



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

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22 **Abstract**

23 The Coastal Observing System for Northern and Arctic Seas (COSYNA) was established in
24 order to better understand the complex interdisciplinary processes of northern seas and the
25 arctic coasts in a changing environment. Particular focus is given to the German Bight in the
26 North Sea as a prime example for a heavily used coastal area, and Svalbard as an example of
27 an arctic coast that is under strong pressure due to global change.



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

11 **1 Introduction**

12 A large part of humanity lives near the coasts and depends on the coastal oceans. At the same
13 time, global problems such as climate change, sea level rise, or ocean acidification influence
14 the ecosystems and communities along the coasts in particular. Shelf seas host unique
15 ecosystems and provide essential sources for life in the ocean and the bordering land. At the
16 same time, regions like the North Sea are heavily used for a multitude of human activities,
17 from tourism and ship traffic to the exploitation and exploration of food resources, energy and
18 raw materials. Shelf seas are also heavily influenced by terrestrial processes as they are
19 subject to a continuous influx of natural and anthropogenic material from river systems and
20 the atmosphere. They therefore act as important interfaces for global material cycles, for
21 example through the uptake, emission, and transport of carbon compounds. These regions
22 thus influence the Earth system and are, in turn, shaped by global change and local human
23 resource use. Understanding coastal systems is therefore of a high value, not only from a
24 scientific point of view, but also due to its societal value. Coastal research has, however, long
25 been hampered by the effort involved in investigating the highly complex coastal systems, the
26 diversity of disciplines and institutions involved, and the difficulties in obtaining long-term
27 and high-resolution, consistent measurements.

28 Current observations in the North Sea reveal substantial changes in biogeochemistry and food
29 webs accompanied by the occurrence of new and the disappearance of established species
30 (Gollasch et al., 2009; Buschbaum et al., 2012). The causes for these shifts are only partially
31 known. Changes in physical quantities (e.g. temperature, wind) as well as anthropogenic
32 influences (e.g., pollution, over-fishing, invasive species) most probably act as major drivers



1 (Emeis et al., 2015). In the Arctic, the thawing of permafrost has started to cause coastal
2 erosion and an increase of greenhouse gas emissions (IPCC, 2014). These examples highlight
3 the sensitivity and dynamic behavior of such complex systems that are still barely understood
4 and insufficiently documented and monitored.

5 Recent advances in technology enable the scientific community to use their resources more
6 efficiently by taking remotely controlled automated measurements and by developing
7 ‘intelligent’ integrated systems that combine measurements and numerical modeling to create
8 a synoptic view of coastal systems. The Coastal Observing System for Northern and Arctic
9 Seas (COSYNA) has been established to demonstrate the feasibility of this idea for shallow,
10 coastal areas. COSYNA focuses on the complex interdisciplinary processes of Northern Seas
11 and the Arctic coast, to assess the impact of anthropogenic changes, and to provide a
12 scientific infrastructure. The core of COSYNA is an extensive network of the most diverse
13 measurement devices in the German Bight delivering near-real time data that are integrated in
14 numerical models and are publically provided.

15 The principal objective of observations, instrument development, and modeling is to improve
16 our understanding of the interdisciplinary interactions between physical, biogeochemical, and
17 ecological processes in coastal seas, to investigate how they can be best described at present,
18 and how they will evolve in the future. In COSYNA, data and knowledge tools are developed
19 and provided to be of use for multiple interest groups in industry, agencies, politics,
20 environmental protection, or the public. These data and products are publically available free
21 of charge and can be used to support national monitoring authorities to comply, for example,
22 with the requirements of the European Water Framework Directive and the Marine Strategy
23 Framework Directive. The coastal observatory involves national and international
24 contributions to international programs, such as the coastal module of the global ocean
25 observing system (coastal GOOS), the Global Earth Observations System of Systems
26 (GEOSS), Marine Geological and Biological Habitat Mapping (GEOHAB), and
27 COPERNICUS Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS).

28 COSYNA is coordinated by the Helmholtz-Zentrum Geesthacht (HZG), Germany, and has
29 been jointly developed, implemented, and operated with the German partner institutions
30 Alfred Wegener Institute, Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research (AWI), MARUM,
31 Center for Marine Environmental Sciences at Bremen University, the Institute for Chemistry
32 and Biology of the Marine Environment at the University of Oldenburg (ICBM), the Research



1 and Technology Centre at the University of Kiel (FTZ), the German Federal Maritime and
2 Hydrographic Agency (BSH), the Centre for Marine and Atmospheric Sciences at the
3 University of Hamburg (ZMAW, now Center for Earth System Research and Sustainability,
4 CEN), the Hamburg Port Authority (HPA), the Lower Saxony State Department for
5 Waterway, Coastal and Nature Conservation (NLWKN), Schleswig-Holstein's Agency for
6 Coastal Defence, National Parks, and Marine Conservation (LKN) and the German Federal
7 Waterways Engineering and Research Institute (BAW).

8 This article provides an overview of COSYNA, its observational and modelling approach as
9 well as the diverse associated scientific studies and activities. More details are provided in the
10 contributions to this volume. This article aims at connecting them to previously published
11 results from COSYNA. To this end, we will first describe the focus regions, objectives, and
12 the international context of COSYNA, before giving an overview of the observations, sensor
13 and instrument development, as well as modeling and data assimilation activities. Data, data
14 products, and outreach activities are then described before a brief outlook over future
15 activities is given.

