Improved RepVGG Ground-Based Cloud Image Classification with Attention Convolution

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10 Abstract. Atmospheric clouds greatly impact the Earth's radiation, hydrological cycle, and climate change. Accurate 11 automatic recognition of cloud shape based on ground-based cloud image is helpful to analyze solar irradiance, water 12 vapor content, and atmospheric motion, and then predict photovoltaic power, weather trends, and severe weather 13 changes. However, the appearance of clouds is changeable and diverse, and its classification is still challenging. In 14 recent years, convolution neural network (CNN) has made great achievements in ground-based cloud image 15 classification. However, traditional CNNs poorly associate long-distance clouds, making the extraction of global 16 features of cloud images quite problematic. This study attempts to mitigate this problem by elaborating a ground-17 based cloud image classification method based on the improved RepVGG convolution neural network and attention mechanism. Firstly, the proposed method increases the RepVGG residual branch and obtains more local detail features 18 19 of cloud images through small convolution kernels. Secondly, an improved channel attention module is embedded 20 after the residual branch fusion, effectively extracting the global features of cloud images. Finally, the linear classifier 21 is used to classify the ground cloud images. Finally, the warm-up method is applied to optimize the learning rate in 22 the training stage of the proposed method, making it lightweight in the inference stage and thus avoiding overfitting 23 and accelerating the model's convergence. The proposed method is validated on MGCD and GRSCD ground-based 24 cloud image datasets containing 7 cloud categories, with the respective classification accuracy rate values of 98.15% 25 and 98.07%, outperforming those of ten most advanced methods used as the reference. The results obtained are 26 considered instrumental in ground-based cloud image classification.

27 1. Introduction

28 In meteorology, cloud is an aerosol consisting of a visible mass of water droplets, ice crystals, their aggregates or

29 other particles suspended in the atmosphere. Clouds of different types cover over 70% of the Earth surface (Qu et al.,

30 2021; Gyasi and Swarnalatha, 2023; Fabel et al., 2022). Cloud analysis plays a crucial role in meteorological

31 observation because clouds can affect the Earth's water cycle, climate change, and solar irradiance (Gorodetskaya et 32 al., 2015; Goren et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2019). Cloud observation methods mainly include satellite observation (Norris et al., 2016; Zhong et al., 2017; Li et al., 2023) and ground observation (Calbó and Sabburg, 2008; Nouri et 33 al., 2019; Lin et al., 2023). Satellite observation refers to the distribution, movement, and change of clouds observed 34 by high-resolution remote sensing satellites from above. When observing local sky regions, satellite observations have 35 36 low performance and are unable to obtain sufficient resolution to describe the characteristics of different cloud layers 37 in detail (Long et al., 2023; Sarukkai et al., 2020). Compared with satellite observation, ground-based observation opens up a new way to monitor and understand regional sky conditions. Typical ground-based cloud observation 38 39 instruments include All-Sky Imager (ASI) (Shi et al., 2019; Cazorla et al., 2008), Total Sky Imager (TSI) (Long et al., 2006; Tang et al., 2021), etc. The relevant equipment and ground-based cloud images are shown in Figure 1. 40



41



45 Ground-based cloud observation can obtain more obvious cloud characteristics by observing the information at the bottom of the cloud, which is conducive to assisting the prediction of local photovoltaic power generation. Clouds 46 47 play an important role in maintaining the atmospheric radiation balance by absorbing short-wave and the ground not to 48 solar radiation (Taravat et al., 2015). Pv power prediction is affected by multiple factors such as cloud genus, cloud 49 cover change, solar irradiance, and solar cell performance in local areas, among which cloud genus is an important 50 factor affecting PV power prediction (Zhu et al., 2022). Therefore, it is of great significance to accurately obtain sky 51 cloud information through cloud observation and then accurately classify clouds for accurate prediction of 52 photovoltaic power generation (Alonso-Montesinos et al., 2016). The traditional ground-based cloud observation 53 method is mainly visual observation, which relies heavily on the experience of observers, cannot achieve 54 standardization. Therefore, ground-based cloud automatic observation has been widely concerned by scholars. In 55 recent years, with the development of digital image acquisition devices, many ground-based whole-sky cloud image acquisition devices have emerged the world, providing massive data support for automatic ground-based cloud 56 57 observation (Pfister et al., 2003).

58 Ground-based cloud image classification is an important part of the foundation of automatic cloud observation and 59 is the key to climate change and photovoltaic power prediction. The classification of ground-based cloud images mainly classifies each cloud image taken from the ground into the corresponding cloud genus by extracting cloud 60 image features, such as cirrus, cumulus, stratus, nimbostratus, etc. According to different cloud image feature 61 62 extraction methods, the ground-based cloud image classification method is divided into based on traditional machine 63 learning method and based on deep learning method (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015; Krizhevsky et al., 2017; Hu et 64 al., 2018). Most of the ground-based cloud image classification methods based on traditional machine learning classify cloud images by artificially designing cloud image features, while the ground-based cloud image classification 65 methods based on deep learning mainly classify cloud images through self-learning cloud image features of deep 66 neural network (DNN) (Wu et al., 2019). 67

68 Early ground-based cloud image classification studies relied on manual classification methods, which focused on 69 features such as texture, structure, and color, combined with traditional machine learning methods to classify groundbased cloud images. These methods include a decision tree, K-nearest neighbor (KNN) classifier, support vector 70 71 machine (SVM), etc. (Singh and Glennen, 2005) proposed a method for automatically training the texture function of 72 a cloud classifier. In this method, five feature extraction methods including autocorrelation, co-occurrence matrix, 73 edge frequency, Laws texture analysis, and original length are used respectively. Compared with other cloud 74 classification methods, this method has the advantages of high accuracy and fast classification speed, but its 75 classification ability for mixed clouds is insufficient. (Heinle et al., 2010) described cloud images by using spectral 76 features (mean value, standard deviation, skewness, and difference) and texture features (energy, entropy, contrast, 77 homogeneity, and cloud cover), and combined with a KNN classifier, divided ground cloud images into seven 78 categories. In addition, (Zhuo et al., 2014) reported that the spatial distribution of contour lines could represent the 79 structural information of cloud shapes, used the central description pyramid to simultaneously extract the texture and 80 structural features of ground-based cloud images, and used SVM and KNN to classify cloud images. It can be seen 81 that the traditional classification method of ground-based cloud images based on machine learning mainly uses hand-82 designed texture, structure, color, shape, and other features to extract, and obtains high-dimensional feature expression 83 of ground-based cloud images through single feature or fusion feature. Traditional machine learning methods mostly 84 describe the features from the perspective of digital signal analysis and mathematical statistics, but ignore the 85 representation and interpretation of the visual features of the cloud image itself.

