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Tropical Africa's first testbed for high-impact weather forecasting and nowcasting

J.K. Fletcher,^{a,b} C.A. Diop,^c E. Adefisan,^{d,e} M. Ahiataku,^f S.O. Ansah,^f C.E. Birch,^a H.L. Burns,^a S.J. Clarke,^a J. Gacheru,^g T.D. James,^a C.K. Ngetich Tuikong,^f D. Koros,^f V.S. Indasi,^d B.L. Lamptey,^e K.A. Lawal,^{h,i} D.J. Parker,^{a,b,j} A.J. Roberts,^{a,b} T.H.M. Stein,^k E. Visman,^l J. Warner,^m B.J. Woodhams,^{a,n} L.H. Youds,^{a,o} V.O. Ajayi,^e E.N. Bosire,^p C. Cafaro,^k C.A.T. Camara,^c B. Chanzu,^g C. Dione,^d W. Gitau,^p D. Groves,^b J. Groves,^b P.G. Hill,^k I. Ishiyaku,^h C.M. Klein,^{l,q} J.H. Marsham,^a B.K. Mutai,^p P.N. Ndiaye,^c M. Osei,^r T.I. Popoola,^s J. Talib,^l C.M. Taylor,^l D. Walker^b

^a *University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom*

^b *National Centre for Atmospheric Science, Leeds, United Kingdom*

^c *Agence Nationale de l'Aviation Civile et de la Météorologie, Dakar, Senegal*

^d *African Centre of Meteorological Application for Development, Niamey, Niger*

^e *Federal University of Technology Akure, Akure, Nigeria*

^f *Ghana Meteorological Agency, Accra, Ghana*

^g *Kenya Meteorological Department, Nairobi, Kenya*

^h *Nigeria Meteorological Agency, Abuja, Nigeria*

ⁱ *ACDI, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa*

^j *Norwegian Research Centre (NORCE), Bergen, Norway*

^k *University of Reading, Reading, United Kingdom*

^l *U.K. Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford, United Kingdom*

^m *U.K. Met Office, Exeter, United Kingdom*

ⁿ *Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, Karlsruhe, Germany*

^o *World Meteorological Organization, Geneva, Switzerland*

^p *University of Nairobi, Nairobi, Kenya*

^q *University of Innsbruck, Innsbruck, Austria*

^r *Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana*

^s *Meteorological Research and Training Institute, Lagos, Nigeria*

Corresponding author: Cheikh Abdoulat Diop, abdoulat.dio@anacim.sn

30 ABSTRACT

31 Testbeds have become integral to advancing the transfer of knowledge and capabilities
32 from research to operational weather forecasting in many parts of the world. The first high-
33 impact weather testbed in tropical Africa was recently carried out through the African SWIFT
34 program, with participation from researchers and forecasters from Senegal, Ghana, Nigeria,
35 Kenya, the United Kingdom, and international and pan-African organizations.

36 The testbed aims were to trial new forecasting and nowcasting products with operational
37 forecasters, to inform future research, and to act as a template for future testbeds in the
38 tropics. The African SWIFT testbed integrated users and researchers throughout the process
39 to facilitate development of impact-based forecasting methods and new research ideas driven
40 both by operations and user input.

41 The new products are primarily satellite-based nowcasting systems and ensemble
42 forecasts at global and regional convection-permitting scales. Neither of these was used
43 operationally in the participating African countries prior to the testbed. The testbed received
44 constructive, positive feedback via intense user interaction including fishery, agriculture,
45 aviation, and electricity sectors.

46 After the testbed, a final set of recommended standard operating procedures for satellite-
47 based nowcasting in tropical Africa have been produced. The testbed brought the attention of
48 funding agencies and organizational directors to the immediate benefit of improved forecasts.
49 Delivering the testbed strengthened the partnership between each country's participating
50 university and weather forecasting agency and internationally, which is key to ensuring the
51 longevity of the testbed outcomes.

52 CAPSULE

53 Forecasters, forecast users, and researchers came together for an intensive trial of
54 nowcasting and forecasting products in tropical Africa. This facilitated a three-way flow of
55 information and ideas between the groups, benefitting forecasting, operations-driven
56 research, and users.

57 **Introduction**

58 Convective storms in tropical Africa cause numerous deaths and significant damage each
59 year as a result of flooding, high winds, lightning strikes, hail, and haboobs. Even when
60 storms are not severe, they can disrupt daily life – for example, a harvest can be ruined if
61 unexpected rain falls on crops left to dry in the sun. Startlingly, for much of tropical Africa,
62 the one-day rainfall forecast from a state-of-the-art ensemble prediction has less skill than an
63 ensemble climatology (Vogel et al. 2020). Skilled forecasters presumably add significant
64 value to a forecast, and so the baseline quality of forecasts as issued operationally in tropical
65 Africa is likely higher than suggested by Vogel et al. (2020); on the other hand, most tropical
66 African forecasters do not have access to the best available tools for near-term forecasting
67 and nowcasting. As of 2018, there was no evidence that forecasting services provided
68 operational nowcasting in tropical Africa outside of major airports, and even there, retrieval
69 products and automated forward extrapolations were not used (Roberts et al. 2021). The skill
70 of nowcast products in Africa (Hill et al. 2020) even at lead times of four hours (Burton et al.
71 2022) therefore provides a major opportunity, but there is a need to familiarise forecasters
72 with nowcast tools and approaches, and to demonstrate their usefulness to stakeholders.

