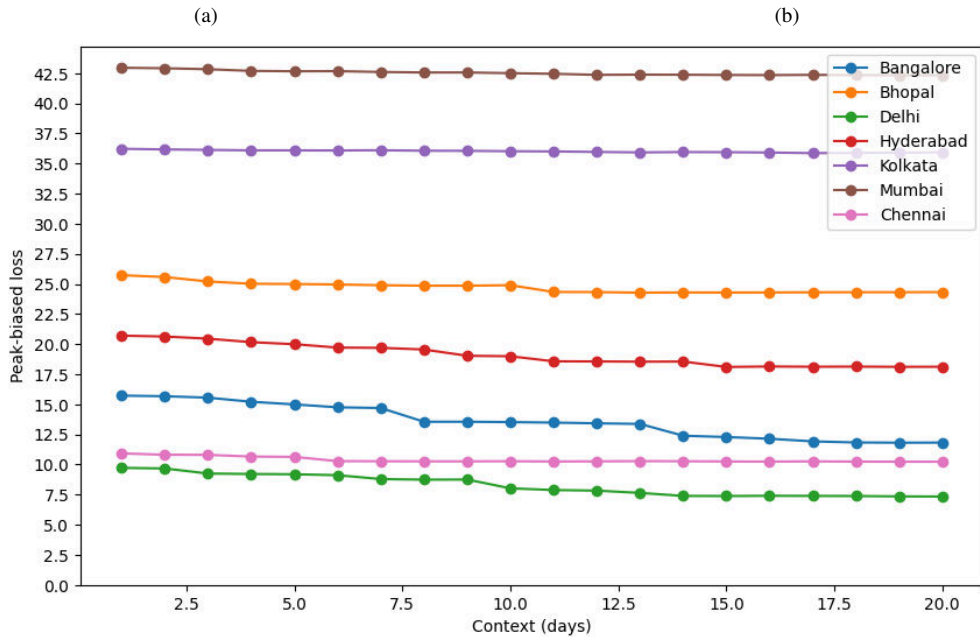
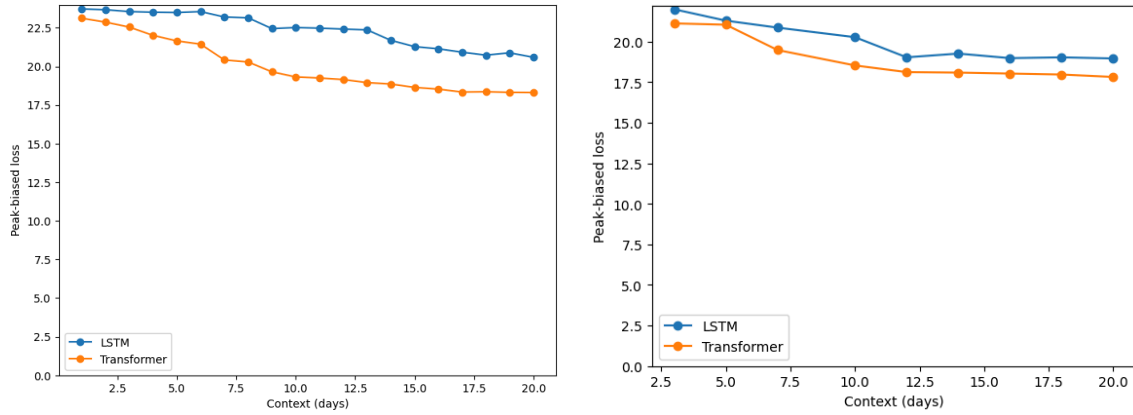
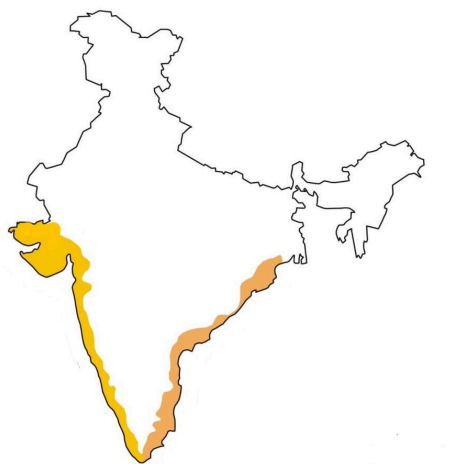


FIG. 9: Average peak-biased loss ($mm^{1.5} + mm$) for 1-day forecasts as a function of number of days of past data (context) used for the forecast. The performance is compared for LSTM and Autoformer architectures. We see a small but consistent decrease in error with context, for both experiments at (a) 0.25° and (b) 1° resolution. In (c), we plot the peak-biased loss as a function of the context in terms of days for a few key cities.