In recent years, under the background of cross-integration of different disciplines and artificial intelligence, the ground-based cloud image classification method based on deep learning has become a research hotspot with its superior classification performance. Aiming at the unique characteristics of ground-based cloud images, (Shi et al., 2017) proposed Deep Convolutional Activations-Based Features (DCAFs) to classify ground-based cloud images, and the results are better than the artificially designed cloud image features. Alternatively, (Ye et al., 2017) used CNN to extract cloud image features and proposed a local pattern mining method based on ground-based cloud images to

92 optimize the local features of cloud images and improve the classification accuracy of cloud images. (Zhang et al., 93 2018a) put the wake cloud as a new genus of cloud into the ground-based cloud image database for the first time, proposed a simple convolutional neural network model called CloudNet, and applied it to the ground-based cloud 94 95 image classification task, effectively improving the accuracy of ground-based cloud image classification. More recently, (Wang et al., 2020) proposed the CloudA network, an optimized iteration of the AlexNet convolutional 96 97 neural network, which reduces the number of parameters through a simplified network architecture. The classification 98 accuracy on the Singapore Whole-Sky Imaging Categories (SWIMCAT) ground-based cloud image dataset exceeded 99 the traditional ground-based cloud image classification methods. (Liu et al., 2020b) proposed Multi-Evidence and 100 Multi-Modal Fusion Networks (MMFN) by fusing heterogeneous features, local visual features, and multi-mode 101 information, which significantly improves the classification accuracy of cloud images. Aiming at the problem that the 102 traditional neural network has insufficient ability to classify the ground-based cloud images within and between genera, (Zhu et al., 2022) proposed to use of an improved combined convolutional neural network to classify the cloud images, 103 and the classification accuracy is greatly improved compared with the traditional neural network. Alternatively, (Yu 104 et al., 2021) used two sub-convolutional neural networks to extract features of ground-based cloud images and used 105 106 weighted sparse representation coding to classify them, which solved the problem of occlusion in multi-mode ground-107 based cloud image data and greatly improved the robustness of cloud images classification. (Liu et al., 2020a) 108 introduced a ground-based cloud image classification method based on a graph convolution network (GCN). However, the weight assigned by GCN failed to accurately reflect the importance of connection nodes, thus reducing the 109 discrimination of aggregated cloud image features. To make up for this deficiency, (Liu et al., 2022) proposed a context 110 attention network for ground-based cloud classification and publicly released a new cloud classification dataset. In 111 112 addition, (Liu et al., 2020c) further combined CNN and GCN to propose a multimodal ground-based cloud image 113 classification method based on heterogeneous deep feature learning. Alternatively, (Wang et al., 2021) elaborated a 114 ground-based cloud image classification method based on Transfer Convolutional Neural Network (TCNN) by combining deep learning and transfer learning. (Li et al., 2022) further enhanced the classification performance of 115 116 ground-based cloud images based on the improved Vision Transformer combined with the EfficientNet-CNN. The 117 performance of the above-mentioned ground-based cloud image classification methods based on deep learning has 118 significantly improved compared to traditional machine learning methods.

119 CNN plays an important role in the field of target detection, image classification, and image segmentation, 120 especially in the tasks of power line fault detection (Zhao et al., 2016), face recognition (Meng et al., 2021), and 121 medical image segmentation (Zhang et al., 2021), and has been widely used and achieved great achievements. Ground-122 based cloud image classification is an emerging task in the field of image classification and has achieved rapid and 123 considerable development based on the CNN method. However, it still has some shortcomings such as shallow 124 network level of ground-based cloud image classification method, limited ground-based cloud image classification 125 performance, and small ground-based cloud image classification dataset, which cannot verify the generalization ability

126 of large-scale ground-based cloud image classification dataset.

- To solve the above problems, the current study improved the RepVGG (Ding et al., 2021) and used it as a basis for elaborating a new classification method for ground-based cloud images called CloudRVE (Cloud Representative Volume Element Network). In this method, the ground-based cloud image was incorporated into the CNN model, and its image features were extracted. Multi-branch convolution layer and channel attention module were used to capture local and global features of the cloud image simultaneously time to enhance the classification performance of groundbased cloud images. The method's application to the multi-modal ground-based cloud dataset named MGCD (Liu et al., 2020a) and ground-based remote sensing cloud database (GRSCD) (Liu et al., 2020b). The main contributions of
- 134 this paper are as follows:
- (1) This study elaborated the Improved RepVGG ground-based cloud image classification method with attention
 convolution called CloudRVE. It broadened the residual structure and comprehensively combined the attention
 mechanism's abilities to extract the cloud image's global features and describe in detail its local features in the
 classification process.
- (2) In particular, the Efficient Channel Attention network (ECA) was improved and incorporated into the feature extraction process of ground-based cloud images, which optimization occurred through local cross-channel interaction without dimensionality reduction. Besides, the structural re-parameterization in the inference stage was performed, reducing the model complexity, improving the feature extraction performance, and enhancing the network's learning ability of ground-based cloud image features.
- 144 (3) The comparative analysis of experimental results on the ground-based cloud image classification dataset MGCD
- 145 proved that the proposed method outperformed ten other state-of-the-art methods in classification accuracy. Its
- application to GRSCD dataset further verified its generalization ability. Finally, the proposed method's training
- 147 process optimization and dynamical adjustment of its learning rate were provided by the warm-up method, and
- 148 the respective recommendations were drawn.

149 The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 elaborates on the structure and composition of the proposed

150 CloudRVE method for classifying ground cloud images. Section 3 briefly introduces the ground cloud image

151 classification datasets used in this paper and the model evaluation indices. Section 4 provides the experimental results

152 and discusses the feasibility and effectiveness of the proposed method. Finally, Section 5 concludes the study and

153 outlines future research directions and practical application of the research results.

154 2. Methods

155 2.1 Overview of Method



157 Figure 2: CloudRVE network framework. Ground-based cloud images come from Kiel-F datasets (Kalisch and Macke,158 2008).

