



Potential applications of subseasonal-to-seasonal (S2S) predictions

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Peer Review

1 **Potential applications of subseasonal-to-seasonal (S2S) predictions**

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For Peer Review

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18 **Abstract**

19 While seasonal outlooks have been operational for many years, until recently the extended-range
20 timescale - referred to as 'subseasonal-to-seasonal' (S2S) - has received little attention. S2S
21 prediction fills the gap between short-range weather prediction and long-range seasonal outlooks.
22 Decisions in a range of sectors are made in this extended-range lead time, therefore there is a
23 strong demand for this new generation of forecasts. International efforts are underway to identify
24 key sources of predictability, improve forecast skill and operationalise aspects of S2S forecasts,
25 however challenges remain in advancing this new frontier. If S2S predictions are to be utilised
26 effectively, it is important that along with science advances, we learn how to develop,
27 communicate and apply these forecasts appropriately. In this study, we present the emerging
28 operational S2S forecasts to the wider weather and climate applications community by
29 undertaking the first comprehensive review of sectoral applications of S2S predictions, including
30 public health, disaster preparedness, water management, energy and agriculture. We explore the
31 value of applications-relevant S2S predictions, and highlight the opportunities and challenges
32 facing their uptake. We show how social sciences can be integrated with S2S development -
33 from communication to decision-making and valuation of forecasts - to enhance the benefits of
34 'climate services' approaches for extended-range forecasting. While S2S forecasting is at a
35 relatively early stage of development, we conclude that it presents a significant new window of
36 opportunity that can be explored for application-ready capabilities that could allow many sectors
37 the opportunity to systematically plan on a new time horizon.

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39

40 1 Introduction

41 There is growing interest across the applications community in understanding and using a new
42 generation of extended-range weather predictions that are currently in development by
43 meteorological centres around the world. While long-range monthly and seasonal outlooks have
44 been operational in some regions for many years (and are the subject of increasing research
45 initiatives to explore and advance their application) the extended-range timescale, which sits
46 between the medium- to long-range forecasting timescales (i.e. beyond 10 days and up to 30
47 days), has received minimal attention until recently. This extended-range timescale has in recent
48 years become referred to as the ‘subseasonal-to-seasonal’ (or ‘S2S’) forecasting range, and is
49 generally regarded as bridging the gap between weather forecasts and monthly or seasonal
50 outlooks (Figure 1a) (Vitart, 2014a; Robertson *et al.*, 2014; Kirtman *et al.*, 2014)¹. This timescale
51 has long been seen as a ‘predictability desert’ (Vitart *et al.*, 2012) as it is notoriously difficult to
52 provide skilful predictions on subseasonal or monthly timescales (Hudson *et al.*, 2011), however
53 recent advances have spurred an increasing interest in S2S prediction (Shapiro *et al.*, 2010;
54 Brunet *et al.*, 2010). At least ten international weather centres now have some capability for
55 issuing experimental or operational S2S forecasts, including the European Centre for Medium-
56 Range Weather Forecasting (ECMWF), the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
57 (NOAA), the China Meteorological Administration (CMA) and the UK Met Office (UKMO)
58 (Vitart, 2014a). While S2S forecasting is still in development, the potential availability of these

¹ Medium-, extended- and long-range definitions based on WMO meteorological forecasting ranges: <http://www.wmo.int/pages/prog/www/DPS/GDPS-Supplement5-AppI-4.html>.

59 forecasts provides a significant ‘window of opportunity’ whereby S2S predictions can start to be
60 explored for both operational forecasting and application-focused capabilities to complement
61 existing forecast services.

62 The ongoing World Meteorological Organization (WMO) World Weather Research Programme
63 (WWRP)-World Climate Research Programme (WCRP) Sub-seasonal to Seasonal Prediction
64 Project (Vitart *et al.*, 2012; Vitart, 2014a; Robertson *et al.*, 2014) (<http://s2sprediction.net/>) is
65 aimed at improving forecast skill and understanding of the S2S timescale and promoting its
66 uptake. This is the first collaboration between the WWRP and the WCRP, and contributes to the
67 WMO Global Framework for Climate Services (GFCS) which aims to help society cope with
68 extreme events through better forecast accuracy on longer lead times. A key output of this
69 collaborative project is a data repository of near real-time S2S forecasts and hindcasts (Vitart *et*
70 *al.*, 2016) produced by several operational meteorological institutions
71 (<http://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/data/s2s> and <http://s2s.cma.cn>), providing valuable repositories
72 against which the potential skill of multiple model predictions on the S2S timescale can be
73 evaluated, and their usability for societal applications assessed for the first time. This effort
74 closely aligns with other WMO initiatives, such as the THORPEX Interactive Grand Global
75 Ensemble (TIGGE) project, the HIWeather project that has identified connections to S2S
76 timescales through the forecasting of weather-related hazards, and ongoing efforts through the
77 WMO Lead Center for Long-Range Forecast Multi-Model Ensemble (LC-LRFMME) project to
78 extend into the S2S timescale.

79 The expansion into S2S forecasting has been triggered by a combination of growing demand
80 from the applications community and progress in identifying and simulating key sources of S2S

81 predictability (Vitart, 2014a). Although there are efforts underway to operationalise aspects of
82 S2S forecasts (Robertson *et al.*, 2014), the S2S timescale is a developing frontier for forecasting
83 science. S2S forecasting represents a potential opportunity for a range of applications, potentially
84 enabling many sectors to systematically react and plan. However, to date there has not been a
85 coordinated effort to examine the potential of application-relevant forecasts on the S2S timescale
86 and a demonstration of how these forecasts can be employed to maximise societal benefit.

87 This paper reviews the advances since Brunet *et al.* (2010) first promoted the WWRP-WCRP
88 weather-climate collaboration to jointly tackle the development of S2S prediction science.
89 Focusing on potential user applications, we draw on recent advancements to demonstrate the
90 status and prospects of S2S prediction, highlighting how they can be utilised and where the key
91 challenges remain.

92 **2 Forecasting on the S2S timescale**

93 Accurate climate prediction requires a good representation of weather phenomena as well as the
94 underlying physical laws that apply to all prediction timescales (Bauer *et al.*, 2015). While short-
95 to medium-range weather forecasting is based on initial atmospheric conditions, for seasonal
96 prediction the initial conditions of the coupled land-ocean system are more important, with the
97 rapidly varying components of the atmosphere often less well predicted and initialised. The S2S
98 timescale falls in between these time ranges and is influenced by both initial conditions of the
99 atmosphere and the more slowly evolving boundary conditions such as sea surface temperatures
100 (SST), soil moisture and sea-ice components. It is these different time and space scales of the

101 atmosphere, land and ocean - and the ability to predict them - which makes S2S forecasting a
102 major challenge (e.g. Chen *et al.*, 2010; Doblas-Reyes *et al.*, 2013; Vitart, 2014a).