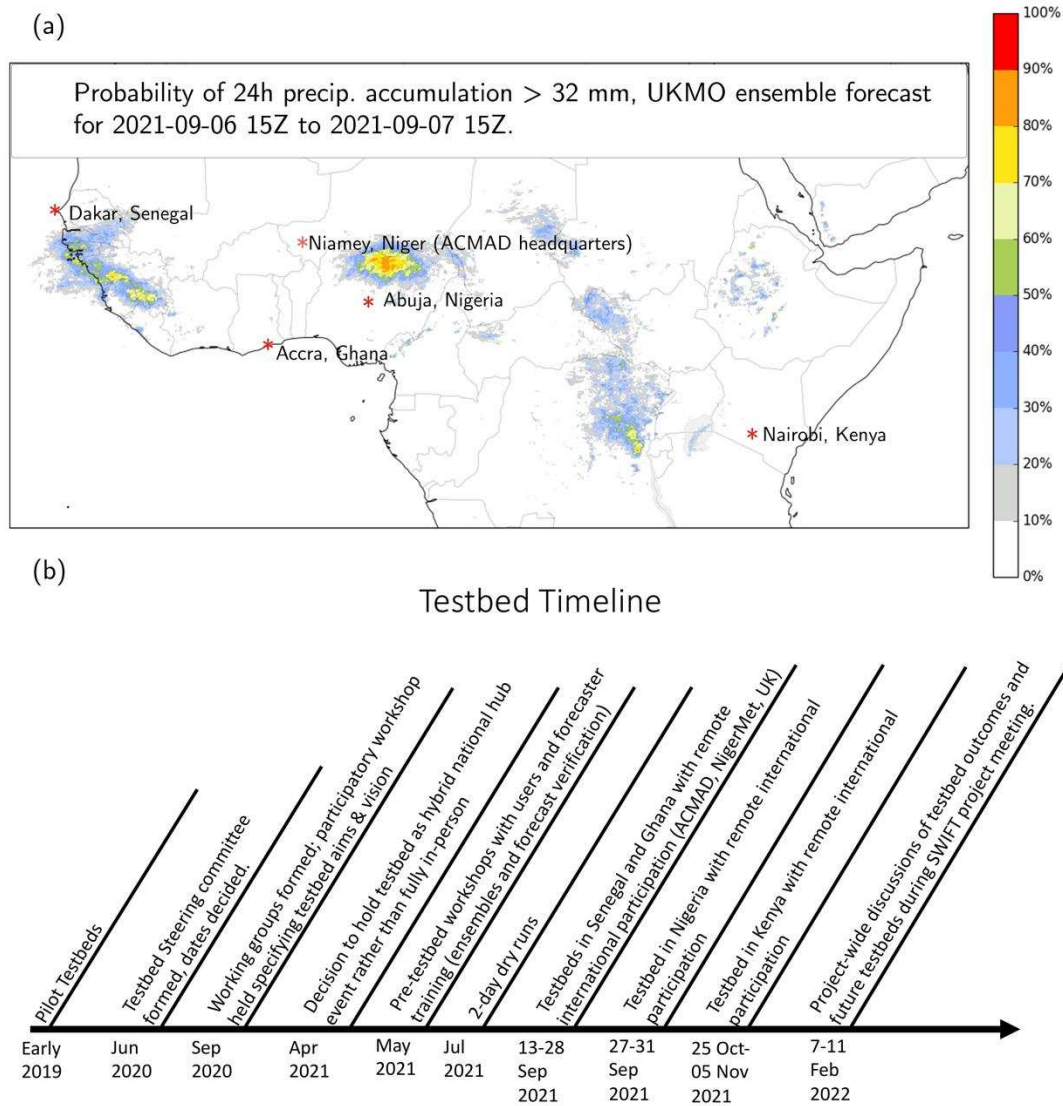
73 The African Science for Weather Information and Forecasting Techniques (African
74 SWIFT, Parker et al. 2022) program was designed to bring significant improvements in
75 African forecasting capability. African SWIFT is built on collaboration between researchers
76 and operational forecast services in four African countries – Kenya, Nigeria, Ghana, and
77 Senegal – and the UK, as well as several regional and pan-African weather and climate
78 services. A cornerstone of African SWIFT is the implementation of forecasting testbeds in
79 each of the above African countries. Building on the model of testbeds held in the United
80 States (e.g., Ralph et al. 2012; Jedlovec et al. 2013; Bernardet et al. 2015; Shao et al. 2016),
81 African SWIFT testbeds aim to bridge the gap between research and operations by trialing
82 new forecasting tools and methods in a quasi-operational environment where forecasters and
83 researchers work side-by-side, and where outcomes not only affect operations but also guide
84 future research directions. Crucially, African SWIFT testbeds also include forecast users in
85 not just the testbeds but also in their planning and preparation.

86 Because SWIFT aims to improve weather forecasts across a range of time scales, it has
87 held two types of testbeds: one aimed at sub-seasonal to seasonal forecasts, held over an 18-
88 month period (Hirons et al. 2021) and two (a pilot testbed and a final testbed) aimed at time
89 scales from hours (nowcasting) to days (synoptic forecasting). This paper focuses on

90 SWIFT’s final nowcasting to synoptic testbed. The planning, implementation, and execution
91 of this testbed was a transformational exercise: it allowed forecasters to discover and evaluate
92 new tools and methods, and it required researchers to think through every step needed to
93 bring their proposed tool or method into operations and to get a taste of the realities of
94 operational forecasting. Furthermore, interaction with users promoted an impact-based
95 approach to the development of products and communications in the testbed. Finally, forecast
96 users gained a new appreciation for the challenges in forecasting and develop stronger
97 working relationships with weather forecasting services in their country.

98 **Testbed operations**

99 The testbed was held in late 2021. Figure 1a shows the locations in Africa which
100 participated and the region over which synoptic forecasting was conducted, and Figure 1b
101 gives a rough timeline of the preparation and delivery of the testbed; about one year was
102 devoted to testbed preparation, discussed in detail in Appendix D. Due to the COVID-19
103 pandemic it was not possible to travel internationally, and so the the testbed was conducted in
104 national hubs which interacted virtually with each other and with international participants in
105 the UK and in regional and pan-African weather and climate service organizations. The
106 primary testbed locations (Fig. 1a) were Dakar, Senegal; Accra, Ghana; Abuja, Nigeria; and
107 Nairobi, Kenya, with remote support from Niamey, Niger (ACMAD and MetNiger) and
108 various locations in the UK (see Appendix A). The primary locations held their testbed
109 events at different dates for logistical reasons and to align with their rainy seasons (Fig. 1b),
110 with participants from the national operational weather forecasting agency and cooperating
111 university (Appendix A). The hybrid nature of the testbed was an unexpected silver lining
112 because it allowed more countries to carry out their own testbed than originally envisioned,
113 and it exposed all participants to a wide range of methods and user perspectives.

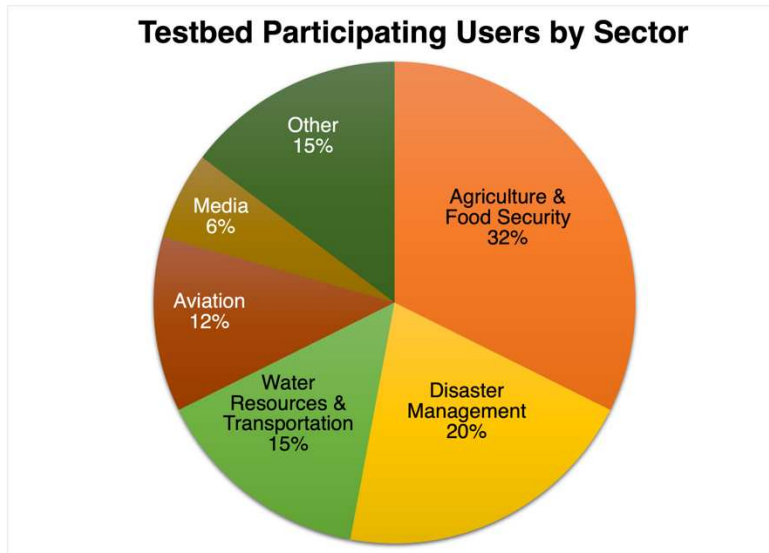


114

115 Figure 1: (a) example probability of rainfall accumulation map from the UK Met Office regional
 116 convection-permitting ensemble forecast system, with the locations of the African testbed participants indicated
 117 by red stars; (b) timeline of testbed preparation and delivery (see Appendix D for details on testbed preparation).

118 A significant innovation of African SWIFT testbed was deep engagement with users,
 119 specifically expert technicians in sectors with interest in meteorological hazards and who
 120 make decisions or give advice to an entire sector based on the forecast. Users were invited to
 121 participate in the testbed based on their prior engagement with forecast agencies in their
 122 country and the interest they expressed in receiving weather information at lead times of
 123 hours to days. The most common sectors represented by the 34 users who participated in the
 124 testbed were agricultural, disaster management, and water resources and transportation
 125 (Figure 2). Prior to the testbed, iterative discussions between testbed planners and users were
 126 the primary vehicle for developing the impact-based forecast templates used in the testbed.

127



128

129 Fig. 2. Breakdown by sector of the 34 participating users across Senegal, Ghana, Nigeria, and Kenya
 130 in the testbed. The 'Other' category is one of each of the following: insurance, health, community
 131 organization, climate NGO, and transport.

