

1 The Coastal Observing System for Northern and Arctic 2 Seas (COSYNA)

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24 **Abstract**

25 The Coastal Observing System for Northern and Arctic Seas (COSYNA) was established in
26 order to better understand the complex interdisciplinary processes of northern seas and the
27 arctic coasts in a changing environment. Particular focus is given to the German Bight in the

1 North Sea as a prime example for a heavily used coastal area, and Svalbard as an example of
2 an arctic coast that is under strong pressure due to global change.

3 The automated observing and modelling system COSYNA is designed to monitor real time
4 conditions, provide short-term forecasts, data and data products to help assess the impact of
5 anthropogenically induced change. Observations are carried out combining satellite and radar
6 remote sensing with various *in situ* platforms. Novel sensors, instruments, and algorithms are
7 developed to further improve the understanding of the interdisciplinary interactions between
8 physics, biogeochemistry, and the ecology of coastal seas. New modelling and data
9 assimilation techniques are used to integrate observations and models in a quasi-operational
10 system providing descriptions and forecasts of key hydrographic variables. Data and data
11 products are publicly available free of charge and in real time. They are used by multiple
12 interest groups in science, agencies, politics, industry, and the public.

13 **1 Introduction**

14 A large part of humanity lives near the coasts and depends on the coastal oceans. At the same
15 time, global problems such as climate change, sea level rise, or ocean acidification influence
16 the ecosystems and communities along the coasts in particular. Shelf seas host unique
17 ecosystems and provide essential sources for life in the ocean and the bordering land while
18 regions like the North Sea are heavily used for a multitude of human activities, from tourism
19 and ship traffic to the exploitation and exploration of food resources, energy and raw
20 materials. Shelf seas are also heavily influenced by terrestrial processes due to continuous
21 influx of natural and anthropogenic material from river systems and the atmosphere. They
22 therefore act as important interfaces for global material cycles, for example through the
23 uptake, emission, and transport of carbon compounds.

24 Understanding coastal systems is therefore of a high value, not only from a scientific point of
25 view, but also due to its societal value. Coastal research has, however, long been hampered by
26 the effort involved in investigating the highly complex coastal systems, the diversity of
27 disciplines and institutions involved, and the difficulties in obtaining long-term and high-
28 resolution, consistent measurements.

29 Current observations in the North Sea reveal substantial changes in biogeochemistry and food
30 webs accompanied by the occurrence of new and the disappearance of established species
31 (Gollasch et al., 2009; Buschbaum et al., 2012). The causes for these shifts are only partially

1 known. Changes in physical quantities (e.g. temperature, wind) as well as anthropogenic
2 influences (e.g., pollution, over-fishing, invasive species) most probably act as major drivers
3 (Emeis et al., 2015). In the Arctic, the thawing of permafrost has started to cause coastal
4 erosion and an increase of greenhouse gas emissions (IPCC, 2014). These examples highlight
5 the sensitivity and dynamic behavior of such complex systems that are still barely understood
6 and insufficiently documented and monitored.

7 Recent advances in technology enable the use of remotely controlled automated
8 measurements and to develop ‘intelligent’ integrated systems that combine measurements and
9 numerical modeling to create a synoptic view of coastal systems. The Coastal Observing
10 System for Northern and Arctic Seas (COSYNA) has been established to demonstrate the
11 feasibility of this idea for shallow, coastal areas. COSYNA focuses on the complex
12 interdisciplinary processes of German Bight in the North Sea and the Arctic coast near
13 Svalbard, to assess the impact of anthropogenic changes, and to provide a scientific
14 infrastructure. The focus regions have been chosen because they are ideal test beds in terms of
15 natural variability and processes, human use and change, as well as accessibility.

16 The principal objective of observations, instrument development, and modeling is to improve
17 our understanding of the interdisciplinary interactions between physical, biogeochemical, and
18 ecological processes in coastal seas, to investigate how they can be best described at present,
19 and how they will evolve in the future. To this end, COSYNA combines its measurement
20 capabilities in the German Bight in a network that is designed to expand beyond individual
21 platforms, areas, campaigns, and quantities to generate a holistic view of the entire coastal
22 system by analyzing the multitude of measurements taking into consideration the combination
23 of different data sources as well as integrating them into model analyses.

24 In COSYNA, data and knowledge tools are developed and provided to be of use for multiple
25 interest groups in industry, agencies, politics, environmental protection, or the public. These
26 data and products are publicly available free of charge and can be used to support national
27 monitoring authorities to comply, for example, with the requirements of the European Water
28 Framework Directive and the Marine Strategy Framework Directive. The coastal observatory
29 involves national and international contributions to international programs, such as the coastal
30 module of the global ocean observing system (coastal GOOS), the European Ocean
31 Observing system (EOOS as supported by EuroGOOS), the Global Earth Observations

1 System of Systems (GEOSS), Marine Geological and Biological Habitat Mapping
2 (GEOHAB), and COPERNICUS Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS).

3 COSYNA is coordinated by the Helmholtz-Zentrum Geesthacht (HZG), Germany, and has
4 been jointly developed, implemented, and operated with ten other German partner institutions
5 (s. Table 1).

6 The present Ocean Science and Biogeochemistry inter-journal special issue “COSYNA:
7 integrating observations and modeling to understand coastal systems“ collects contributions
8 highlighting various aspects of the complex observing system. This article provides an
9 overview of COSYNA, its observational and modelling approach as well as the diverse
10 associated scientific studies and activities. It aims at connecting the articles in the special
11 issue to previously published results from COSYNA. To this end, we will first describe the
12 focus regions (Section 2), objectives (Section 3), and the international context of COSYNA
13 (Section 4), before giving an overview of the observations (Section 5), sensor and instrument
14 development (Section 6), as well as modeling and data assimilation activities (Section 7).
15 Data, data products, and outreach activities are then described (Sections 8, 9) before a brief
16 outlook over future activities is given (Section 10).

17 **2 Coastal focus regions**

18 The focus regions of COSYNA, the German Bight of the North Sea and the Arctic coast at
19 Svalbard, are representative for two extremes in the broad spectrum of Northern and Arctic
20 coasts. The German Bight is one of the most intensely used coastal seas worldwide with often
21 opposing interests of economy, nature conservation, and recreation. Arctic seas and coasts are
22 among the areas mostly affected by and vulnerable to global warming. For a recent
23 assessment of impacts of climate change on the North Sea Region see NOSCCA (2016).

25 **2.1 The German Bight**

26 The German Bight (Fig. 1) is located at the south-eastern corner of the North Sea, a
27 temperate, semi-enclosed shelf sea. Sündermann et al. (1999) define its seaward boundaries at
28 $6^{\circ}30'E$ and $55^{\circ}00'N$. The German Bight is relatively shallow with water depths of generally
29 less than 40 m. The main topographical features are the glacially formed Elbe River valley
30 that spreads out to the northwest and a chain of barrier islands along the Dutch, German, and

1 Danish North Sea coast. The islands protect the major part of the Wadden Sea, the largest
2 unbroken system of intertidal sand and mud flats in the world.

3 The North Sea is characterized by the transition from oceanic to brackish water with variable
4 fresh water input at the coasts. Physical drivers such as wind, sea surface temperature (SST),
5 or tides control the natural variability in circulation and exchange processes with the open sea
6 and the coastal fringe boundaries over a broad range of temporal and spatial scales (Schulz et
7 al., 1999; Sündermann et al., 1999; Emeis et al., 2015; NOSCCA, 2016).

8 Strong tidal currents and intermittent strong wind events form a regime of high kinetic and
9 turbulent energy with significant bed-water column exchange in the North Sea. Westerly
10 winds typically prevail in the North Sea, but variations exist and southerlies and easterlies
11 may produce secondary circulation patterns (Otto et al., 1990). The currents are dominated by
12 the M2 lunar tidal component that is entering the North Sea from the north and is moving as
13 Kelvin wave cyclonically through the North Sea (Otto et al., 1990; Howarth, 2001). Strong
14 tidal currents in the channels connecting the Wadden Sea with the German Bight drive an
15 intense exchange and a net import of suspended particulate matter and nutrients into the
16 Wadden Sea (Burchard et al., 2008; Staneva et al., 2009; van Beusekom et al., 2012) and
17 sustain its muddy component and the high productivity of the intertidal mud flats (Postma,
18 1984; van Beusekom et al., 1999; van Beusekom and de Jonge, 2002; Colijn and de Jonge,
19 1984). The tides thus cause a complex pattern of mixing conditions just off the barrier islands
20 and the mouths of the estuaries of the rivers Elbe, Weser, and Ems.

21 Global and local anthropogenic impacts overlay and interfere with these natural forcings. The
22 global increase of CO₂-concentrations led to a long-term increase of SST that accelerated to
23 0.08°C y⁻¹ in the last decade (Loewe, 2009), while the average annual sea level rise reached
24 1.6 mm y⁻¹ for the last 110 years (Wahl et al., 2013), and the average pH decreased from 8.08
25 to 8.01 in the years 1970 to 2006 (Lorkowski et al., 2012).

26 The North Sea is surrounded by densely populated, highly-industrialized countries and is
27 directly affected by multiple, often conflicting uses. One of the densest ship traffic lines
28 worldwide crosses the German Bight and demands regular dredging of shipping channels and
29 harbour basins. The Wadden Sea region, a UNESCO World Natural Heritage Site since 2009,
30 is exposed to an import of pollutants and nutrients from land. The high biomass production
31 caused by the latter resulted in the identification of the entire German Bight as a problem area
32 by the OSPAR commission (OSPAR, 2008). Overfishing with bottom trawls impacts benthic

1 invertebrate communities and leads to a decrease of biomass and species richness of fish
2 communities (Emeis et al., 2015). As the latest development, the massive construction of
3 offshore wind farms – under way or planned – is likely to have a significant impact on marine
4 mammals (Koschinky et al., 2003), seabirds (Garthe and Hüppop, 2004; Busch et al., 2013),
5 but possibly also mixing (Lass et al., 2008; Ludewig, 2015; Carpenter et al., 2016) and
6 nutrient transport.

7 **2.2 The Arctic Coast**

8 While Spitsbergen (79°N) is geographically classified as fully arctic, it is significantly
9 influenced by Arctic and Atlantic water masses from the Fram Strait (Fig. 2; Hop et al.,
10 2002). Due to an increased advection rate of warmer Atlantic water masses in the fjord
11 systems over the last decade, first signs of an overall warming in the fjords have been
12 observed with a decrease in seasonal ice coverage (Stroeve et al., 2007) and significant
13 changes throughout the food web (Hegseth et al., 2013; Van de Poll et al., 2016; Willis et al.,
14 2006, Brand and Fischer, 2016).

15 The 20 km long Kongsfjord is located at the west coast of Svalbard and opens to a shelf
16 system in westerly direction. It has no sill and shares the outlet to the Atlantic with the more
17 northern Krossfjord (Cottier et al., 2005). From this outlet, an underwater canyon runs
18 through the shelf to the continental edge, establishing a connection to the deeper waters
19 masses of the West Spitsbergen Current off the shelf. Complex mixing processes between the
20 arctic shelf water masses, the Atlantic deep water masses, and the highly seasonal fresh water
21 runoff from the inner part of the fjord result in strong environmental gradients from the inner
22 parts of the fjords to its mouth (Svendsen et al., 2002). These gradients and their short- and
23 long-term variability directly influence the pelagic and benthic realms of the fjord and the
24 local food web (Stempniewicz et al., 2007). Due to the condensed temporal and spatial
25 patterns of Atlantic and polar realms in a single fjord system, as well as the observed increase
26 in mean water temperatures, the retreat of glaciers, and decrease in sea ice coverage over the
27 last decades, the Kongsfjord ecosystem (Fig. 2) became an international focal point of climate
28 change research.

29 The first research station addressing the Kongsfjord ecosystems was built by the Norsk Polar
30 Institute in NyÅlesund (Fig. 3) at 78°55'N, 11°56'E in 1970. Since then, more than 15 nations

1 operate their own research stations in this northernmost year-round inhabited research-village
2 of the world including the German-French research station AWIPEV (www.awipev.eu).

3 Even in Kongsfjord with its ideal and year-round available research infrastructure, most field
4 research has been done in summer (Fischer et al., 2016) and only very little is known about
5 the several month long polar winter with its prevailing darkness. The winter months are,
6 however, essential for life cycles, the reproduction of many species (Fischer et al., 2016), and
7 hence for the entire ecosystem (Hop et al., 2012). It is COSYNA's aim to help close this
8 observational gap providing year-round observations in this polar fjord system.

9 COSYNA activities also comprise remote sensing techniques, that have been proved and
10 tested in the North Sea, to coastal waters in the Lena Delta, Siberia for the quantification of
11 suspended matter and chlorophyll as well as *in situ* measurements of inherent optical
12 properties (Örek et al., 2013). The Lena Delta covers 32.000 km² and discharges freshwater
13 from a catchment area of 2.400.000 km² into the Arctic Ocean.

14 **3 Objectives and Benefits**

15 Complex, highly interdisciplinary natural processes characterize the North Sea across several
16 time and length scales. It is COSYNA's goal to help disentangle natural processes and
17 anthropogenic impact in this region by combining consistent long-term time series at
18 representative locations with process-oriented high-resolution observations. Numerical
19 models of various resolutions are used to provide context for observations ranging from the
20 turbulent to basin wide spatial scales. Observations are integrated into models using data
21 assimilation techniques for resolutions, time-scales, and quantities where such integration is
22 possible and useful. It has therefore been COSYNA's approach to build an integrated
23 observing system that is geared towards high flexibility and can be used on a variety of scales
24 and problems that are of scientific or societal interest.

25 Routine observations of key variables and data assimilation techniques are employed to
26 improve model performance for hindcasts, nowcasts, and short-term forecasts. The
27 implementation of such a system achieves several objectives: it bridges spatial and temporal
28 scales, while it establishes a backdrop against which key processes, such as exchange
29 processes between North Sea and Wadden Sea, the impact of extreme events, biological
30 productivity variations, and the influences of e.g. offshore wind farm construction can be
31 investigated. The extensive development of offshore wind farms, for instance, requires sound

1 environmental statistics and improved forecasts for planning and operation, while their
2 influence on hydrodynamics, let alone biogeochemistry or biology, of the North Sea is still
3 poorly understood.

4 The benefits of the COSYNA system are expected to be manifold. It contributes to
5 technology development of key sensors and infrastructure, data interpretation algorithms such
6 as for satellites and HF radar, as well as to modelling and data assimilation techniques
7 suitable for operational use and monitoring. These developments and the creation of products
8 of interest for various user groups contribute to the sciences while also benefitting society,
9 e.g. through supplying coastal and sea floor observations of the North Sea in support of the
10 European framework strategies and directives towards the goal of achieving a “good
11 environmental status” of the marine environment.

12 As for the dissemination of data and products, COSYNA’s objective is to make them
13 available free of charge to the broadest possible audience in near-real-time, while ensuring
14 high quality standards and rigorous monitoring of data quality. Additional quality controls
15 taking long-term perspectives into account are to be performed on an on-going basis
16 ultimately resulting in data publications.

17 **4 International Context**

18 With the initiation of the permanent Global Ocean Observing System GOOS
19 (Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission, 1993) and stepwise implementation of its
20 many separate observing systems, new concepts regarding the world-wide systematic and
21 sustained observation of the oceans have been put in place. Considering the role of coastal
22 areas for ecological communities and their exposure to massive human utilization, a GOOS
23 coastal module was proposed to provide a basis for extended predictability of the coastal
24 environment in both model and observations (Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission,
25 1997). Awareness of the multitude of societal benefits (ABARE, 2006;
26 <https://ioos.noaa.gov/about/societal-benefits/>) stimulated considerable investment into the
27 worldwide implementation of integrated coastal ocean observatories (ICOOS).

28 In Europe, EuroGOOS (<http://eurogoos.eu>) is the pan-European GRA that co-ordinates six
29 regional operational systems (ROOSes), such as the North West Shelf Operational
30 Oceanographic System (NOOS, [http://eurogoos.eu/roos/north-west-european-shelf-
31 operational-oceanographic-system-noos](http://eurogoos.eu/roos/north-west-european-shelf-operational-oceanographic-system-noos)). In addition to providing operational oceanographic

1 services and carry out marine research, EuroGOOS puts considerable effort into unlocking
2 fragmented and hidden marine data and making them openly available. Its data plays a key
3 role in the development of the European Marine Observation and Data Network (EMODnet)
4 data portals (<http://www.emodnet.eu>). EMODnet is designed to cover all European coastal
5 waters. The European ROOSes feed data into EMODnet either directly or through
6 SeaDataNet (Schaap and Lowry, 2010; <http://www.seadatanet.org/>) and the Copernicus
7 Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS, <http://marine.copernicus.eu>).

8 COSYNA contributes through the Helmholtz-Zentrum Geesthacht (HZG), as EuroGOOS
9 member, to the definition and implementation of operational services for near coast, shallow
10 ocean waters. Based on the FerryBox project funded by the EU in 2002-2005, HZG is co-
11 chairing the FerryBox EuroGOOS Task Team (<http://www.ferrybox.org>). Via NOOS, the
12 FerryBox data are fed into the EMODnet portals, while COSYNA's High-Frequency radar
13 data are delivered directly to the EMODnet Physics data portal and the glider data to the
14 CMEMS data server.

15 **5 Observations**

16 The COSYNA observation network was designed to cover spatial scales ranging from a tidal
17 catchment area in the Wadden Sea to the southern North Sea (Fig. 1). An additional observing
18 station was installed at the west coast of Svalbard. Nearly all platforms deliver a set of
19 COSYNA standard observables comprising key meteorological, oceanographic, and
20 biogeochemical bulk parameters (Table 2). Tables 3 and 4 provide a comprehensive overview
21 of the COSYNA platforms.

22 Four stationary systems were installed on poles placed in three tidal basins of the East Frisian
23 and one in the North Frisian Wadden Sea. They provide highly resolved COSYNA standard
24 parameters (s. Table 2) and allow the integration of energy and matter budgets over the
25 sampled catchment areas. An additional pole and a stationary FerryBox monitor the exchange
26 between the German Bight and the Elbe river as its main tributary.