159 This section shows the overall architecture of the proposed RepVGG-based improved classification method, as shown 160 in Figure 2. In the CloudRVE training process, CloudRVE Block with a multi-branch topology structure is used to 161 extract features of ground-based cloud images. The multi-branch topology structure has rich gradient information and 162 a complex network structure, which can effectively improve the characterization ability of local feature information 163 of ground-based cloud images. Feature maps extracted by CloudRVE Block enter the New Efficient Channel Attention 164 (NECA) network and learn the feature relationships between sequences to obtain the global feature representation of 165 an image. In addition, the warm-up method is incorporated into the CloudRVE training process to dynamically 166 optimize the learning rate and accelerate the model parameter convergence to enhance the model training effect. 167 CloudRVE inference process uses the single branch topology structure of VGG-style (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015), 168 and through structural re-parameterization, the multi-branch convolutional layer and batch normalization (BN) (Ioffe 169 and Szegedy, 2015) are converted into a 3×3 convolutional layer, increasing its inference speed. The CloudRVE 170 training process and inference process use the linear classifier to classify the ground-based cloud images to get the

171 final result. The specific framework parameter information of the model is shown in Table 1, where a and b are

172 magnification factors used to control the network width. The specific contents of each part are as follows.

Stage	Blocks of each stage	Output size	Output channels
0	1	224×224	Min (64, 64a)
1	2	112×112	64a
2	4	56×56	128a
3	14	28×28	256a
4	1	14×14	512b

173	Table 1. T	he detai	ls of	CloudRVE	training	architecture.
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174 2.2 Broadening the CloudRVE Block of Residual Structure

175 CNN is a deep learning model including convolution calculation, including feedforward neural network, which has 176 representation learning ability, similar to artificial neural network multilayer perceptron (Shi et al., 2017). In 2014, 177 the most representative convolution neural network VGG came out, which adopted a single-branch topology structure, 178 greatly improved the image processing effect and model inference speed, and became a new direction for scholars to 179 learn and develop. With the in-depth study of the VGG, its potential in image processing is close to saturation. Scholars 180 realize that the VGG has some shortcomings such as simple network structure, few network layers, and large 181 parameters, which makes it difficult to extract high-order features of images and has limited image-processing 182 performance. Therefore, improving network complexity and increasing the number of network layers has become a 183 new research direction. The ResNet developed by (He et al., 2016) differed from the traditional neural network 184 stacked by convolution layer and pooling layer. The network was stacked by residual modules, which not only increased the complexity of the network structure and reduced the number of network parameters, but also perfectly 185 186 solved the problem of gradient disappearance or gradient explosion caused by increasing the number of network layers, 187 which could extract abstract image features with semantic information and effectively improve image-processing 188 performance. By improving the complexity and depth of the network, the ResNet could train the CNN model with 189 higher accuracy, but there were numerous redundancies in its residual network, impeding the network inference speed 190 and reducing the accuracy of image processing results (Szegedy et al., 2015). Therefore, increasing the complexity 191 and depth of the network, weakening its influence on inference speed, and improving the classification effect of 192 ground-based cloud images become the key goals of this study.

To improve the classification effect of the ground-based cloud images, the CloudRVE training process is composed of CloudRVE blocks that adopt the multi-branch topology. The CloudRVE Block contains four branches and the improved channel attention module NECA. Its main branch contains a convolutional layer with a convolution kernel size of 3×3 , which can inspect the input images with a larger neighborhood scope and extract global features easily.

197 Ground-based cloud images contain abundant cloud shape and cloud amount information, while a large convolution 198 kernel tends to ignore cloud boundary features, resulting in inadequate feature extraction from ground-based cloud 199 images. Therefore, the two bypass branches of CloudRVE Block adopt the convolution layer with the convolution kernel size of 1×1, which can not only extract fine cloud boundary features and abstract cloud cover features but also 200 201 keep the output dimension consistent with the input dimension, facilitating the multi-branch ground-based cloud 202 image feature fusion. The third bypass branch of CloudRVE Block adopts the Identity branch, whose purpose is to 203 take the input as the output and change the learning objective to the residual result approaching 0 so that the accuracy does not decline with the deepening of the network. In addition, each branch is connected to the BN layer, not only to 204 205 avoid overfitting but also to prevent gradient disappearance or explosion. The specific structure of CloudRVE Block is shown in Figure 3. The input feature maps pass through three branches with a convolutional layer and BN layer at 206 207 the same time. The output obtained by the input feature maps is summed with the Identity branch and input into the 208 NECA module to obtain the final output feature.



209

210 Figure 3: CloudRVE Block structure.

211 2.3 NECA Module Focusing on Full Image Features

212 The attention mechanism is to let the neural network have the information processing way to distinguish the key points 213 and to capture the connection between global information and local information flexibly. Its purpose is to enable the 214 model to obtain the target region that needs to be focused on, put more weight on this part, highlight significant useful 215 features, and suppress and ignore irrelevant features. The NECA (New Efficient Channel Attention) is an implementation form of channel attention mechanism, which can strengthen channel features without changing the 216 217 size of the input feature maps. It adopts a local cross-channel interaction strategy without dimensionality reduction so 218 that the 1×1 convolution layer can replace the full connection layer to learn channel attention information, which can 219 effectively avoid the negative impact of dimensionality reduction on channel attention learning. The network performance is guaranteed and the complexity of the model is significantly reduced. 220 221 The ground-based cloud image samples in Figure 2 were taken by the all-sky imager and could cover the sky in

this area. However, the ground-based cloud images contain not only the valid area of the whole sky but also the black

invalid area. Therefore, the NECA module abandons the traditional global maximum pooling and adopts double global
 average pooling. The global average pooling formulas are as follows:

225
$$\gamma_{gap} = \frac{1}{wh} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^{w,h} X_{ij}, X \in \mathbb{R}^{w \times h \times c},$$
 (1)

226
$$\eta_{gap} = \sigma(V_k^{gap} \gamma_{gap}), V_k^{gap} \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times c}$$
, (2)

where *X* and *X'* represent the input and output feature maps, respectively, whereas *w*, *h*, and *c* are the width, height, and number of channels of the input feature map. The NECA module adopts a double global average pool, which can effectively improve its noise suppression ability and enhance its channel feature extraction ability, which can avoid the black invalid part of the feature calculation. The NECA module structure is shown in Figure 4.