132

133 Each primary testbed location delivered daily synoptic forecasts out to three days lead
 134 time, followed by 1-day high-impact weather forecasts issued around midday, and
 135 nowcasting in the afternoon and early evening as storms developed. The synoptic forecasting
 136 was conducted using bespoke forecast charts and informed the high-impact weather forecasts
 137 which used global and regional ensemble prediction systems. These in turn informed the
 138 nowcasting which was done using satellite-based nowcasting products. Each day testbed
 139 forecasters delivered high-impact weather (HIW, here meaning heavy rain, strong winds,
 140 dust, and hail for land, marine, and lake environments) forecasts and nowcasts to
 141 participating users following a pre-defined template; they also discussed the forecasts face to
 142 face with users throughout the testbed.

143 *Daily operations*

144 Daily operations, summarized in Table 1, varied across location, but the broad focus was
 145 synoptic forecasting in the morning, with a synoptic briefing held at about 1400 local time.
 146 The synoptic briefing was held for one hour via videoconference, allowing SWIFT members
 147 to get a window into each testbed, and covered the synoptic forecast for the region and the
 148 national high-impact weather forecasts. This was followed by evaluations of the previous
 149 day's forecasts using station data and IMERG early run rainfall observations (Huffman et al.
 150 2015) and discussions of any technical or logistical problems. After the synoptic briefing,

151 testbed forecasters delivered the aforementioned HIW forecasts to users; they also discussed
152 the forecasts face to face with users throughout the testbed.

153 Forecasters dedicated to nowcasting began in in the afternoon, with nowcasts issued to
154 users every two hours. Forecast verification and evaluation occurred in parallel, with
155 scientists carrying our objective verification of the global operational MetUM forecast and
156 the convection-permitting deterministic MetUM and other researchers carrying out subjective
157 evaluation of the forecasts with users.

158 For each location the forecasting was done by a mix of on-duty forecasters, forecasters
159 who had had some duties relieved, and scientists employed at the in-country university or
160 operational center, with individuals specializing in synoptic forecasting or nowcasting as
161 much as logistically possible. Because the testbed was held in the home cities of each
162 participating forecasting center, participants still had ordinary work and life obligations, and
163 it was generally not possible for them to work night shifts. The operational centers do have a
164 forecaster working overnight, but this person had too many usual duties to take on testbed
165 duties as well. Therefore nowcasting typically stopped at 6 PM, with a few exceptions (when
166 a big storm was expected) where a testbed nowcaster would issue nowcasts from home into
167 the night. This was enabled by, and highlights the benefit of, the products needed for
168 nowcasting being available online.

169 During the testbed, users, forecasters, and scientists worked together in the same room on
170 most days. Users and scientists attended the daily synoptic briefings. Users gave regular
171 feedback on the forecasts and nowcasts and were given the chance to learn more about both
172 the constraints and possibilities for operational forecasting. The regular interaction fostered
173 stronger relationships between users and forecasters, building trust that is needed for uptake
174 of forecast products. It also gave time for forecasters and scientists to explain technical terms
175 to help them better understand forecasts – in Senegal about 30 minutes per day were
176 dedicated to this, with much of that time dedicated to discussion of probability and
177 uncertainty in forecasts

178 Table 1: summary of daily and weekly timetable during the testbed.

Daily Events	Daily Event Details	Weekly Events	Weekly Event Details

Synoptic and HIW forecasting	Morning, in person, 2-5 people per location.	Opening ceremony, final training	Day 1, hybrid, 10-50 participants.
Synoptic and HIW brief, issuing of HIW forecast to users	Around 1300 local time, virtual, ranged from about 5-30 participants.	Mid-point evaluation meeting	Around day 7, hybrid, about 10-50 participants.
Nowcasting, with nowcasts issued to users every two hours	Afternoon and early evening, in person (with virtual delivery of nowcasts to users if needed), 1-5 people per location.	Final evaluation meeting	Around day 14, hybrid, 10-50 participants.
Evaluation	Concurrent with other activities, in person with support from remote partners. About 1-5 people per location.	Closing ceremony	Final day, hybrid, 10-50 participants.

179

180 A key role in the testbed was that of the scientific secretary. At each primary testbed
181 location, this person was tasked with uploading all documents used for the weather briefs and
182 all products issued to users to a shared repository. They also filled in a daily sheet, stored in
183 the cloud, naming the forecasters on duty, any significant weather events from the day, and
184 any other details of note.

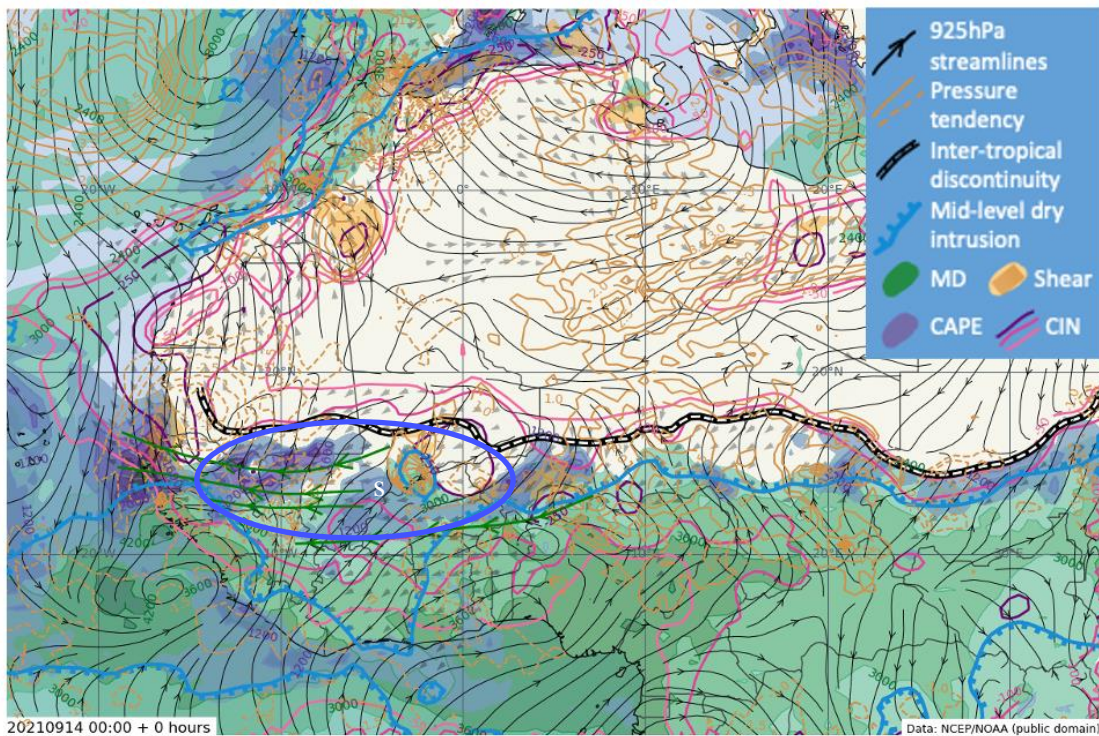
185 *Synoptic and high-impact forecasting*

186 Testbed forecasters carried out synoptic forecasting and HIW forecasting using bespoke
187 products generated as part of the African SWIFT program, following a standard operating
188 procedure (SOP) developed for the testbed (Clarke and Ansah 2022). They then delivered the
189 synoptic forecasts to other testbed participants primarily through the daily synoptic brief,

190 while for HIW forecasting they followed a pre-defined template to issue the HIW forecast to
191 users.