27 To estimate transports across the northern cross-section of the German Bight, a FerryBox was
28 installed on the wind-turbine research platform FINO3 (Forschungsplattformen in Nord- und
29 Ostsee). Upstream of it, along the mean transport pathway in the German Bight, the FINO1
30 platform is located at the site of a station belonging to the Marine Environmental Monitoring
31 Network in the North Sea and Baltic Sea (MARNET) operated by the German Federal

1 Maritime and Hydrographic Agency (BSH). In general, MARNET complements the fixed
2 COSYNA platforms (Table 3) towards the offshore regions of the German exclusive
3 economic zone (EEZ). FerryBox systems operated on several ships of opportunity extend the
4 COSYNA Network to the North Sea-scale, with several regular routes (Fig. 9).

5 To provide a good spatial coverage, remote sensing with high frequency (HF) radar and
6 satellites is used. Two HF radar arrays are installed at the North Frisian and one at the East
7 Frisian coast with nearly rectangular viewing angle to the other two systems. This
8 configuration allows the determination of horizontal surface current vectors over most of the
9 German Bight. The surface concentrations of total suspended matter, chlorophyll-a, and
10 yellow substances “Gelbstoff” were obtained from 2003 to 2012 with MERIS (Medium
11 Resolution Imaging Spectrometer) onboard ENVISAT, followed by MODIS (Moderate
12 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer).

13 To go beyond the limitations in power and data transmission rates that most COSYNA
14 platforms face, two COSYNA Underwater-Node Systems were developed and installed. They
15 are pilots towards long-term observations of parameters beyond the COSYNA standard
16 observables, such as optical systems for non-invasive determination of plankton or fish
17 populations and their behavior. The underwater node off the island of Helgoland is the first
18 installation in a shallow water environment worldwide subject to strong wave forces. At
19 Svalbard, the underwater node allows year-round observations under the sea ice in harsh
20 environmental conditions. To explore physical and biogeochemical processes at the sediment-
21 water interface over longer periods of time in high detail, three lander systems were
22 developed, that can be connected to the Underwater-Node Systems for longer operations.

23 Observations of the vertical distribution of variables over most of the water column were
24 achieved with two alternating gliders operating for several weeks north-west off the island of
25 Helgoland. Ship cruises with an undulating towed fish were carried out two to four times per
26 year along a repeated grid covering the German Bight with the MARNET stations at its
27 crossing points. For details on the moving platforms used in COSYNA see Table 1.

28 All data are transferred in near-real time to the COSYNA data server and are publicly
29 available in the COSYNA data portal (<http://codm.hzg.de/codm/>). Quality control processes
30 are applied and data are flagged accordingly following SeaDataNet definitions¹.

¹ http://seadatanet.maris2.nl/v_bodc_vocab/browse.asp?order=entrykey&l=L201

1 **5.1 Stationary Measurements**

2 Six fixed stations are the central element of COSYNA and serve as platforms to record point-
3 like time series of meteorological and marine parameters. They provide high frequency
4 observations to resolve variability well below tidal periods in order to estimate statistically
5 significant tidal fluxes as well as long-term records or trends over several years at the same
6 location. Measuring poles were implemented at three tidal inlets, the inner Hörnum Basin, the
7 Jade Bay, and the Otzumer Balje close to the island of Spiekeroog, to capture the
8 hydrodynamics and suspended particulate matter concentrations (SPMC) typical of the East
9 Frisian and North Frisian Wadden Sea. An additional pole was placed in the outer Elbe
10 estuary (Fig. 1).

11 While the inner Hörnum Basin represents the zero usage zone of the National Park of the
12 North Frisian Wadden Sea, the Jade Bay is exposed to intense activity of building a new deep
13 water port. The Otzumer Balje discharges a catchment area that is typical for the East Frisian
14 Wadden Sea and was intensely investigated during the ecosystem research project ELAWAT
15 (Dittmann, 1999). The Elbe pole was operated to contribute to the sediment management plan
16 of the Elbe Estuary and to complement the data of the stationary Cuxhaven Ferry-Box on the
17 southern side of the Elbe mouth. The FerryBox on FINO3 captures offshore conditions in the
18 German Bight. All these stations are described in the following in more detail (Table 3).

19 **5.1.1 Poles Hörnum Basin, Jade Bay, and Elbe Estuary**

20 The poles at the inner Hörnum Basin, the Jade Bay, and in the Elbe Estuary were mounted
21 from March to November to prevent ice damage in the winter months. They consisted of a 15
22 m long steel tube, 5 m of which were jettied into the sea bed. A platform accessible via a
23 ladder was mounted on top of the 40 cm-diameter tube, resulting in an overall length of 18 m
24 (Fig. 4). The platform carried meteorological sensors and radiometer, solar panels for energy
25 supply, an automated yet remotely controllable water sampler, and logger boxes for
26 temporary data storage and wireless communication. A manual winch was used to retrieve the
27 underwater instrument unit for maintenance. This unit was mounted with its lower end 1 m
28 above the sea floor. It was equipped with sensors for all COSYNA standard observables of
29 physical oceanography and biogeochemistry (Onken et al., 2007; Table 2).

30 In order to reduce sensor fouling, the underwater unit was cleaned at least twice a month.
31 Possible sensor drift and cleansing effects were monitored by direct comparison with a well-

1 calibrated reference system before, during, and after maintenance. Water samples were taken
2 during maintenance to relate optical signals to SPMC.

3 To observe heat fluxes between the tidal flats and the water body, a vertical temperature
4 sediment profiler was developed and deployed in the intertidal sediments close to the pole
5 (Onken et al., 2010). It was operated for more than a year. At a distance of 5 nautical miles,
6 an additional mooring with an upward looking ADCP (Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler)
7 and a Datawell wave rider buoy was deployed.

8 In order to compute along-channel fluxes in the Hörnum Basin, occasional ship surveys were
9 carried out over full tidal cycles relating across- and along-channel transects to the pole data.
10 They were complemented by water samples and turbidity measurements. As an example,
11 measurements over three weeks are shown (Fig. 5) comprising a significant wind event with
12 peak velocities up to 20 ms^{-1} resulting in a sea level rise of more than 1.5 m and significant
13 wave heights up to 1.7 m. Water temperature and salinity after the storm exhibit the
14 characteristic tidal (mainly M2) variability. Current velocities are predominantly at frequency
15 M4, with a clear ebb-flood asymmetry. SPMC shows a complex variability reflecting the M4
16 tidal current dependencies as well as horizontal along-channel gradients. Interestingly, the
17 onset of the rise in SPMC and its peak value lag behind the significant wave height by nearly
18 one tidal period indicating that the source of the additionally suspended material is located
19 remote from the pole.

20 The observations at the pole also indicate that the steady import of particulate matter is
21 closely connected to the specific thermodynamic processes of the amphibic Wadden Sea area
22 (Burchard et al., 2008; Onken et al., 2007; Onken and Riethmüller, 2010; Flöser et al., 2011).

23 5.1.2 Pole Spiekeroog

24 Time series of oceanographic, meteorological, and biogeochemical data are continuously
25 recorded since 2002 at a measuring pole of the Institute for Chemistry and Biology of the
26 Marine Environment in the tidal channel of the Otzumer Balje close to the island of
27 Spiekeroog (Fig. 1, Fig. 4; Reuter, 2009; Badewien et al., 2009). The time-series station
28 Spiekeroog (position $53^{\circ}45'0.10''\text{N}$, $007^{\circ}40'16.3''\text{E}$, mean sea level 13 m) consists of a 35.5
29 m long pole, with a diameter of 1.6 m that is driven 10 m into the sediment. The temperature,
30 conductivity and pressure sensors are deployed within five horizontal tubes (1.5 m, 3.5 m, 5.5
31 m, 7.5 m, 9 m above the seafloor) that are aligned in the main current direction. A platform is
32 mounted on top of the pole, about 7 m above sea level. It consists of two laboratory containers

1 hosting a second platform at 12 m above sea level that is equipped with solar panels, a wind
2 turbine and meteorological sensor systems. Oceanographic sensors are installed in special
3 tubes within the pole that are oriented in the main direction of the tidal flow. An Acoustic
4 Doppler Current Profiler is mounted 1 m above the sea floor on a horizontal arm of 12 m
5 length. The time-series station Spiekeroog is capable of withstanding storm events and ice
6 conditions. It is part of COSYNA since 2012.

7 The acquired data sets are fundamental for the improvement and validation of model results
8 (Burchard and Badewien, 2015; Grashorn et al. 2015; Lettman et al., 2009; Staneva et al.,
9 2009; Burchard et al., 2008) as well as to answer various research questions (Rullkötter, 2009;
10 Badewien et al., 2009; Hodapp et al., 2015; Meier et al., 2015; Holinde et al., 2015) such as
11 concerning the impact of storm surges, algal blooms on sediment dynamics and exchange
12 processes. The data sets are also valuable for assessing the long-term variability of
13 oceanographic and biological parameters and determining anthropogenic impacts. The
14 experience gained at the pole also helped to improve fouling-prone sensing methods and
15 quality assurance (Garaba et al., 2014; Schulz et al., 2015; Oehmcke et al., 2015).

16 5.1.3 Stationary FerryBoxes

17 As part of the COSYNA network, a stationary FerryBox was installed inside the pole of
18 research platform FINO3. Water is pumped from approx. 5 m and 16 m below mean sea level
19 height for the continuous analysis near-surface and sea floor waters. The FerryBox is
20 equipped with sensors for standard oceanographic parameters (Table 2). Temporarily, nutrient
21 analysers and a pCO₂ sensor were added.

22 Despite harsh operating conditions, the FerryBox is operational since July 2011, with short
23 interruptions during storm periods that were caused by sea spray and condensation that
24 occurred notwithstanding the use of a heated steel cabinet for the protection of its electronics.
25 Due to its remote position in the North Sea, personnel and spare parts had to be transported by
26 helicopter to the platform for maintenance. Weather conditions therefore constrained the
27 accessibility of the platform and sensors requiring regular maintenance could only be used
28 temporarily. The software was operated remotely.

29 Since August 2010, a stationary FerryBox is also installed in a container directly at the
30 waterfront of Cuxhaven Harbour. It samples the tidally influenced, highly turbid lower Elbe
31 river, the main freshwater discharge into the COSYNA observation area. The FerryBox was

1 complemented by the Elbe estuary measurement pole located 18 km upstream on the northern
2 side of the river (Section 5.1.1) to contribute to a better understanding of the SPM dynamics
3 and transport through the Elbe estuarine turbidity zone into the German Bight.

4 The water intake is located at a mean depth of 4 m. The oceanographic sensors are described
5 in Section 5.4. The FerryBox is also equipped with a nitrate, phosphate, and silicate analyser
6 as well as a fluorescence-based instrument for phytoplankton group determination. A
7 meteorological station mounted on the top of the container provides wind speed and global
8 radiation values.

9 Due to its easy and constant accessibility, the FerryBox Cuxhaven is an ideal platform for the
10 testing of the long-term performance of new sensors under environmental conditions.

11 As example, a time-series of several parameters is shown for 2012 and 2013 (Fig. 6). A strong
12 discharge period in summer of 2013 led to a substantial decrease of salinity with nearly fresh
13 water conditions at low water for a two week period (Voynova et al., this issue).

14 **5.2 Ocean Gliders**

15 Ocean gliders are autonomous underwater vehicles, propelled by a buoyancy engine. In the
16 last decade they have become an established oceanographic platform in the open ocean
17 autonomously collecting data with a high temporal resolution along (re)programmable
18 transects. Due to their operational flexibility and a long endurance on the order of months,
19 gliders sample the oceans at low cost in a way no other platforms currently do (Testor et al.,
20 2010).

21 The use of ocean gliders in shallow coastal waters is, however, challenging. COSYNA and a
22 few other observatories have pioneered this particular use. Due to bathymetric constraints,
23 currents can reach magnitudes in excess of the nominal glider speed, making it difficult to
24 follow a prescribed transect. Intense commercial and recreational shipping traffic significantly
25 increases the likelihood of a glider-ship collision (Merckelbach, 2013). This will almost
26 certainly result in the loss of the glider and possibly in a hull rupture, if a fast light-weight
27 craft is involved (Drücker et al., 2015). Therefore, COSYNA collaborates closely with the
28 authority responsible for safety regulations in the German sector of the North Sea (Wasser-
29 und Schifffahrtsamt) to develop prediction methodologies to mitigate the risk at sea involving
30 gliders (Merckelbach, this issue).

1 COSYNA maintains three Slocum Littoral Electric gliders (Jones et al., 2005). These gliders
2 have been used in the German sector of the North Sea in different operational modes. Gliders
3 are particularly well suited for surveying repeated transects over long periods of time
4 (months). Their long endurance makes it viable to run two gliders in an alternating service.
5 While one glider is operational, the second one is refurbished. The gliders have also been
6 deployed for shorter, targeted experiments. The use of multiple gliders provides additional
7 spatial information. In order to fly gliders in formation, operational techniques have been
8 developed so that they act as a single entity facilitating the interpretation of the spatial
9 variability. The measurements taken with COSYNA gliders are available on CODM. With the
10 help of a Java applet, glider data can be visualized in 3 dimensions (Breitbach et al., 2016).

11 The evolution of stratification during 2012 and part of 2014 is shown in Fig. 7 to illustrate
12 glider measurements. The data were collected by two gliders in alternating service in 2012,
13 and within a single experiment in 2014. From May to August, the potential energy and
14 stratification of the water column increases due to solar heat flux. During that time, the water
15 column is partially mixed by wind and waves at several instances. After September, mixing
16 dominates and the heat fluxes are too low to create a stable stratification. Data from 2014
17 shows interannual variability with a strong stratification in August and a subsequent complete
18 mixing of the water column caused by a storm. After this event, the stratification was not
19 restored.

20 **5.3 High-Frequency Radar System**

21 In order to detect surface currents, a High Frequency (HF) radar network was established in
22 the German Bight of the North Sea. It consists of three “Wellen Radar” (WERA) systems
23 (Gurgel et al., 1999) located on the isles of Sylt and Wangerooge and in Büsum (Fig. 8).

24 The radar signal propagates along the ocean surface beyond the horizon and is backscattered
25 by surface waves with wave lengths between 5 and 50 m (half the electromagnetic wave
26 length of the radar). The WERA systems typically cover a range distance of 100 km with a
27 resolution of 1.5 km. All systems transmit via a rectangular array of four antennas with a total
28 power of 32 W. The systems on Sylt and in Büsum operate at 10.8 MHz with a linear receiver
29 array consisting of 12 antennas, while the radar on Wangerooge operates at 12.1 MHz with a
30 16-antenna array.

1 The acquired data are subject to quality control and are publicly available within 30 min of
2 acquisition. In an additional processing step, the radial components of each radar site are
3 assimilated into a numerical simulation model (Stanev et al., 2014) that is also used for short-
4 term forecasts.

5 Since 2013, the HF radar network is also used for ship detection, tracking, and fusing
6 information of the radars with other sources of ship information such as from the Automated
7 Identification System. Although the HF radar network was setup for the retrieval of
8 oceanographic parameters, leading to a limited resolution and detection performance, ship
9 detection can be performed at each HF radar station every 33 s (Dzvonkovskaya et al., 2008).
10 Tracking and fusion is performed as a post processing task utilizing state-of-the-art algorithms
11 (Bruno et al., 2013; Maresca et al., 2014; Vivone et al., 2015).

12 **5.4 FerryBox**

13 In order to obtain oceanographic near-surface variables in a cost-effective way on a routinely
14 basis, FerryBox-systems have been developed within COSYNA and were installed on several
15 ships-of-opportunity such as ferries or cargo ships, research vessels, or as stationary units
16 (Fig. 9). They deliver key physical state variables of the North Sea and the Arctic coast off
17 Svalbard and fill gaps concerning robust biogeochemical observations of the oceans. In
18 particular, observations of the coastal carbon cycle with high temporal and spatial resolution
19 along the ship tracks help to understand impacts of climate change or eutrophication on
20 productivity, as well as the influence of single events such as storms or floods on the system.
21 The recorded variables include temperature, conductivity, salinity (derived from temperature
22 and conductivity), chlorophyll-a fluorescence, turbidity, dissolved oxygen (DO), the partial
23 pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂), pH, alkalinity, nutrients, and algal groups (derived from patterns of
24 algal fluorescence by excitation at different wavelengths). The data are used for model
25 validation (Petersen et al., 2011; Haller et al., 2015) and assimilation studies (Stanev et al.,
26 2011; Grayek et al., 2011; Fig. 7).

27 The FerryBox is a modular system that can be easily extended with additional sensors.
28 Compared to other platforms, such as buoys, the FerryBox-systems have fewer limitations
29 due to space, power consumption, or harsh environmental conditions allowing the operation
30 of experimental and less robust sensors (Petersen, 2014). Due to a self-cleaning mechanism,
31 the system maintenance intervals can be extended up to several months. All data are stored in

1 the FerryBox-system and are transferred to the COSYNA server when the vessel has a stable
2 internet connection.

3 **5.5 Underwater-Node System**

4 While cabled underwater observatory technology has been developed for deep sea research
5 applications over the last decades, cabled underwater observatories for shallow water were
6 only recently initiated due to the predicted dramatic effects of climate change especially in the
7 world's coastal regions. They are needed as core research infrastructures when either a
8 continuous high-frequency or real-time monitoring of hydrographical or biological data is
9 required or when scientific instrumentation requires more power than batteries can provide.
10 Cabled underwater observatories enable new research approaches in marine science by
11 providing long-term time series. Similar to atmospheric or terrestrial research, they are
12 suitable to form the backbone of international coastal and climate change research.

13 The harsh environments of shallow waters with extreme wave impact, storms, sea ice, strong
14 currents, as well as biofouling and the direct impact of fishing vessels require the
15 development of very robust cabled systems. COSYNA has started with this development in
16 2010, with the goal to observe multidisciplinary processes in the harsh environmental
17 conditions in the North Sea and in the arctic areas – in particular during storms and in winter
18 when access with vessels is difficult or impossible.

19 The COSYNA Underwater-Node System is designed for water depth between 10 m (in high-
20 energy environments like the North Sea) to a maximum of 300 m. It comprises a land based
21 power unit and server providing 1000 VDC, a GBit-network connection, and virtual computer
22 technology for up to 20 different users. This land-based control system is connected to the
23 underwater node unit via a fibre-optic and power hybrid cable that can be up to 10 km long
24 (Fig. 8).