103 As with seasonal forecasting, S2S predictive skill relies on more than just realistic initialisation
104 conditions and SST, but also large-scale circulation modes in the climate system, such as El
105 Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO), Indian Ocean Dipole
106 (IOD) and North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), and their known influence on specific weather
107 phenomena including extreme events. For example, White *et al.* (2013), using the POAMA
108 model, showed that increased skill in predicting extreme heat during the winter months over
109 northern Australia comes mainly from La Niña periods, whereas skill over eastern and south-
110 eastern Australia comes from El Niño periods, highlighting the importance of the state of ENSO
111 for regional S2S prediction. S2S forecasts are, however, more generally limited geographically,
112 working best in the tropics due to higher-frequency climate modes such as the Madden-Julian
113 Oscillation (MJO), which is the dominant mode of convective activity in the mid to high
114 latitudes and offers an enhanced source of predictability (e.g. Vitart, 2014a). MJO predictability,
115 in particular, has improved significantly over the last decade, with MJO teleconnections over the
116 Northern and Southern Extratropics improving dramatically through better representation of the
117 MJO in the ECMWF model (Vitart, 2014b). The vertical resolution of the ocean component of
118 forecasting systems, particularly in the top ocean layer, has also been documented to have a
119 significant impact on the prediction of MJO on S2S timescales through a stronger diurnal cycle
120 of SST (Woolnough *et al.*, 2007). Increased model resolution is expected to improve the forecast
121 skill by allowing more physical processes to be resolved (Vitart, 2014a). Initial soil moisture
122 conditions have also been shown to particularly increase the accuracy of both precipitation and
123 temperature predictions on the S2S timescale, especially for summer extreme temperatures,

124 however the utilisation of sea-ice conditions is a largely untapped and unknown source of
125 potential predictability (Doblas-Reyes *et al.*, 2013).

126 A number of persistent biases and errors, however, still exist in most climate simulations, such as
127 tropical precipitation and low cloud cover (e.g. Randall *et al.*, 2007). Some of these biases arise
128 solely from the errors in the models and some may arise from the systematic misrepresentation
129 of the coupled atmosphere-ocean feedbacks, which may compound existing errors or generate
130 new biases (Brunet *et al.*, 2010; Vitart, 2014a). The lack of vegetation components and
131 stratospheric disturbances in current forecast models are other impediments to improving
132 forecasts on S2S timescales (Brunet *et al.*, 2010; Doblas-Reyes *et al.*, 2013).

133 **3 The information gap**

134 **3.1 Unlocking the potential of S2S forecasting**

135 Operational forecasting centres routinely issue weather and climate information products, but
136 there remains a gap between what various industries and sectors of society need and what
137 forecasters can produce. While weather forecasts have been proven to be useful for short-term
138 decision-making (Brunet *et al.*, 2010), short-range weather forecasting - where predictability
139 mainly comes from initial atmospheric conditions - has fundamental physical limits (i.e. up to
140 about 10 days) (e.g. Slingo and Palmer, 2011). In contrast, instead of forecasting the weather for
141 a given day, longer lead time forecasts provide information about the likelihood of averaged
142 weather, such as rainfall totals, typically over periods up to a season in length. Seasonal forecasts
143 do not predict the weather at a set location or time, instead they tell us about the likelihood of
144 shifts from the normal climatic conditions - or put another way, a shift in the underlying

145 probability distribution - where predictability is driven primarily by slowly varying components
146 of the Earth System, such SST.

147 Society is used to short- to medium-term weather forecasts, but is still less familiar with longer
148 lead time forecasts. Providing a forecast for increased/decreased likelihoods is not adequate for
149 the need for reliable, actionable information on the timing, location and scale of weather events.
150 For example, seasonal forecasts of oncoming 'colder than average' winters or 'hotter than
151 average' summers - often delivered through mainstream media outlets - are the first stage of
152 communication that can lead to a misinterpretation of what longer lead time forecasts are. Users
153 are often exposed to someone's interpretation of forecasts, and the terminology typically used,
154 such as 'increased or decreased likelihood' and 'normal conditions', are relative to past climate
155 and therefore implicitly require additional knowledge to understand.

156 Communications issues therefore surround S2S forecasts given their probabilistic nature, yet it is
157 recognised that to be of value S2S predictions must realistically represent day-to-day weather
158 fluctuations and statistics (Brunet *et al.*, 2010). S2S predictions have the potential to support
159 decision-makers through the ongoing development of skilful forecasts of high-impact weather
160 events (e.g. Vitart, 2014a). For example, this has been demonstrated by skilful predictions of
161 phenomena such as tropical cyclones on lead times of up to 28 days (Figure 2), but it is yet to be
162 determined if S2S forecasts can predict such events with sufficient skill and reliability for many
163 applications. Despite this, inroads have been made with forecast skill on the S2S timescale and
164 there lies a largely unexplored middle ground between what is required and what is possible.

165 Vitart (2014a) also notes that while many end-users have benefited by applying weather and
166 climate forecasts in their decision-making, there is evidence to suggest that such information is

167 underutilised across a wide range of economic sectors (e.g. Rayner *et al.*, 2005; O'Connor *et al.*,
168 2005; Morss *et al.*, 2008). Indeed, there needs to be a distinction between what is 'useful' and
169 what is 'usable' information, reflecting the different ways that forecasters and users perceive
170 scientific information (Lemos *et al.*, 2012). Forecasters may make the assumption that
171 knowledge is useful when they conduct research without fully understanding potential users'
172 decision-making processes and contexts; in contrast, users may not know how they might make
173 use of S2S forecasts (or may have unrealistic expectations) of how it fits within their decision-
174 making processes and thus choose to ignore it, despite its usefulness (Lemos *et al.*, 2012).

175 It has been shown that an interactive, co-production approach to science and decision-making
176 between information producers and users positively affects the rate of information use (e.g.
177 Lemos and Morehouse, 2005; Feldman and Ingram, 2009; Lemos *et al.*, 2012) as well as the
178 effective communication of decision-relevant science. Prioritising collaboration between
179 scientists and those who rely on climate and weather information to make policy and
180 management decisions through a 'co-exploration' approach supports this co-production of usable
181 information (Meadow *et al.*, 2015; Steynor *et al.*, 2015), especially when exploring decisions
182 where needs or sensitivities are yet to be identified. This iterative process explores the limits of
183 climate model data in a place-based context that recognises the complex nature of decision-
184 making and goes beyond the simplistic dichotomy of 'climate services' and 'end-users' by
185 incorporating multifocal learning across the decision-making space (e.g. Hurrell *et al.*, 2009).

186 At the same time as understanding the 'information gap', there is a need to better understand user
187 needs, including identify potential change agents and 'champions' who can communicate new

188 information effectively, recognise competing stakeholder goals, and reception of user-centred
189 information in innovative ways.

190 In support of understanding user needs, there is an additional need to increase awareness of the
191 S2S timescale through better data visibility and accessibility. S2S data archives such as the North
192 American Multimodel Ensemble (NMME; Kirtman *et al.*, 2014) and the new WWRP-WCRP
193 S2S project repository are improving access to forecasts, as well as providing information about
194 forecast uncertainty and quality (e.g. Slingo and Palmer, 2011). A lack of information about the
195 accuracy of such forecasts precludes users from making effective use of them, whereas a more
196 thorough understanding of forecast performance may help decision-makers determine how much
197 and when to rely on them (Hartmann *et al.*, 2002). There may also be a lack of understanding
198 and appreciation of the complexity of weather and climate processes and the yet-to-be quantified
199 forecast skill on the S2S timescale (from the decision-makers' perspective) and of the numerous
200 facets involved in decision-making (from the weather and climate scientists' point of view).