16 **2 Coastal focus regions**

17 Northern and Arctic Seas are characterized by a variety of different geographical and
18 oceanographic settings, harbour various ecosystems, and are shaped and influenced by a
19 multitude of human uses. The focus regions of COSYNA, the German Bight of the North Sea
20 and the Arctic coast at Svalbard, are representative for two extremes of this broad spectrum.
21 The German Bight is one of the most intensely used coastal seas worldwide with often
22 opposing interests of economy, nature conservation, and recreation. Arctic seas and coasts are
23 among the areas mostly affected by and vulnerable to global warming.

24 **2.1 The North Sea**

25 The North Sea (Fig. 1) is a prime example for a shallow, heavily used coastal sea. It is a
26 temperate, semi-closed shelf sea ranging from 51°N to 62°N. It is very shallow in the German
27 Bight with water depths of less than 40 m. The Norwegian Trench is with 700 m depth the
28 deepest part of the North Sea (Otto et al., 1990).

29 The German Bight is located at the south-eastern corner of the North Sea. Its seaward
30 boundaries are at 6°30'E and 55°N. The main topographical features are the glacially formed



1 Elbe River valley that spreads out to the northwest and a chain of barrier islands along the
2 Dutch, German, and Danish North Sea coast. The Wadden Sea is located between these
3 barrier islands and the mainland. Its back-barrier intertidal flats are protected by the islands
4 and are separated by tidal inlets. The Wadden Sea is the largest unbroken system of intertidal
5 sand and mud flats in the world and is an UNESCO World Natural Heritage Site since 2009.

6 The North Sea is characterized by the transition from oceanic to brackish water with variable
7 fresh water input at the coasts. Physical drivers such as wind, sea surface temperature (SST),
8 or tides control the natural variability in circulation and exchange processes with the open
9 Atlantic and coastal fringe boundaries over a broad range of temporal and spatial scales
10 (Schulz et al., 1999; Sündermann et al., 1999; Emeis et al., 2015). Global and local
11 anthropogenic impacts overlay and interfere with these natural forcings.

12 Strong tidal currents and intermittent strong wind events form a regime of high kinetic and
13 turbulent energy with significant bed-water column exchange in the North Sea. The currents
14 are dominated by the M2 lunar tide that is entering the North Sea from the north and is
15 moving as Kelvin wave cyclonically through the North Sea (Otto et al., 1990; Howarth,
16 2001). Tidal currents are particularly strong in the channels connecting the Wadden Sea with
17 the North Sea driving an intense exchange and a net import of suspended particulate matter
18 and nutrients into the Wadden Sea (Burchard et al., 2008; Staneva et al., 2009; van Beusekom
19 et al., 2012). The tides thus cause a complex pattern of mixing conditions just off the barrier
20 islands and the mouths of the estuaries of the rivers Elbe, Weser, and Ems.

21 During each tidal cycle, typically 50 percent of the water volume of a tidal catchment area is
22 transported into and out of the Wadden Sea. This periodic exchange with the German Bight is
23 essential for the functioning of the Wadden Sea ecosystem: water entering the Wadden Sea
24 from the German Bight contains fine-grained sediments and particulate nutrients sustaining
25 the muddy component and the high productivity of the intertidal mud flats (Postma, 1984; van
26 Beusekom et al., 1999; van Beusekom and de Jonge, 2002).

27 Wind forcing is the second-most dominant factor and is particularly important during storms,
28 when it can generate a current response up to 25 m deep within a few hours (Howarth, 2001).
29 Winds in the North Sea are typically westerlies, but variations exist and southerlies and
30 easterlies may produce secondary circulation patterns (Otto et al., 1990).

31 The residual coastal current is a result of the combined effect of wind, topography, and the
32 density distribution (Backhaus, 1980). Its anticlockwise direction can be temporarily reversed



1 during predominant easterly winds (Hainbucher et al., 1987). The flushing time of the North
2 Sea is with 10 to 56 days (Lenhart and Pohlmann, 1997) relatively long in spite of its shallow
3 depth.

4 Strong and variable vertical and horizontal thermohaline gradients are generated by
5 atmospheric energy exchange and fluvial discharge. They cause the formation of a dynamic
6 balance of buoyancy gradients, flow-induced instabilities, and turbulence leading to features
7 such as fronts, filaments, and eddies (Dippner, 1993; Schrum, 1997; Sündermann et al.,
8 1999).

9 The North Sea is surrounded by densely populated, highly-industrialized countries and is
10 directly affected by multiple, often conflicting uses. In particular, the massive construction of
11 offshore wind farms – under way or planned – is likely to have a significant impact on marine
12 mammals (Koschinky et al., 2003), seabirds (Garthe and Hüppop, 2004; Busch et al., 2013),
13 but possibly also mixing (Lass et al., 2008; Ludewig, 2015; Carpenter et al., 2016) and
14 nutrient transport. The mixing region behind the barrier islands is exposed to an import of
15 pollutants and nutrients from land. The high biomass production caused by the latter resulted
16 in the identification of the entire German Bight as a problem area by the OSPAR commission
17 (OSPAR, 2008). Other economic exploitation activities also affect the ecosystem, such as
18 overfishing with bottom trawls impacting benthic invertebrate communities as well as leading
19 to a decrease of biomass and species richness of fish communities (Emeis et al., 2015). One of
20 the densest ship traffic lines worldwide crosses the German Bight and demands regular
21 dredging of shipping channels and harbour basins. The impact is further enhanced by near-
22 coast material dumping, but also sand and gravel extraction (de Groot, 1996).

23 The anthropogenic impact is further enhanced by the global increase of CO₂-concentrations
24 that led to a long-term increase of SST that accelerated to 0.08°C a⁻¹ in the last decade
25 (Loewe, 2009), while the average annual sea level rise reached 1.6 mm a⁻¹ for the last 110
26 years (Wahl et al., 2013), and the average pH decreased from 8.08 to 8.01 in the years 1970 to
27 2006 (Lorkowski et al., 2012).