25 The underwater unit is built as basic lander system. Up to 10 underwater plugs provide power
26 and network connection. The underwater unit can be outfitted with an uninterrupted low-
27 power battery supply for 6-8 hours operating time to enable temporary disconnection from the
28 high voltage electricity. From this central underwater node unit (Fig. 81-3), sensors or sensor
29 units with a power consumption of up to 200 W (Fig. 81-4) can be connected via an up to 70
30 m long cable. Communication and data transfer with the attached sensors or sensor units are
31 realized via TCP/IP. Completely separated ports allow scientists to directly communicate with

1 the instruments independent of other users. From the primary node system, an uplink power
2 and network connection allows the serial connection of a secondary and tertiary underwater
3 node unit (Fig. 81-5) to reach a maximal range of 30 km from the land based support unit.

4 Since 2012, COSYNA operates two Underwater-Node Systems. One node system with 10
5 separated ports is located off the island of Helgoland at 59° 11'N / 8° 52,79E in 10 m water
6 depth close to the long-term time series station “Helgoland Roads” and the AWI underwater
7 experimental area MarGate (Wehkamp and Fischer, 2012; 2013a; 2013b). It is operated as
8 permanent monitoring facility for the main hydrographical parameters in the southern North
9 Sea (temperature, conductivity, O₂, pH, turbidity, currents), as docking and support system for
10 complex sensor systems with high power and data transfer demands, such as stereo-optical
11 cameras (Wehkamp and Fischer, 2014), and as test facility for the development and operation
12 of the Underwater-Node Systems in the shallow environment of the North Sea. Since 2012,
13 the Helgoland node system endured two severe storms with wind speeds of up to 12 Bft. (190
14 km h⁻¹) providing evidence that the operation of cabled observatories is possible under
15 extreme conditions.

16 The southern North Sea is well known as a high-energy environment with wind speeds above
17 10m/s (> 6 Bft) during considerable phases of the year. Research cruises with intense
18 sampling programs are therefore often problematic and cabled observatories provide an
19 invaluable extension for continuous and long-term monitoring programs. They may therefore
20 help fill a significant gap in our understanding of ecosystem behaviour in coastal
21 environments beyond 6-8 Bft.

22 The second continuously operated COSYNA underwater observatory is deployed since 2012
23 off Svalbard at 78° 92'N, 11° 9'E. It is located at the west coast of Spitsbergen close to the
24 international research village of NyÅlesund. It comprises a FerryBox system and a COSYNA
25 Underwater Node System at the “Old Pier” (Fig. 3) close to the research village of
26 NyÅlesund. It provides a continuous year-round monitoring system as well as an access point
27 for international project partners. Since 2015, the COSYNA underwater observatory is part of
28 the EU project Jerico-Next, the long-term research strategy of the NyÅlesund research
29 council, and the Kongsfjord Flagship Program.

30 Also the Svalbard observatory is operated as permanent monitoring facility for the main
31 hydrographical parameters in the fjord system (temperature, conductivity, O₂, pH, turbidity,
32 currents) and as docking and support system for complex sensor systems. It is fully remotely

1 controlled and all sensors and sensor units can be accessed via the internet from Germany.
2 The Svalbard observatory is equipped with 4 access points and is specifically designed for
3 national and international cooperation in the Kongsfjorden ecosystem. A main feature of the
4 Svalbard observatory is a vertical profiling sensor unit, which allows to remotely position
5 attached sensors at a specific depth on a daily or even hourly basis. Thus, the entire water
6 column can be sampled year-round, even under sea ice.

7 With the remotely controlled sensor setup of the COSYNA Underwater-Node System, it was
8 for the first time possible to gain data with a temporal resolution of up to 1 Hz with both CTD
9 and ADCP sensors, and with highly complex sensors like a stereo-optical camera system that
10 is able to measure abundance, species composition and length frequency distributions of
11 macroscopic organisms (Wehkamp and Fischer, 2014). No data set of this kind has previously
12 been available from any Arctic ecosystem worldwide, thus providing unique insights into the
13 dynamics of a polar ecosystem with very high temporal and spatial resolution (Fig. 92).

14 **5.6 Landers**

15 Under the COSYNA framework, different autonomous sea floor observatories (landers) have
16 been developed and are applied in various past and ongoing research programmes. These
17 landers bridge the observational gap between long term monitoring stations, remote sensing
18 applications, and ship-based field campaigns. They are mobile, and can be used to spatially
19 interpolate between monitoring stations and provide data with very high temporal resolution
20 (Kwoll et al., 2013; Kwoll et al., 2014; Oehler et al., 2015; Ahmerkap et al., *subm.*). Lander
21 operations aim at measuring various processes close to the sea floor or in the sediment and are
22 designed to have minimal impact on the environment and quantities that are measured. The
23 landers can be either operated autonomously for days or weeks at a time, or may be connected
24 to the COSYNA Underwater-Node System that is providing power and data connection for
25 the landers.

26 The landers developed and used in COSYNA are i) the lander SedObs (Sediment Dynamics
27 Observatory) measuring seafloor dynamics, ii) the lander NuSObs (Nutrient and Suspension
28 Observatory), and iii) the Lander FLUXSO (Fluxes on Sand Observatory).

1 5.6.1 Lander SedObs

2 The lander Sediment Dynamics Observatory (SedObs) is used to investigate seafloor
3 dynamics and to improve the fundamental knowledge of multi-phase flows and the interaction
4 of physical and biological processes. The sea floor and lower water column are characterized
5 by morphodynamic processes acting on a large range of spatial and temporal scales.
6 Observations with SedObs focus on short-term dynamics from turbulence to tides or storm
7 events. Particular focus is given to the interaction of water motion by currents and waves as
8 well as the transport of sediments and other substances with the sea bed evolution under the
9 influence of (micro-)biological stabilizing and destabilizing organisms (Ahmerkamp et al.,
10 2015).

11 SedObs consists of a 2×2 m steel frame with a platform providing space for battery power
12 supply and the installation of sensors (Fig. 103). The platform rests on four adjustable and
13 inclined legs. Foot plates provide stable stand, prohibit subsidence, and reduce scouring
14 around the legs. Sensors can be attached to the legs for measurements close to the sea bed.
15 The lander is deployed with a launching frame from a research vessel orienting it in the
16 direction of main currents. After release of the lander, the frame is recovered in order to
17 minimize flow disturbances. For recovery, a floating buoy with recovery line is released
18 acoustically. Typical deployment times exceed 25 h to account for the diurnal inequality in
19 tidal variations. Deployments can be extended to longer periods of several weeks depending
20 on measuring frequency, battery and storage limitations, and the increasing risk of damage by
21 trawlers.

22 Flow velocities and turbulence above and below the lander are measured with two Acoustic
23 Doppler Current Profilers. The upward-looking ADCP also captures the directional surface
24 wave spectrum. Two Acoustic Doppler Velocimeters record velocity at two levels with high
25 frequency. Turbulence characteristics are computed from high frequent velocity fluctuations
26 (Amirshahi et al., 2016).

27 The small-scale bathymetry below the lander is measured with a 3D-Acoustic Ripple Profiler
28 (Bell and Thorne, 1997). The sensor is installed about 1.8 m above the seafloor covering a
29 circular area of 6.2 m diameter. Sediment transport characteristics are measured with Sequoia
30 Lisst 100X instruments providing *in situ* particle size distributions of suspended sediments.
31 Characteristics of suspended matter concentration are provided by optical backscatter sensors
32 and the backscattered signal strengths of the hydroacoustic instruments. Additional

1 parameters comprise the COSYNA standard observables. Observations are complemented by
2 investigations of benthic species as well as sedimentological and granulometric analysis
3 (Laser diffraction) of the sediments sampled with grab samplers, box corers, and multi-corer
4 equipment.

5 SedObs supports several applied and fundamental research projects, such as KÜNO NOAH
6 (North Sea Observation and Assessment of Habitats). Until 2015, eleven ship surveys were
7 carried out, field data were collected, and analysed at different reference sites in the German
8 Bight with sedimentological and morphological characteristics that are representative for
9 large areas of the German EEZ in the North Sea. A combination with other COSYNA sea
10 floor observatories has produced consistent and extensive data sets on various physical and
11 (micro-)biological properties of the domains (Krämer and Winter, this issue). Data are
12 published at <http://www.noah-project.de>.

13 During some parts of the tidal cycle a periodic stratification of the water column has been
14 observed in shallow areas of the German Bight forming distinct layers that move
15 independently with a decoupled tidal ellipticity (Krämer and Winter, this volume; Kwooll et
16 al., 2013; Kwooll et al., 2014; Ahmerkap et al., submitted). The difference in sea bed dynamics
17 between fair weather conditions and storms is also investigated in the research area “Seafloor
18 Dynamics“ of the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation)
19 Research Center / Cluster of Excellence „The Ocean in the Earth System“.

20 5.6.2 Lander NuSObs

21 The benthic lander system NuSObs (Nutrient and Suspension Observatory) was designed to
22 quantify the exchange of nutrients and oxygen across the sediment-water-interface and to
23 sample surface sediments *in situ* (Oehler et al, 2015a; Oehler et al., 2015b). The aim was to
24 study the remineralization of organic matter, the reflux of nutrients into the bottom water, the
25 dissolution of biogenic silica (e.g. Diatoms) and transport processes across the sediment-water
26 transition zone, such as biologically mediated transport (e.g. bioirrigation) or wave induced
27 pore water advection. Target area was the North Sea. Three time series sites were selected and
28 revisited three to four times a year in order to identify seasonal variations.

29 NuSObs (Fig. 103) was equipped with two “Mississippi” type chambers (Witte and
30 Pfannkuche, 2000). After the deployment of the lander, both chambers were moved slowly
31 into the sediment by a motor each enclosing a sediment area of 400 cm² for typically 12–24 h.

1 Each chamber was equipped with a syringe sampler (seven 50 ml glass syringes) to obtain
2 water samples from the incubation chamber for subsequent chemical analysis. In addition, an
3 oxygen Optode and pH sensor were mounted in each chamber. The syringe sampler was pre-
4 programmed to obtain water samples from the chamber every 2–3 h yielding time series data
5 of oxygen, nitrate, or silicic acid concentrations within the chambers.

6 5.6.3 Lander FLUXSO

7 The benthic lander system FLUXSO (Fluxes on Sands Observatory) was recently developed
8 for studying *in situ* solute fluxes of nutrients, DIC, and oxygen in permeable consolidated
9 sediments. The goal is to assess the importance of the seafloor as sink or source of nutrients
10 and benthic-pelagic coupling and to study advection-related processes in permeable shelf
11 sediments. The lander was successfully applied on sandy sediments of the North Sea (Figure
12 16; Friedrich et al., 2016; Neumann et al., 2016; Ahmerkamp under review).

13 The lander consists of a tripod base frame that is recovered from the seafloor using two pop-
14 up buoys (Fig. 114). Power supply is provided by a deep-sea battery. The lander contains two
15 wiggling chambers that are both equipped with oxygen and CO₂ optodes, a pH sensor, and a
16 conductivity sensor. A stirrer disk with variable speed and direction allows the simulation of
17 advective or diffusive flow regimes in each chamber by creating rotationally symmetric
18 pressure gradients between the center and the circumference of the enclosed sediment surface.
19 The shape and magnitude of the pressure gradients closely resemble natural conditions. Two
20 syringe samplers are used for tracer injection and sampling from the chambers. Outside water
21 parameters are measured with a CTD with fluorescence and turbidity sensors, a PAR sensor,
22 an oxygen optode and pH sensor, as well as a Doppler current sensor.

23 The FLUXSO lander can be deployed at the seafloor, where it autonomously measures solute
24 fluxes between sediment and sea water using isolated sampling chambers. An innovative
25 wiggling mechanism is used, permitting gentle and deep penetration of the chambers into
26 consolidated sediments with minimum disturbance (Janssen et al., 2005).

27 5.7 Satellite Oceanography

28 Satellite remote sensing is unique in providing a synoptic view over larger areas of the sea
29 surface (Robinson, 2004). Standard algorithms are used widely to determine the optically
30 dominant water constituents and the chlorophyll-a concentration in clear oceanic waters

1 (Carder et al., 1991; Lee et al., 1998; Gohin et al., 2002). These simple band-ratio algorithms,
2 however, often fail in optically complex coastal waters. To gain concentrations of one coastal
3 water constituent, other optically active substance categories have to be considered in the
4 development of algorithms for the inversion of satellite spectral data. The correction of the
5 atmospheric influence is more sensitive and complex as it accounts for 90% to 98% of the
6 radiance seen at the satellite. The algorithms for coastal waters developed by HZG and used
7 in COSYNA are included in the ESA (European Space Agency) operational processing
8 scheme for the sensors MERIS (MEdium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer) on ENVISAT
9 (Doerffer and Schiller, 2007) and OLCI (Ocean and Land Colour Instrument) on Sentinel-3
10 providing chlorophyll-*a* and total suspended matter (TSM) concentrations and the absorption
11 by chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM, “Gelbstoff”).

12 MERIS provided COSYNA data (Fig. 12) for the North Sea until 2012 when ENVISAT
13 failed. With the adaptation of the coastal algorithm to MODIS (on AQUA) and OLCI (Ocean
14 and Land Colour Instrument) on Sentinel-3 providing chlorophyll-*a* and total suspended
15 matter (TSM) concentrations and the absorption of “yellow substances” (Gelbstoff) whose
16 main part is chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM).

17 **5.8 Seabird Tracking**

18 Seabirds are top predators depending on marine resources. Their foraging behavior may
19 therefore indicate changes in their food resources which are often associated with variability
20 in the marine environment (Furness and Camphuysen, 1997). In COSYNA, the Northern
21 Gannet (*Morus bassanus*) has been selected as the target seabird species due to their size and
22 large foraging range (Fig. 136; Garthe et al., this issue). Northern Gannets are widely
23 distributed in the North Atlantic and breed in large colonies. Individual Northern Gannets
24 were equipped with modern, lightweight GPS data loggers to track their flight patterns and
25 foraging behavior. In particular, information is collected on position, flight speed, altitude,
26 and partly also on dive depth and water temperature. A strong feature of most modern data
27 loggers is that they are powered by solar cells thus enabling long-term tracking for several
28 weeks, months, or even years. Furthermore, an increasing number of devices provide data
29 transfer via UHF, satellite, and mobile phone networks (Wilson and Vandenabeele, 2012;
30 Kays et al., 2015). A combination of the data collected by seabirds with environmental
31 parameters from other COSYNA observations, such as salinity, sea surface temperature, or
32 chlorophyll facilitates the understanding of the seabirds’ foraging behavior, their likely food

1 intake and habitat choice (Fig. 147). On the other hand, the recorded spatial and temporal
2 flight patterns and environmental parameters can help to characterize the environmental status
3 of the North Sea.

4 **5.9 *In situ* mapping of the COSYNA observation area**

5 The regular operational observations in COSYNA primarily detect variables at the sea surface
6 (currents observed with HF radar; chlorophyll-a concentration, TSM, and SPMC observed
7 with satellite remote sensing), at constant depths at fixed high-resolution time-series stations
8 (Poles, FINO3 platform, MARNET stations), or at constant depth along regular ship routes
9 (FerryBox transects). In order to observe the vertical distribution of key variables and their
10 temporal development, these observations were complemented by extended *in situ* mapping
11 of the North Sea during several research cruises and glider surveys. *In situ* observations taken
12 with Wadden Sea poles, FINO3 platform, MARNET stations and FerryBox are also used in
13 modelling (Stanev et al., 2016).

14 In particular, the surveys aimed at investigating the representativeness of single-point time-
15 series observations, delivering larger-scale validation data for the COSYNA remote sensing
16 systems and numerical models, testing the functioning of new sensors for permanent missions
17 under North Sea conditions, and relating concentrations and characteristics of living and non-
18 living water constituents to optical surrogate variables.

19 The regular COSYNA mapping grid covers estuarine, Wadden Sea, and open shelf sea water
20 (Fig. 1). It consists of four East-West and four South-North cross-shore transects and touches
21 the fixed COSYNA and MARNET stations covering the whole German Exclusive Economic
22 Zone (EEZ). The land side is limited by a water depth of 10 m and its most seaward reach by
23 the borders of the German EEZ.

24 From 2009 to 2013, up to four cruises per year were carried out with RV Heincke. The cruises
25 took place between March and October to take seasonal variations into consideration. At a
26 ship's speed of 6 to 8 knots, the grid was completed in less than a week. During this time, the
27 water masses did not move substantially as confirmed by model studies using Lagrangian
28 tracers. The observations thus provide a good approximation of the spatial distribution of the
29 observed variables.

30 Along the grid lines, an undulating towed Scanfish Mark II TM by EIVA was operated
31 yielding vertical profiles of oceanographic and bulk biogeochemical parameters at a vertical

1 resolution of several centimeters and a horizontal resolution of 150 m at mid water depth. A
2 FerryBox system was used to analyze water continuously taken at a depth of 4 m with respect
3 to the standard oceanographic parameters temperature, salinity, pH, chlorophyll-fluorescence,
4 turbidity, CDOM, nutrients, dissolved oxygen, and pCO₂. During the cruises, the FerryBox
5 also served as platform for testing newly developed sensors. This includes a flow-through
6 PSICAM (Point-Source Integrating Cavity Absorption Meter) for high frequency
7 hyperspectral absorption coefficient measurements (Wollschläger et al. 2013; 2014), a
8 sequential injection analysis (SIA) approach for phosphate measurement (Frank and
9 Schroeder, 2007), as well as high precision spectrophotometric methods for the determination
10 of pH and total alkalinity (Aßmann et al. 2011; Aßmann, 2012). Vertical current profiles were
11 recorded with an ADCP. During two cruises, gliders were operated in parallel enhancing the
12 spatial observation density. At the cruise track crossing points, additional vertical profiles
13 were taken and complemented with Secchi depth determination, light transmission, and
14 scattering spectra taken from water samples.