231

232 Figure 4: NECA model structure.

Here *b* and *r* are fixed values, and their values are set to 1 and 2, respectively, while *k* represents the convolution kernel size and has a corresponding relationship with *c*. As the network deepens, the number of channels *c* increases by the power of 2. Therefore, *k* should not be a fixed value, but a dynamic change and its relationship are as follows:

236
$$C = \phi(k) = 2^{(\gamma * k - b)}$$
 (3)

237
$$K = \psi(C) = \left| \frac{\log_2(c)}{r} - \frac{b}{r} \right|_{odd}$$
(4)

238 2.4 Inference Process from Multi-Branch to Single-Branch

239 The residual module is crucial to the CloudRVE training process. Its multi-branch topology can improve CloudRVE Block's ability to extract ground cloud image features and solve optimization problems such as gradient disappearance 240 241 and gradient explosion caused by increasing network depth. However, the multi-branch topology will occupy more 242 memory for the CloudRVE reasoning process, resulting in insufficient utilization of hardware computing power and 243 slower reasoning speed. If the single-branch topology is adopted, the computing load is reduced and the inference 244 time is saved, thus reducing memory consumption. Therefore, the single-branch topology structure is adopted in the 245 CloudRVE inference stage, and the trained CloudRVE Block needs to be transformed into a single-branch topology 246 model through structural re-parameterization. The conversion process mainly includes the fusion of the convolutional

layer and BN layer, the conversion of the BN layer into a convolutional layer, and the fusion of the multi-branch 247 convolutional layer. We use $W_{(3)} \in \mathbb{R}^{C_1 \times C_2 \times 3 \times 3}$ as 3×3 convolution layers, and use C_1 , C_2 as input channels and 248 output channels respectively, and use $W_{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{C_1 \times C_2 \times 1 \times 1}$ as 1×1 convolution layers. In addition, we use $\mu_{(3)}, \sigma_{(3)}$, 249 $\gamma_{(3)}, \beta_{(3)}$ to represent the mean value, standard deviation, learning scaling factor, and deviation of the BN layer of the 250 251 main branch, and use $\mu_{(1)}, \sigma_{(1)}, \gamma_{(1)}, \beta_{(1)}$ to represent the parameters of the BN layer of the by-pass branch containing 252 1×1 convolution layer, and use $\mu_{(0)}, \sigma_{(0)}, \gamma_{(0)}, \beta_{(0)}$ to represent the parameters of the BN layer of the identity branch, and use $M_{(1)} \in R^{N \times C_1 \times H_1 \times W_1}$, $M_{(2)} \in R^{N \times C_2 \times H_2 \times W_2}$ to represent the input and output. The CloudRVE Block structure 253 254 reparameterization calculation process is as follows:

255
$$M_{(2)} = BN(M_{(1)} * W_{(3)}, \mu_{(3)}, \sigma_{(3)}, \gamma_{(3)}, \beta_{(3)}) + BN(M_{(1)} * W_{(1)}, \mu_{(1)}, \sigma_{(1)}, \gamma_{(1)}, \beta_{(1)}) + BN(M_{(1)} * W_{(1)}, \mu_{(1)}, \sigma_{(1)}, \gamma_{(1)}, \beta_{(1)}) + BN(M_{(1)}, \mu_{(0)}, \sigma_{(0)}, \gamma_{(0)}, \beta_{(0)})$$
(5)

The input feature map is inputted into the NECA module through the 3×3 convolution layer completed by fusion.





258

259 Figure 5: Re-parameterization process of CloudRVE Block structure.

260 2.4.1 Fusion of Convolutional Layer and BN Layer

261 This section first describes the fusion of the main branch 3×3 convolution layer with the BN layer and then describes 262 the transformation of the bypass branch 1×1 convolution layer into the 3×3 convolution layer and fusion with the BN 263 layer. In the inference stage, the number of convolutional kernel channels in the convolution layer is the same as the 264 number of channels in the input feature map, and the number of convolutional kernel channels in the output feature 265 map is the same. The main parameters of the BN layer include mean μ , variance σ^2 , learning ratio factor γ , and 266 deviation β . Of these, μ and σ^2 are obtained statistically in the training stage, while γ and β are obtained by learning 267 in the training stage. The calculation of the *i* channel of the input BN layer is performed as follows:

268
$$y_i = \frac{x_i - u_i}{\sqrt{\sigma_i^2 + \varepsilon}} \times \gamma_i + \beta_i , \qquad (6)$$

269 where x is the input and ε is the constant approaching 0. The calculation process of the *i* channel input BN in the 270 feature map can be expressed as follows:

271
$$bn(M,\mu,\sigma,\gamma,\beta)_{:,i,::} = \left(M_{:,i,::} - \mu_i\right)\frac{\gamma_i}{\sigma_i} + \beta_i = \frac{\gamma_i}{\sigma_i}M_{:,i,::} + \beta_i - \frac{\gamma_i}{\sigma_i}\mu_i , \qquad (7)$$

where *M* is the output feature map obtained by weighted summation of the convolution layer, input to BN layer and ignore *x*. Therefore, we can multiply γ_i/σ_i to the *i* convolution kernel of the 3×3 convolution layer:

274
$$W'_{i,:,:} = \frac{\gamma_i}{\sigma_i} W_{i,:,:}$$
(8)

275
$$\boldsymbol{b}_{i}^{\prime} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i} - \frac{\mu_{i} \gamma_{i}}{\sigma_{i}}$$
(9)

The *i* convolution kernel weight of the fusion of the 3×3 convolution layer and BN layer is obtained, and the specific fusion process is shown in Figures 6 and 7. The input channel C_1 and output channel C_2 make two, and the stride is one. In the convolution layer, the input feature map is calculated by convolution to obtain the output feature map with the number of channels 2. Figure 8 shows that the number of channels in the BN layer is 2, and the output feature map of the convolution layer is used as the input feature map of the BN layer. The output feature map with the number of channels being 2 is obtained via equation (2).





283 Figure 6: Input feature map through convolution layer process. For visualization, we assume that $C_1=C_2=2$.



285 Figure 7: Convolutional layer output feature map through the BN layer process.

In addition, to ensure that the size of the output feature map is consistent with that of the input feature map, the input

287 feature map should be converted into 5×5 size by padding operation. The concrete convolution is as follows:

288
$$o_1^1 = x_1^1 \cdot k_5^1 + x_2^1 \cdot k_6^1 + x_4^1 \cdot k_8^1 + x_5^1 \cdot k_9^1 + x_1^2 \cdot k_5^2 + x_2^2 \cdot k_6^2 + x_4^2 \cdot k_8^2 + x_5^2 \cdot k_9^2$$
 (10)

289 The specific calculation process of the input feature map through the BN layer is

290
$$b_1 = \frac{(x_1^1 \cdot k_5^1 + x_2^1 \cdot k_6^1 + x_4^1 \cdot k_8^1 + x_5^1 \cdot k_9^1 + x_1^2 \cdot k_5^2 + x_2^2 \cdot k_6^2 + x_4^2 \cdot k_8^2 + x_5^2 \cdot k_9^2) - \mu_1}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \varepsilon}} \cdot \gamma_1 + \beta_1$$
(11)