28 **2.2 The Arctic Coast**

29 While Svalbard (79°N) is geographically classified as fully arctic, it is significantly
30 influenced by Arctic and Atlantic water masses from the Fram Strait (Hop et al., 2002).
31 Especially the west coast of Svalbard is alternatively exposed to warmer saline Atlantic water



1 masses from the West Spitsbergen Current and by colder less saline Arctic water from the
2 East Spitsbergen Current, or a mixture of both (Cottier et al., 2005). This bi-modal
3 hydrography is the basis of a complex temperate-polar balance affecting the coastal
4 hydrography and the associated fjord ecosystems (Svendsen et al., 2002). Due to an increased
5 advection rate of warmer Atlantic water masses in the fjord systems over the last decade, first
6 signs of an overall warming of the fjord systems have been observed with a decrease in
7 seasonal ice coverage (Stroeve et al., 2007) and significant changes throughout the food web
8 (Hegseth et al., 2013; Van de Poll et al., *subm.*; Willis et al., 2006, Brand and Fischer, *subm.*).

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

24 The Kongsfjord (Fig. 2) is one of the best studied fjord systems of the west coast of
25 Spitsbergen. The first research station was built by the Norsk Polar Institute in NyÅlesund
26 (Fig. 3) at 78°55'N, 11°56'E in 1970. Since then, more than 15 nations operate their own
27 research stations in this northernmost year-round inhabited research-village of the world
28 including the German-French research station AWIPEV (www.awipev.eu).

29 Even in Kongsfjord with its ideal and year-round available research infrastructure, most field
30 research has been done so far in summer during the polar day (Fischer et al., *this issue*) and
31 only very little is known about the polar winter with its prevailing darkness during a period of
32 several months. The winter months are, however, essential for life cycles, the reproduction of



1 many species (Fischer et al., this issue), and hence for the entire ecosystem (Hop et al., 2012).
2 It is COSYNA's aim to help close this observational gap providing year-round observations
3 in the Kongsfjord.

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

9 **3 Objectives and Benefits**

10 Complex, highly interdisciplinary natural processes characterize the North Sea across several
11 time and length scales. It is COSYNA's goal to help disentangle natural processes and
12 anthropogenic impact in this region by combining consistent long-term time series at
13 representative locations with process-oriented high-resolution observations. Numerical
14 models are used to integrate observations ranging from the turbulent to basin wide spatial
15 scales while bridging time periods from minutes to decades. It has therefore been COSYNA's
16 approach to build an integrated observing system that is geared towards high flexibility and
17 can be used on a variety of scales and problems that are of scientific or societal interest.

18 Routine observations of key variables and data assimilation techniques are employed to
19 improve model performance for hindcasts, nowcasts, and short-term forecasts. The
20 implementation of such a system achieves several objectives: it bridges spatial and temporal
21 scales, while it establishes a backdrop against which key processes, such as exchange
22 processes between North Sea and Wadden Sea, the impact of extreme events, biological
23 productivity variations, and the influences of e.g. offshore wind farm construction can be
24 investigated. The extensive development of offshore wind farms, for instance, requires sound
25 environmental statistics and improved forecasts for planning and operation, while their
26 influence on hydrodynamics, let alone biogeochemistry or biology, of the North Sea is still
27 poorly understood.

28 The benefits of the COSYNA system are expected to be manifold. It contributes to
29 technology development of key sensors and infrastructure, data interpretation algorithms such
30 as for satellites and radar, as well as to modelling and data assimilation techniques suitable for
31 operational use and monitoring. These developments and the creation of products of interest



1 for various user groups contribute to the sciences while also benefitting society, for example,
2 through supplying coastal and sea floor observations for the North Sea in support of the
3 European framework strategies and directives towards the goal of achieving a “good
4 environmental status” of the marine environment.

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

10 **4 International Context**

11 With the initiation of the permanent Global Ocean Observing System GOOS
12 (Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission, 1993) and stepwise implementation of its
13 many separate observing systems, new concepts regarding the world-wide systematic and
14 sustained observation of the oceans have been put in place. Considering the role of coastal
15 areas for ecological communities and their exposure to massive human utilization, a GOOS
16 coastal module was proposed to provide a basis for extended predictability of the coastal
17 environment in both model and observations (Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission,
18 1997). Awareness of the multitude of societal benefits (ABARE, 2006;
19 <https://ioos.noaa.gov/about/societal-benefits/>) stimulated considerable investment into the
20 worldwide implementation of integrated coastal ocean observatories (ICOOS). The United
21 States of America, for instance, coordinate their ICOOS within Regional Associations of the
22 U.S. IOOS (U.S. IOOS Office, 2010) as their GOOS Regional Alliance (GRA) contribution.
23 The Australian Integrated Marine Observing System IMOS (Moltmann et al., 2010) is another
24 prominent example for a GRA that comprises numerous observational and modelling
25 subsystems to generate coherent operational products from the coastline to the deep ocean
26 surrounding Australia. For IMOS, a detailed study (ABARE, 2006) estimated a total annual
27 benefit of AU\$ 615 million and a benefit to cost ratio of more than 22.