192 SYNTHETIC ANALYSIS AND FORECAST CHARTS

193 Testbed planners wrote new algorithms to automatically generate so-called synthetic
194 charts for West Africa and East Africa using data from National Centers for Environmental
195 Prediction Global Forecast System. These charts are made through objective identification of
196 key features forecasters use such as the African Easterly Jet. Synthetic charts enable
197 forecasters to quickly view the relative timing and locations of multiple important features to
198 diagnose the likelihood of convective storms. In Figure 3, the example synthetic chart shows
199 fairly high convective available potential energy and moderate convective inhibition over
200 eastern Senegal and southern Mauritania and Mali (circled in blue), where the African
201 Easterly Jet and associated low-level shear are strong and the intertropical discontinuity is
202 just to the north. However, the low monsoon depth and southerly position of the mid-level
203 dry intrusion suggest lack of moisture availability for convection. Experienced forecasters
204 can use these features to make quick judgements about the likelihood of storms more readily
205 than for standard forecast model output.



206

207 Fig. 3. Sample synthetic chart used by West African forecasters during the testbed. Abbreviations in
208 legend are as follows: MD: monsoon depth, CAPE: convective available potential energy, CIN: convective
209 inhibition. The region discussed in the text is circled in blue.

210 Standard methods of synthetic analysis and forecasting already existed for West Africa
211 (Lafore et al. 2017). For East Africa, new methods were developed by SWIFT researchers in
212 collaboration with SWIFT forecasters at the Kenya Meteorological Department. The
213 synthetic charts were made by downloading GFS data and plotting the features using pre-
214 agreed diagnostic variables, described in Appendix A. This was all automated prior to the
215 testbed, and the resulting plots were automatically made available to participants via the web.
216 All required scripts are on github (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5575865>).

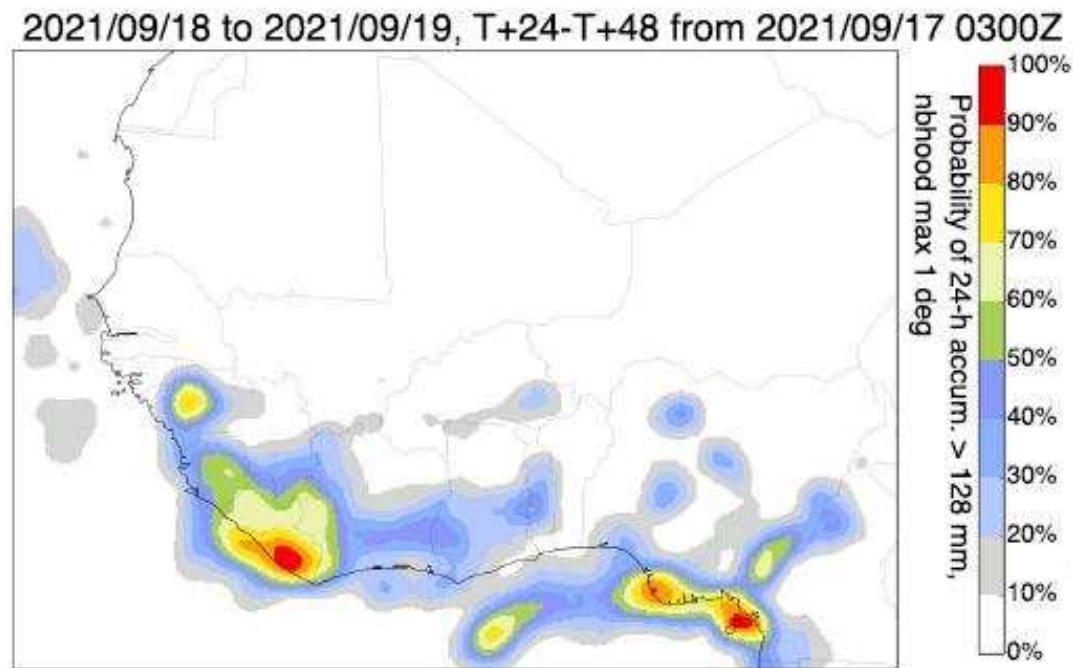
217 CONVECTION-PERMITTING ENSEMBLE FORECASTS

218 Along with synthetic charts, testbed forecasters used both global and convection-
219 permitting ensemble simulations to issue their 24-hour high-impact weather forecasts. The
220 technical details of the ensembles are described in Appendix C. Such convection-permitting
221 simulations have been shown to add skill relative to a parameterised global model, especially
222 in the afternoon at the time when most storms initiate. They therefore provide synergy with
223 nowcasting, which is most useful for existing storms and generally unable to predict
224 initiation, although the ensemble is under-spread (Cafaro et al. 2021) like many other
225 convection-permitting ensemble systems (e.g., Schwartz et al. 2014; Loken et al. 2019;
226 Porson et al. 2020).

227 The scripts used to generate the synthetic charts above also automatically produced
228 PowerPoint files which included the synthetic charts and the most-used fields from the
229 ensembles, namely postage stamps, probability of threshold exceedance plots, and
230 meteograms of surface variables for a variety of locations requested by forecasters and users.
231 The types of plots, fields, thresholds, and accumulations were chosen through discussion with
232 forecasters and users during the pre-testbed planning described in Appendix D.

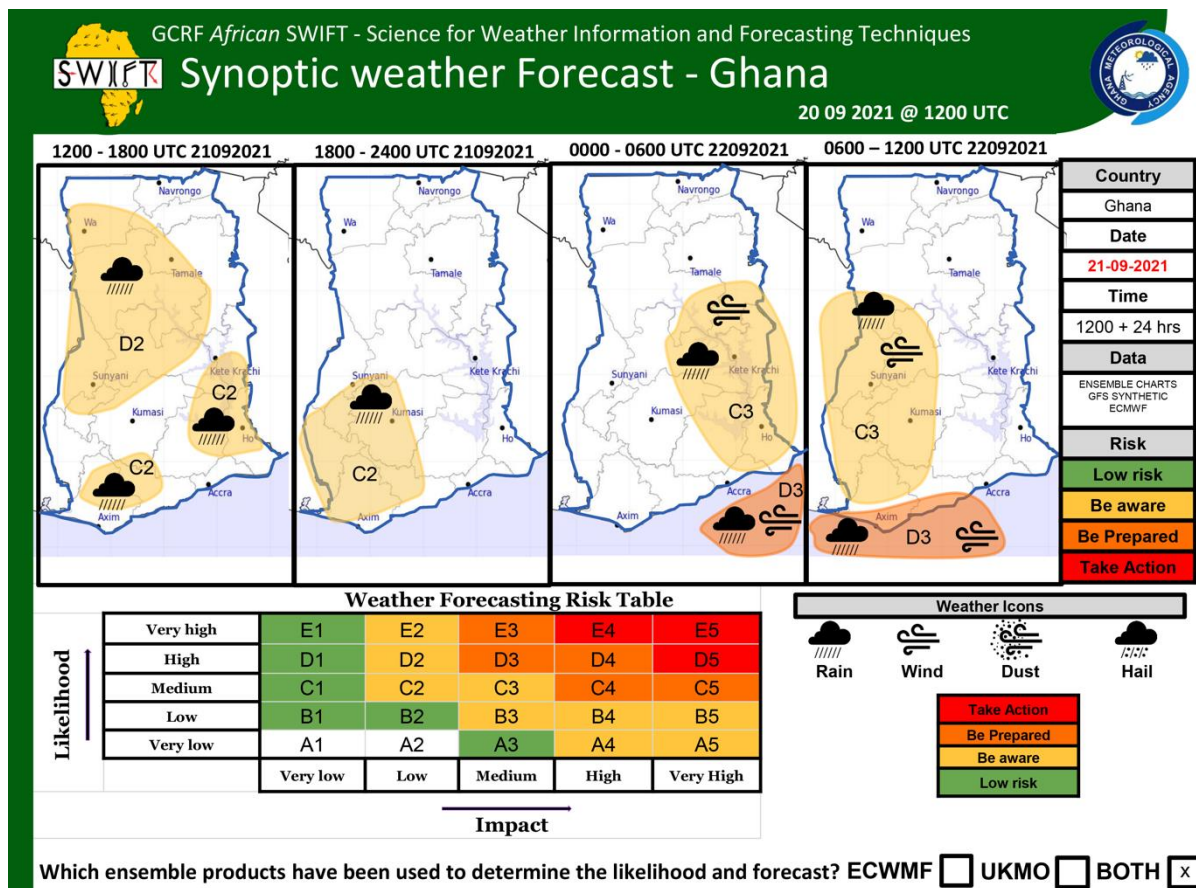
233 An example of the probability of threshold exceedance plots is shown in Figure 4, where
234 we see the models forecasting 24-h rainfall accumulations exceeding 128 mm in several
235 locations with probability greater than 80%. While such high rainfall accumulations do occur
236 in West Africa, the convection-permitting MetUM has a positive rainfall bias and too-low
237 ensemble spread (Cafaro et al 2021), both of which contribute to a positive bias in the
238 threshold exceedance plots. This underscores the need for synergy between operations-aimed