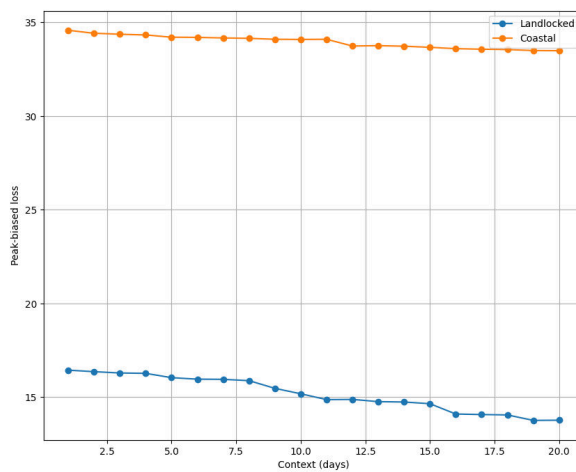


(c)

FIG. 10: Comparison of average peak biased loss ($mm^{1.5} + mm$) for coastal vs landlocked regions. In (a) the shaded region represents the grids spanning upto 60km from the coastline. (b) compares the error reduction with context for the different regions.



(a)



(b)

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365 on weather modelling and for related discussions. We thank Debasis Sengupta, ICTS, Rama
366 Govindrajan, ICTS and Partha Mukhopadhyay, IITM for many helpful discussions. We also
367 acknowledge the use of the High-Performance Computing (HPC) facility at TIFR for training large
368 scale models required for this research.

369 *Data availability statement.* The data availability statement is where authors should describe
370 how the data underlying the findings within the article can be accessed and reused. Au-
371 thors should attempt to provide unrestricted access to all data and materials underlying re-
372 ported findings. If data access is restricted, authors must mention this in the statement. See
373 <http://www.ametsoc.org/PubsDataPolicy> for more details.

374 APPENDIX A

375 Experiments for IMD data at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ resolution

376 *a. Dataset Preparation*

377 While the NCEP-NWP dataset shares the same spatial resolution as IMD at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$, they are offset
378 to each other by 0.5° in both latitude and longitude. IMD reports rainfall for grids whose latitudes
379 and longitudes are multiples of 0.5° , for example the coordinates of a sample grid for IMD could be:
380 $[(79.5^\circ, 17.5^\circ), (80.5^\circ, 17.5^\circ), (79.5^\circ, 18.5^\circ), (80.5^\circ, 18.5^\circ)]$, while NCEP-NWP reports rainfall
381 prediction for grids having integer coordinates. In order to find the best matching grid for IMD from
382 NCEP-NWP, we first align the two by simply shifting all NWP grids by 0.5° to the North-West. To
383 establish a correspondence between each IMD grid and its NCEP-NWP counterpart, we identify
384 the best-matching NCEP-NWP grid among the aligned set and its 4 surrounding grids, selecting
385 the grid with the lowest forecast error.

386 *b. Results*

387 We report the peak-biased loss corresponding to the different models for 1-day forecasts in Table
388 A1. Most trends are similar to those we observed for data at 0.25° resolution, except that NCEP-
389 NWP at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ consistently underperforms even persistence based forecasts. The errors for 3-day
390 forecasts are reported in Table A2.

391 • *Comparison for entire India:* We make the same observations here as for experiments at
 392 0.25° resolution. DL-HD+Covariates outperforms other models significantly for both 1-day
 393 and 3-day forecasts. NCEP-NWP forecasts have the highest errors, performing even poorer
 394 than persistence estimates, having 43.16% and 65.84% higher errors than DL-HD+Covariates
 395 for 1-day and 3-day forecasts respectively. Pooling surrounding grids to form NCEP-NWP+
 396 significantly reduces errors compared to raw NCEP-NWP forecasts. However, these forecasts
 397 still report higher errors than DL-HD+Covariates forecasts by about 26.75% for 1-day and
 398 55.85% for 3-day predictions. The ensemble NWP+DL-HD+Covariates exhibits improved
 399 performance over NWP alone, and is comparable with DL-HD+Covariates forecasts in most
 400 grids. However, it reports slightly higher overall errors, approximately 0.78% worse than
 401 DL-HD+Covariates for 1-day forecasts and 10.47% worse for 3-day forecasts.