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-operational-oceanographic-system-noos/>). In addition to providing operational oceanographic
31 services and carrying out marine research, EuroGOOS puts considerable effort into unlocking
32



1 fragmented and hidden marine data and making them openly available. Its data plays a key
2 role in the development of the European Marine Observation and Data Network (EMODnet)
3 data portals (<http://www.emodnet.eu/>). EMODnet is designed to cover all European coastal
4 waters. The European ROOSes feed data into EMODnet either directly, or for physical data,
5 exploiting the infrastructures and services from SeaDataNet (Schaap and Lowry, 2010;
6 <http://www.seadatanet.org/>) and the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service
7 (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 in the Arctic at the west coast of Svalbard. Nearly all platforms are
19 equipped with instruments to deliver a set of COSYNA standard observables comprising key
20 meteorological, oceanographic, and biogeochemical bulk parameters (Table 1). Tables 2 and
21 3 provide a comprehensive overview of the COSYNA platforms.

22 Starting from the Wadden Sea coast line, four stationary systems were installed on poles
23 placed in tidal basins of the East Frisian (3) and North Frisian (1) Wadden Sea. The tidal
24 dynamics are resolved to allow the estimation of energy and matter budgets over the sampled
25 catchment areas. An additional pole and a stationary FerryBox monitor the exchange between
26 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, where the German Federal Maritime and Hydrographic Agency (BSH)
31 operates one station of its Marine Environmental Monitoring Network in the North Sea and



1 Baltic Sea (MARNET). In general, MARNET complements the fixed COSYNA platforms
2 (Table 2) towards the offshore regions of the German exclusive economic zone (EEZ).
3 To extend the COSYNA Network to the North Sea-scale, FerryBox systems are operated on
4 several ships of opportunity, with regular routes between the German mainland and the island
5 of Helgoland and between Germany, England, and Norway.
6 To provide a good spatial coverage of some oceanographic and biogeochemical parameters,
7 remote sensing with high frequency (HF) radar and satellites is used. A HF radar array is
8 installed at the East (1) - and North (2) Frisian coast. Their nearly rectangular viewing angles
9 allow the determination of horizontal surface current vectors over most of the German Bight.
10 The surface concentrations of total suspended matter, chlorophyll-a, and yellow substances
11 “Gelbstoff” were obtained from 2003 to 2012 with MERIS (Medium Resolution Imaging
12 Spectrometer) onboard ENVISAT, followed by MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging
13 Spectroradiometer).
14 To go beyond the limitations in power and data transmission rates that most COSYNA
15 platforms face, two COSYNA Underwater-Node Systems were developed and installed. They
16 are pilots towards long-term observations of parameters beyond the COSYNA standard
17 observables, such as optical systems for non-invasive determination of plankton or fish
18 populations and their behavior. The underwater node off the island of Helgoland is the first
19 installation in a shallow water environment worldwide subject to strong wave forces. At
20 Svalbard, the underwater node allows year-round observations under the sea ice in harsh
21 environmental conditions. To explore physical and biogeochemical processes at the sediment-
22 water interface over longer periods of time in high detail, three lander systems were
23 developed, that can be connected to the Underwater-Node Systems for longer operations.
24 Observations of the vertical distribution of variables over most of the water column were
25 achieved with two alternating gliders operating for several weeks north-west off the island of
26 Helgoland. Ship cruises with an undulating towed fish were carried out two to four times per
27 year along a repeated grid covering the German Bight with the MARNET stations at its
28 crossing points. For details on the moving platforms used in COSYNA see Table 3.
29 All data are transferred in near-real time to the COSYNA data server and are publically
30 available in the COSYNA data portal (CODM). Quality control processes are applied and
31 data are flagged accordingly.



1 **5.1 Fixed-Point Measurements**

2 Fixed stations are the central element of COSYNA and serve as platforms to record point-like
3 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 over several years at the same location.
6 Measuring poles were implemented at three tidal inlets, the inner Hörnum tidal basin, the Jade
7 Bay, and the Otzumer Balje close to the island of Spiekeroog, to capture the hydrodynamics
8 and suspended particulate matter concentrations (SPMC) typical of the East Frisian and North
9 Frisian Wadden Sea. An additional pole was placed in the outer Elbe estuary (Fig. 1).

10 While the inner Hoernum tidal basin represents the zero usage zone of the National Park of
11 the North Frisian Wadden Sea, the Jade Bay was exposed to intense activity of building a new
12 deep water port. The Otzumer Balje discharges a catchment area that is typical for the East
13 Frisian Wadden Sea and was intensely investigated during the ecosystem research project
14 ELAWAT (Dittmann, 1999). Long-term year-round observations in the tidal inlet between the
15 East Frisian islands of Langeoog and Spiekeroog were performed with the measuring pole
16 Spiekeroog that was setup in 2002 as part of the research programme BioGeoChemistry. The
17 Elbe pole was operated to contribute to the sediment management plan of the Elbe Estuary
18 and to complement the data of the stationary Cuxhaven Ferry-Box on the southern side of the
19 Elbe mouth. The FerryBox on FINO3 captures offshore conditions in the German Bight. All
20 these stations are described in the following in more detail (Table 2).