201 **3.2 Putting the user first**

202 S2S prediction is ultimately applied research with potentially significant value to society, and is
203 an opportunity to create a scientific discipline characterised by co-design and co-production
204 between the scientific and the application communities. Traditional applied research can be
205 described by the linear (sequential) model of research and innovation where scientific discovery
206 precedes innovation (i.e. the process in which the scientific findings are transferred into
207 applications). A contrasting model is the 'user-centred' model of innovation (e.g. Lemos *et al.*,
208 2012), referred to as the 'climate services' concept, in order to meet the demand for customised
209 climate-related tools, products and information (EU COM, 2015). This model puts an emphasis

210 on the role played by users in the development and improvement of products and services, which
211 can be used to illustrate the ‘top-down’ vs. ‘bottom-up’ debate².

212 Recent efforts in Europe, such as the EUPORIAS project (<http://www.euporias.eu/>) (e.g. Taylor
213 *et al.*, 2015; Bruno Soares and Dessai, 2016), developed semi-operational prototypes of climate
214 services to address the needs of specific users on seasonal to decadal timescales. By applying a
215 similar user-centred climate services approach, the S2S research community could similarly
216 increase the likelihood for successful development of S2S predictions. In doing so, the scientific
217 community should focus on working with users to understand their decisions, including which
218 ones are climate/weather-sensitive, and on what timescales; efforts to determine specifically
219 what information might be of interest to users is then the next step after understanding the
220 decisions (Ray and Webb, 2015). Decision-dependencies across a range of end-users could be
221 determined through user-centred studies, including assessing which information, spatial and
222 temporal scales and locations are most relevant to the seamless weather and climate services

² There is an ongoing debate on the pros and cons of ‘top-down’ and ‘bottom-up’ approaches (e.g. Dessai and Hulme, 2004; Ray and Webb, 2015). The ‘top-down’ approach follows the sequence of first projecting future emissions of greenhouse gases, then developing climate scenarios, and thirdly studying impacts and adaptation options; in contrast, a ‘bottom-up’ approach starts from a given system and then studies vulnerabilities (i.e. the degree to which the system is susceptible to, and unable to cope with, adverse impacts of climate change). Most likely, the most successful approach for forecasting on longer lead times such as S2S needs to include a combination of both. For example, experience in the UK from a national ‘top-down’ probabilistic climate service demonstrated that although the probability-based climate information provided greater credibility, there was still a requirement to tailor the climate information generated so that stakeholders could use the information in decision-making (Tang and Dessai, 2012).

223 approach (e.g. Graham *et al.*, 2011; Vaughan and Dessai, 2014). However, the weather and
224 climate community might engage with individual sectoral decision-makers in cases in which user
225 studies have already matched the decision-maker with the forecast product. Scientists and users
226 could co-develop tools and processes for fostering the joint development of S2S predictions, with
227 stakeholder-based modelling (Voinov and Bousquet, 2010) or co-exploration/co-production
228 processes (Lemos and Morehouse, 2005; Meadow *et al.*, 2015; Steynor *et al.*, 2015) involving
229 the user-community not only as consumers, but as co-producers of climate information. Climate
230 services need to move towards a demand-driven and science-informed approach and that
231 boundary organisations will need to focus on use-inspired research (Lourenço *et al.*, 2015).
232 Bringing partner boundary organisations into the process for co-production, co-exploration and
233 communication of information, including translation of scientific products into usable formats,
234 balances the trade-offs between salience, credibility and legitimacy and increases the potential
235 overall uptake of climate information (McNie, 2007).

236 Collaboration and co-production across sectors and disciplines is key to narrowing the gap
237 between S2S forecast information and application; a transformation is therefore needed in the
238 way both industry and the weather and climate community conceptualise and communicate S2S
239 predictions.

240 **4 Potential sectoral applications of S2S predictions**

241 The primary rationale for international efforts in pursuing a seamless weather-to-climate
242 prediction process - which by default includes the S2S timescale - is that the resulting
243 information influences decisions across predictive timescales, contributing to objectives such as

244 protection of life and property, enhancement of socio-economic well-being, and sustainability of
245 the environment (Brunet *et al.*, 2010). There is a range of efforts underway to operationalise
246 aspects of S2S forecasts that may be used to demonstrate the potential value of applications-
247 relevant S2S products, such as the NOAA Climate Prediction Center's operational outlooks and
248 the Tropics Hazards and Benefits Outlook. However, S2S predictions provide new opportunities
249 for 'user-centred' applications because many decisions fall into the interceding S2S timescale
250 between the well established and utilised short- to medium-range weather forecasts on one side,
251 and seasonal forecasts on the other. Where existing decision processes exist that already use
252 information on these other time scales, there may be readiness to more easily uptake this new
253 forecast information. S2S forecasts therefore provide a significant opportunity to provide
254 actionable information on this relatively unexplored applications time horizon.

255 In the following section, we review some of the potential sectoral uses of S2S forecasts,
256 highlighting key decisions that can be made on this timescale and their information requirements
257 (Figure 1b).

258 **4.1 Humanitarian sector**

259 There is strong demand in the humanitarian sector for reliable longer-range forecasts (Braman *et*
260 *al.*, 2012) - particularly of extreme events such as floods and droughts - and it is the S2S
261 timescale where many risk reduction and disaster preparedness actions can be taken to mitigate
262 impacts. S2S forecasts offer the opportunity for disaster risk reduction (DRR) managers to track
263 the progress of the slowly evolving, large-scale climate modes that may have been predicted to
264 shift in a preceding seasonal outlook, therefore supporting the transition from seasonal outlooks

265 to weather forecasts to inform both disaster planning and systematic response (Tadesse *et al.*,
266 2016).

267 In this context, the Red Cross Climate Centre have adopted the 'Ready-Set-Go!' approach to
268 decision-making for disaster management that utilises short- to long-range predictions (Goddard
269 *et al.*, 2014). Seasonal forecasts can provide the 'Ready' monitoring information and early
270 contingency planning such as volunteer training; subseasonal forecasts provide the 'Set' early
271 warnings and alerting of volunteers; and short-range weather forecasts the 'Go!' activation stage,
272 including evacuation and distribution of aid (Vitart *et al.*, 2014a). This concept highlights an
273 increased/decreased likelihood of a particular event occurring over the forecast period,
274 empowering DRR managers to adapt and react accordingly to instigate preparedness activities
275 during the 'Set' phase as well as supporting the crucial shift to short-term actions in the 'Go!'
276 phase.

277 Many of the disaster preparedness actions that can be taken based on increased risk of an
278 extreme event require time to activate. Procurement of disaster response supplies can take
279 several weeks (e.g. Boston Consulting Group, 2015) and is often the reason that actual response
280 time to a disaster can lag well behind the event itself. While a short-term forecast allows for a
281 head-start, a S2S forecast would allow for such response materials to be pre-purchased and
282 prepositioned in the at-risk region in advance of the actual event, allowing for more immediate
283 responses. Similarly, supplies needed for risk reduction actions, such as pesticides for mosquito
284 fumigation, chlorine tablets for water purification, or sandbags to reinforce river banks, are
285 subject to the same time constraints as the response materials. The prepositioning of emergency

286 supplies has been shown to yield a return on investment of between 1.6 and 2.0 (Boston
287 Consulting Group, 2015).