291 Re-arranging equation (7) yields

292
$$b_1 = (x_1^1 \cdot k_5^1 + x_2^1 \cdot k_6^1 + x_4^1 \cdot k_8^1 + x_5^1 \cdot k_9^1 + x_1^2 \cdot k_5^2 + x_2^2 \cdot k_6^2 + x_4^2 \cdot k_8^2 + x_5^2 \cdot k_9^2) \cdot \frac{\gamma_1}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \varepsilon}} + (\beta_1 - \frac{\mu_1}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \varepsilon}})$$
(12)

293
$$c = \frac{\gamma_1}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \varepsilon}}$$
; $d = \beta_1 - \frac{\gamma_1 \cdot \mu_1}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \varepsilon}}$ (13)

In equation (8), *c* and *d* are constants and are multiplied to the first convolution kernel of the convolution layer to obtain the parameters of the first convolution kernel after the convolution layer and BN layer are fused. Other fused convolution kernel parameters are calculated similarly. The convolution layer and BN layer are fused by the bypass branch containing a 1×1 convolution layer. The convolution layer is first converted to 3×3 size by padding operation and then fused with the BN layer by repeating the above steps. The convolution layer padding process is shown in Figure 8.



300

301 Figure 8: 1 × 1 convolution layer transformed into 3 × 3 convolution layer.

302 2.4.2 Converting the BN Layer to the Convolution Layer

The identity bypass branch has only a BN layer, its function is to ensure the identity mapping of the input feature map and output feature map. To realize the identical mapping between the input feature map and the output feature map in the fusion process, a 3×3 convolution layer with 2 convolution kernels and 2 convolution kernel channels needs to be designed. Secondly, the input feature map needs to be converted into a 5×5 feature map by padding operation. The specific process is shown in Figure 9. The output feature map is obtained by convolution calculation of the input feature map, and its parameters and sizes are consistent with those of the input feature map. Finally, the fusion process of the 3×3 convolution layer and BN layer is repeated to obtain a new 3×3 convolution layer.

310 2.4.3 Multi-Branch Convolution Layer Fusion

311 The structure re-parameterization transforms each branch into a 3 × 3 convolution layer by construction and fusion,

312 which facilitates the fusion of multi-branch convolution layers into a single-branch 3×3 convolution. We use I and

313 *O* to represent the input and output, respectively, while K_i and B_i are the convolution kernel weight and bias of the *i*

314 branch. The multi-branch fusion calculation process is as follows:





316

317 Figure 9: Identity branch Identity mapping process.

318 2.5 Warm-Up Method

319 In this paper, the warm-up method (He et al., 2019) is used to optimize the learning rate in the model training process, 320 so that the learning rate varies in different training stages. In the initial stage of model training, a small learning rate 321 is selected, which is due to the random initialization of model weights and no prior knowledge of ground-based cloud 322 image data, and the model will quickly adjust parameters according to the input. If a large learning rate is adopted at 323 this time, the model will be overfitted and the prediction accuracy of the model will be affected. After training the 324 model for some time, the learning rate linearly increases to a preset large value and the model has some prior 325 knowledge, which can avoid overfitting and accelerate the convergence speed of the model. Finally, the model 326 distribution is relatively stable, so it is difficult to learn new features from ground-based cloud image data, and the 327 learning rate linearly approaches to zero, keeping the model stable and easily obtaining local optima.

328 3. Dataset and Experimental Settings

- 329 This section introduces two kinds of ground-based cloud image classification datasets, MGCD and GRSCD, and
- 330 describes the relevant experimental Settings. Subsection 3.1 describes MGCD and GRSCD in detail, and Subsection
- 331 3.2 details experimental setting parameters and model evaluation indices.

332 3.1 Ground-Based Cloud Image Dataset

333 **3.1.1 Introduction to MGCD Dataset**

334 Multi-modal Ground-based Cloud image Dataset (MGCD) is the first ground-based cloud image classification dataset 335 composed of ground-based cloud images and multi-modal information, which was collected by the School of Electronics and Communication Engineering of Tianjin Normal University and the Meteorological Observation 336 337 Center of Beijing Meteorological Bureau of China from 2017 to 2018. There are 8000 ground-based cloud images in 338 MGCD, and 4000 ground-based cloud images in the training set and testing set, including altocumulus (Ac), cirrus 339 (Ci), clear sky (Cl), cumulonimbus (Cb), cumulus (Cu), stratocumulus (Sc), and mix (Mx). In addition, cloud images 340 with a cloud cover of less than 10% are classified as clear sky, and each sample contains a captured ground cloud 341 iamge and a set of multimodal cloud information. Among them, the ground-based cloud images are collected by an 342 all-sky camera with a fisheye lens, and its data storage format is JPEG with a resolution of 1024×1024 pixels; 343 Multimodal information is collected by weather stations, including temperature, humidity, pressure, and wind speed, 344 and these four elements are stored in the same vector. Figure 10 is a partial sample of the MGCD dataset, and the

345 specific information is shown in Table 2.









Clear sky

Cb





347 Figure 10: Sample legend of MGCD dataset (Liu et al., 2020a).

No	Class	Training	Testing	Total
1	Ac	365	366	731
2	Ci	662	661	1323
3	Cl	669	669	1338
4	Cb	593	594	1187
5	Cu	719	719	1438
6	Sc	482	481	963
7	Mx	510	510	1020
	Total	4000	4000	8000

349 3.1.2 Introduction to GRSCD Dataset

Ground remote sensing cloud dataset (GRSCD) is a ground-based cloud image classification dataset composed of 350 351 ground-based cloud images and multimodal information. It was collected by the College of Electronic and 352 Communication Engineering of Tianjin Normal University and the Meteorological Observation Center of Beijing 353 Meteorological Administration of China from 2017 to 2018. The total number of ground-based cloud images in 354 GRSCD is consistent with MGCD, with a training set and a testing set each accounting for 50%, including 7 types of 355 clouds: altostratus (Ac), cirrus(Ci), clear sky(Cl), cumulonimbus(Cb), cumulus(Cu), stratocumulus(Sc), and mix(Mx). 356 Among them, the features of cumulonimbus and stratocumulus in MGCD are not distinct and easy to confuse; the 357 features of altostratus and cumulus in GRSCD are not distinct and easy to confuse. In addition, each sample contains 358 a ground-based cloud image and a set of multi-modal cloud information, and cloud images with cloud cover not 359 exceeding 10% are classified as clear sky. Figure 11 depicts a partial sample of the GRSCD dataset. The specific data are listed in Table 3. 360









Clear sky

Cb



362 Figure 11: Sample legend of GRSCD dataset (Liu et al., 2020b).

No	Class	Training	Testing	Total
1	Ac	400	331	731
2	Ci	650	673	1323
3	Cl	650	688	1338
4	Cb	600	587	1187
5	Cu	690	748	1438
6	Sc	500	463	963
7	Mx	510	510	1020
	Total	4000	4000	8000