15 As an example, the spatial distribution of σ_T (potential density – 1000 kg m⁻³) and
16 chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence are shown for the cruise at the end of July, 2010 (Fig. 18). Vertical
17 density gradients at the 5 m thick pycnocline of up to 0.3 kg m⁻⁴ indicate a strong stratification
18 typical for the summer months. In the outer reaches of the observation area, two pycnoclines
19 can be discerned. In the presence of stratification, chlorophyll-*a* shows a typical deep water
20 maximum at the upper pycnocline. The sudden increase of oxygen saturation directly above
21 this maximum can be attributed to photosynthesizing phytoplankton. By coupling the
22 observed vertical distribution of potential density and SPMC with a modeled turbulence
23 parameter field, the spatial distribution of settling velocities in the COSYNA observation area
24 was derived (März et al., 2016). Characteristic scales for the coupling of physical
25 submesoscale and mesoscale processes and the distribution of chlorophyll-*a* were identified
26 by North et al. (2016) by applying wavelet analyses to Scanfish data.

27 **6 Sensor and Instrument Development**

28 In COSYNA, well-proven commercially available sensors and sensor systems are used.
29 However, to automatically measure the main parameters that control and influence the North
30 Sea and arctic ecosystem, several novel, automated, and reliable sensors had to be developed
31 and tested by the COSYNA partners. These are, in particular, sensors and samplers for
32 biogeochemical and optical parameters as well as micropollutants. An overview is given in

1 the following. For most of these sensors, the FerryBox was used as a test platform because it
2 is protected from the environment, it provides a continuous sea water supply, and offers high-
3 frequency data acquisition and real-time data transmission.

4 **6.1 pH Sensor**

5 pH can be used to estimate a system's state in terms of phytoplankton and primary production
6 in regions of high biological activity, one of four parameters characterizing the oceanic
7 inorganic carbon system, and an indicator for the increasing acidification of sea water. In
8 order to quantify the components of the carbon cycle in the context of climate change, a
9 precise characterisation of the carbonate system is required.

10 In COSYNA, commercially available pH glass electrodes are routinely used. They are very
11 sensitive to bio-fouling as bacterial biofilms on the electrodes changes the pH thus requiring
12 cleaning and re-calibrating intervals of 7-10 d in summer. Although an accuracy of ± 0.05 - 0.1
13 pH units can be achieved in FerryBox systems for several weeks due to their regular
14 automatic cleaning procedures, a higher precision of < 0.01 pH units is necessary to detect the
15 acidification process in coastal waters with a pH decrease of about 0.0019 pH units per year
16 (Dore et al., 2009; Feely et al., 2009).

17 In COSYNA, a more precise sensor based on a spectrometric approach was developed
18 (Aßmann, 2012) that detects the colour of a suitable indicator dye in a miniaturised flow-
19 through system. A precision of ± 0.0007 pH units with an offset of $+0.0081$ pH units to a
20 certified standard buffer was achieved for several weeks. It is, however, not yet suitable for
21 low-energy applications.

22 **6.2 Alkalinity Sensor**

23 CO_2 flux estimates for the coastal ocean are subject to large uncertainties (Borges, 2005;
24 Chen and Borges, 2009) due to strong seasonal variability. For a description of the carbonate
25 system at least two of the following parameters have to be measured: pH, partial pressure of
26 CO_2 (pCO_2), total alkalinity (AT), and total dissolved inorganic carbon (CT). Because a
27 combination of pH and pCO_2 only yields a precision of about 1%, a sensor for the additional
28 measurement of alkalinity was developed that will allow to document the fast changing
29 carbonate chemistry in the North Sea (Aßmann, 2012).

1 The approach for the photometric pH determination (Section 6.1) was modified for alkalinity,
2 with the advantage that the same equipment can be used for both parameters. The chemical
3 titration can either be accomplished by using an “open-cell technique” applying a simple sea
4 water model as calculation tool. The titration occurs at pH <4.5 leading to a removal of all
5 carbonate species by outgassing of CO₂. The precision is ±1.1 mol kg⁻¹ with an accuracy of
6 ±8 mol kg⁻¹. In a more complex “closed-cell technique” a broader pH range is used and no
7 CO₂ escapes yielding an accuracy of ±0.8 mol kg⁻¹ with a precision of ±4.4 mol kg⁻¹.

8 **6.3 Nutrient Sensor**

9 COSYNA uses commercially available nutrients analysers on FerryBoxes for long term
10 investigations of the nutrients ammonia, nitrite, nitrate, phosphate, and silicate which are
11 important parameters regarding eutrophication. However, as small-scale processes often
12 require faster sensor response times, a flow-through system was developed for the fast
13 determination of ammonia and phosphate based on sequential injection analysis (SIA) causing
14 a chemical reaction of both species with a reagent that can be detected by fluorescence (Frank
15 et al., 2006). The detection limits are 0.3 µmol L⁻¹ for phosphate and 1 µmol L⁻¹ for ammonia.
16 180 samples can be processed per hour and analyzed.

17 This reliable analyser is especially useful for high-resolution surface mapping of ammonia
18 and phosphate in coastal areas and for long-term monitoring due to the low amount of
19 reagents used in this system (Frank and Schroeder, 2007). Nitrite and nitrate underway
20 measurements were performed using ultraviolet absorption techniques with parallel
21 temperature and salinity corrections, thus enabling application of this approach in coastal and
22 estuarine waters (Zielinski et al., 2011; Frank et al., 2014).

23 **6.4 Flow-through Spectral Light Absorption Measurements**

24 One of the most important biogeochemical parameters for the assessment of the
25 environmental status of the North Sea is the phytoplankton concentration. The standard
26 method that is routinely used in COSYNA is the continuous *in situ* measurement of
27 chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence as a proxy for biomass estimation. Since fluorescence depends on
28 factors, such as plankton species, plankton physiology, or light climate, frequent sampling
29 with subsequent lab analysis is necessary to reduce the large errors of up to one order of
30 magnitude (UNESCO, 1980; SCOR Working Group, 1988).

1 Better suited to determine estimates of phytoplankton concentrations is the spectral absorption
2 coefficient. To overcome the disturbing effects of the light scattering of inorganic and organic
3 suspended matter, a flow-through Point-Source Integrating Cavity Absorption Meter (ft-
4 PSICAM) was developed in COSYNA yielding continuous measurement of spectral
5 absorption coefficients in the range of 400–710 nm with high temporal and spatial resolution.
6 Additional useful information on CDOM/gelbstoff, algal pigments, and suspended matter can
7 be obtained as well.

8 By using an integrating sphere, photons cannot get lost and the optical path length is increased
9 allowing the measurement of very clear waters. This PSICAM principle (Kirk, 1997;
10 Lerebourg et al., 2002; Röttgers et al., 2005) was modified into a flow-through unit that can
11 be used unattended on FerryBoxes or other platforms (Wollschläger et al., 2013; Wollschläger
12 et al., 2014). To reduce the contamination of the integrating sphere, it has to be cleaned
13 automatically. The ft-PSICAM delivers data with high temporal and spatial resolution.

14 **6.5 Molecular Observatory**

15 Information on marine photosynthetic biomass distribution and biogeography with adequate
16 temporal and spatial resolution is needed to better understand consequences of environmental
17 change in marine ecosystems. Since COSYNA methods can only automatically measure
18 proxy parameters for biomass, such as chlorophyll-*a*, a method for the automatic
19 determination of phytoplankton taxonomic composition is required. Molecular analyses, e.g.
20 next generation sequencing (NGS) or molecular sensors are very well suited to provide
21 comprehensive information on marine microbial or protist composition.

22 In COSYNA, the remotely controlled Automated Filtration System (AUTOFIM) for
23 automated collection of samples for molecular analyses was developed. Resulting samples
24 can either be preserved for later laboratory analyses, or directly subjected to molecular
25 surveillance of key species aboard the ship or at a monitoring side via quantitative polymerase
26 chain reaction or an automated biosensor system (Metfies et al., this issue). The latter is based
27 on an automated pre-treatment of the samples with an ultrasound sample preparation unit that
28 was developed in COSYNA alongside with AUTOFIM. The sampling system can either be
29 deployed on a fixed monitoring platform or aboard a ship for near-real time information on
30 abundance and distribution of phytoplankton key species. Currently, two AUTOFIM-systems
31 are operating on Helgoland and aboard RV Polarstern in order to collect samples for
32 molecular analyses.

1 **6.6 Zooplankton Sampling**

2 In addition to phytoplankton distributions, the heterogeneities of the spatio-temporal
3 zooplankton community assemblage are a key environmental parameter. Based on the
4 established Lightframe On-sight Keyspecies Investigation technique (LOKI; Schulz et al.,
5 2010), an imaging head for autonomous, moored operations was developed and attached to
6 the COSYNA Underwater-Node System. A 360°-open flow chamber ensures optimal flow.
7 The data are transferred to shore in near-real time.

8 LOKI combines several features bringing it close to the feasible borders set by the laws of
9 optics (Schulz, 2013). These are an integrated flash unit providing sufficient light for short
10 shutter times of $< 30 \mu\text{s}$ to avoid motion blurring, very high resolution of $< 15 \mu\text{m pixel}^{-1}$ to
11 resolve fine taxonomical characteristics, and a depth of field of several millimetres. This was
12 achieved by using two optical cones (Fig. 19e). The first one is attached to the camera
13 housing and allows adjustment of the focal plane at a certain distance from the camera, while
14 the tapering enhances water exchange in the flow chamber. The opposite cone houses a high-
15 power LED flash unit. The LEDs are arranged circular and off-axis to provide indirect and
16 homogenous illumination resulting in high-resolution images of minute specimens and a large
17 depth of field. The operation time is, however, limited by bio-fouling (Fig. 19).

18 **6.7 Active- and Passive Sampling Tools**

19 To determine the potential effects of micropollutants on the marine environment and biota, a
20 set of integrative active and passive samplers has been developed. Suitable instruments for
21 unattended use under the harsh conditions do not exist and pure concentration data of
22 micropollutants are often not very meaningful.

23 For passive sampling, a Chemcatcher Metal (Petersen et al., 2015b) as well as DGTs have
24 been used, while blue mussels (*mytilus edulis sp.*) have been applied as active sampling
25 devices. After a deployment period of several weeks, the samples are analysed with
26 conventional analytical laboratory methods. In contrast to spot sampling, passive samplers
27 allow to measure the more representative time weighted average water concentrations (TWA).
28 Passive sampling data also provide information about the biologically available trace element
29 fraction of the analysed water body (Booij et al., 2016). Besides the measurement of
30 contaminant body burdens, the application of mussels as active sampling devices allows also
31 the analysis of potential biological effects induced by the contaminants present in the

1 surrounding water. This is done with an analysis of the up and down regulation of specific
2 proteins, whose expressions are related with certain detoxification mechanisms.

3 In COSYNA, two systems (Helmholz et al., 2016) have been developed featuring a modular
4 design for the installation on different instrumental platforms, such as different passive
5 sampling devices, SPM traps, and cages for biota deployment. An elevator enables the manual
6 deployment and recovery of the experimental device at a fixed position approximately 3 m
7 above the sea floor. The use of titanium reduces corrosion. The systems are deployed next to
8 the FerryBox Station in Cuxhaven at the mouth of the river Elbe and at the MARGate
9 underwater testing site near Helgoland at a water depth of approximately 10 m.

10 A continuous flow box has been developed to overcome bio-fouling problems as well as to
11 minimize effects of changing currents on the sampling rate, as it allows the integration into
12 FerryBox systems (Petersen et al., 2015b) for passive sampling e.g. during ship cruises to
13 obtain TWA contaminant data. Normally, the pumped water intake systems is installed at the
14 bow of the ship hull several meters below the sea level thus ensuring that the sampled water
15 body is continuously exchanged due to the movement of the ship and the water is not
16 contaminated by the metal construction of the ship. Alternatively, a metal free pump system
17 can be deployed on a crane several meters away from the ship hull.

18 For the calculation of uptake rates, a calibration was carried out for Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, Pb, Sc, Ti,
19 Mn, Co, Ga, Sr, Y, Ba, U and rare earth elements under different environmental conditions
20 (Petersen et al., 2015a). Up to now, these calibrations were not available for most elements of
21 environmental concern besides Cu, Cd, Pb, Ni, and Zn. With these developments, a real
22 multi-element analysis using passive sampling was possible for the first time.

23 **6.8 Radiometric Ocean Colour Measurements**

24 The colour of the ocean is related to its optically active constituents and can be assessed with
25 radiometric measurements within the water column and from above the water surface (Moore
26 et al., 2009; Garaba and Zielinski, 2013a). The latter includes satellite and airborne platforms
27 as well as measurement poles or vessels (Zielinski et al., 2009).

28 As part of COSYNA, the applicability of different low altitude hyperspectral radiometer
29 installations was investigated. Measurement poles at Spiekeroog (Fig. 150) and in the Alfacs
30 Bay (Ebro Delta, Mediterranean) were outfitted with TriOS RAMSES hyperspectral
31 radiometers. Underway observations were performed from research vessels Otzum and

1 Heincke, the latter with a permanent installation of a twin remote sensing reflectance setup to
2 account for different sun angles along the track.

3 One of the major challenges is the corruption of data from sun glint and white caps. It is
4 therefore key for any operational observing system that robust automated quality assurance
5 methods are applied, which is achieved by parallel image acquisition and analyses (Garaba et
6 al, 2012) or from spectral feature utilization (Busch et al, 2013; Garaba and Zielinski, 2013b).
7 An ensemble of sun glint detection methods improves the flagging performance of the data
8 quality algorithm (Garaba et al., 2015a). The remote sensing spectra of good quality are used
9 to derive in water constituents like chlorophyll, coloured dissolved organic matter, and
10 suspended particulate matter along cruise tracks in the North West European Shelf Sea
11 (Garaba et al., 2014b) and Arctic (Garaba et al., 2013a), and at a time series station in the
12 Wadden Sea (Garaba et al., 2014a). A very recent application is the calculation of the Forel-
13 Ule-Colour-Index from reflectance spectra, which opens the possibility to link modern
14 observations to long term records and to involve citizens with smartphones in ocean colour
15 measurements (Busch et al., 2016; Garaba et al., 2015b; <http://www.eyeonwater.org>).

16 **6.9 Temperature Sensor for Sediments**

17 To measure the exchange of heat and particulate matter between the German Bight and the
18 Wadden Sea, the heat fluxes between the tidal flats and the water body have to be determined
19 (Onken et al., 2007). As the stratification in the sediment is directly related to the heat
20 content, the latter can easily be calculated and the heat flux between seabed and atmosphere
21 or overlying water derived.

22 For these investigations, a vertical temperature sediment profiler was developed. The self-
23 contained probe measures the temperature of intertidal sediments at depths of 0.02 m, 0.1 m,
24 0.2 m, 0.3 m, and 0.4 m. Two electrodes located about 2 cm above the sediment indicate
25 whether the tidal flats are wet or dry. The probe was deployed close to the Hörnum
26 measurement pole (Section 5.1.1) where sea water temperatures were measured (Onken et al.,
27 2010).

28 **7 Modelling and Data Assimilation**

29 Observations – and even automated observation networks – are limited by the fact that we
30 cannot measure everywhere and at all times, which is in particular a challenge given the

1 coastal ocean's strong variability. One of the distinguishing features of COSYNA lies
2 therefore in the integration of observational data into models in order to close the spatial and
3 temporal gaps of the observations and to calculate energy or matter fluxes (Stanev et al.,
4 2016). Model studies are also essential for identifying regions with high sensitivity or
5 variability in certain quantities that warrant the deployment of measurement devices. On the
6 other hand, state-of-the-art numerical models of coastal dynamics require monitoring data to
7 reasonably manage large model uncertainties. The observations are used to bring models
8 closer to the "real" state of the ocean, either by verifying model output or by assimilating
9 them into models. These data sets should be representative and coherent. In order to
10 continuously provide accurate pre-operational coastal ocean state estimates and forecasts,
11 COSYNA integrates near-real time measurements in numerical models in a pre-operational
12 way that is meant to improve both historical model runs and forecasts.

13 In this context, COSYNA has explored different techniques to assimilate data into models.
14 Satisfactory assimilation results were achieved when 2D-data fields were available, such as
15 derived from HF radar or satellite observations (Stanev et al., 2015) providing a 12 h-forecast.
16 The assimilation of data from single locations or sections usually only influences the
17 immediate vicinity of the locations where the observations were made and has limited value
18 for greater spatial extensions (Grayek et al., 2011; Stanev et al., 2011). Data assimilation
19 based on physical values is generally more easily achieved than with biogeochemical
20 quantities. The successful assimilation products of COSYNA encompass surface currents,
21 significant wave height, period and wave direction, as well as temperature.

22 For the assimilation of current observations, a nested 3D-hydrodynamic model is used. *In situ*
23 current time series are measured with stationary ADCPs at the FINO-1 and FINO-3 research
24 platforms. Remote sensing of surface currents is carried out with three HF radar systems
25 installed in the German Bight (Section 5.3). For technical details of data processing and
26 accuracy see Stanev et al. (2015). The flow of observational data including observing nodes,
27 data management system, and data assimilation capabilities is streamlined toward meeting the
28 needs for high-quality operational data products in the German Bight (Fig. 161).

29 Although there are hundreds of HF radar systems installed worldwide, their operational use in
30 numerical models, in particular at sub-tidal periods, is not well established. The assimilation
31 of HF radar data is a challenge due to irregular data gaps in time and space, inhomogeneous
32 observational errors, as well as inconsistencies between boundary forcing and observations.

1 Furthermore, due to the high sampling frequency of typically several times per hour, it is
2 difficult for the model to reach equilibrium between two time steps. Therefore, the Spatio-
3 Temporal Optimal Interpolation (STOI) filter has been developed by Stanev et al. (2015). It
4 enables a blending of model simulations from a free run and radar observations by extending
5 the classical Kalman analysis method to time periods of at least one tidal cycle by using the
6 Kalman analysis equation.

7 The modelling suite is based on the 3D-primitive equation General Estuarine Transport Model
8 (GETM; Burchard and Bolding, 2002). It is used in two configurations: a North Sea–Baltic
9 Sea model of 5.6 km resolution and a one-way nested German Bight model with a horizontal
10 resolution of about 1 km (Stanev et al., 2011). Both models use terrain-following equidistant
11 vertical coordinates (s-coordinates) with 21 non-intersecting layers.