239 research and forecaster training in the implementation of new products: forecasters need to
240 know how to interpret the products given their biases, but some of that knowledge comes
241 from systematically evaluating the products in an operational environment. This testbed was
242 a start to this procedure for convection-permitting ensembles, but to fully develop operational
243 guidance for use of these products would likely require a testbed dedicated entirely to their
244 evaluation.



245
246 Fig. 4: Example of a convection-permitting ensemble product provided to forecasters during the
247 testbed. Neighborhood method is described in Cafaro et al (2021) following Roberts and Lean (2008).

248
249 The testbed synoptic forecasters used the synthetic charts and ensemble products to issue
250 daily 24-h HIW forecasts to users (Figure 5). These products indicated the qualitative risks of
251 heavy rain, strong winds, dust, and hail due to meteorological hazards. The risk table used
252 was adapted from similar risk color schemes used in weather and climate services in Africa.
253 The synoptic SOP (Clarke and Ansah 2022) specified the steps taken for all aspects of the
254 synoptic forecast, from assessing the synthetic charts to producing the HIW product.



255 Which ensemble products have been used to determine the likelihood and forecast? ECWMF UKMO BOTH

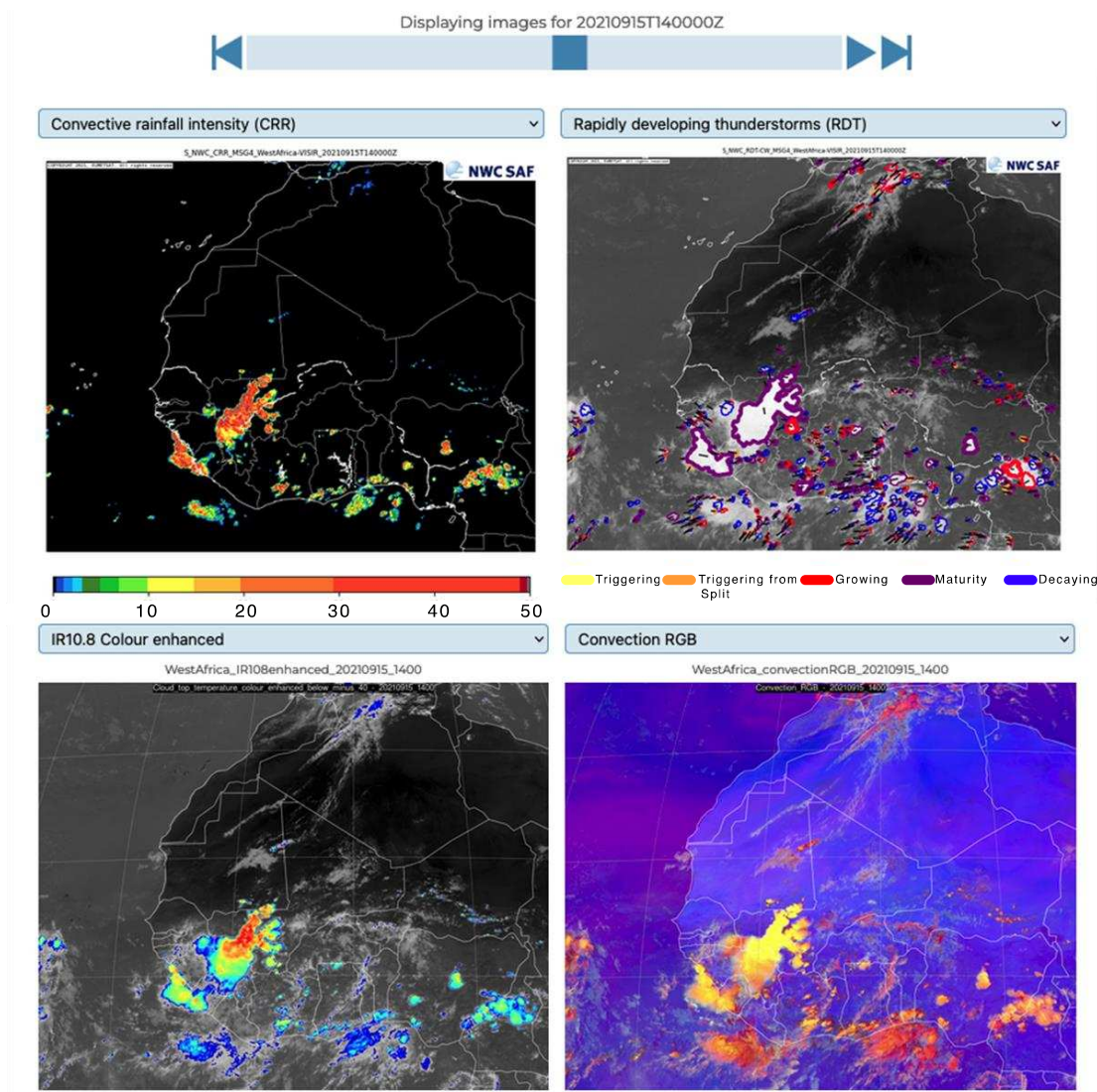
256 Fig. 5. Example high-impact weather forecast issued to Ghana users during the testbed. These also
 257 included regional text forecasts which have been cropped out for brevity.

258 *Nowcasting*

259 The primary satellite-based nowcasting products used in the testbed were the Nowcasting
 260 Satellite Application Facility (NWC-SAF, <https://www.nwcsaf.org/>). NWC-SAF software
 261 takes Meteosat and numerical weather prediction (NWP) data to produce a variety of
 262 products for nowcasting, including estimates of surface rain rates from convection and
 263 forward extrapolations of many products. By default, in NWC-SAF codes such extrapolations
 264 are for 30 minutes, but SWIFT has shown nowcast skill extending to hours (Hill et al. 2020;
 265 Burton et al. 2022). The latter paper shows that on average there is skill at a 4-h lead time on
 266 200 km, but skill is higher in evenings and overnight when large mature storms dominate.
 267 Similarly, large mature storms with steady motion are expected to be more predictable than
 268 average. The range was therefore extended to five hours, as long lead time products with
 269 appropriate uncertainties were perceived as useful.