288 Continuing the ‘Ready-Set-Go!’ concept, there are a number of quick and resource-independent
289 actions that can then be taken by vulnerable people a few days in advance of a potential disaster,
290 including evacuation and preparing food or water to last through the emergency period. Such
291 actions appear in heat wave early warning plans (e.g. Ebi *et al.*, 2003; Knowlton *et al.*, 2014) and
292 cyclone preparedness plans (e.g. Roy *et al.*, 2015), which could be expanded to include ‘Ready’
293 actions within the S2S timescale. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030
294 (UNISDR, 2015) points to an opportunity to connect the joint weather and climate communities’
295 efforts surrounding S2S prediction to global DRR activities and planning, as well as utilising
296 seamless forecasting and climate services approaches. Priority 4 of the Framework recommends
297 investment in the development, maintenance and strengthening of people-centred, multi-hazard
298 and multi-sectoral forecasting and early warning systems, developed through a participatory
299 process and tailored to the needs of users.

300 Advances in S2S prediction - specifically if focused towards extreme events - could allow the
301 humanitarian sector to systematically react before potential disasters, saving lives and livelihoods
302 through a better informed early response.

303 **4.2 Public health**

304 Brunet *et al.* (2010) highlighted public health as one of the key potential domains of application
305 of seamless weather-to-climate forecasts, where decisions cover a wide range of temporal scales
306 that directly relate to positive health outcomes (e.g. expected disease outbreak patterns, available

307 medical supplies, poverty indicators). Heat waves, for instance, are amongst the weather events
308 that have the strongest societal impact with severe disruption of activities and significant loss of
309 life. In the 2003 European heat wave, health authorities estimated that about 14,000 died in
310 France alone (Vitart, 2005; Murray *et al.*, 2012). The prediction of the evolution of such an
311 extreme event (including onset, persistence and decay) a few weeks in advance would be
312 particularly useful (Vitart, 2014a). Case studies of subseasonal heat wave prediction are starting
313 to demonstrate significant promise (e.g. Vitart, 2005; Hudson *et al.*, 2015), however, issues
314 around the accuracy of forecasts - especially for predicting the timing, duration, location and
315 severity of heat events (e.g. Perkins and Alexander, 2013) - as well as a lack of an internationally
316 recognised definition, makes heat wave forecasting complex and difficult to tailor to individual
317 users' needs.

318 The potential benefits of S2S applications are perhaps greatest in developing nations, especially
319 in Africa where at least 30 climate-sensitive diseases pose a major threat to the lives and
320 livelihoods of millions of people. More than 500 million Africans live in regions endemic with
321 malaria that is highly correlated with the seasonal climate for example (Brunet *et al.*, 2010).
322 Malaria forecasting on seasonal timescales has been well documented, including Morse *et al.*
323 (2005) that show skilful one-month lead seasonal predictions using a malaria transmission model
324 driven with output from seasonal predictions, and Thomson *et al.* (2006) and MacLeod *et al.*
325 (2015) that demonstrate skilful malaria epidemic forecasts in Africa two months before the start
326 of the season.

327 It is likely, however, that one of the major challenges with integrating S2S predictions into
328 public health practices will be working with an initially less familiar (and perhaps less receptive)

329 set of decision-makers than some other sectors. The necessary infrastructure (e.g. near real-time
330 hospital patient data) may be in place in some regions to develop an operational weather-related
331 hospital admissions forecast, but not in others. In developing country contexts, logistical access
332 to forecasts and data has its own additional challenges and may be reliant on humanitarian
333 disaster-related activities.

334 **4.3 Energy**

335 Weather-related risk is a primary driver for energy pricing, production and usage. Because
336 formal decision-making processes already exist within the energy generation sector, it may be
337 easier to develop successful relationships with this sector than many other sectors with less
338 formal practices (Brunet *et al.*, 2010). For instance, it is routine practice for the wind energy
339 sector to utilise short-range weather forecasts (Barthelmie *et al.*, 2008; Foley *et al.*, 2012) and, to
340 a lesser degree, seasonal outlooks (Roulston *et al.*, 2003). Taylor and Buizza (2003), for
341 example, show that energy demand scenarios based on ensemble predictions are more accurate
342 than those produced using traditional weather forecasts up to 10 days in advance, therefore S2S
343 forecasts could be used to support these activities by hedging for anticipated energy peaks and
344 other weather-related energy trading opportunities and risks.

345 In recent years, wind power has experienced rapid growth, contributing close to 5% of global
346 electricity production (Pryor and Barthelmie, 2010). One of the biggest challenges facing the
347 wind power industry is intermittency, where energy grid operators must match production to
348 demand at all times, irrespective of whether wind energy is produced or not (Albadi and El-
349 Saadany, 2010). S2S wind speed forecasts could help address the challenge of intermittency by
350 enabling transmission service operators to plan operations further ahead and increase grid

351 efficiency (Pinson, 2013), although at present only mean wind values (zonal and meridional) are
352 available on the S2S timescale. However, as S2S forecasts become more skilful and more
353 complete, grid operators may further optimise the pricing system by using forecasts relevant to
354 supply (e.g. wind speed for wind power, precipitation and temperature for hydropower
355 operations) as well as demand (especially temperature) to inform switching on and off longer-
356 start fuel sources like nuclear. This challenge of balancing a fluctuating wind energy resource
357 with more stable energy sources will only grow as more wind power capacity is installed.

358 Related to this, S2S forecasts could be used to manage distribution and transmission
359 infrastructure and maintenance scheduling. For example, specialist maintenance vessels are
360 scheduled several weeks in advance for offshore wind farm maintenance and installation. Work
361 is halted and money lost when high wind and waves prevent operations. Currently the decision to
362 leave port is informed by current wave height and trend over previous hours, but a reliable S2S
363 forecast of an optimal operational window could potentially save money and minimise risks.

364 **4.4 Water management**

365 Most international operational forecast centres issue flood forecasting and warning services
366 based on short-range rainfall forecasts. At the other end of the forecasting timescale, many
367 meteorological/hydrological centres have been issuing probabilistic seasonal streamflow
368 forecasts as part of climate outlook services for many years; i.e. 3-month outlooks of total flow
369 volumes rather than flood forecasts (e.g. Wood and Lettenmaier (2006) in the U.S.; Robertson
370 and Wang (2012) in Australia) or have documented needs for S2S forecasts in short-term water
371 management decisions (e.g. Raff *et al.*, 2013). Seasonal streamflow forecasts are contingent on
372 climate information for short-term planning (e.g. water allocation) and setting up contingency

373 measures during extreme years. However, the water allocated based on seasonal forecasts issued
374 at the beginning of the season requires revision using updated (i.e. subseasonal) forecasts
375 throughout the season (Sankarasubramanian *et al.*, 2009).