21 **5.1.1 Poles at Hörnum Deep, Jade Bay, and Elbe Estuary**

22 The pole at the inner Hörnum tidal basin, the Jade Bay, and in the Elbe Estuary were mounted
23 from March to November to prevent ice damage in the winter months. They consisted of a 15
24 m long steel tube, 5 m of which were jettied into the sea bed. A platform accessible via a
25 ladder was mounted on top of the 40 cm-diameter tube, resulting in an overall length of 18 m
26 (Fig. 4). The platform carried meteorological sensors and radiometer, solar panels for energy
27 supply, an automated yet remotely controllable water sampler, and logger boxes for
28 temporary data storage and wireless communication. A manual winch was used to retrieve the
29 underwater instrument unit for maintenance. The underwater unit was mounted so that the
30 lower end of its sensor package was positioned 1 m above the sea floor. It was equipped with



1 sensors for all COSYNA standard observables of physical oceanography and biogeochemistry
2 (Onken et al., 2007; Kappenberg et al., this issue; Table 1).
3 In order to reduce sensor fouling, e.g. by seaweed, mussels, barnacles and other organic
4 material, the underwater unit was cleaned at least twice a month. Possible sensor drift and
5 cleansing effects were monitored by direct comparison with a well-calibrated reference
6 system before, during, and after maintenance. Water samples were taken during maintenance
7 to relate optical signals to SPMC.
8 To observe heat fluxes between the tidal flats and the water body, a vertical temperature
9 sediment profiler was developed in the intertidal sediments close to the pole (Onken et al.,
10 2010) for more than a year. At a distance of 5 nautical miles, an additional mooring with an
11 upward looking ADCP (Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler) and a Datawell wave rider buoy
12 was deployed.
13 In order to compute along-channel fluxes in the Hoernum Deep, occasional ship surveys were
14 carried out over full tidal cycles relating across- and along-channel transects to the pole data.
15 They were complemented by additional water samples with accompanying turbidity
16 measurements. Fig. 5 displays an example for a Hoernum pole time series of water level,
17 significant wave height, wind and current speed, water temperature, salinity, and SPMC. This
18 period comprises a significant wind event with peak velocities up to 20 ms^{-1} resulting in a sea
19 level rise of more than 1.5 m and significant wave heights up to 1.7 m. Water temperature and
20 salinity after the storm exhibit the characteristic tidal (mainly M2) variability. Current
21 velocities are predominantly M4, with a clear ebb-flood asymmetry. SPMC shows a complex
22 variability reflecting the M4 tidal current dependencies as well as horizontal along-channel
23 gradients. Interestingly, the onset of the rise in SPMC and its peak value lag behind the
24 significant wave height by nearly one tidal period indicating that the source of the additionally
25 suspended material is located remote from the pole.
26 The combination of long-term observations of near-point time series with cross-sectional ship
27 surveys indicates that the steady import of particulate matter is closely connected to the
28 specific thermodynamic processes of the amphibic Wadden Sea area (Burchard et al., 2008;
29 Onken et al., 2007; Onken and Riethmüller, 2010; Flöser et al., 2011). The analysis of the
30 Elbe pole data from the years 2012 and 2013 is described in Kappenberg et al. (this issue).



1 5.1.2 Pole Spiekeroog

2 Time series of oceanographic, meteorological, and biogeochemical data are continuously
3 recorded since 2002 at a measuring pole (Fig. 1, Fig. 4) of the Institute for Chemistry and
4 Biology of the Marine Environment in a tidal channel close to the island of Spiekeroog
5 (Reuter, 2009; Badewien et al., 2009). The time-series station Spiekeroog (position
6 $53^{\circ}45'0.10''\text{N}$, $007^{\circ}40'16.3''\text{E}$, mean sea level 13 m) consists of a 35.5 m long pole, with a
7 diameter of 1.6 m that is driven 10 m into the sediment. A platform is mounted on top of the
8 pole, about 7 m above sea level. It consists of two laboratory containers hosting a second
9 platform on top that is equipped with solar panels, a wind turbine and meteorological sensor
10 systems. Oceanographic sensors are installed in special tubes within the pole, that are oriented
11 in the main direction of the tidal flow. An Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler is mounted 1 m
12 above the sea floor on a horizontal arm of 12 m length. The time-series station Spiekeroog is
13 capable of withstanding storm events and ice conditions. It is part of COSYNA since 2012.

14 The acquired data sets are fundamental for the improvement and validation of model results
15 (Burchard and Badewien, 2015; Grashorn et al. 2015; Lettman et al., 2009; Staneva et al.,
16 2009; Burchard et al., 2008) as well as to answer various research questions (Rullkötter, 2009;
17 Badewien et al., 2009; Hodapp et al., 2015; Meier et al., 2015; Holinde et al., 2015) and to
18 improve fouling-prone sensing methods and quality assurance (Garaba et al., 2014; Schulz et
19 al., 2015; Oehmcke et al., 2015).

20 5.1.3 Stationary FerryBoxes

21 As part of the COSYNA network, a stationary FerryBox was installed inside the pole of
22 research platform FINO3. Water is pumped from approx. 5 m and 16 m below mean sea level
23 height for the continuous analysis near-surface and sea floor waters. The FerryBox is
24 equipped with sensors for standard oceanographic parameters (Table 1). Temporarily, nutrient
25 analysers and a pCO_2 sensor were added.

26 Despite harsh operating conditions, the FerryBox is operational since July 2011, with short
27 interruptions during storm periods that were caused by sea spray and condensation that
28 occurred notwithstanding the use of a heated steel cabinet for the protection of its electronics.
29 Due to its remote position in the North Sea, personnel and spare parts had to be transported by
30 helicopter to the platform for maintenance. Weather conditions therefore constrained the



1 accessibility of the platform and sensors requiring regular maintenance could only be used
2 temporarily. The software was operated remotely.

3 Since August 2010, a stationary FerryBox is also installed in a container directly at the
4 waterfront of Cuxhaven Harbour. It samples the tidally influenced, highly turbid lower Elbe
5 river, the main freshwater discharge into the COSYNA observation area. The FerryBox was
6 complemented by the Elbe estuary measurement pole located 18 km upstream on the northern
7 side of the river (Section 5.1.1) to contribute to a better understanding of the SPM dynamics
8 and transport through the Elbe estuarine turbidity zone into the German Bight.