3.2 Experimental Setting 364

363

365 **3.2.1 Implementation Details**

366 All experiments in this paper adopt Python programming language and run on Intel(R) Core (TM) i9-12700K CPU 367 @ 3.60GHz. NVIDIA GeForce RTX 3090 24G Graphical Processing Unit (GPU) platform and uses Pytorch as a deep learning framework. The CNN experiment is trained on the ground-based cloud image classification datasets MGCD 368 369 and GRSCD respectively. The number of training data accounts for 50%, the initial learning rate is set to 0.0002, 370 Batchsize is set to 32, and Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2015) is used to optimize all available parameters in the 371 network. In addition, to improve the generalization ability of the CNN model and the convergence speed of the 372 experiment, the transfer learning method is adopted in the training stage, and model parameters are obtained by 373 training RepVGG with the ground-based cloud image classification dataset made by the team and used as the weight 374 of pre-training. CNN experiment directly trains based on pre-training weight, which can accelerate the model 375 convergence speed and shorten the training time, avoid the problem of parameter overfitting, and promote the rapid 376 gradient decline.

377 **3.2.2 Evaluation Index**

378 To objectively evaluate the ground-based cloud image classification performance of CloudRVE and other CNN 379 models, the accuracy rate, recall rate, and the average values of different indices of 7 types of clouds in MGCD and 380 GRSCD datasets are calculated in the experiment, which is used as evaluation indices of CNN model. The accuracy 381 rate and average accuracy rate is derived based on positive and negative samples, n represents the number of cloud 382 types and the calculation process is as follows:

383
$$Accuracy(Acc) = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN}, \ \overline{Accuracy}(\overline{Acc}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{TP_i + TN_i}{TP_i + TN_i + FP_i + FN_i}$$
(15)

384 TP (True Positive) parameter is the number of correctly classified samples for a specific genus, TN (True Negative) 385 parameter is the number of correctly classified samples for the remaining genus, and FN (False Negative) parameter 386 is the number of misclassified samples for a specific class genus. FP (False Positive) parameter is the number of 387 misclassified samples for the remaining classes genera. The precision rate, average precision rate, recall rate and

388 average recall rate can be expressed as:

389
$$Precison(Pr) = \frac{TP}{TP+FP}$$
, $\overline{Precison}(\overline{Pr}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{TP_i}{TP_i + FP_i}$ (16)

390
$$Recall(Re) = \frac{TP}{TP+FN}$$
, $\overline{Recall}(\overline{Re}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{TP_i}{TP_i + FN_i}$ (17)

In addition, the specificity, average specificity, F1_score and average F1_score are also used as evaluation indices of the CNN model in the experiment, and their expressions are shown as follows:

393
$$Specificity(TNR) = \frac{TN}{FP+TN}$$
, $\overline{Specificity}(\overline{TNR}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{TN_i}{FP_i + TN_i}$ (18)

394
$$F1_score(F1) = \frac{2 \times Pr \times Re}{Pr + Re}, \ \overline{F1_score}(\overline{F1}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2 \times Pr_i \times Re_i}{Pr_i + Re_i}$$
(19)

395 4. Experimental Results and Discussion

396 4.1 Classification Results of Ground-Based Cloud Images

397 Figure 12 shows the confusion matrix of MGCD and GRSCD datasets, showing CloudRVE prediction results on 398 MGCD and GRSCD datasets. The horizontal axis represents the true cloud image classification, while the vertical 399 axis represents the predicted cloud image classification, where the value of the diagonal element represents the correct 400 number of cloud image classifications and the value of the off-diagonal element represents the number of cloud image classification errors. As can be seen from Figure 12(a), in the MGCD dataset, the correct classification of the Cu is 401 the largest, while the misclassification of the cloud images mainly comes from Sc and Mx. The reason is that the cloud 402 base of Sc is blackened by illumination, making it easily confused with Cb. In addition, the dynamic change of cloud 403 404 will lead to a change in the viewpoint of the whole sky camera, thus increasing the difficulty of cloud genus 405 identification. As can be seen in Figure 12(b), in the GRSCD dataset, the correctly classified cloud images of the same Cu had the largest number, while the incorrectly classified ones mainly came from Mx and Sc. The Mx cloud is a 406 hybrid cloud, containing a variety of different cloud genera, with large shares of Ac, Ci, and Cu, which could be 407 408 erroneously classified as Mx. Similarly, Sc could be taken for Cb, due to their similar features, impeding the correct 409 identification.



411 Figure 12: Confusion matrix images. (a)MGCD confusion matrix image. (b) GRSCD confusion matrix image.

412 The overall classification accuracy of the CloudRVE method proposed in this paper in MGCD and GRSCD datasets 413 and the classification results of each cloud genus are listed in Tables 4 and 5. It can be seen that the accuracy of 414 CloudRVE in MGCD and GRSCD datasets reached 98.15 and 98.07%, respectively. The characteristics of the Cl in 415 MGCD and GRSCD datasets were easy to identify, resulting in the accuracy rate, recall rate, specificity, and F1 value reaching 100%. In the MGCD dataset, the accuracy rate, recall rate, and F1 value of the other six cloud genera all 416 417 exceeded 95.00%, and the specificity was above 99.50%. The accuracy and specificity of the Ci were the highest, 418 reaching 98.64 and 99.73%, respectively. Cu had the highest recall rate and F1 value, reaching 99.17 and 98.89%, 419 respectively. In addition, the recall rate and F1 value of Sc and Mx were about 2.00% lower than other cloud genera, 420 mainly their characteristics in the MGCD dataset were similar to those of Cb and Ci, respectively, reducing 421 CloudRVE's ability to classify them.

Genus	\overline{Acc} (%)	Pr (%)	Re (%)	TNR (%)	F1 (%)
Cu		98.62	99.17	99.70	98.89
Ac		97.02	98.08	99.70	97.55
Ci		98.64	98.94	99.73	98.79
Cl	98.15	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sc		97.26	95.84	99.63	96.54
Cb		97.13	97.13	99.51	97.13
Mx		97.24	96.67	99.60	96.95

422

 Table 4. Classification results for the MGCD dataset.