376 There have been some efforts to forecast streamflow on longer-range timescales, with Bennett *et*
377 *al.* (2014) finding positive forecast skill for higher streamflows in the 1-month lead time in
378 southeast Australia, Sankarasubramanian *et al.* (2009) modelling seasonal and subseasonal water
379 allocation in the Philippines, and Werner *et al.* (2005) for operational streamflow forecasting in
380 the U.S. Similarly, whilst specific flood predictions cannot be made on S2S lead times (i.e. they
381 reflect risks but are not intended for predicting the timing, frequency, severity or extent of flood),
382 S2S forecasts could be employed to highlight an increased chance of flooding where total
383 streamflow volume has already been predicted to be high for a given season (White *et al.*, 2015).
384 African hydrological centres, for example, would benefit from S2S forecasts of the onset and
385 subseasonal evolution of the rainy season, whilst S2S forecasts of the frequency of daily rainfall
386 amount could be relevant to rain-dependent agricultural applications and flood prediction in the
387 tropics (Robertson *et al.*, 2014).

388 S2S forecasting therefore provides a significant opportunity to bring together the flood warning
389 and streamflow forecasting communities in a seamless hydrological forecasting service,
390 extending flood forecasting to longer lead times through the integration with rainfall-runoff
391 hydrological models (White *et al.*, 2015), and improving water resource allocation and
392 management decision-making on timescales less than a season.

393 4.5 Agriculture

394 The agriculture sector is one of the most advanced user groups in terms of using weather
395 forecasts and outlooks to support operational decisions on the timing of irrigation, spraying and
396 harvesting (e.g. Meinke and Stone, 2005; Harrison *et al.*, 2007 and references therein). Clements
397 *et al.* (2013) show the S2S timeframe to be highly relevant in agriculture, noting studies that
398 evaluated the use of meteorological information in agriculture for crop management, irrigation
399 decisions, product marketing, input use (e.g. fertilizers), and commodity pricing. Using a similar
400 approach to the ‘Ready-Set-Go!’ concept, by extending downward from the seasonal scale, a
401 seasonal forecast of rainfall totals might inform strategic decisions regarding crop-planting
402 choices, whereas S2S forecasts of rainfall extremes or heat waves could help irrigation
403 scheduling and pesticide/fertilizer application (Vitart, 2014a). S2S forecasts could be used as
404 dynamic updates to an existing cropping calendar, such as for the estimation of crop yields
405 (Vitart, 2014a) to help alleviate global food security issues (CGIAR, 2009). Regional
406 mechanisms such as the strong intraseasonal oscillation, which is a major cause of monsoon
407 breaks within the Indian monsoon season, could add valuable information for irrigation
408 scheduling.

409 The experienced user-base within the agriculture sector is very familiar with the need to express
410 seasonal forecasts in terms of daily weather characteristics, such as dry spells during critical
411 growth periods (e.g. Verbist *et al.*, 2010), and presents perhaps one of the best opportunities to
412 bridge the gap between the weather and climate forecasting timescales. As weather impacts are
413 just one of many stressors shaping users’ decisions in the agriculture sector, to successfully
414 integrate S2S forecasts into existing decision-making practices, highly participatory, context-

415 specific dialogues, aided by modelling approaches bringing together producers and users of
416 knowledge across disciplines, are needed (Meinke *et al.*, 2009).

417 **4.6 Emerging sectors**

418 There are many other sectors that could potentially benefit from skilful S2S forecasts but which
419 have not yet been explored in detail. For example, S2S forecasts could be used to augment the
420 existing use of seasonal environmental management forecasts, such as providing additional
421 decision support information for marine fisheries and aquaculture (e.g. Spillman and Hobday,
422 2014), and wildfire risk management (Owen *et al.*, 2012). Similarly, S2S forecast applications
423 that target the retail sector could be used for advanced stock orders where the timing of seasonal
424 changes is important, or support preparedness ahead of extreme weather events such as heat
425 waves (e.g. Hudson *et al.*, 2015), tropical cyclones/hurricanes (e.g. Vitart *et al.*, 2010), and snow
426 (e.g. Cohen, 2003).

427 In a broader sense, the value of weather forecasts needs to be better understood and quantified. It
428 has, however, proven difficult to isolate the benefits and assess the economic value of longer
429 lead time forecasts in applications (Kumar, 2010). The financial derivatives markets and
430 insurance industry understand the concept of weather-related risk and the application of forecasts
431 (e.g. through hedging strategies, weather-based decision rules, loss scenarios) perhaps better than
432 any sector (e.g. Zeng, 2000; Jewson and Caballero, 2003), which the weather and climate
433 community can benefit from. For the potential benefits of S2S predictions to be fully realised,
434 there needs to be a focus on economic impacts and benefits, understanding the asymmetry of the
435 cost loss and benefit matrix, a measure of sensitivity of the impact of particular weather
436 phenomena, and an understanding of how they could influence decision-making across sectors.

437 **5 Challenges and opportunities of the S2S timescale**

438 After three decades of research into seasonal climate predictability and the development of
439 dynamical prediction systems (Kirtman *et al.*, 2014), there is substantial evidence that dynamic
440 S2S prediction offers a significant opportunity to be useful to the applications community
441 (Pegion and Sardeshmukh, 2011; Kirtman *et al.*, 2014). However, we find many challenges to
442 the successful application of S2S predictions summarised in Table 1).

443 The potential utility of longer lead time forecasts by the applications community - including both
444 S2S and seasonal - is based on end-user decision support (e.g. Morse *et al.*, 2005). To achieve
445 this, an improved understanding of how perceptions, willingness and ability to use information
446 changes across predictive timescales including S2S, and understanding how a piece of
447 information goes from being useful to usable (Lemos *et al.*, 2012) is required, such as Bruno
448 Soares and Dessai (2016) that provide examples of barriers and enablers to the uptake and use of
449 long-range seasonal forecasts in Europe. The current lack of 'success stories' of S2S predictions
450 (e.g. case studies that focus on a high-impact weather events or other successful uses) though
451 needs to be addressed to support promotion of S2S forecasts and their integration into
452 applications, which in turn would help raise awareness of the S2S prediction timescale and its
453 potential uses.

454 The fundamental limits to skill of longer lead time predictions need to be identified to manage
455 expectations of potential users. Brunet *et al.* (2010) suggests a practical first step is to determine
456 where the greatest potential for use of S2S forecasts exists, and where the largest social benefit
457 can be realised. Here, the social sciences (e.g. Demuth *et al.*, 2007) can contribute by identifying
458 effective mechanisms for generating and communicating decision-relevant information,

459 assessing the integration, use and value of this information in decision-making, transferring
460 knowledge and experiences to other users (Brunet *et al.*, 2010) and understanding the context
461 into which the information can be usable (Ray and Webb, 2015). A similar approach could
462 advance the understanding of potential stakeholders, uses and research needs in the S2S
463 timescale, potentially avoiding the applications community having unrealistic expectations of
464 about S2S predictions, as well as the forecasting community understanding end-users' limitations
465 on what information can be useful.

466 Raising awareness of both the S2S predictive timescale and the availability of such data provides
467 a unique opportunity for a participatory approach across the weather and climate communities to
468 develop decision-relevant information for a range of sectoral applications. The WWRP-WCRP
469 S2S project's database of S2S forecasts co-hosted by ECMWF and the CMA (delayed behind
470 real time by three weeks but including hindcasts), is a significant resource that will allow model
471 output to be more widely assessed to identify when and where there is skill, better understand the
472 underlying processes and model weaknesses, and develop applications that can support decision-
473 making.