TABLE A1: Average peak-biased loss for 1-day forecasts across all the grids in India. NCEP-NWP exhibits the highest error, surpassing even the persistence model. The ensemble shows significant improvement over NWP alone, although it falls slightly short of DL-HD+Covariates.

Model	Peak-biased Loss	%age Higher Error
DL-HD+Covariates	16.75	-
DL-HD	18.11	8.12
NCEP-NWP	23.98	43.16
NCEP-NWP+	21.23	26.75
Ensemble	16.88	0.78
Persistence	23.05	37.61

TABLE A2: Average peak-biased loss for 3-day cumulative forecasts across all the grids in India. NWP exhibits the highest error, surpassing even the persistence model. Pooling NWP grids to form NWP+ leads to a substantial improvement in forecasts, yet it remains outperformed by DL-HD. The ensemble NWP+DL-HD shows significant improvement over NWP alone, although it falls slightly short of DL-HD.

Model	Peak-biased Loss	%age Higher Error
DL-HD+Covariates	67.02	-
DL-HD	81.75	21.99
NCEP-NWP	111.14	65.84
NCEP-NWP+	104.46	55.85
Ensemble	74.03	10.47
Persistence	113.36	69.16

402 • *Comparison for key cities:* We also analyzed the model performance separately for 20 of
 403 the most populated cities spread across India. The average peak-biased loss on these cities

TABLE A3: Comparison of performance metrics for 1-day and 3-day forecasts for entire India. Transformer-based deep learning forecasts do a good job of tracking heavy rainfall while also maintaining a low false alarm rate.

Model	1-day			3-day		
	FAR (%)	HRP (%)	Correlation Coefficient	FAR (%)	HRP (%)	Correlation Coefficient
DL-HD + Covariates	28.86	79.53	0.80	39.02	73.44	0.62
DL-HD	30.15	78.56	0.78	41.22	73.19	0.60
NCEP-NWP	43.10	83.88	0.66	43.60	69.55	0.57
NCEP-NWP+	40.87	83.02	0.68	42.06	70.94	0.59
Ensemble	31.61	82.83	0.78	36.12	72.59	0.60
Persistence	47.15	62.20	0.51	49.76	60.04	0.55

404 is shown in Table A4 for 1-day forecasts, and in Table A5 for 3-day forecasts. The last row
 405 in the two figures shows the excess error percentage in the different forecasts compared to
 406 DL-HD+Covariates forecast. We make similar observations here as for whole of India.

407 APPENDIX B

408 Neural Network Architecture

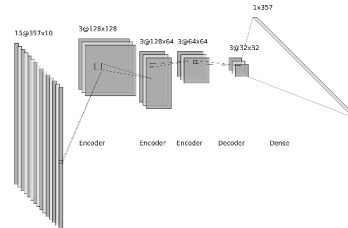


FIG. B1: Neural network architecture used for transformer-based experiments.

409 References

410 Copernicus Climate Change Service, 2018: Seasonal forecast daily and subdaily data on
 411 single levels. ECMWF, URL <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/doi/10.24381/cds.181d637e>,
 412 <https://doi.org/10.24381/CDS.181D637E>.

TABLE A4: Average peak biased loss for 1-day forecasts in grids corresponding to 20 major cities across India. Overall, and in most cities, DL-HD+Covariates outperforms other models by a significant margin. The ensemble model combining NWP and DL-HD+Covariates follows closely behind in the total error, and even performs better than just DL-HD+Covariates in some cities. NCEP-NWP performs the poorest, having a 46% higher error.

City	DL-HD+Covariates	DL-HD	NCEP-NWP	NCEP-NWP+	Ensemble
Ahmedabad	18.25	18.95	32.64	29.88	20.28
Bangalore	12.22	13.16	18.64	16.81	13.56
Bhopal	27.36	29.88	41.92	41.48	32.11
Bhubaneswar	29.43	29.95	45.64	42.10	29.17
Chandigarh	17.78	17.22	21.44	19.56	18.28
Chennai	10.92	11.13	15.68	13.28	11.64
Coimbatore	11.47	12.04	13.23	12.48	11.56
Delhi	10.14	12.24	18.96	14.13	10.11
Gangtok	36.57	39.67	44.51	41.25	37.75
Hyderabad	22.50	22.76	29.24	26.18	23.12
Indore	14.68	16.83	20.58	19.54	16.18
Kochi	20.53	21.36	31.42	23.44	20.69
Kolkata	35.95	36.60	43.55	40.62	36.42
Lucknow	13.40	15.54	23.05	20.37	12.57
Mumbai	45.76	46.61	89.41	67.84	45.84
Patna	12.23	14.52	18.89	16.22	11.24
Pune	15.02	16.93	23.64	22.18	14.33
Raipur	26.72	28.11	30.66	30.34	24.85
Shimla	9.58	11.28	13.04	12.89	9.44
Vishakhapatnam	23.11	26.85	27.88	26.74	21.65
Total Error	413.62	441.63	604.02	537.33	420.79
%age higher	0	6.77	46.03	29.91	1.73