270 To facilitate the use of NWC-SAF nowcasting products during the testbed, SWIFT
 271 scientists developed an online catalog (<https://science.ncas.ac.uk/swift/>, Figure 6). Products

272 from the NWC-SAF software are generally available on the SWIFT catalog with a latency of
 273 30 minutes. Hosted on the catalog alongside NWC-SAF products are a variety of NWP and
 274 standard satellite images, allowing forecasters to compare different nowcasting information
 275 sources in near-real time. Finally, for the Sahel region additional nowcast products that relate
 276 the likelihood of storm propagation to land surface temperature anomalies (Taylor et al.
 277 2022) were used.

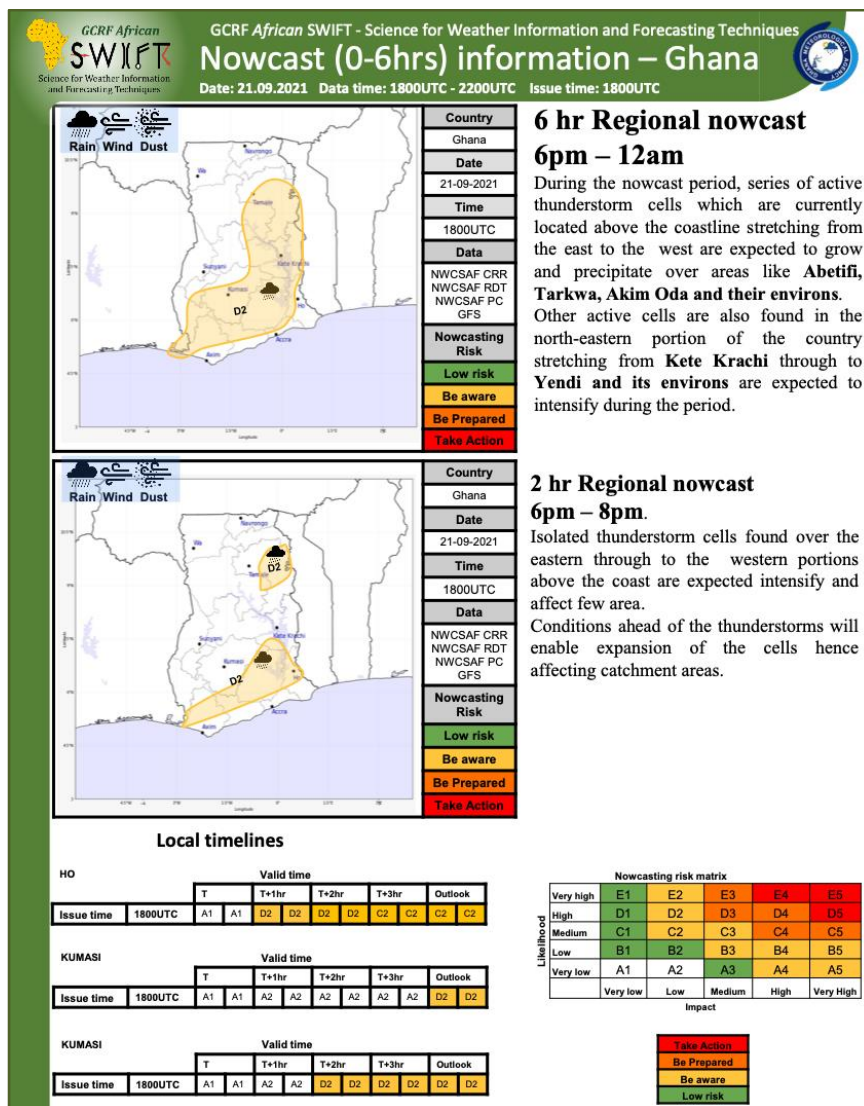


278
 279 Fig. 6: Screen shot of one possible configuration of the SWIFT nowcasting catalog (drop-down menus
 280 offer many possible configurations). Clockwise from upper left: the NWC-SAF convective rainfall
 281 intensity product (mm/h), the NWC-SAF Rapidly Developing Thunderstorm product; convection RGB;
 282 colour-enhanced infrared. All data is from the EUMetSat SEVIRI instrument. Legends have been
 283 annotated for legibility.

284 The full nowcasting SOP is described in Roberts et al (2022). First, a synoptic overview
 285 was provided to nowcasters at the start of their shifts, which were timed to cover the most

286 convectively active parts of the diurnal cycle. From the synoptic conditions and the latest
 287 nowcast products, nowcasters generated a six-hour outlook consisting of an outlook risk map
 288 and a short text summary. They also produced a 0-2 hour risk map with an accompanying
 289 text summary. An example of the nowcasting product issued to users is shown in Figure 7.

290 The estimates of risk require considerable local knowledge and experience from
 291 forecasters to translate the varied meteorological situation into risk estimates aimed at
 292 specific users. Nowcasters reported in the daily cross-country chart discussions that they
 293 improved their estimates of the risk over the course of the testbed due to feedback from users.



294
 295 Fig. 7: Example nowcasting product issued to users in Ghana during the testbed.

296 In addition to maps, nowcasters produced timelines of risk over the coming hours for
 297 several locations in each country. Some locations important to users were selected to have
 298 timelines produced for each nowcast, even if there was no weather event predicted, with

299 additional locations chosen based on need. Nowcasters supplemented NWC-SAF products
300 with model-predicted stability indices to predict the meteorological risk for the next three
301 hours at 30-minute increments for each location, entered into color-coded tables, along with a
302 six-hour outlook.

303 The three products above were collated into a single document distributed to nowcast
304 users, designed to be understood by non-specialists with information on qualitative risk rather
305 than quantitative rain rates or wind speeds. Nowcasters issued these documents on a rolling
306 basis, with regular two-hourly updates during normal operation but more frequent updates
307 during times of extreme weather or rapid divergence from predicted conditions. The details of
308 the presentation of the nowcast were decided with users during the pre-testbed planning.

309

310 **Evaluation during the testbed**

311 *Forecast evaluation*

312 Evaluation activities were carried out in parallel with the daily forecasting activities.
313 Some of this was objective verification, e.g. computation of fractions skill scores (Roberts
314 and Lean 2008) for various configurations of the MetUM over the period leading up to and
315 during the testbed. Mostly, however, the evaluation was subjective or semi-objective
316 involving questionnaires sent to users asking how the forecast affected their decision-making,
317 as well as in-person discussions.

318 *User evaluation*

319 Users who participated responded enthusiastically to the products. Nowcast information
320 had a wide variety of uses beyond predicting severe storms, as demonstrated in Table 2. For
321 example, Senegal nowcasts were issued to a lifeguard agency which provided guidance to
322 beachgoers about the safety of entering the water. The poor rainfall forecast skill in tropical
323 Africa means that these everyday applications of rainfall predictions are rare, but satellite-
324 based nowcasting provided useful, actionable information not normally available to these
325 users. The experience of the testbed strengthened many users' confidence in forecasts
326 received from their NMHS.

Examples of user actions based on testbed nowcasts

“We had to stop working on a transformer because of the rain [forecast].”

“Asked farmers to stop applying insecticide.”

“Dressed with cold protection and didn’t bring out my goat to graze.”

“I used it to brief some flights I dispatched.”

“Stop patrol team from proceeding to sea.”

“Informed farmers to continue planting the cocoa seedlings.”

“Increased the heat source in my poultry house.”

“I informed my people to use sprinklers instead of waiting on rainfall to water their plants.”

“Without forecast, I would have panicked expecting heavy rainfall leading to halting/altering planned activities.”

327 Table 2. Some responses from users to an online questionnaire asking “What action did you take
328 based on the nowcast?”