Genus	<u>Acc</u> (%)	Pr (%)	Re (%)	TNR (%)	F1 (%)
Cu		99.30	99.03	99.85	99.16
Ac		94.24	98.63	99.39	96.39
Ci		97.91	99.24	99.58	98.57
Cl	98.07	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sc		98.10	96.47	99.74	97.27
Cb		97.33	98.48	99.53	97.90
Mx		97.74	93.33	99.68	95.49

In the GRSCD dataset, the accuracy rate, recall rate, and F1 value of the other six cloud genera exceeded 94.00%, and the specificity as over 99.30%. Cu had the highest accuracy, specificity, and F1 value, reaching 99.30, 99.85, and 99.16%. The recall rate of Ci was the highest, reaching 99.17%. In addition, the Ac accuracy was only 94.24%, mainly because Ac contained a small amount of Sc, and CloudRVE could easily to misjudge Ac as Sc or Mx. Mx contained a variety of other clouds, and the images composition was complex. Cloud clusters of different can genera varied in size and shape, resulting in lower recall rate and F1 values.

430 4.2. Ablation Experiment

423

Dataset	Model	<u>Acc</u> (%)	Pr (%)	<u>Re</u> (%)	<u>TNR</u> (%)	F1 (%)
	RepVGG	95.57	95.31	94.99	99.26	95.14
MCCD	RepVGG_M	95.97	95.65	95.67	99.33	95.56
MGCD	RepVGG_M+ECA	96.80	96.60	96.37	99.47	96.45
	CloudRVE	98.15	97.99	97.98	99.68	97.83
	RepVGG	95.42	94.99	94.88	99.24	94.92
GRSCD	RepVGG_M	95.70	95.46	95.30	99.29	95.36
	RepVGG_M+ECA	96.10	95.67	95.74	99.35	95.68
	CloudRVE	98.07	97.80	97.88	99.68	97.82

431 **Table 6.** Results of the ablation experiment.

432 In this section, the ablation experiment is used to compare the original structure and different improvement stages of 433 the proposed method on the MGCD and GRSCD datasets respectively, and the results are shown in Table 6. 434 RepVGG M is the main improved network, ECA is the attention module, CloudRVE is the combined improved 435 network of RepVGG M and NECA, and is the final version of the method proposed in this paper. It can be seen from 436 the data in the table that the performance of each improvement stage of the network model is improved compared to 437 the previous stage, which not only verifies the feasibility of extracting more cloud image detail features by adding 438 1×1 convolutional layer branches but also verifies that NECA can effectively improve the noise suppression ability 439 and enhance the channel feature extraction ability. Compared with the original network structure, the accuracy of 440 CloudRVE in the MGCD dataset increased by 2.58%, the average accuracy rate increased by 2.68%, the average 441 recall rate increased by 2.99%, the average specificity increased by 0.42%, and the average F1 value increased by

- 442 2.69%. In the GRSCD dataset, the accuracy rate increased by 2.65%, the average accuracy rate increased by 2.81%,
- 443 the average specificity increased by 0.44%, and the average F1 value increased by 2.69%. Therefore, it can be seen
- 444 from the data display that the method proposed in this paper has the best performance.



445

446 Figure 13: Feature extraction of different models based on MGCD (Liu et al., 2020a).





449 Figure 14: Feature extraction of different models based on GRSCD (Liu et al., 2020b).

To visually compare the performance of the original structure and the method proposed in this paper in different improvement stages, we visualize the features by extracting the feature map of the middle layer of the network and

452 then explain the feature extraction ability of the original structure and the method proposed in this paper in different 453 improvement stages, as shown in Figures 13 and 14. The method generates a rough feature map to display the 454 important region of the predicted images through the parameter weights generated by network training, in which the 455 brighter the region indicates the higher its importance, and the darker the region represents the sky or those that cannot be extracted. Figure 13 shows that CloudRVE has the best feature location and extraction ability by showing the 456 457 feature maps of three different cloud images in the MGCD dataset. Figure 14 shows that the three cloud images of the 458 GRSCD dataset include not only clouds and sky but also strong sunlight, which affects the classification accuracy of 459 the model. However, it can be seen from the feature maps that CloudRVE not only has the best feature extraction 460 ability but also has a strong ability to suppress noise such as sunlight.

461 **4.3 Comparison of Experimental Results**



463 Figure 15: Training accuracy (a) and training loss (b) curves of the MGCD dataset.

464

465



466 Figure 16: Training accuracy (a) and training loss (b) curves of the GRSCD dataset.

467 To verify the feasibility of the proposed CloudRVE method, we compared it with other advanced methods, including 468 CloudNet (Zhang et al., 2018), CloudA (Wang et al., 2020), Eff-Swin-T (Li et al., 2022), and other ground-based cloud image classification methods. These included such classic CNN models as VGG16 (Szegedy et al., 2015), 469 ResNet50 (He et al., 2016), ShuffleNet (Zhang et al., 2018) and EfficientNet (Tan and Le, 2019). In addition, we 470 compared it with other Transformer-based classification models such as ViT-L (Dosovitskiy et al., 2022), Swin-T(Liu 471 472 et al., 2021), etc. Figures 15 and 16 illustrate the performances of different methods by displaying the training accuracy 473 and training loss curves of MGCD and GRSCD datasets. Here the black bold curve represents the CloudRVE method, which has the largest accuracy value, the fastest convergence rate, the smallest loss rate, and the fastest decline rate 474 475 in the training stage. This strongly indicates that the CloudRVE method has the best classification performance of 476 ground-based cloud images.

Mathad			MGCD					GRSCD)	
Methoa	$\overline{Acc} (\%) \overline{Pr} (\%)$		<u>Re</u> (%)	TNR (%)	$\overline{F1}(\%)$	<u>Acc</u> (%)	<u>Pr</u> (%)	<u>Re</u> (%)	TNR (%)	$\overline{F1}$ (%)
VGG-16	78.25	77.04	75.52	96.36	75.55	73.50	73.88	70.29	95.53	70.87
ResNet-50	85.98	85.24	84.55	97.67	84.82	86.51	85.56	85.38	97.75	85.34
ShuffleNet	86.95	86.08	85.68	97.83	85.71	86.99	86.85	85.18	97.82	85.71
CloudNet	90.01	89.24	89.08	98.34	89.13	89.60	89.06	88.60	98.27	88.79
CloudA	89.62	88.78	88.50	98.28	88.61	90.03	89.54	88.71	98.34	89.03
EfficientNet	91.17	90.66	90.22	98.53	90.27	90.10	89.68	88.92	98.35	89.13
ViT-L	91.11	90.91	90.21	98.55	90.40	90.98	90.49	90.33	98.50	90.39
Swin-T	92.87	92.44	91.63	98.63	91.76	93.55	93.22	92.87	98.93	92.71
RepVGG	95.57	95.31	94.99	99.26	95.14	95.42	94.99	94.88	99.24	94.92
Eff-Swin-T	96.93	96.73	96.44	99.49	96.56	95.62	95.41	95.11	99.27	95.21
CloudRVE	98.15	97.99	97.98	99.68	97.83	98.07	97.80	97.88	99.68	97.82

477 **Table 7.** Comparison of experimental results.