413 Copernicus Climate Change Service, 2019: Era5-land hourly data from 1950 to present. Copernicus
414 Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS), URL [https://cds.climate.copernicus.](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/doi/10.24381/cds.e2161bac)
415 [eu/doi/10.24381/cds.e2161bac](https://doi.org/10.24381/CDS.E2161BAC), <https://doi.org/10.24381/CDS.E2161BAC>.

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417 [open-data](https://doi.org/10.21957/OPEN-DATA), <https://doi.org/10.21957/OPEN-DATA>.

418 Eyring, V., S. Bony, G. A. Meehl, C. A. Senior, B. Stevens, R. J. Stouffer, and K. E. Taylor, 2016:
419 Overview of the coupled model intercomparison project phase 6 (cmip6) experimental design
420 and organization. *Geoscientific Model Development*, **9** (5), 1937–1958.

TABLE A5: Average peak-biased loss for 3-day forecasts in grids corresponding to 20 major cities across India. Overall, and in most cities, DL-HD+Covariates outperforms other models by a significant margin. The ensemble model combining NWP and DL-HD+Covariates follows closely behind in the total error. NCEP-NWP performs the poorest, having a 47.15% higher error.

City	DL-HD+Covariates	DL-HD	NCEP-NWP	NWP+	Ensemble
Ahmedabad	57.65	64.19	78.05	77.12	60.67
Bangalore	42.19	46.04	69.02	65.33	50.45
Bhopal	70.55	79.82	87.78	86.14	76.31
Bhubaneswar	54.04	63.48	78.91	74.52	62.36
Chandigarh	46.59	52.18	59.68	58.30	49.63
Chennai	35.46	46.27	52.96	50.77	42.93
Coimbatore	40.56	47.12	55.64	57.29	42.19
Delhi	32.05	34.56	43.27	41.18	36.70
Gangtok	76.44	84.58	116.54	107.93	92.16
Hyderabad	40.95	43.87	58.76	58.42	49.64
Indore	54.57	58.26	68.22	65.73	57.04
Kochi	62.39	71.88	86.42	84.83	70.55
Kolkata	91.62	101.57	121.34	120.57	97.61
Lucknow	32.11	37.86	65.02	60.88	32.05
Mumbai	151.26	197.36	259.42	255.65	160.32
Patna	25.14	36.78	44.97	45.18	30.63
Pune	40.25	53.20	60.81	57.88	45.34
Raipur	65.00	74.52	89.05	88.86	69.07
Shimla	21.46	29.84	36.72	36.39	21.44
Vishakhapatnam	65.48	81.24	94.58	92.43	75.01
Total Error	1105.76	1304.62	1627.16	1585.40	1222.50
%age higher	-	17.98	47.15	43.38	10.56

TABLE A6: Comparison of performance metrics for 1-day and 3-day forecasts for entire India. All in all, DL-HD performs significantly better than other forecast methods.

Model	1-day			3-day		
	FAR (%)	HRP(%)	Correlation Coefficient	FAR (%)	HRP(%)	Correlation Coefficient
DL-HD	33.86	77.19	0.65	35.93	94.92	0.53
NCEP-NWP	65.59	81.13	0.24	37.69	51.86	0.32
NWP+	50.93	72.88	0.42	36.04	82.17	0.38
Ensemble	41.62	79.03	0.33	31.14	91.83	0.43
Persistence	44.22	57.28	0.28	34.22	59.62	0.22

421 Goswami, B. N., M. Madhusoodanan, C. Neema, and D. Sengupta, 2006: A physical mechanism
422 for north atlantic sst influence on the indian summer monsoon. *Geophysical Research Letters*,
423 **33 (2)**.

TABLE B1: Neural network hyperparameters. For transformer-based experiments, we use default parameters from the Autoformer architecture (Wu et al. 2021). All other hyperparameters were set to their default values.

Parameters	LSTM	NWP	NWP+
Batch size	64	24	24
Hidden layers	400-100-50-357	32-16-1	32-16-1
Activation function	Default-Default-Sigmoid	ReLU-Sigmoid	ReLU-Sigmoid
Epochs	300	100	100
Early stopping	20	10	10

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