474 To address the science challenges of understanding and improving the predictive skill of S2S
475 forecasts, identifying sources of predictability (including locations and times of skill),
476 teleconnections to known climate modes, and quantifying the limitations and uncertainties of
477 S2S forecasting are all areas of active research. Important modelling design issues remain,
478 including initialisation techniques, initial conditions (e.g. soil moisture, sea-ice), model
479 resolution and ensemble size, ocean-atmosphere coupling, post-processing and downscaling, and
480 coordination between forecast producers all need to be improved before the full potential of S2S

481 prediction can be realised (Vitart, 2014a). To address these issues, improved quantitative
482 information regarding uncertainty in forecasts and probabilistic measures of forecast quality in
483 their verification (e.g. Palmer *et al.*, 2004; DeWitt, 2005; Doblas-Reyes *et al.*, 2005; Slingo and
484 Palmer, 2011) needs to be included with S2S forecasts. There is also a growing recognition that a
485 multimodel ensemble strategy is a viable approach for resolving some of the forecast uncertainty
486 (e.g. Doblas-Reyes *et al.*, 2005; Palmer *et al.*, 2008; Kirtman *et al.*, 2014), which will present
487 additional data management and communication issues.

488 **6 Conclusions**

489 Since Brunet *et al.* (2010) recommended that the weather and climate communities collaborate to
490 jointly tackle the challenge of providing skilful and useable S2S forecasts, many advancements
491 have been made. Through initiatives and data repositories such as the WWRP-WCRP S2S
492 project and the NMME, we are now in a position to explore some of the potential sectoral
493 applications of S2S forecasts in earnest. However, their integration into decision-making is
494 neither easy nor straightforward (Lemos *et al.*, 2012). For instance, although the ability to
495 forecast the specific details of high-impact events within the S2S timescale is not yet possible
496 (and perhaps may not be for some time), there exists a growing repository of untapped predictive
497 information that presents tangible and realistic opportunities that can be explored by the
498 applications community for socio-economic benefits.

499 Forecasts on the S2S timescale need to be tailored to specific users' needs and communicated in
500 a way that allows the applications community to be able to make informed decisions. To achieve
501 this, decision-makers and forecasters need to collaborate to determine essential S2S forecast

502 attributes, including determining appropriate thresholds and their usefulness in decision-making,
503 as well as their economic value (Hartmann *et al.*, 2002). Part of this involves the inclusion of
504 realistic and unbiased messages on forecast skill (or lack thereof), potential usefulness and
505 quantified uncertainties to manage expectations, as well as the continued integration of S2S as a
506 key component in the concepts of seamless prediction and co-production.

507 There are three broad categories that require attention, each of which present their own set of
508 challenges and opportunities: 1) identifying where and when the skill of the S2S forecasts lie and
509 how they could be improved, 2) quantifying and addressing systematic model deficiencies, errors
510 and uncertainties, and 3) communicating and delivering forecasts in collaboration with the
511 applications community such that they have value in a societal decision-making context. A great
512 return on investment in both science and model development may be expected if S2S forecasts
513 can be successfully connected to societal applications (Vitart, 2014a); the goal over the next 5-10
514 years is therefore to generate useful, usable and actionable S2S forecast information and services
515 for (and with) the applications community that can be integrated with existing risk management
516 and decision-making practices across sectors and timescales.

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859

860 **Tables**

861 **Table 1** Categorised challenges and opportunities related to applications of S2S forecasts.

Category	Challenges	Opportunities
Systematic model deficiencies	Systematic misrepresentation of coupled atmosphere-ocean feedbacks, which may compound existing errors or generate new biases, and a number of persistent biases and errors remain in the climate models, as well as limited understanding of some aspects of the physical world	Continued investment in supercomputers, data collection (including long-term observations) and initiatives that support both the further development and uptake of S2S forecasts, such as the WMO WWRP-WCRP S2S project (Vitart <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Robertson <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Vitart <i>et al.</i> , 2016) and the WMO GFCS
Quantifying uncertainty	Inherent errors and uncertainties in probabilistic prediction systems due to predictability limits and deficiencies in models and initialisation (e.g. Slingo and Palmer, 2011)	Utilise the multimodel S2S datasets, such as the NMME (http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/NMME/data.html) and the S2S Project (http://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/data/s2s) repositories, to quantifying forecast uncertainty in a practical and relatively simple way
Forecast verification	Verification is critical in the context of making S2S forecasts useful (and usable) for applications	Develop new seamless verification methods, such as time averaging windows that are equal to the forecast lead time (e.g. 1-week means used to

		verify forecasts at day 7; 2-week means for forecasts at day 14, and so forth) (Robertson <i>et al.</i> , 2014)
Awareness of S2S	Raising awareness of the 'new' S2S timescale, data availability, and its potential uses	Promote the NMME and S2S Project repositories, and possible integration of S2S forecasts into the Regional Climate Outlook Forums (RCOFs), which provide real-time regional seasonal outlook products in several parts of the world (https://www.wmo.int/pages/prog/wcsp/wcasp/clips/outlooks/climate_forecasts.html)
Case studies	Few 'success stories' of S2S predictions to support promotion of S2S forecasts and their integration into applications	Increase the number of case studies using S2S hindcast repositories, demonstrating retrospective forecast skill
Integration with social sciences to ensure forecasts are useful and usable	Little current understanding and characterising of decision-making frameworks and processes at relevant spatial, temporal, and end-user scales	Collaborate with the social science communities to leverage existing knowledge on information creation, communication, use, and valuation of S2S predictions

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864

865 **Figure captions**

866 **Figure 1** (a) Qualitative estimate of forecast skill based on forecast range from short-range
867 weather forecasts to long-range seasonal predictions, including potential sources of
868 predictability. Relative skill is based on differing forecast averaging periods. (b) Schematic
869 highlighting the relationship between the S2S ‘extended-range’ forecast range and other
870 prediction timescales, with examples of actionable information that can enable decision-making
871 across sectors. Actions are examples only and are not exclusive to a forecast range. Figure (a)
872 adapted by Elisabeth Gawthrop from an original figure by Tony Barnston, both International
873 Research Institute for Climate and Society; edited and reproduced with permission. Figure (b)
874 based on Meehl *et al.* (2001), Hurrell *et al.* (2009) and Goddard *et al.* (2014). Definitions based
875 on WMO meteorological forecasting ranges: [http://www.wmo.int/pages/prog/www/DPS/GDPS-](http://www.wmo.int/pages/prog/www/DPS/GDPS-Supplement5-AppI-4.html)
876 [Supplement5-AppI-4.html](http://www.wmo.int/pages/prog/www/DPS/GDPS-Supplement5-AppI-4.html).

877

878 **Figure 2** Ensemble prediction of Tropical Cyclone Pam which made landfall in Vanuatu on 13
879 March 2015. Panels show weekly-averaged probability of a tropical cyclone strike within 300
880 km for (a) 22-28 days, (b) 15-21 days, (c) 8-14 days and (d) 1-7 days forecast lead time.
881 Predictions made using the ECMWF Ensemble Prediction System (ENS).