12 The validation of the model and the physical interpretation of the results showed the good
13 skills of STOI not only in the area covered by HF radar observations but also outside it,
14 revealing its upscaling capabilities (Stanev et al., 2015). By using HF radar data in the STOI
15 system, homogeneous and continuous 2D-current fields were thus generated over the entire
16 model area. The quality is superior to a free model run, demonstrating that data assimilation
17 can enhance coastal ocean prediction capabilities by making use of observations and
18 modeling, which is an essential aspect of an operational system. The combination of HF radar
19 data and numerical model results can therefore also provide a deeper insight into the German
20 Bight dynamics and provide useful indications where further model developments
21 (improvements) are needed.

22 COSYNA also provides a pre-operational wave-forecast based on the WAM Cycle 4 wave
23 model (release WAM 4.5.3; Komen et al., 1994; Guenther et al., 1992). The computational
24 system consists of a regional WAM for the North Sea with a spatial resolution of ~5 km and a
25 nested-grid with a spatial resolution of 900 m for the German Bight. Wind fields and
26 boundary information are provided by the German Weather Service (DWD) derived from
27 their regional wave model EWAM. A number of wave parameters such as significant wave
28 height, period, and total wave direction are calculated (Staneva et al., 2015). It is continuously
29 providing hindcasts and forecasts since December 2009. Daily at 0:00 UTC and 12:00 UTC, a
30 24 h regional forecast is issued for the North Sea and a local one for the German Bight. As an
31 example, a typical wave height distribution with low values close to the coasts and higher
32 values off shore is shown for the German Bight for 1 November 2006 (Fig. 172).

1 A combination of biogeochemical observational data and numerical models in COSYNA has
2 been instrumental for a better understanding of material dynamics including steep cross-shore
3 gradients ranging from shallow near-shore waters to the continental shelf, strong lateral
4 gradients and mesoscale patchiness, as well as singular events, such as storms or ice winters.
5 These processes are intimately linked to the functioning of coastal ecosystems but also affect
6 efforts to maintain shipping pathways and coastal defense, as well as water quality.

7 A model- and data-based analysis (März et al., 2016) highlights a remarkable cross-shore
8 separation of the coastal ocean with a maximum settling velocity of suspended material in the
9 transition zone between the shallow Wadden Sea and the continental shelf, which modifies
10 the traditional concept of continuous gradients. This acceleration of vertical deposition fluxes
11 is likely due to enhanced particle aggregation induced by organic substances, which in turn
12 are released by planktonic microorganisms (Su et al., 2015; Hofmeister et al., *subm.*).
13 Enhanced deposition in the coastal transition zone is accounting for an effective trapping of
14 lithogenic material within near-shore waters, while it may act as a barrier for offshore organic
15 particles. Even higher variability at scales below the cross-shore gradients is evident in
16 COSYNA lander observations (Section 5.6) of total benthic oxygen consumption.

17 Using an ecosystem model that includes turbidity fields, estimated from Scanfish observations
18 (Section 5.9), and accounts for the acclimation capacity of phytoplankton, spatial variability
19 in chlorophyll-*a* can be reproduced to a high degree (Fig. 183; Wirtz and Kerimoglu,
20 *submitted*). Previous modeling attempts such as of van Leeuwen et al (2013) or Schrum et al
21 (2006) do not capture the extreme vertical squeezing of chlorophyll-*a* within thin layers,
22 which may affect model derived estimates of total primary production. Our new model results
23 also reveal how reconstructed pelagic patterns decouple from benthic respiration patterns.
24 Vertical deposition of freshly produced material greatly varies within the coastal ocean. In a
25 few, mostly deeper regions, deposition prevails over resuspension, leading to depositional
26 hotspots (Wirtz et al, *in prep*).

27 Vertical structures in nutrient concentration are key to understand whether, when, and where
28 phytoplankton blooms form after storm events (Su et al., 2015). Vertical structures in
29 chlorophyll-*a* below the meter scale (thin layers) as recently observed by gliders and Scanfish
30 (Sections 5.2, 5.9) as a persistent feature indicate that a considerable amount of primary
31 production takes place unnoticed from satellite observations. To include these vertical
32 patterns into modeling studies requires sophisticated formulations like those by Riegman and

1 Colijn, (1991), Behrenfeld and Falkowski (1997), and Behrenfeld et al. (2005). For the
2 German Bight model validations using COSYNA data can help to significantly improve
3 estimates of total primary production.

4 **8 Data Management and Data Products**

5 **8.1 Data Management**

6 The COSYNA data management system (CODM) was established to make observational and
7 model data publicly available in near-real time (Breitbach et al., 2016). The time between
8 observations and the availability of data on CODM is ranging from a few minutes for
9 stationary measurements to about 24 h for data obtained from ships of opportunity and
10 satellites.

11 Due to the various observational platforms and model output, it is a significant challenge to
12 provide a comprehensive overview of the observations with their diverse data formats in
13 terms of parameters, dimensionality, and observational methods. It is achieved by describing
14 the data using metadata and by making all data available for different analyses and
15 visualisations in a combined way independent of data dimensionality. This concerns in
16 particular the presentation of different data types together in one plot, such as the mapping of
17 the same variable derived from satellite imagery and *in situ* observations. Key for this is the
18 harmonisation of parameter names. The various internally used parameter names for the same
19 observed property are mapped to the corresponding Climate and Forecast (CF) standard name
20 (Eaton et al., 2010).

21 Another important aspect of CODM is the use of standardised metadata that are adapted for
22 the use in direct web service requests (Fig. 194). Two types of metadata are used in CODM:
23 For observations, the first type describes an observational platform, its sensors, and observed
24 properties, the second type describes the observed data.

25 The metadata are created automatically, if the data sets have a distinct beginning and ending.
26 Examples are ship or glider transects, or single satellite scenes. For stationary platforms, only
27 one metadata record is created for the entire time-series. For models, the first type of metadata
28 describes the model itself, while the second type is describing the model run. Data-metadata
29 are ISO19115 and INSPIRE compliant (EC Directive, 2007) and contain all necessary
30 information to access the data as download, plot, or map. The metadata itself are also mapped
31 to a Web Feature Service (Fig. 5).

1 The observational data have to pass a number of automated and supervised tests, before they
2 become publicly accessible in the data portal. Depending on the test results for range, stuck
3 values, spikes, and – for some parameters – gradients quality flags are assigned to the data.
4 The procedures and quality flags are in line with international guidelines (Breitbach et al.,
5 2016; SeaDataNet, 2010).

6 CODM is a publicly available Open Data portal. There are no restrictions or fees for
7 downloading and using the data, but CODM requires a basic user registration. Users are asked
8 to provide country of origin, a user category, and the city. No other personal information is
9 mandatory. Users are also asked to acknowledge COSYNA as data source in their
10 publications. The majority of users are in the science sector followed by administration (Fig.
11 20).

12 **8.2 Data Products**

13 COSYNA is monitoring the current state of the coastal system in the North Sea and is
14 generating modelled pre-operational state reconstructions and forecasts. These routinely
15 provided data can be grouped into four “product” categories:

16 a) High-resolution time series at fixed positions: Meteorological, oceanographic, water
17 quality, and biological parameters are continuously observed at the measuring poles (Section
18 5.1) Spiekeroog, Hörnum Deep, and Elbe, the research platform FINO3 (Section 5.1.2), and at
19 the stationary FerryBox systems in Cuxhaven and Helgoland (Section 5.4).

20 b) Repeated transects: Oceanographic and biogeochemical parameters are measured during
21 regular ship and glider surveys (Sections 5.2, 5.9) and with automated FerryBox systems on
22 ships of opportunity (Section 5.4).

23 c) Remote sensing information: Regular maps of currents, chlorophyll distribution and optical
24 sea water properties are obtained with remote sensing by HF radar (Section 5.3) and satellites
25 (Section 5.7). The data cover large areas of the German Bight and are integrated with
26 observational *in situ* data.

27 d) Integrated COSYNA products: The automatically produced data fields of the German
28 Bight are continuous in space and time and provide hindcast, nowcast, and short-term
29 forecasts. The latter two are improved with data assimilation procedures (Section 7).

1 The COSYNA product “Surface Current Fields” provides data fields and maps of tidal
2 hindcasts and forecasts of sea surface currents in the German Bight. The fields are updated
3 every 30 min. They are created by assimilating regular HF radar measurements into a 3D
4 circulation model (Stanev et al., 2011; 2015; Section 7).

5 The pre-operational COSYNA wave forecast model system runs twice a day and provides a
6 72 h forecast on the regional scale for the North Sea and on the local scale for the German
7 Bight. Significant wave height, period, and total wave direction are calculated (Staneva et al.,
8 2014).

9 In order to provide the spatial distribution of sea surface temperature and salinity in the North
10 Sea, FerryBox observations taken along ship tracks are extrapolated to larger areas combining
11 them with information from numerical models. Data from the route Cuxhaven-Immingham
12 are assimilated into a three-dimensional circulation model every 24 h (Grayek et al., 2011).

13 **9 Outreach and Stakeholder Interaction**

14 COSYNA aims to make scientific data, results, and data products publicly available by
15 reaching out to different target groups and users, such as the scientific community, potential
16 users in business enterprises and authorities, and to the general public. To serve this purpose,
17 COSYNA publishes several print products in German and English that are publicly available
18 for download at the COSYNA website, or can be ordered. Flyers and more comprehensive
19 brochures provide an overview of the goals, approaches, activities, and results of COSYNA.
20 The annual progress reports are intended for COSYNA partners and users and describe
21 selected results and activities of the various working groups and subprojects within
22 COSYNA. Newsletter and product fact sheets provide COSYNA partners and users as well as
23 interest groups or the general public with information on activities, events, or data products.

24 COSYNA maintains the website <http://www.cosyna.de> that informs about motivation,
25 approach, observations, modelling, products, and outreach activities. The COSYNA data
26 portal is linked to that web site and provides access to data download and visualisation. On
27 average, the COSYNA website has been visited by more than 500 different external visitors
28 per month.

29 Furthermore, COSYNA has developed an interactive app with versions for iPad and other
30 tablet PCs as well as Android and iOS based smartphones. The app provides explanatory texts
31 and pictures describing the observing systems, instruments, models and products, as well as

1 the COSYNA partners. Near real-time data for several platforms are available. COSYNA is
2 also presenting the app in permanent exhibits in museums, or temporarily at public events or
3 trade shows.

4 It is one of the main goals of COSYNA to bridge the gap between operational oceanography
5 and the users of marine data in local authorities, non-governmental organizations, science and
6 industry. In order to ensure that products are applicable, COSYNA has been initiating a
7 dialogue with stakeholders allowing for direct feedback and input to COSYNA. In the initial
8 phase of COSYNA, a national and an international survey showed that the COSYNA data
9 products are useful to a great number of users from different sectors and fit into the
10 international context. Follow-up workshops and an external evaluation of the integrated
11 COSYNA product “Surface Current Fields” have clearly improved COSYNA products and
12 their usability. To explore the streamlining of COSYNA products for the offshore wind
13 energy industry, several workshops were held to pave the way for future co-operation with
14 offshore wind energy companies (Eschenbach, this issue).

15 **10 Conclusions and Outlook**

16 COSYNA was established with its sight on understanding the state and variability of complex
17 interdisciplinary processes in the North Sea and the Arctic. During its first years, work
18 concentrated on establishing the observational network, developing sensors and numerical
19 models, testing and applying data assimilation techniques, building a data management
20 system and testing outreach strategies. Now, that the core of what had been envisioned in the
21 original concepts is operational and functioning, COSYNA will expand into new areas,
22 spatially as well as scientifically.

23 Currently, COSYNA is being extended to the western part of the Baltic Sea (in cooperation
24 with a new partner, GEOMAR, Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research) by installing an
25 Underwater-Node System in spring 2016 in the Eckernförde Bight near the location of
26 GEOMAR’s long established Boknis Eck time-series station (Lennartz et al., 2014).
27 COSYNA already contributes to observations of other coastal areas in the world, such as the
28 Lena delta, the Bohai Sea in China, or with instruments on research vessels and cruise ships
29 operating in various parts of the world ocean. In the long run, COSYNA will be part of
30 HZG’s Global Coast project that aims at identifying representative coastal regions worldwide
31 that will help evaluate the role of coastal areas for global processes, while using a global
32 context for understanding regional and coastal processes.

1 To this end and for use in large national and international research projects, COSYNA plans
2 to develop mobile observing systems with high resolution capabilities in space and time, that
3 have very short deployment times in order to be able to react to extreme events such as storms
4 and floods. As the focus of research projects will be shifting more and more to an integrated
5 understanding of complex systems, this approach will require cooperation with partners in the
6 atmospheric and terrestrial research communities. In the future, COSYNA will be closely
7 interlinked with the Elbe River Supersite of DANUBIUS, the most recent European ESFRI
8 Roadmap project studying river-delta-sea systems, and will be part of the Helmholtz
9 Association's MOSES (Modular Observing System for the Earth System) research
10 infrastructure.

11 Intensified modeling efforts, especially regarding biogeochemical models and data
12 assimilation are needed to put the COSYNA observations in a broad context and help
13 understand coastal systems. This will also yield future data products including wind fields,
14 ship detection, and biogeochemical parameters. Chlorophyll maps and maps of suspended
15 particulate matter will be obtained from satellites on a regular basis. The assimilation of other
16 quantities is work in progress and will be published, when they become available.

17 The successful technology development of underwater nodes will continue. Currently,
18 experiments with smaller, more flexible units are underway. Alternative forms of power
19 supplies, such as fuel cells, are being tested and may allow for a flexible network of nodes.

20 New partners are joining COSYNA: GEOMAR in Kiel and the Franzius-Institute for
21 Hydraulic, Estuarine, and Coastal Engineering at the University of Hannover have recently
22 agreed to become COSYNA partners. For the future, discussions with international partners
23 will be sought and international cooperation will be intensified – in particular with the
24 countries bordering the North Sea.

25 While COSYNA has evolved into a well-established integrated pre-operational observing
26 system, research will become more central to defining COSYNA's endeavors. Utilizing the
27 combined expertise of its various partner institutions, COSYNA's science foci will include
28 biogeochemical cycles from rivers to the North Sea and the Northern Atlantic, the role of
29 wind farms for physical, biogeochemical, and biological processes in the coastal ocean as
30 well as associated engineering questions, Land – Wadden Sea – North Sea exchange
31 processes with an extensive experiment spanning from the Netherlands, along the German

1 coast to Denmark involving physics and biogeochemistry, and exploration of the possibilities
2 and challenges associated with citizen science.

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1 Table 1. COSYNA Partner

Helmholtz-Zentrum Geesthacht (Co-ordination)	HZG
Alfred Wegener Institute, Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research	AWI
Center for Marine Environmental Sciences at Bremen University	MARUM
Institute for Chemistry and Biology of the Marine Environment at the University of Oldenburg	ICBM
Research and Technology Centre at the University of Kiel	FTZ
German Federal Maritime and Hydrographic Agency	BSH
Center for Earth System Research and Sustainability	CEN
Hamburg Port Authority	HPA
Lower Saxony State Department for Waterway, Coastal and Nature Conservation	NLWKN
Schleswig-Holstein's Agency for Coastal Defence, National Parks, and Marine Conservation	LKN
German Federal Waterways Engineering and Research Institute	BAW

2

3 Table 2. Standard COSYNA observables.

Platform	Parameter
Meteorology	pressure, temperature, global radiation, wind vector
Physical oceanography	pressure, temperature, salinity, current, wave height, and direction
Biogeochemistry	optical turbidity, total suspended matter concentration, chlorophyll-a concentration, dissolved oxygen

4

5 Table 3. Fixed platforms used in COSYNA. Abbreviations: M: meteorology, P: physical
6 oceanography, B: biogeochemistry. For abbreviations of the partner institutions see Table 1.