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

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

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

19 **5.2 Ocean Gliders**

20 Ocean gliders (Fig. 7) are autonomous underwater vehicles, propelled by a buoyancy engine.
21 In the last decade they have become an established oceanographic platform in the open ocean
22 autonomously collecting data with a high temporal resolution along (re)programmable
23 transects. Due to their operational flexibility and a long endurance on the order of months,
24 gliders sample the oceans at low cost in a way no other platforms currently do (Testor et al.,
25 2010).

26 The use of ocean gliders in shallow coastal waters is, however, challenging. COSYNA and a
27 few other observatories have pioneered this particular use. Due to bathymetric constraints,
28 currents can reach magnitudes in excess of the nominal glider speed, making it difficult to
29 follow a prescribed transect. Intense commercial and recreational shipping traffic significantly
30 increases the likelihood of a glider-ship collision (Merckelbach, 2013). This will almost



1 certainly result in the loss of the glider and possibly in a hull rupture, if a fast light-weight
2 craft is involved (Drücker et al., 2015). Therefore, COSYNA collaborates closely with the
3 authority responsible for safety regulations in the German sector of the North Sea (Wasser-
4 und Schifffahrtsamt) to develop prediction methodologies to mitigate the risk at sea involving
5 gliders (Merckelbach, this issue).

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

16 The evolution of stratification during 2012 and part of 2014 is shown in Fig. 8 to illustrate
17 glider measurements. The data was collected by two gliders in alternating service in 2012, and
18 within a single experiment in 2014. From May to August, the potential energy and
19 stratification of the water column increases due to solar heat flux. During that time, the water
20 column is partially mixed by wind and waves at several instances. After September, mixing
21 dominates and the heat fluxes are too low to create a stable stratification. Data from 2014
22 shows interannual variability with a strong stratification in August and a subsequent complete
23 mixing of the water column caused by a storm. After this event, the stratification was not
24 restored.

25 **5.3 High-Frequency Radar System**

26 In order to detect surface currents, a High Frequency (HF) radar network was established in
27 the German Bight of the North Sea. It consists of three “Wellen Radar” (WERA) systems
28 (Gurgel et al., 1999) located on the isles of Sylt and Wangerooge and in BÜsum (Fig. 9).

29 The radar signal propagates along the ocean surface beyond the horizon and is backscattered
30 by surface waves on the order of 10 m (half the electromagnetic wave length). The WERA
31 systems typically cover a range distance of 100 km with a resolution of 1.5 km. All systems



1 transmit via a rectangular array of four antennas with a total power of 32 W. The Systems on
2 Sylt and in Büsum operate at 10.8 MHz with a linear receiver array consisting of 12 antennas,
3 while the radar on Wangerooge operates at 12.1 MHz with a 16-antenna array.

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

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

14 **5.4 FerryBox**

15 In order to obtain oceanographic variables in a cost-effective way on a routinely basis,
16 FerryBox-systems have been developed within COSYNA and were installed on several ships-
17 of-opportunity such as ferries or cargo ships, research vessels, or as stationary units (Fig. 10).
18 They deliver key physical state variables of the North Sea and the Arctic coast off Svalbard
19 and fill gaps concerning robust biogeochemical observations of the oceans. In particular,
20 observations of the coastal carbon cycle with high temporal and spatial resolution along the
21 ship tracks help to understand impacts of climate change or eutrophication on productivity, as
22 well as the influence of single events such as storms or floods on the system. The measured
23 variables include temperature, salinity, chlorophyll-a, dissolved oxygen (DO), the partial
24 pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂), pH, alkalinity, nutrients, turbidity, or algal groups. The data are used
25 for model validation (Petersen et al., 2011; Haller et al., 2015) and assimilation studies
26 (Stanev et al., 2011; Grayek et al., 2011; Fig. 11).

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).



1 All data are stored in the FerryBox-system and are transferred to the COSYNA server when
2 the vessel has a stable internet connection. COSYNA's FerryBoxes are part of an
3 international network within EuroGOOS (<http://www.ferrybox.org>).

4 **5.5 Underwater-Node System**

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

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

20 The COSYNA Underwater-Node System comprises a land based power unit and server
21 providing 1000 VDC, a GBit-network connection, and virtual computer technology for up to
22 20 different users. This land-based control system is connected to the underwater node unit
23 via a fibre-optic and power hybrid cable that can be up to 10 km long (Fig. 12).

24 The underwater unit is built as basic lander system. Up to 10 underwater plugs provide power
25 and network connection. The underwater unit can be outfitted with an uninterrupted low-
26 power battery supply for 6-8 hours operating time to enable temporary disconnection from the
27 high voltage electricity. From this central underwater node unit (Fig. 12-3), sensors or sensor
28 units with a power consumption of up to 200 W (Fig. 12-4) can be connected via an up to 70
29 m long cable. Communication and data transfer with the attached sensors or sensor units are
30 realized via TCP/IP. Completely separated ports allow scientists to directly communicate with
31 the instruments independent of other users. From the primary node system, an uplink power



1 and network connection allows the serial connection of a secondary and tertiary underwater
2 node unit (Fig. 12-5) to reach a maximal range of 30 km from the land based support unit.

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

15 Because the North Sea experiences strong winds of more than 6 Bft. for more than 150 days
16 per year (Fig. 13), the cabled observatory provides an invaluable extension of ship-based
17 research. It may therefore help fill a significant gap in our understanding of ecosystem
18 behaviour in coastal environments beyond 6-8 Bft. when ship-based research is very limited
19 or impossible due to safety constraints.