882

(a)

WEATHER FORECASTS

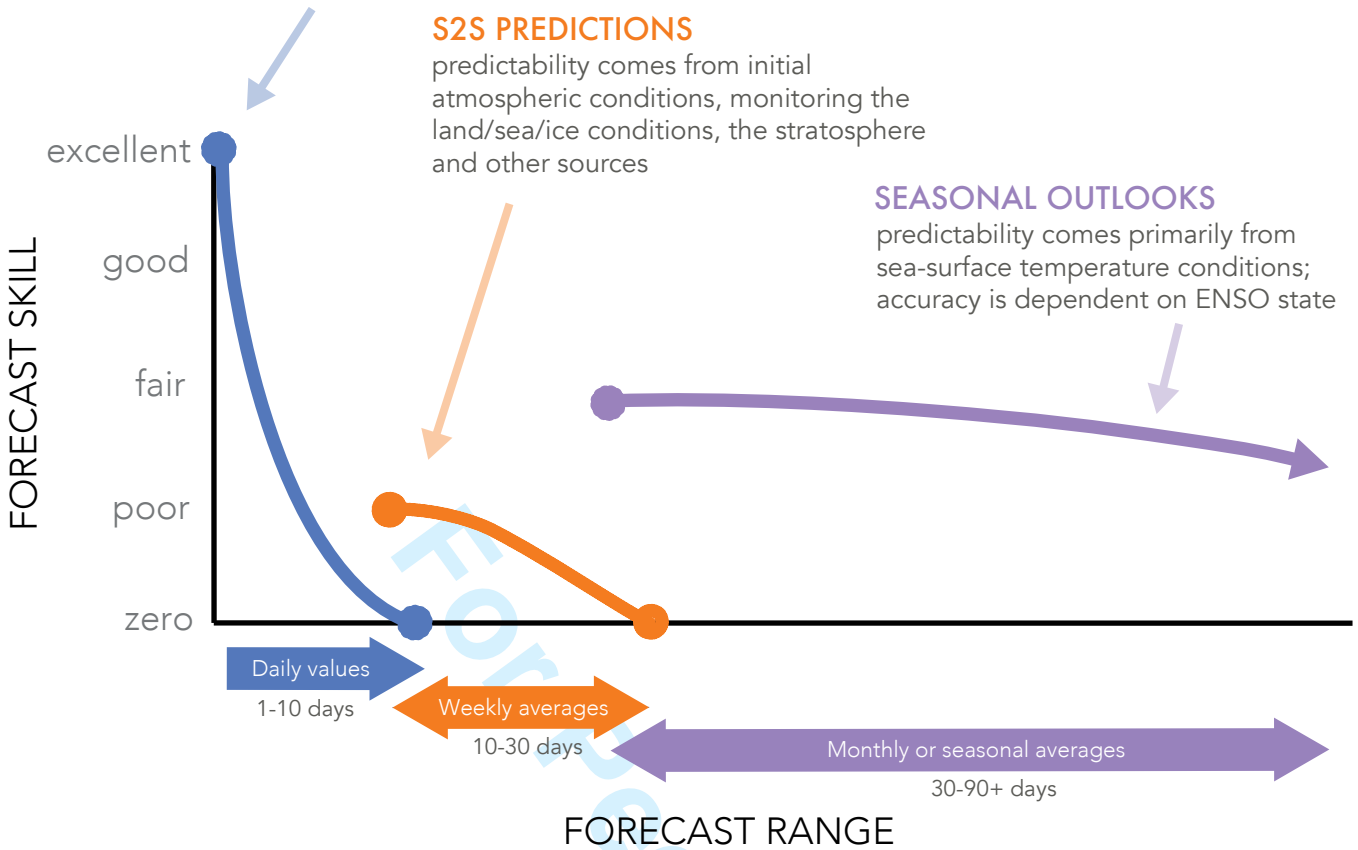
predictability comes from initial atmospheric conditions

S2S PREDICTIONS

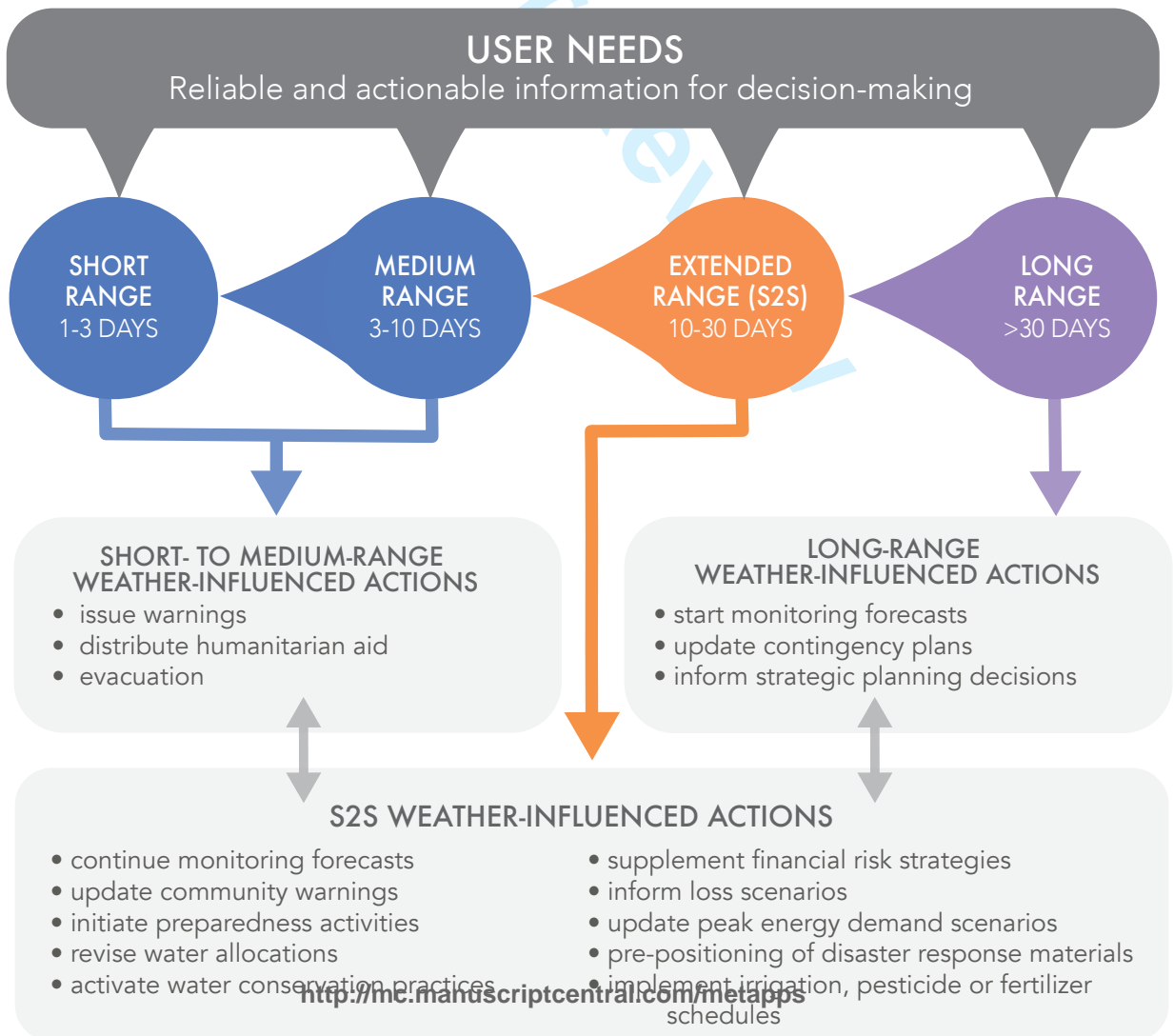
predictability comes from initial atmospheric conditions, monitoring the land/sea/ice conditions, the stratosphere and other sources