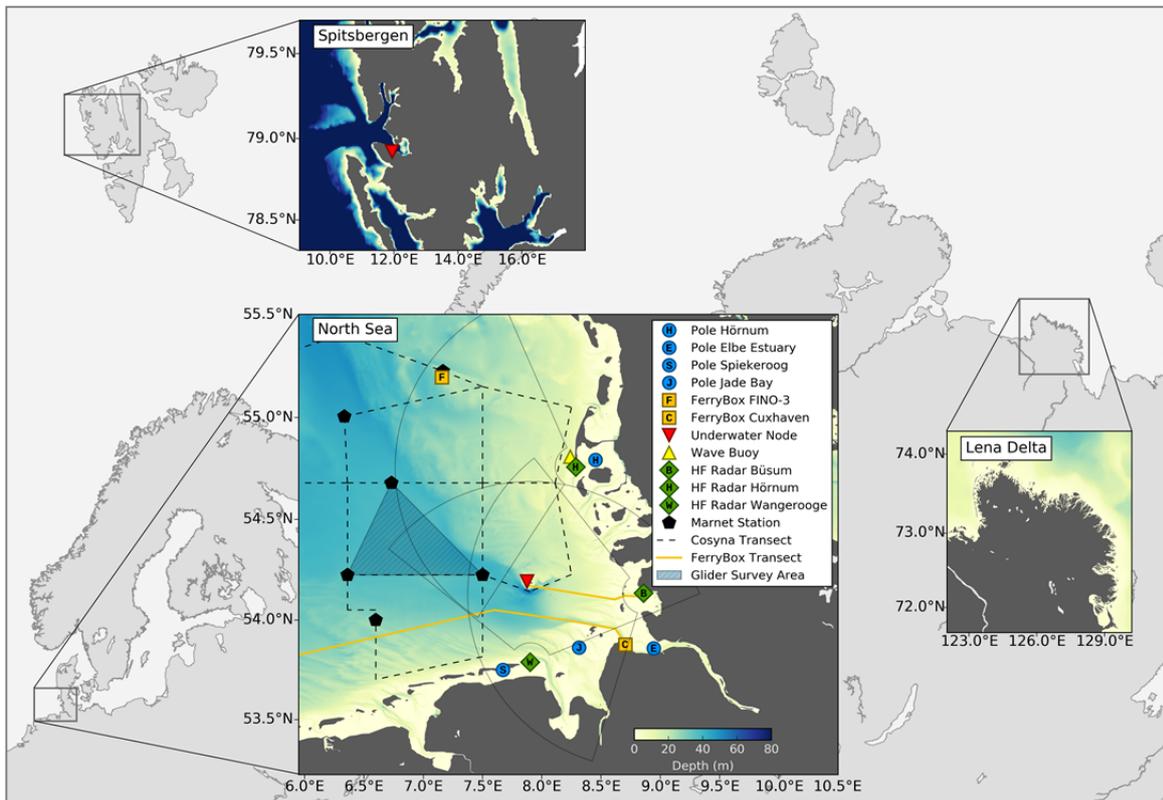
Platform	Years	Position	Mean tidal range [m]	Parameters	Partners
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Pole Hörnum Basin	2002-2013 (Mar-Nov)	54°47.6'N 008°27.1'E	2.3	M, P, B	HZG
Pole Elbe Estuary	2012-2013 (Mar-Nov)	53°51.5'N 008°56.6'E	2.8	M, P, B	HPA, HZG
Pole Spiekeroog	2002-now (year round)	53°45.0'N 007° 40.3'E	2.8	M, P, B	ICBM
FerryBox FINO-3	2011-2016 (year round)	55°11,7'N 007° 9,5'E	0.9	P, B	HZG
FerryBox Cuxhaven	2010-now (year round)	53°52,6'N 008° 42,3'E	2.9	P, B	HZG
Lander		n.a.	n.a.	P, B	MARUM, AWI, HZG
Underwater Node Helgoland	2012 – now (year-round)	59° 11'N 008°52,8'E		P, B	AWI, HZG
Underwater Node Spitsbergen	2012 – now (year-round)	78° 92'N, 011° 9'E		P, B	AWI, HZG
Marine Radar Fino	2011-now (year-round)	55°11,7'N 007° 9,5'E		M, P	HZG
Marine-Radar Sylt	2012-now (year-round)	54° 49,2' N 8° 16,8' E		M,P	HZG
HF-Radar Sylt	2009-now (year-round)	54° 49,2' N 8° 16,8' E		P	HZG
HF-Radar Büsum	2009-now (year-round)	54° 7,2' N 8° 51,6' E		P	HZG
HF-Radar Wangerooge	2009-now (year-round)	53° 47.4' N 7 55,2' E		P	HZG

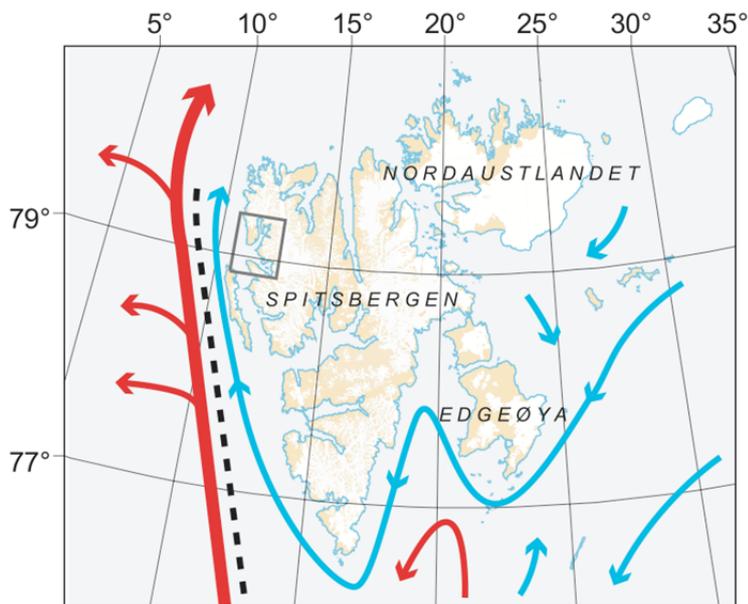
1 Table 4. Moving Platforms used in COSYNA. Time resolution is given between repeated
 2 measurements at the same location. Abbreviations: M: meteorology, P: physical
 3 oceanography, B: biogeochemistry; S: water surface, U: upper water column, FC: Full water
 4 column. The abbreviations of the partner institutions are explained in Table 1.

Platform	Vertical range	Time resolution	Parameters	Partner
FerryBox	U	½ day to a week	P, B	HZG
Glider	FC	days to months	P, B	HZG
Seabird	U	-	P	FTZ
Satellites	S	2 times in 3 days	B	HZG
Ship surveys	FC	months	M, P, B	HZG

5



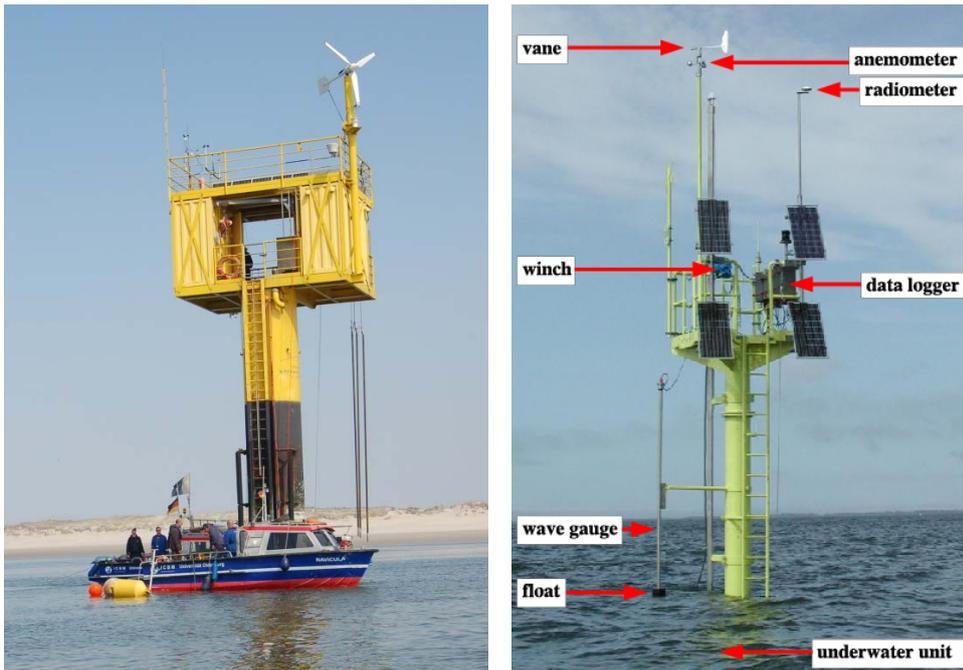
1
 2 Fig. 1. Map showing the pre-operational components of the coastal observing system
 3 COSYNA.



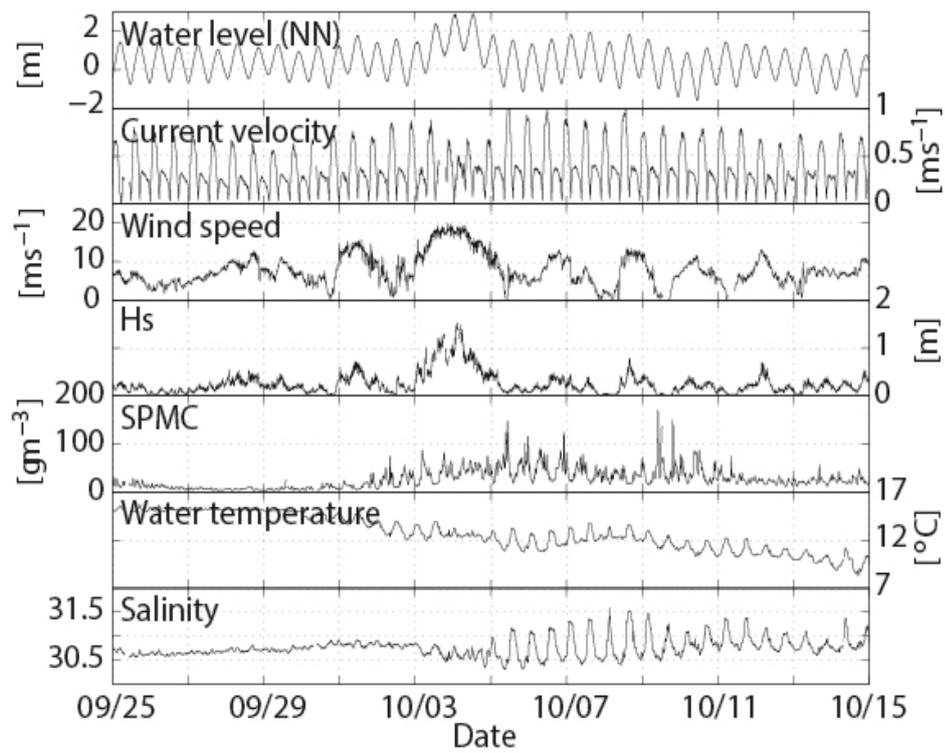
4
 5 Fig. 2. Spitsbergen with Kongsfjord (small rectangle) at the west coast of Svalbard. Arrows
 6 indicate the warmer Atlantic water masses (red) from the West Spitsbergen current and by
 7 colder less saline Arctic water (blue) from the East Spitsbergen (Cottier et al., 2005).



1
 2 Fig. 3. Research village NyÅlesund. The Spitsbergen Underwater-Node is located about 30 m
 3 in front of the “Old Pier” (A). The control station is located at the base of the old pier on land
 4 (B).



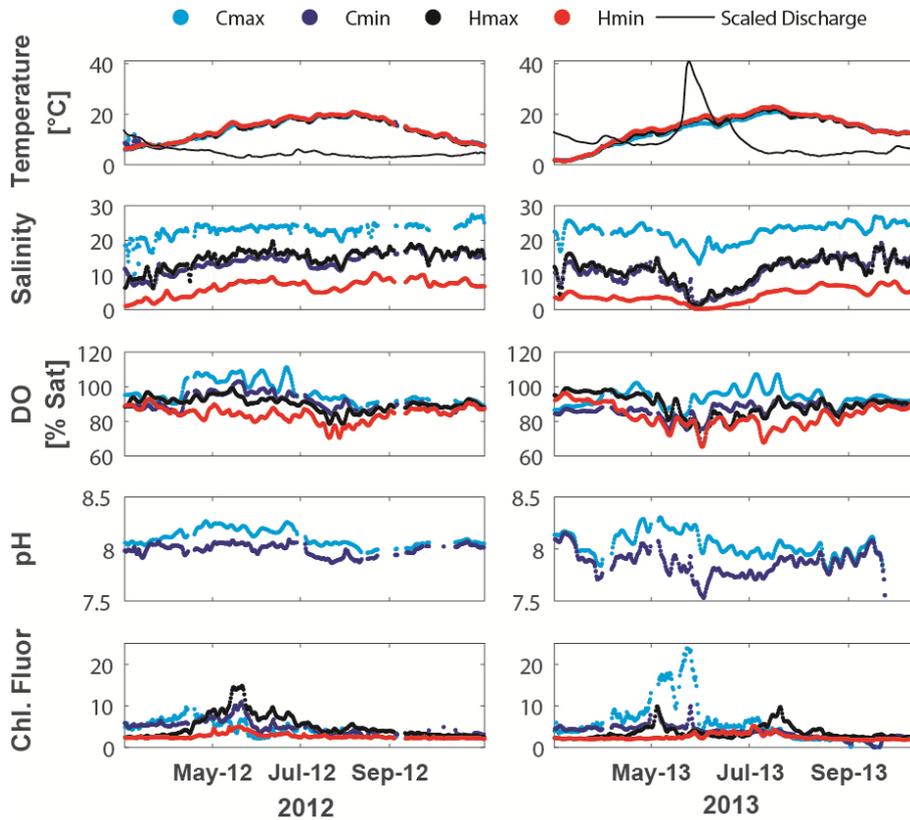
5
 6 Fig. 4. The measuring poles at Spiekeroog (left) and in the inner Hörnum tidal basin (right).
 7 For details see Section 5.1.



1

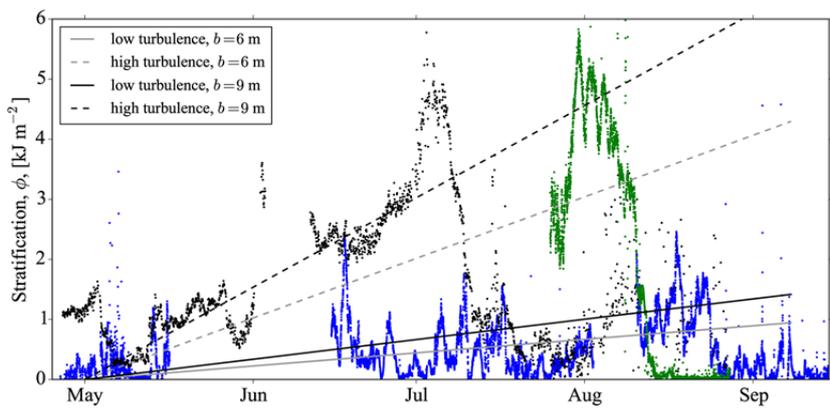
2 Fig. 5. Time-series of the measuring pole in the Hörnum Basin showing three weeks of data
 3 with a sampling frequency of 10 min.

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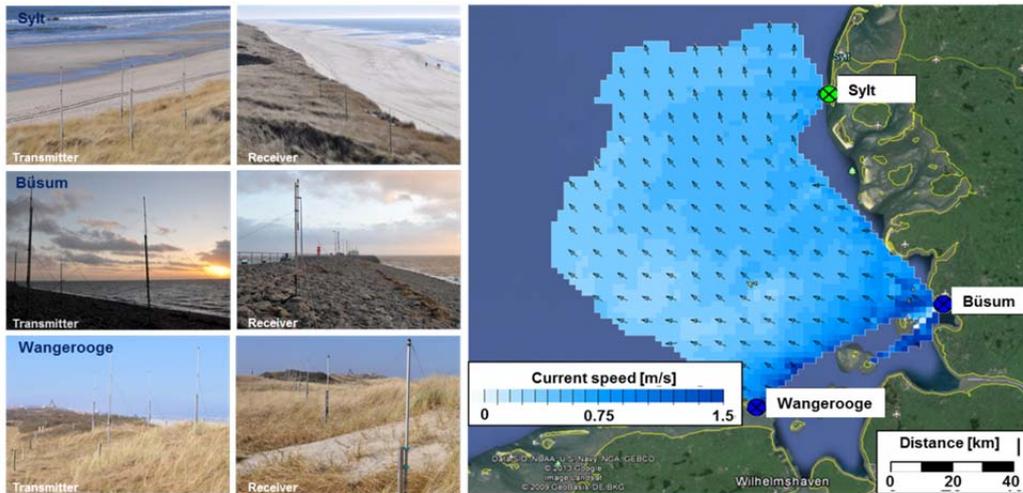
Fig. 6. Time series of the stationary FerryBox located at Cuxhaven at the Elbe river mouth for 2012 (left panels) and 2013 (right panels). Top to bottom: water temperature and Elbe river discharge ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) at Neu Darchau station scaled by dividing it by 100 (thin black line), salinity, dissolved oxygen saturation (DO), pH, chlorophyll-a fluorescence. Shown are the Cuxhaven values at low tide (brown, Cmin), high tide (blue, Cmax) and from the Elbe estuary measurement pole at low tide (red, Hmin) and high tide (black, Hmax).



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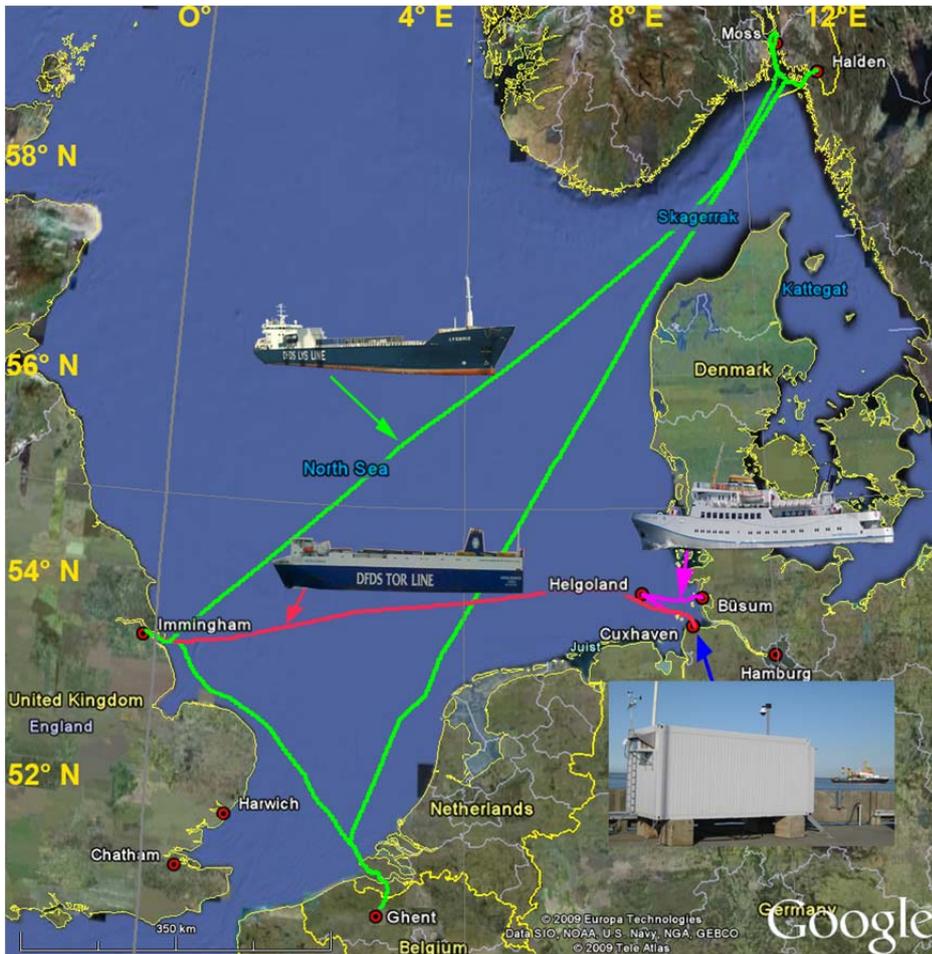
Fig. 7. Measurements showing the observed build up of stratification ϕ over the summer months unaffected by offshore construction (dots; Carpenter et al., 2016) and the estimated rate of stratification removal by the turbine foundation structures in offshore wind farms

1 (straight lines). The stratification is computed as $\phi(t) = \int_0^H [\rho_{mix} - \rho(z, t)]gzdz$, with water
 2 depth H , density ρ , gravitational acceleration g , and vertical coordinate z and time t .
 3 Measurements are from a thermistor mooring at Marnet Station NSB3 in 2009 (black dots),
 4 glider data collected in the vicinity ($54^{\circ}40.8'N$; $6^{\circ}43.9' E$) in 2014 (green dots), and from
 5 larger scale transects passing through NSB3 in 2012 (blue points). The rate of stratification
 6 removal for thermocline thicknesses $b = 6, 9$ m is based on a simple one-dimensional
 7 analytical model (Carpenter et al., 2016).