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

28 Also the Svalbard observatory is operated as permanent monitoring facility for the main
29 hydrographical parameters in the fjord system (temperature, conductivity, O₂, pH, turbidity,
30 currents) and as docking and support system for complex sensor systems. It is fully remotely
31 controlled and all sensors and sensor units can be accessed via the internet from Germany.
32 The Svalbard observatory is equipped with 4 access points and is specifically designed for



1 national and international cooperations in the Kongsfjorden ecosystem. A main feature of the
2 Svalbard observatory is a vertical profiling sensor unit, which allows to remotely position
3 attached sensors at a specific depth on a daily or even hourly basis. Thus, the entire water
4 column can be sampled year-round, even under sea ice.

5 With the remotely controlled sensor setup of the COSYNA Underwater-Node System, it was
6 for the first time possible to gain data with a temporal resolution of up to 1 Hz with both,
7 CTD and ADCP sensors, but also with highly complex sensors like a stereo-optical camera
8 system that is able to measure abundance, species composition and length frequency
9 distributions of macroscopic organisms (Wehkamp and Fischer, 2014). No data set of this
10 kind has previously been available from any Arctic ecosystem worldwide, thus providing
11 unique insights into the polar dynamic (Fig. 14).

12 **5.6 Landers**

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

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

27 **5.6.1 Lander SedObs**

28 The Sediment Dynamics Observatory (Lander SedObs) is used to investigate seafloor
29 dynamics and to improve the fundamental knowledge of multi-phase flows and the interaction
30 of physical and biological processes. The sea floor and lower water column are characterized



1 by morphodynamic processes acting on a large range of spatial and temporal scales.
2 Observations with SedObs focus on short-term dynamics due to tides or storm events.
3 Particular focus is given to the interaction of water motion by currents and waves as well as
4 the transport of sediments and other substances with the sea bed evolution under the influence
5 of (micro)biological stabilizing and destabilizing organisms (Ahmerkamp et al., 2015).

6 SedObs consists of a 2×2 m steel frame with a platform providing space for battery power
7 supply and the installation of sensors (Fig. 15). The platform rests on four adjustable and
8 inclined legs. Foot plates provide stable stand, prohibit subsidence, and reduce scouring
9 around the legs. Sensors can be attached to the legs for measurements close to the sea bed.
10 The lander is deployed with a launching frame from a research vessel orienting it in the
11 direction of main currents. After release of the lander, the frame is recovered in order to
12 minimize flow disturbances. For recovery, a floating buoy with recovery line is released
13 acoustically. Typical deployment times exceed 25 h to account for tidal variations.

14 Flow velocities and turbulence above and below the lander are measured with two Acoustic
15 Doppler Current Profilers. The upward-looking ADCP also captures the directional surface
16 wave spectrum. Two Acoustic Doppler Velocimeters record velocity at two levels with high
17 frequency. Turbulence characteristics are computed from high frequent velocity fluctuations.

18 The small-scale bathymetry below the lander is measured with a 3D-Acoustic Ripple Profiler
19 (Bell and Thorne, 1997). The sensor is installed about 1.8 m above the seafloor covering a
20 circular area of 6.2 m diameter. Sediment transport characteristics are measured with Sequoia
21 Lisst 100X instruments providing in-situ particle size distributions of suspended sediments.
22 Characteristics of suspended matter concentration are provided by optical backscatter sensors
23 and the backscattered signal strengths of the hydroacoustic instruments. Additional
24 parameters comprise the COSYNA standard observables. Observations are complemented by
25 investigations of benthic species as well as sedimentological and granulometric analysis
26 (Laser diffraction) of the sediments sampled with grab samplers, box corers, and multi-corer
27 equipment.

28 SedObs supports several applied and fundamental research projects, such as KÜNO NOAH
29 (North Sea Observation and Assessment of Habitats). Until 2015, eleven ship surveys were
30 carried out, field data were collected, and analysed at different reference sites in the German
31 Bight with sedimentological and morphological characteristics that are representative for
32 large areas of the German EEZ in the North Sea. A combination with other COSYNA sea



1 floor observatories has produced consistent and extensive data sets on various physical and
2 (micro)biological properties of the domains (Krämer and Winter, this issue). Data are
3 published at <http://www.noah-project.de>.

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

11 5.6.2 Lander NuSObs

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

20 NuSObs (Fig. 15) was equipped with two “Mississippi” type chambers (Witte and
21 Pfannkuche, 2000). After the deployment of the lander, both chambers were moved slowly
22 into the sediment by a motor each enclosing a sediment area of 400 cm² for typically 12–24 h.
23 Each chamber was equipped with a syringe sampler (seven 50 ml glass syringes) to obtain
24 water samples from the incubation chamber for subsequent chemical analysis. In addition, an
25 oxygen Optode and pH sensor were mounted in each chamber. The syringe sampler was pre-
26 programmed to obtain water samples from the chamber every 2–3 h yielding time series data
27 of oxygen, nitrate, or silicic acid concentrations within the chambers.

28 5.6.3 Lander FLUXSO

29 The benthic lander system FLUXSO (Fluxes on Sands Observatory) was developed for
30 studying *in situ* solute fluxes of nutrients, DIC, and oxygen in permeable consolidated



1 sediments. It is the goal to assess the importance of the seafloor as sink or source of nutrients
2 and benthic-pelagic coupling and to study advection-related processes in permeable shelf
3 sediments.