329 *Forecaster and Researcher evaluation*

330 At the end of the testbed, participating forecasters and researchers filled in a survey
331 giving feedback on the product templates and on the SOPs. Many forecasters regarded the
332 interactions with users as key to the success of the testbed and argued that such interactions
333 should be brought into regular operations. Participants were asked what practical things
334 would be needed to bring the tools and methods into operational practice. The most named
335 requirements were staff training, more staff time, and reliable data access, with many also
336 mentioning the need for more and improved computing equipment and fast, reliable internet
337 access.

338 Some of the most in-depth forecaster feedback was captured in conversation and noted by
339 the scientific secretary or other participants. In conversations several forecasters remarked
340 that the synthetic charts were easier to interpret than most of their operational products, and
341 that the layering of diagnostics within a single chart was particularly useful. A couple of
342 forecasters remarked that there should have been upper-level fields available, particularly
343 jets, waves, and troughs.

344 On the ensemble information, forecasters found the information promising but wished for
345 more training on how to interpret it. Forecasters had also found ensemble meteograms
346 difficult to use during pre-testbed exercises, and so they were not used during the testbed.

347 Some forecasters remarked that they found the ‘poor man’s ensemble’ – i.e., the use of
348 multiple global model outputs – more useful than an ensemble forecast from a single model,
349 due to the spread being greater.

350 Forecasters found the satellite-based nowcasting information extremely useful and
351 promising, especially the convective rain rate and rapidly developing thunderstorm product.
352 As discussed below, they requested shorter latency for these products.

353 Participants supported the benefit of future testbeds in tropical Africa, pointing out how
354 rare it is for forecasters, researchers, and users to work together in the same room. They cited
355 both the learning and training that occurred for all parties involved and the stronger working
356 relationships built between them. One forecaster summarised this as follows: “*When testbeds*
357 *like these are carried out, it brings innovations, development, capacity building, strengthens*
358 *networks and also it serves as a platform for learning from each other, so it is worth it to*
359 *carry out such activities.*”

360 **Impact and legacy of the African SWIFT Testbed**

361 The testbed has facilitated tangible developments in technical infrastructure to support
362 satellite nowcasting in Africa. All African NMHSs in SWIFT have all begun setting up the
363 freely-available NWC-SAF application locally. Running NWC-SAF locally gives national
364 met services autonomy in choosing domains, developing and changing algorithms, and
365 ensuring the reliability of their system. For example, NiMet are developing an algorithm to
366 predict the likelihood of microbursts using information from NWC-SAF and NWP. The
367 primary problem with NWC-SAF is the latency of the product -- despite best efforts it is
368 usually not available until 30-45 minutes after observation time.

369 Another barrier to satellite nowcasting in tropical Africa is that the primary time for
370 storms is in the evening and night. While operational centres typically have one person
371 working the overnight shift during the rainy season, additional staffing will be required to
372 carry out proper nowcasting when it is most needed. Additionally, producing the nowcast
373 sheets issued to users was time-consuming, and it would be better to have a tool which allows
374 forecasters to indicate areas of risk but which automates some aspects of the process.

375 The intensive interactions with users provided forecasters and researchers a wealth of
376 information about what information is useful and actionable and prompted a more formalised
377 approach to impact-based forecasting. For example, ANACIM staff worked with users during

378 the testbed to build maps indicating what magnitude of rainfall, wind speed, and temperature
379 are considered extreme for different regions and sectors. From this they will develop
380 guidance for forecasters on the risk that they should estimate for different storms, depending
381 on location, season, and user sector. ANACIM staff aim to produce a first test of the impact-
382 based forecasts using this guidance for selected sectors and regions by the 2022 rainy season.

383 The new SOPs for high impact weather forecasting (Clarke and Ansah 2022) and
384 nowcasting (Roberts et al 2022) are publicly available and can be adapted for specific
385 locations.

386 African SWIFT's testbeds – the pilot testbed, the testbed described here, and the seasonal
387 to subseasonal timescale testbed described in Hirons et al (2021) – were the first of their kind
388 in tropical Africa, bringing new NWP and nowcasting tools and leading to significant
389 learning among the team of users, forecasters, and researchers. It was a leap in progress in
390 developing strong links between research and operations, successfully co-producing new
391 products with users, entraining a greater number of forecasters and researchers, and
392 streamlining the operations through new SOPs. Additionally, the SWIFT testbed described
393 here prompted new research questions among participating scientists, highlighting the benefit
394 of testbeds not just for research-to-operations but also for operations-to-research.

395 To make further advances, we advocate for future testbeds to be held regularly in Africa,
396 led by Africans. We recommend that future African nowcasting testbeds should improve on
397 the SWIFT testbed and prioritise carrying out work at least partially into the night in order to
398 maximise the benefit. Future testbeds could also build on SWIFT by developing structured,
399 consistent methods for evaluating impact-based forecasts and nowcasts, which requires
400 timely, accurate, and comprehensive information about actual impacts. Furthermore, ongoing
401 testbeds should have reliable funding so that they are held not on a project basis but as part of
402 the normal calendar of national, regional, or pan-African activities supporting the
403 development of weather and climate services. These future testbeds will help pave the way
404 for ongoing capability building in tropical African weather prediction.

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409 *Data Availability Statement.*

410 Satellite data presented in figures can be obtained freely from EUMetSat. The NWC-SAF
411 software can be obtained for free from NWC-SAF and run on real-time or historical
412 EUMetSat data. Synoptic forecast data was obtained from the National Centers for
413 Environmental Prediction Global Forecast System operational forecast. UK Met Office
414 convection-permitting ensembles were run only for the testbed and are not publicly available;
415 data enquiries may be made to the Met Office.

416

417 APPENDIX

418 **Appendix A: testbed institutions**

419 The following lists participating institutions for each testbed location and for remote
420 participants. The primary locations were where the testbed was held, in person. The remote
421 participants supported testbed activities and led or contributed to testbed planning and
422 evaluation.

423 Table A1: Participating organisations in primary testbed locations.

Country	Operational Centre	University
Senegal	Agence Nationale de l'Aviation Civile et de la Météorologie (ANACIM)	Université Cheikh Anta Diop (UCAD)
Ghana	Ghana Meteorological Agency (GMet)	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science & Technology (KNUST)
Nigeria	Nigerian Meteorological Agency (NiMet)	Federal University of Technology Akure (FUTA)
Kenya	Kenya Meteorological Department (KMD)	University of Nairobi (UoN)

424 Remote participants:

- 425 • African Centre of Meteorological Applications for Development (ACMAD, pan-
- 426 African organization), Niamey, Niger.
- 427 • University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom.
- 428 • UK Met Office, Exeter, United Kingdom.
- 429 • University of Reading, Reading, United Kingdom.
- 430 • Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford, United Kingdom.
- 431 • Niger Meteorological Agency, Niamey, Niger.

432

433 **Appendix B: list of products used**

434 The synthetic charts all used data from GFS analysis and forecasts. The diagnostics used
 435 are listed in Table B1. For a full list of diagnostic definitions see Clarke and Ansah (2022).

Name and domain	Diagnostics shown
Pan Africa pressure systems 60°S-60°N, 60°W-90°E	Streamlines and wind speed at 925 hPa; mean sea level pressure, pressure tendency; mid-tropospheric dry intrusion.
West Africa convective 0°N-40°N, 15°W-35°E	Streamlines at 925 hPa; sea level pressure tendency; intertropical discontinuity; mid-level dry intrusion; moisture depth; shear; convective available potential energy; convective inhibition.
West Africa low-level 0°N-40°N, 15°W-35°E	Streamlines and wind speed at 925 hPa; mean sea level pressure, pressure tendency; intertropical discontinuity.
West Africa jets and waves 0°N-40°N, 15°W-35°E	African easterly jet; African easterly waves; moisture depth; jets at 850 hPa; vorticity at 850 hPa.