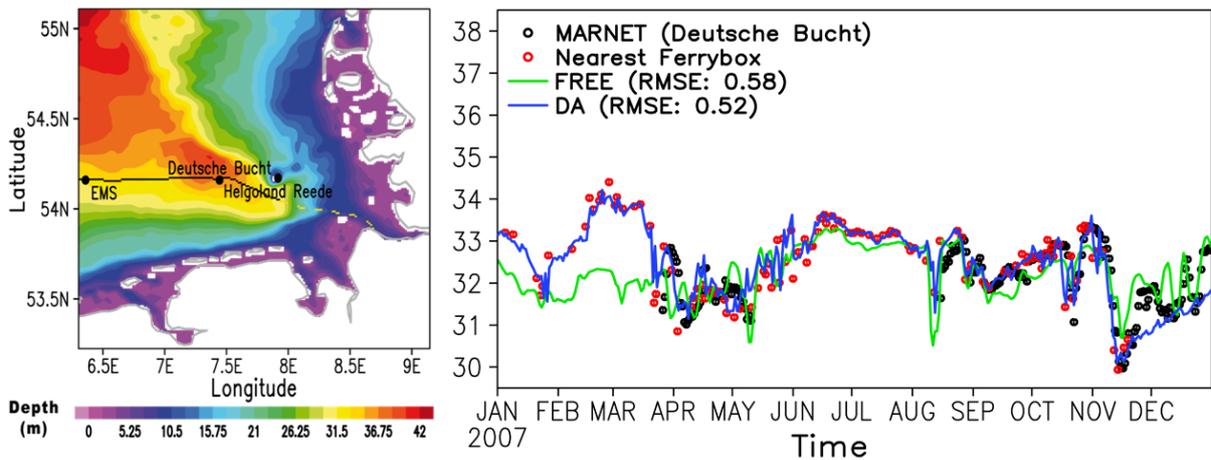


8
 9 Fig. 8. HF radar system in the German Bight with its three stations in Büsum and on the isles
 10 of Sylt and Wangerooge. The right panel shows an example of the 2D-current field derived
 11 from overlapping radar signals.

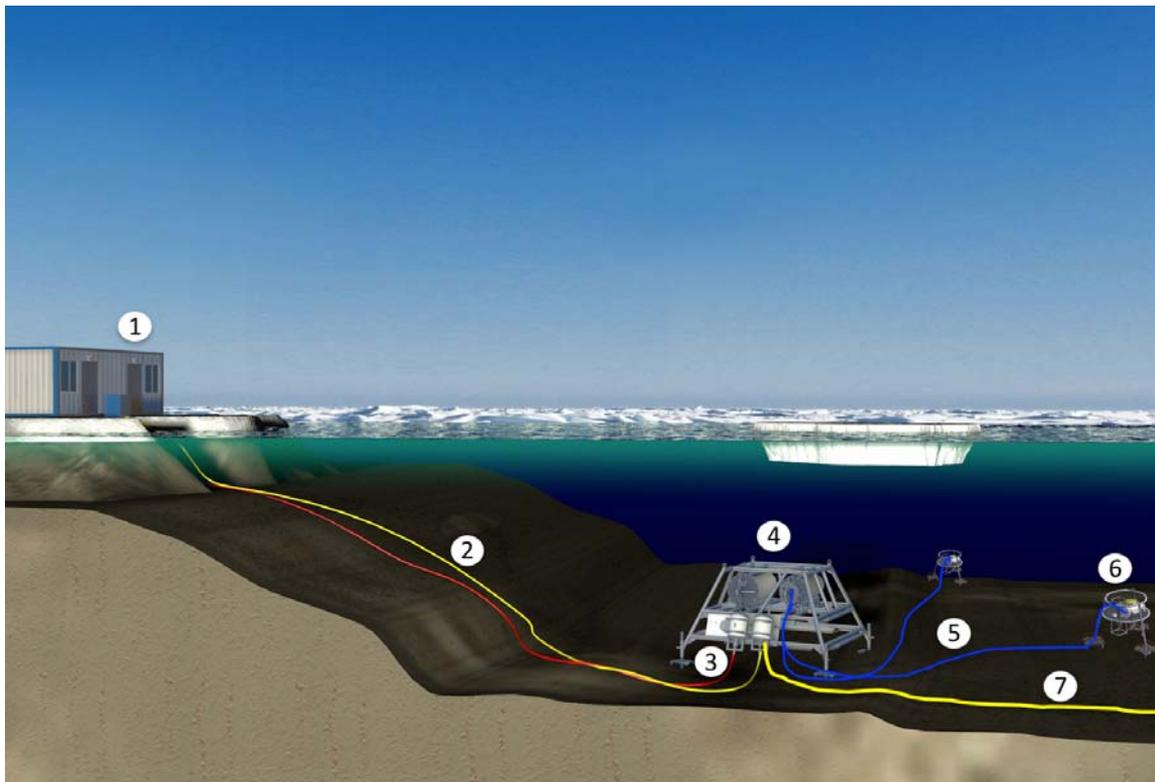
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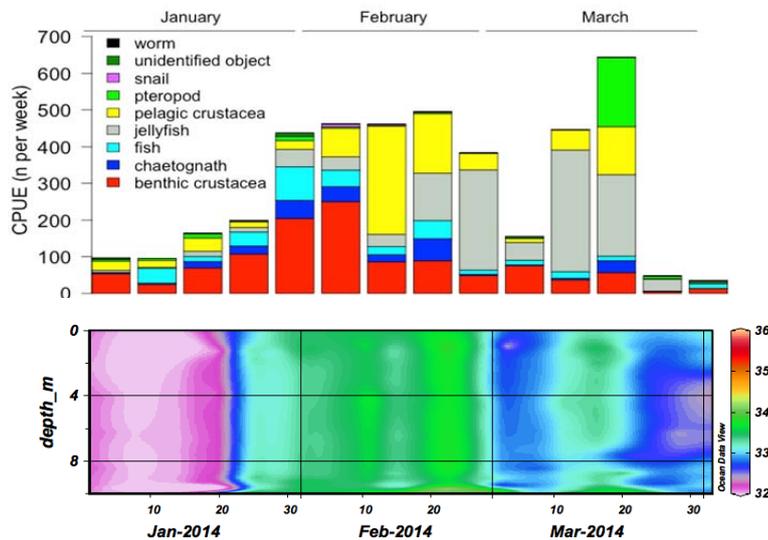
1
2 Fig. 9. Map of FerryBox routes and stationary platforms equipped with FerryBoxes.



3
4 Fig. 70. Left panel: Topography of German Bight and FerryBox track. Right panel:
5 Comparison of simulated sea surface temperature from a free model run and a run with data
6 assimilation (DA) against MARNET and nearest FerryBox observations (Grayek et al., 2011).



1
 2 Fig. 81. Setup of the COSYNA Underwater-Node System with (1) land-based server and
 3 power supply, (2) cable connection (max. 10 km) to the first primary underwater node, (3)
 4 Breakout Box to connect the primary node to the underwater cable, (4) primary node system,
 5 (6) cable connection (max. 70 m) to sensor units, and (7) cable connection to a second node.
 6 A third node can be connected to the second node.



7
 8 Fig. 92. Upper panel: The temporal abundances of the main biota groups assessed with a
 9 stereo-optic sensor attached to the Underwater-Node System in Spitsbergen from January
 10 2014 to March 2014. CPUE (catch per unit effort) refer to total number of organisms per
 11 group counted per week. Lower panel: The temporal and spatial pattern of salinity in the

1 depth range between 0 to 10 m assessed with one remote controlled vertical CTD profile per
2 day during the same time period when the biota measurements (upper panel) were done.

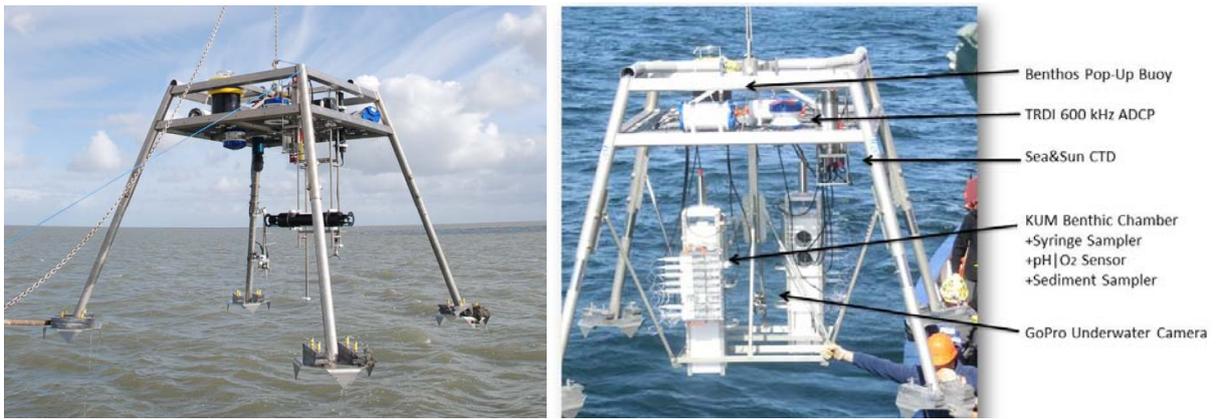


Fig. 103. Deployment of landers SedObs (left) NuSObs (right).

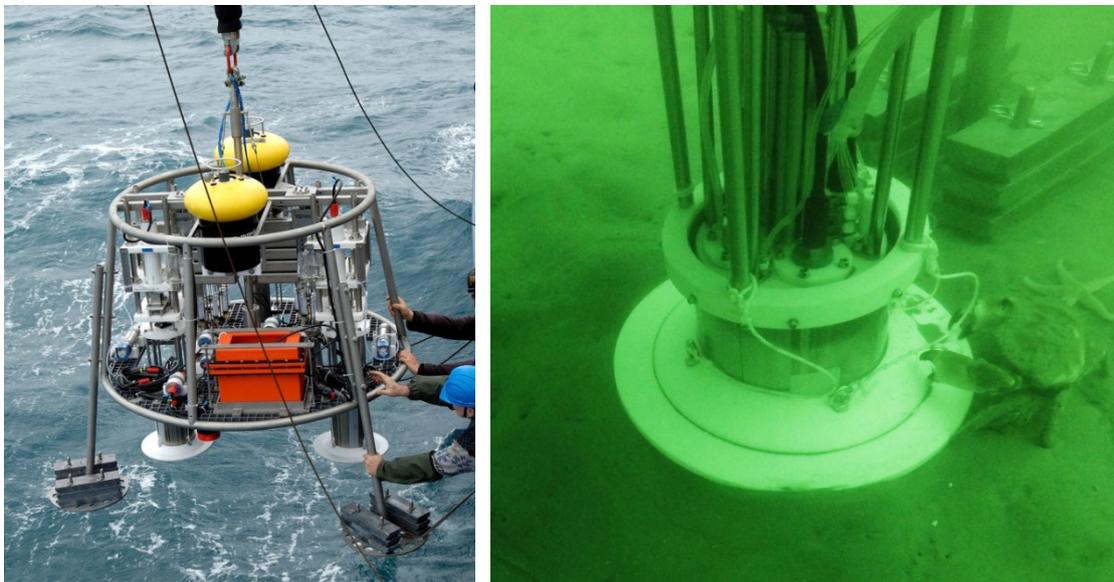
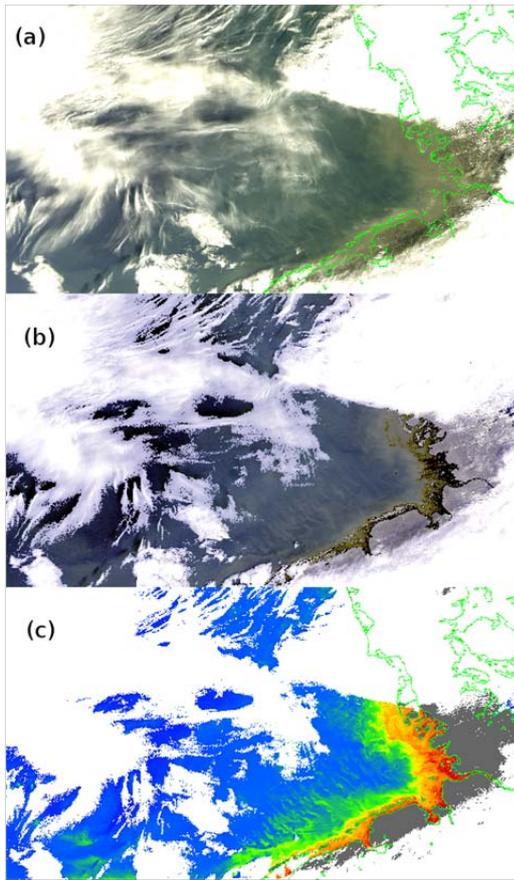


Fig. 114. Left panel: lander FLUXSO deployed for autonomous sampling in June 2015; right panel: sampling chambers in mobile fine sand at 25 m depth.



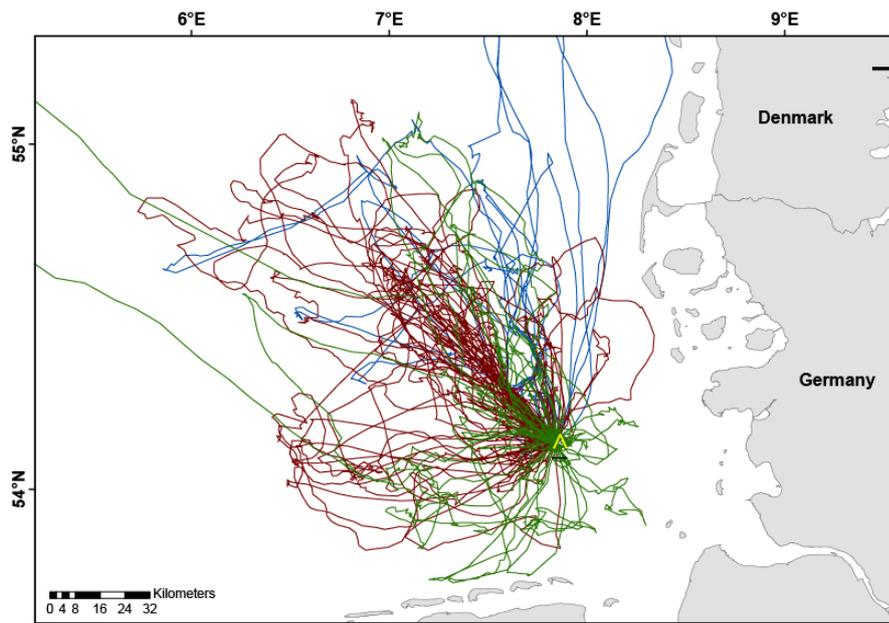
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2 Fig. 125. Satellite scene of the German Bight taken on 2012-03-10 by MERIS. a) Radiance in
 3 atmosphere; b) reflectance at the bottom of the atmosphere (after atmospheric correction); c)
 4 chlorophyll-a concentration showing filaments of *phaeocystis* blooms along the west- and
 5 east-Frisian coast.