478 The comparative analysis results of the above methods are summarized in Table 7. It can be seen from the 479 experimental results that RepVGG had the best performance among the CNN-based methods. Among them, the 480 accuracy rate has the most significant improvement, and the precision and recall rates also have good improvement. 481 The accuracy rate, precision rate, recall rate for the MGCD dataset reached 95.57, 95.31, and 94.99, respectively, while those for the GRSCD dataset were 95.42, 94.99, and 94.88, respectively. Ground-based cloud images have more 482 texture features and deep semantic features than other images, and more image features need to be obtained to meet 483 the classification requirements of such images. In recent years, Transformer has been widely used for image 484 485 processing tasks due to its strong feature extraction capability. Several scholars have improved the Transformer derivative model through continuous exploration. Among them, Eff-Swin-T was an improvement based on Swin-T, 486 487 and its performance on MGCD and GRSCD datasets was better than that of the classic CNN model. Its accuracy rate, 488 precision rate, and recall rate reached 96.93, 96.73, 96.44, and 95.62, 95.41, 95.11, respectively. Compared with 489 Transformer and classical networks, the proposed method had much better classification performance of ground-based

490 cloud images. For different cloud image classification datasets, it exhibited excellent generalization ability and strong

491 robustness, which is instrumental in photovoltaic power generation prediction.

The space complexities of CloudRVE and ten alternative methods are summarized and compared in Table 8. It can be seen from the table that CloudRVE had a spatial complexity of 105.17 Mb, which is in line with the spatial complexity of Swin-T and Eff-Swin-T, and far less than the spatial complexity of ViT-L. The spatial complexity of CloudRVE exceeded that of RepVGG by three times, achieving the best ground cloud image classification performance. Thus, CloudRVE achieved excellent ground cloud image classification performance at the expense of higher spatial complexity.

498 **Table 8.** Space complexity of the proposed and ten alternative methods.

Method	Space complexity (Mb)
VGG-16	512.28
ResNet-50	90.03
ShuffleNet	4.93
CloudNet	153.36
CloudA	87.57
EfficientNet	15.61
ViT-L	327.37
Swin-T	105.28
RepVGG	30.10
Eff-Swin-T	105.24
CloudRVE	105.17

499 In order to provide a more intuitive display of the advantages of CloudRVE over other advanced methods, we 500 extracted the features of the intermediate layers of different methods to generate the ground cloud feature maps for 501 the building foundation, demonstrating the strong feature extraction capabilities of CloudRVE and proving its 502 superiority, as shown in Figures 17 and 18. Feature extraction was achieved by generating rough feature maps through 503 network training with parameter weights to highlight the important regions of predicted images. The light colored 504 regions represent the important features, while the dark colored regions represent the sky or unsuccessfully extracted 505 features. Figure 17(b-i) shows the feature maps of different ground cloud classification methods based on MGCD 506 dataset to demonstrate the CloudRVE capability to extract more extensive and comprehensive cloud features and 507 suppress the black regions and sunlight, further illustrating the best feature localization and extraction capability of 508 CloudRVE. Figure 18(b-i) shows the feature maps of different ground cloud classification methods based on GRSCD dataset to demonstrate that the cloud feature extracted by CloudRVE covers the effective area in Figure 18(a) with 509 510 the best coverage and the best suppression of the sunlight, further proving that CloudRVE has the best feature 511 localization and extraction capabilities.





512

513 Figure 17: Feature extraction of different methods based on MGCD, (a) Original (Liu et al., 2020a); (b)VGG-16; (c) ResNet-

- 514 50; (d) ShuffleNet; (e) CloudNet; (f) CloudA; (g) EfficientNet; (h) ViT-L; (i) Swin-T; (j) RepVGG; (k) Eff-Swin-T; (l)
- 515 CloudRVE



516

517 Figure 18: Feature extraction of different methods based on GRSCD: (a) Original (Liu et al., 2020b); (b)VGG-16;

518 (c)ResNet-50; (d) ShuffleNet; (e) CloudNet; (f) CloudA; (g) EfficientNet; (h) ViT-L; (i) Swin-T; (j) RepVGG; (k) Eff-Swin-

519 T; (I) CloudRVE

520 5. Conclusion

521 This study proposed a new classification method called CloudRVE for ground-based cloud images based on the

522 improved RepVGG network. In particular, its training stage structure was improved, the residual structure was

523 broadened, and 1×1 convolutional layer branches were added to each block, extending the gradient information of the

524 topology structure and enhancing the network ability to represent boundary features of cloud images. In addition, the

525 NECA module was embedded after multi-branch fusion to learn the feature relationship between sequences, improve

526 the network cross-channel interaction ability, and extract the best global features of cloud images. We validated the 527 excellent performance of the proposed method on MGCD and GRSCD ground-based cloud image datasets, achieving the classification accuracy values of 98.15 and 98.07%, respectively, which outperformed ten other advanced methods. 528 529 In addition, the MGCD and GRSCD ground-based cloud image datasets contain 7 types of cloud categories, which is 530 more than the ground-based cloud image datasets used in other papers. This further demonstrates the excellent 531 performance of the proposed method. The particular contributions of this paper were summarized in Section 1. 532 However, this study shares some limitations with other methods of classifying ground-based cloud images via 533 convolutional neural networks, which have reached a bottleneck due to continuous expansion of the capacity of 534 ground-based cloud image datasets. A lucrative alternative is Transformer, which got a high reputation of a powerful 535 deep neural network for processing sequences but has received little attention in ground-based cloud image 536 classification. On the other hand, cloud classification is only based on ground-based cloud image features, while many 537 physical features, such as height, thickness, etc., may be also used. Our follow-up study envisages combining CNN 538 and Transformer models and using cloud height, cloud thickness, and other parameters in ground-based cloud image 539 classification to improve the model's performance.

540

541 *Author Contributions*. LH performed the experiments and wrote the paper. CS, KZ, and HX analyzed the data and 542 designed the experiments. CS conceived the method and reviewed the paper. XL, ZS, and XZ reviewed the paper and 543 gave constructive suggestions.

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548 *Data Availability Statement.* The MGCD dataset was accessed from https://github.com/shuangliutjnu/Multimodal-549 Ground-based-Cloud-Database. The GRSCD dataset was accessed from https://github.com/shuangliutjnu/TJNU-550 Ground-based-Remote-Sensing-Cloud-Database.

551

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555

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