SEASONAL OUTLOOKS

predictability comes primarily from sea-surface temperature conditions; accuracy is dependent on ENSO state

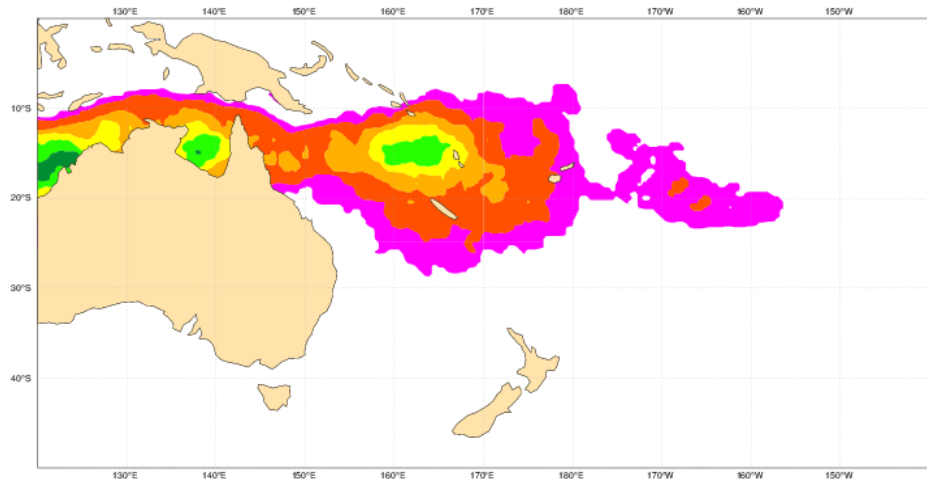


(b)



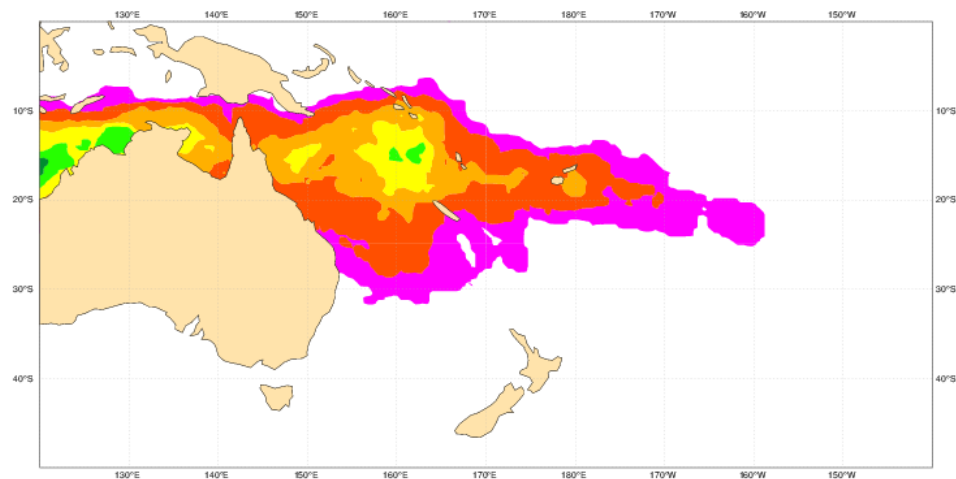
(a)

16 February 2015 (lead time 22-28 days)



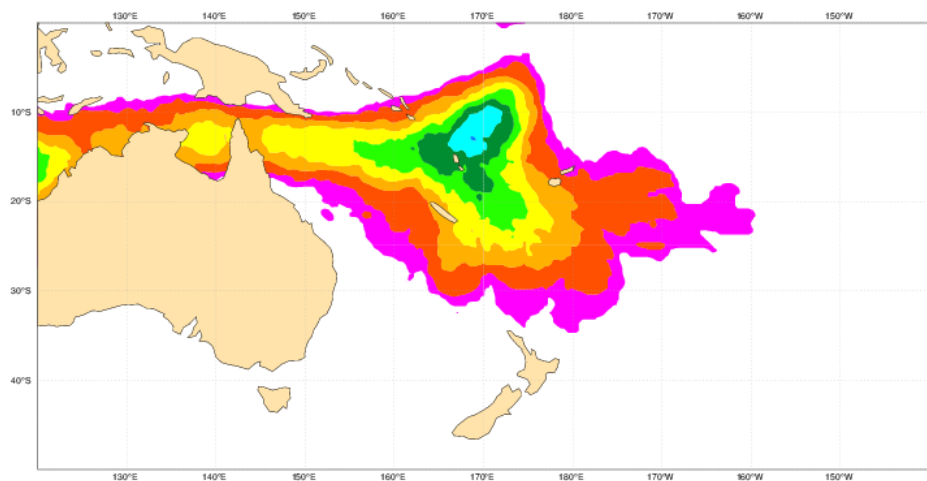
(b)

23 February 2015 (lead time 15-21 days)



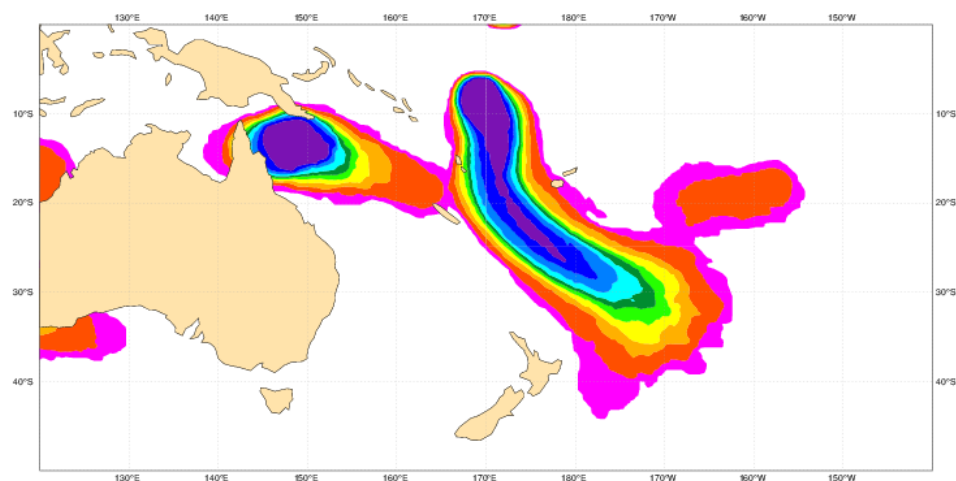
(c)

02 March 2015 (lead time 8-14 days)



(d)

09 March 2015 (lead time 1-7 days)



<http://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/metapps>