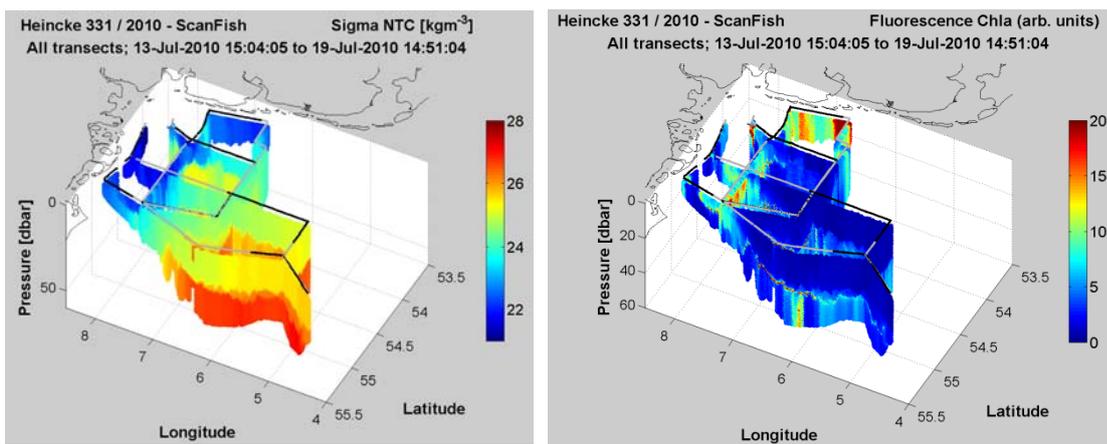


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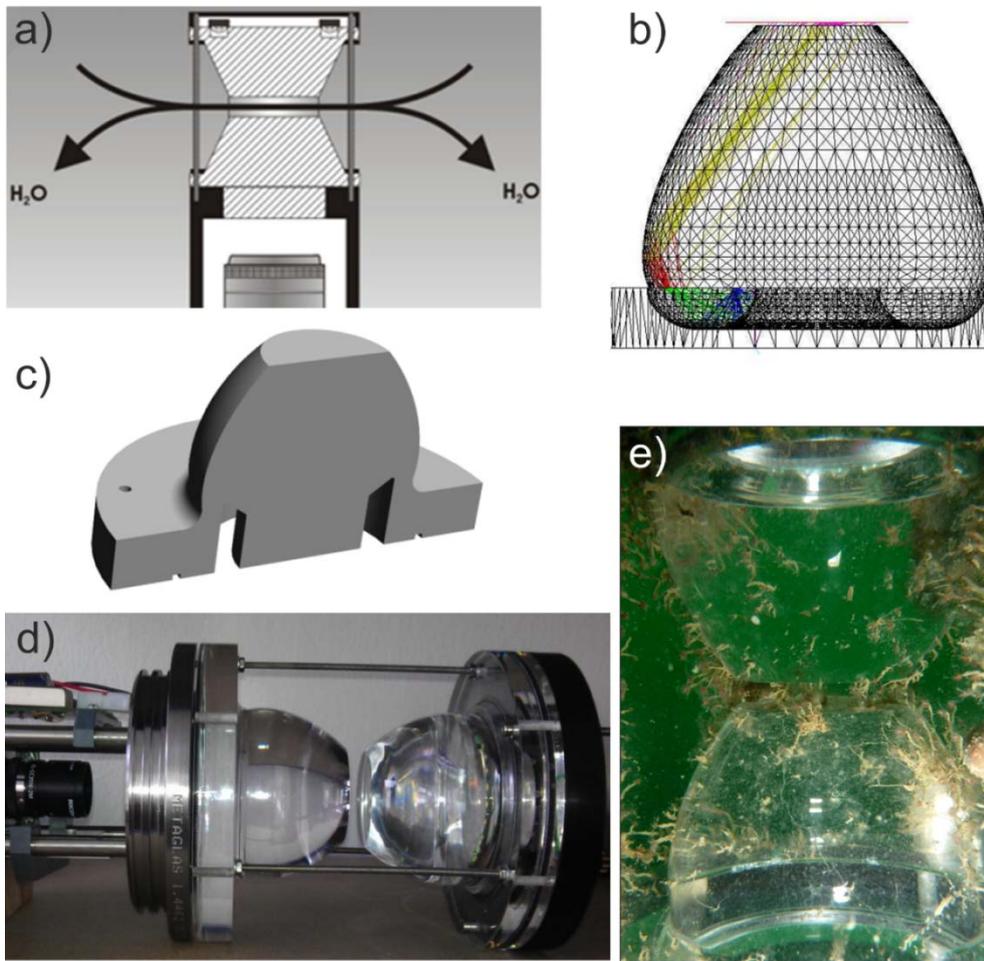
7 Fig. 136. Solar-powered GPS data logger attached to a tail of a Northern Gannet (Photo: J.
 8 Dierschke).



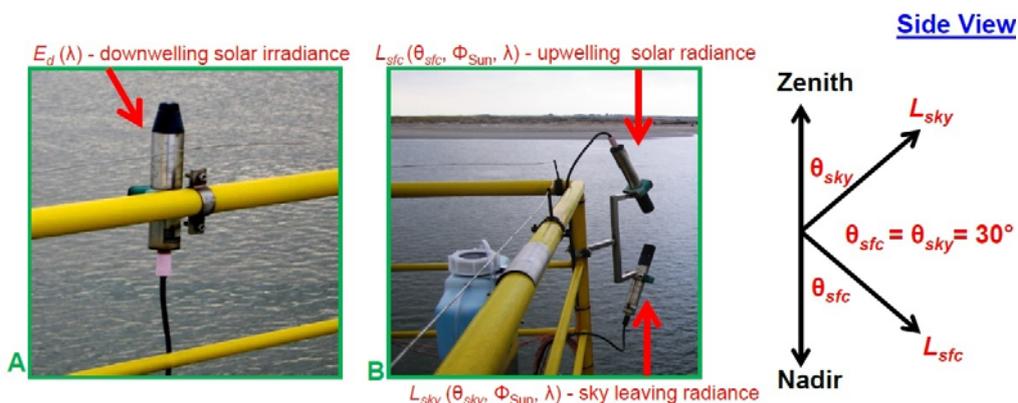
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 2 Fig. 147. Foraging flights of three Northern Gannets (*Morus bassanus*) in 2015 starting from
 3 Helgoland.
 4



5
 6 Fig. 18. Spatial distribution of σ_T and chlorophyll-*a* observed during RV Heincke Cruise
 7 HE331 in July 2010.

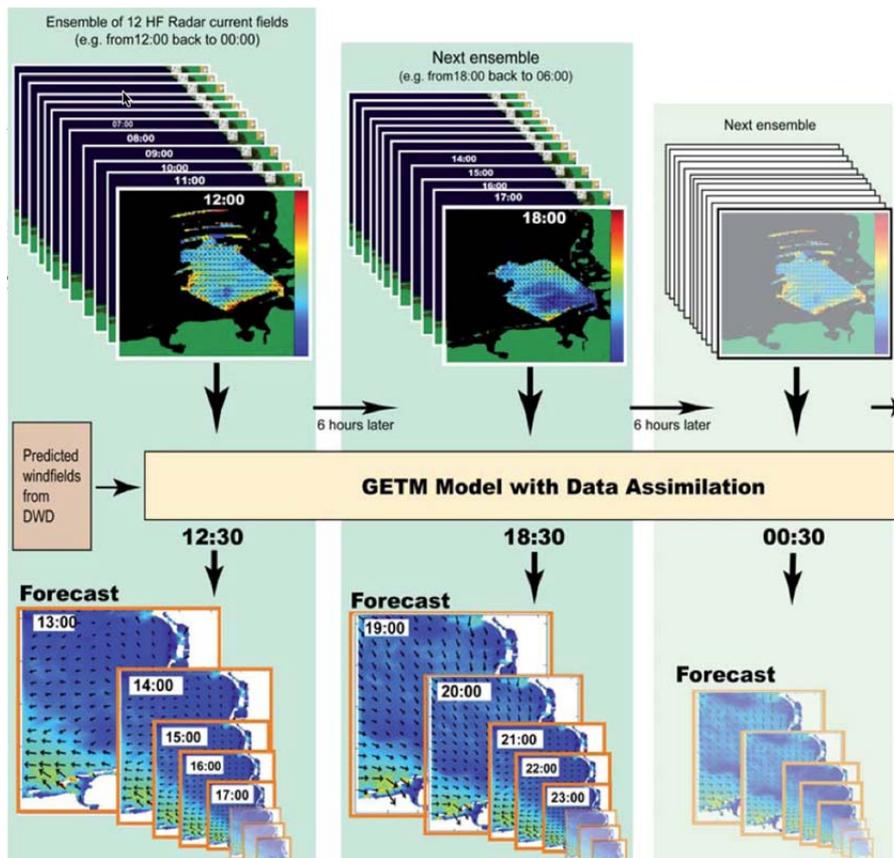


1
 2 Fig. 19. Design of the LOKI imaging head for moored operation. a) Schematic overview. b)
 3 Ray-tracing design-model to investigate the best shape to increase efficiency. c) Cross-section
 4 of a 3D-model. The LEDs of the flash unit are positioned in the notch. d) Imaging head with
 5 two optical cones: the right cone carries the circular flash unit, the left one the visual path of
 6 the camera's field of view. The camera is mounted on the left. e) The system requires
 7 periodical cleaning in the field. The image shows bio-fouling after 5 weeks of operation in the
 8 North Sea.

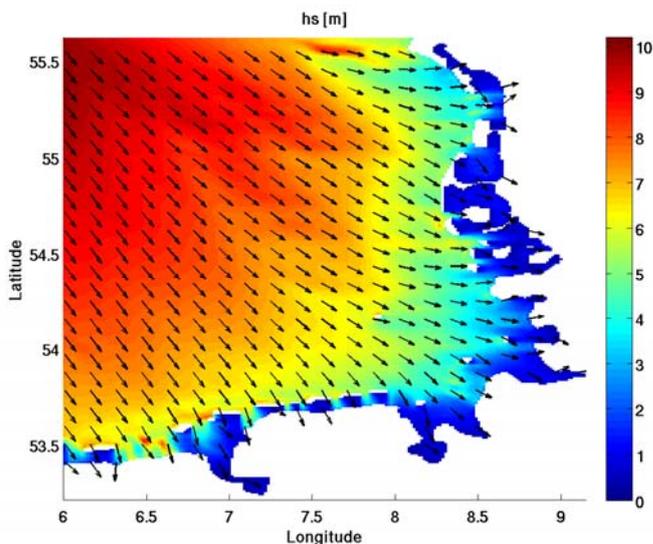


9
 10 Fig. 150. Setup of RAMSES radiometers at the Wadden Sea measurement pole Spiekeroog.

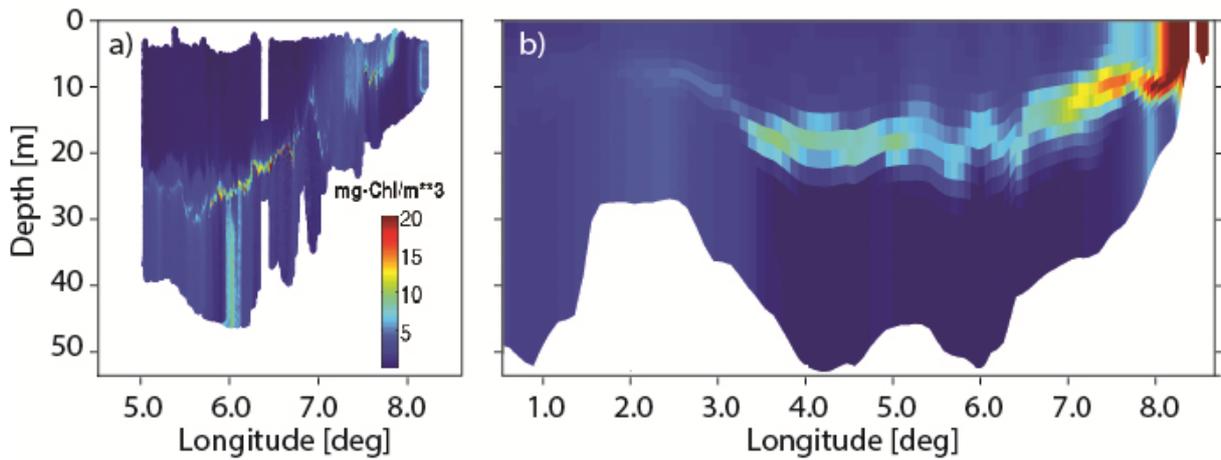
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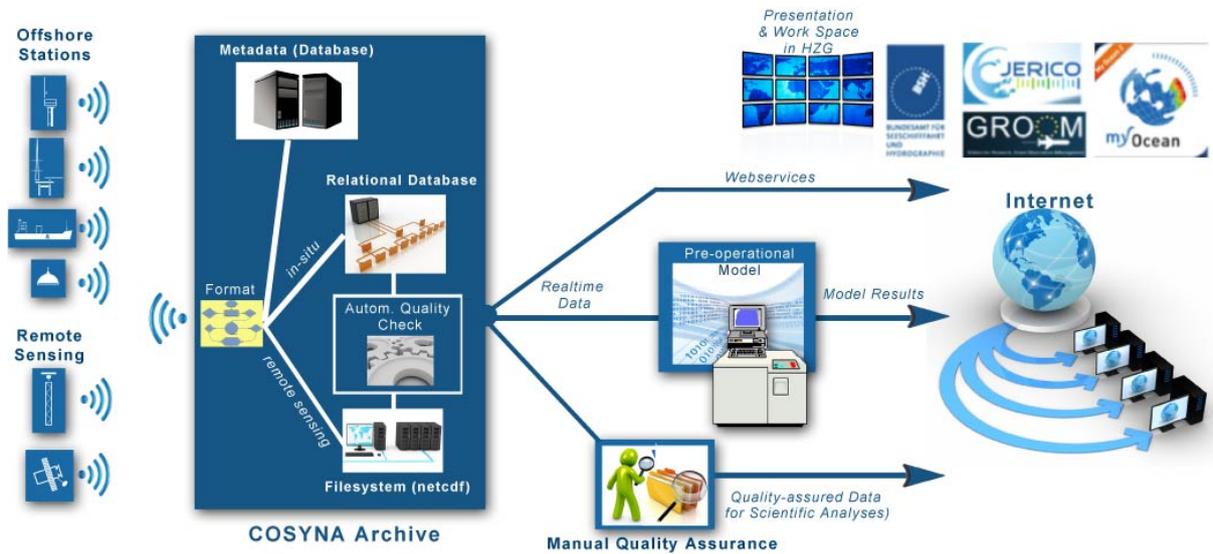
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 2 Fig. 161. The functioning of data assimilation and forecasting in the pre-operational
 3 COSYNA system. HF radar system covering the German Bight. Radial current components
 4 are sent to the HZG data server, where current vectors are calculated and presented on the
 5 COSYNA data portal (Stanev et al., 2015).



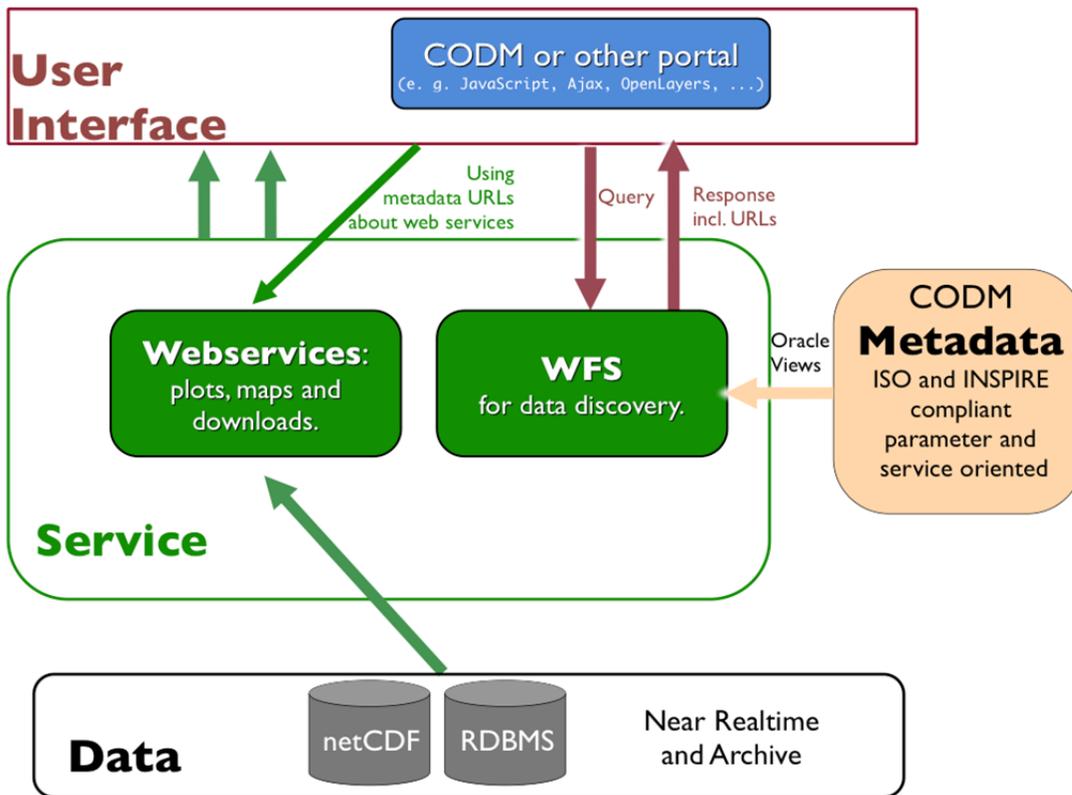
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 7 Fig. 172. Significant wave height calculated for the German Bay on 1 November 2006 with
 8 the WAM wave model used in COSYNA.



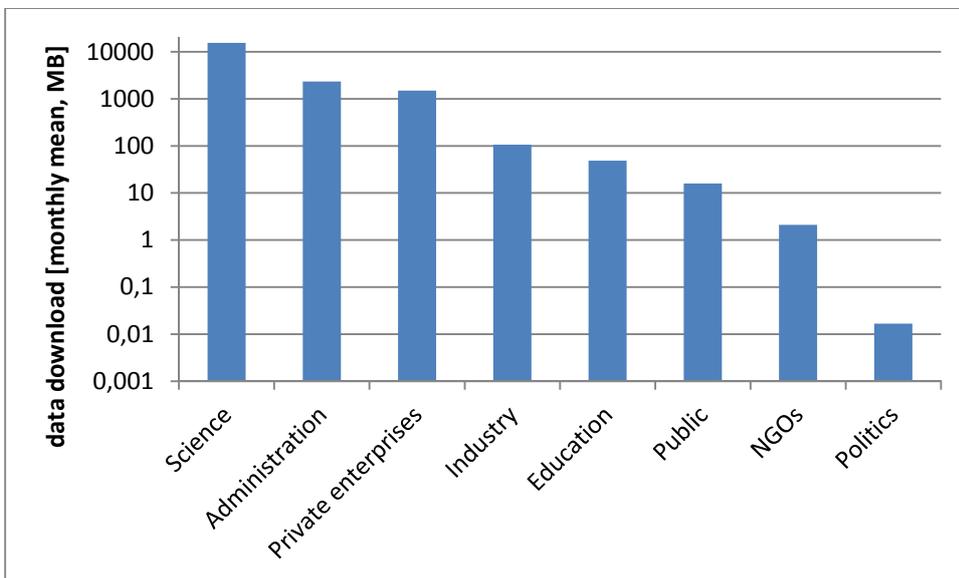
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 2 Fig. 183. Chlorophyll transects around 55°15' latitude in the German Bight
 3 a) observed with a Scanfish in July 2010 (Section 5.9) and b) as result
 4 of a coupled GETM and an adaptive ecosystem model showing a 1-week mean
 5 (Wirtz and Kerimoglu, submitted).



6
 7 Fig. 194: Data Flow in COSYNA.



1
 2 Fig. 25. Data Management architecture: The connection between user interface on one side
 3 and data or metadata on the other side is handled solely by web services like Web Feature
 4 Services (WFS) or Web Map Services (WMS).



5
 6 Fig. 206. Mean monthly data use for different categories of users. Data are shown for the time
 7 period between November 2014, when the user registration started, and January 2016.