East Africa convective 15°S-22°N, 18°E-52°E	Streamlines at 700 hPa; sea level pressure tendency; mid-level dry intrusion; moisture depth; convective available potential energy; convective inhibition.
West Africa low-level 15°S-22°N, 18°E-52°E	Streamlines at 700 hPa and 10 m; mean sea level pressure, pressure tendency; midlevel dry intrusion; relative humidity at 700 hPa.

436 Table B 1: Diagnostics produced for synthetic charts used in synoptic forecasting.

437

438 The primary ensemble products used during the testbed are listed below. These were for
439 forecasts at lead times ranging from t+24 to t+72. For a full list of products contact the
440 corresponding author.

Type of plot	Diagnostics used
Postage stamps	24h rainfall accumulation; 3h rainfall accumulation
Probability of threshold exceedance using neighborhood method (Roberts and Lean 2008)	24h rainfall accumulation with thresholds of 32mm, 64mm, 128mm; 3h rainfall accumulation with threshold of 16mm.

441 Table B 2: Ensemble diagnostics used in the testbed.

442 The most used satellite-based nowcasting products are listed below. Some additional NWC-
443 SAF products were provided but rarely or never used; for a full list contact the corresponding
444 author.

Product type	Diagnostics
Standard satellite products	10.8µm enhanced IR, 0.6µm visible, convection RGB, dust RGB
NWC-SAF products	Convective rainfall intensity (with forward extrapolation); rapidly developing thunderstorms (with forward extrapolation);

	chance of precipitation, cloud mask, cloud top temperature.
Land surface temperature products for Sahel (Taylor et al 2022).	Land surface temperature anomalies; convective cores; land surface modulation factor.

445 Table B 3: List of nowcasting products used.

446

447

448

449 **Appendix C: ensemble specifications**

450 The global ensembles were the operational Met Office Global and Regional Ensemble
451 Prediction System (MOGREPS-G) and the publicly available ensemble forecasts from the
452 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasting.

453 Convection-permitting ensemble forecasts were produced for the testbed using the
454 MetUM Version 11.7 with the RA2T science configuration (as in Steptoe et al 2021; Cafaro
455 et al 2021). The horizontal resolution was about 8.8 km at the equator and the domain was
456 20°W to 54°E, 8°S to 28°N. The ensemble model runs were every 12 h, initialized at 03 UTC
457 and 15 UTC, and run to a 72 hour forecast, with 18 ensemble members.

458 **Appendix D: planning the testbed**

459 *Pilot Testbed*

460 African SWIFT held a pilot testbed in two phases in early 2019, hosted by the Kenya
461 Meteorological Department in Nairobi. The purpose of the pilot testbed was for the African
462 SWIFT participants – who had previously never participated in a testbed – to gain some
463 experience in advance of the final testbed, which was the focus of this paper and which was
464 held toward the end of the SWIFT program. The pilot testbed was described in detail in a
465 report by Fletcher et al. (2019). It was agreed among testbed participants that holding a pilot
466 testbed was key to the success of the final testbed for the training and preparation it offered.

467 *Pre-testbed workshops and training*

468 Testbed preparation incorporated several training and other preparation events for
469 participating forecasters (Fig. 1b). SWIFT researchers developed and carried out a five-day
470 virtual training for forecasters on convection-permitting and ensemble forecasting as well as a
471 week-long training on objective methods of forecast verification. These events not only
472 trained participants on concepts and tools used in the testbed, but also established – or built
473 on existing – working relationships between forecasters and scientists who participated in the
474 testbed.

475 USER ENGAGEMENT AND CO-PRODUCTION OF PRODUCTS

476 In the months leading up to the testbed, each African partner country held a workshop
477 with users focusing on key concepts in forecast use, led by SWIFT experts in user
478 engagement with weather and climate information. The most important concepts covered
479 were the use of probabilities in weather forecasting, an introduction to ensemble and
480 nowcasting products, and exercises designed to strengthen confidence in appropriate forecast
481 use within specific decision-making contexts.

482 At the end of the pre-testbed users' workshop, users answered a list of questions designed
483 to help determine the timing, frequency, and locations they required from products
484 communicating short-term (0-24h) likelihood of impactful weather (rain, winds, dust, and
485 hail). From the answers given by users, the testbed planners developed templates of products
486 that would be given to users regularly during the testbed. These products included a near-
487 term (24 h) high-impact weather (HIW) forecast as well as regular nowcasts (mainly 0-3 h),
488 both of which were issued for the country as a whole and for specific locations of interest.
489 Testbed planners made a beta version of these template products for a two-day dry-run in late
490 July 2021, during which users received the forecast products once per day and gave feedback
491 on both the content and presentation of the products, mainly through video-conference
492 discussions and online surveys. From this feedback, testbed planners produced the final
493 versions of the templates.

494 TRAINING AND REVIEW DAYS

495 The first day of the testbed was a training day focused on specific tools unfamiliar to most
496 participating forecasters, particularly the satellite-based nowcasting tools and the ensemble
497 prediction diagnostics. All participants familiarized themselves with the nowcasting and

498 synoptic forecasting SOPs and the details of the methods for producing the forecast products
499 they would be delivering to users.

500 Cross-country reviews of testbed procedures and products were held halfway through the
501 testbed and again at the end of the testbed. The ongoing discussions between users,
502 researchers, and forecasters that were held locally in each testbed were summarised in the
503 evaluation sessions, as were the outcomes of user questionnaires. Forecasters and researchers
504 also gave feedback on the template products and operating procedures. The mid-point
505 evaluation was an opportunity to refine the SOPs and products sent to users. Given the
506 experimental nature of testbeds, it's expected that some things will go wrong. Allowing time
507 within the testbed to self-correct ensures that lessons can be drawn from problems.

508

509 *Developing testbed products and methods*

510 Many members of SWIFT contributed to testbed planning, which was overseen by a
511 small steering committee with separate working groups for specific aspects of the testbed:
512 synoptic forecasting, nowcasting, user engagement, and scientific software development.
513 Planning spanned a period of about 12 months, including development of testbed SOPs , user
514 engagement, and the development of needed technical infrastructure. Because the leaders of
515 each working group were experts in their area, the working groups had a high level of
516 autonomy in their planning, with regular meetings to ensure consistency of plans across the
517 working groups and that the objectives were being met. Almost all testbed planning was done
518 online.

519 As described above, the testbed working groups developed or made accessible a suite of
520 weather forecasting products not previously used operationally in the four participating
521 African countries. They wrote SOPs for synoptic forecasting and nowcasting. Most
522 operational centres involved in the SWIFT testbed do not have formalized SOPs, but those
523 developed for the SWIFT testbed are designed to be taken up operationally, with
524 modifications as needed. The nowcasting SOPs were modelled after those carried out by the
525 South African Weather Service, who use NWC-SAF products to supplement radar-based
526 nowcasting. The synoptic SOP was designed to match as closely as possible with the SOPs
527 currently used operationally by the forecasting centres of ACMAD (pan-Africa), NiMet
528 (Nigeria), KMD (Kenya), GMet (Ghana) and ANACIM (Senegal).

529 The synoptic forecasting and nowcasting working groups relied on previous experience
530 from the pilot testbed to determine timings for briefings and the amount of time that should
531 be spent on each aspect of the SOP, accounting for the availability of data and other
532 constraints.

533

534

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