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

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

18 **5.7 Satellite Oceanography**

19 Satellite remote sensing is unique in providing a synoptic view over larger areas of the sea
20 surface (Robinson, 2004). Standard algorithms are used widely to determine the optically
21 dominant water constituents and the chlorophyll concentration in clear oceanic waters (Carder
22 et al., 1991; Lee et al., 1998; Gohin et al., 2002). These simple band-ratio algorithms,
23 however, often fail in optically complex coastal waters. To gain concentrations of one coastal
24 water constituent, other optically active substance categories have to be considered in the
25 development of algorithms for the inversion of satellite spectral data. The correction of the
26 atmospheric influence is more sensitive and complex as it accounts for 90% to 98% of the
27 radiance seen at the satellite. The algorithms for coastal waters developed by HZG and used
28 in COSYNA are included in the ESA (European Space Agency) operational processing
29 scheme for the sensors MERIS (MEdium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer) on ENVISAT
30 (Doerffer and Schiller, 2007) and OLCI (Ocean and Land Colour Instrument) on Sentinel-3



1 providing chlorophyll-*a* and total suspended matter (TSM) concentrations and the absorption
2 by chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM, “Gelbstoff”).

3 MERIS provided COSYNA data (Fig. 17) for the North Sea until 2012 when ENVISAT
4 failed. With the adaption of the coastal algorithm to MODIS (on AQUA) and OLCI the
5 continuation of data coverage was ensured. For the validation and further improvement of
6 these algorithms, a series of COSYNA research cruises (Section 5.9) was conducted in 2009 -
7 2014 to collect optical and biogeochemical ground-truthing data.

8 **5.8 Seabird Tracking**

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

27 **5.9 *In situ* mapping of the COSYNA observation area**

28 The regular operational observations in COSYNA primarily detect variables at the sea surface
29 (currents observed with HF radar; chlorophyll-*a*, TSM, and SPMC observed with satellite
30 remote sensing), at constant depths at fixed high-resolution time-series stations (Wadden Sea



1 poles, FINO3 platform, MARNET stations), or at constant depth along regular ship routes
2 (FerryBox transects). In order to observe the vertical distribution of key variables and their
3 temporal development, these observations were complemented by extended *in situ* mapping
4 of the North Sea during several research cruises.

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

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

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

21 Along the grid lines, an undulating towed Scanfish Mark II TM by EIVA (Fig. 20) was
22 operated yielding vertical profiles of oceanographic and bulk biogeochemical parameters at a
23 vertical resolution of several centimeters and a horizontal resolution of 150 m at mid water
24 depth. A FerryBox system was used to analyze water continuously taken at a depth of 4 m
25 with respect to the standard oceanographic parameters temperature, salinity, pH, chlorophyll-
26 fluorescence, turbidity, CDOM, nutrients, dissolved oxygen, and pCO₂. During the cruises,
27 the FerryBox also served as platform for testing newly developed sensors. This includes a
28 flow-through PSICAM for high frequency hyperspectral absorption coefficient measurements
29 (Wollschläger et al. 2013; 2014), a sequential injection analysis (SIA) approach for phosphate
30 measurement (Frank and Schroeder, 2007), as well as high precision spectrophotometric
31 methods for the determination of pH and total alkalinity (Aßmann et al. 2011; Aßmann,
32 2012). Vertical current profiles were recorded with an ADCP. During two cruises, gliders



1 operated in parallel enhancing the spatial observation density. At the cruise track crossing
2 points, additional vertical profiles were taken and complemented with Secchi depth
3 determination, light transmission, and scattering spectra taken from water samples.

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

16 **6 Sensor and Instrument Development**

17 In COSYNA, well-proven commercially available sensors and sensor systems are used.
18 However, to automatically measure the main parameters that control and influence the North
19 Sea and arctic ecosystem, several novel, automated, and reliable sensors had to be developed
20 and tested by the COSYNA partners. These are, in particular, sensors and samplers for
21 biogeochemical and optical parameters as well as micropollutants. An overview is given in
22 the following. For most of these sensors, the FerryBox was used as a test platform because it
23 is protected from the environment, it provides a continuous sea water supply, and offers high-
24 frequency data acquisition and real-time data transmission.

25 **6.1 pH Sensor**

26 pH is a “proxy” for phytoplankton and primary production, one of four parameters
27 characterizing the oceanic inorganic carbon system, and an indicator for the increasing
28 acidification of sea water. In order to quantify the components of the carbon cycle in the
29 context of climate change, a precise characterisation of the carbonate system is required.

30 In COSYNA, commercially available pH glass electrodes are routinely used. They are very
31 sensitive to bio-fouling as bacterial biofilms on the electrodes changes the pH thus requiring



1 cleaning and re-calibrating intervals of 7-10 d in summer. Although an accuracy of ± 0.05 -0.1
2 pH units can be achieved in FerryBox systems for several weeks due to their regular
3 automatic cleaning procedures, a higher precision of < 0.01 pH units is necessary to detect the
4 acidification process in coastal waters with a pH decrease of about 0.0019 pH units per year
5 (Dore et al., 2009; Feely et al., 2009).

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

11 **6.2 Alkalinity Sensor**

12 CO₂ flux estimates for the coastal ocean are subject to large uncertainties (Borges, 2005;
13 Chen and Borges, 2009) due to strong seasonal variability. For a description of the carbonate
14 system at least two of the following parameters have to be measured: pH, partial pressure of
15 CO₂ (pCO₂), total alkalinity (AT), and total dissolved inorganic carbon (CT). Because a
16 combination of pH and pCO₂ only yields a precision of about 1%, a sensor for the additional
17 measurement of alkalinity was developed that will allow to document the fast changing
18 carbonate chemistry in the North Sea (Aßmann, 2012).

19 The approach for the photometric pH determination (Section 6.1) was modified for alkalinity,
20 with the advantage that the same equipment can be used for both parameters. The chemical
21 titration can either be accomplished by using an “open-cell technique” applying a simple sea
22 water model as calculation tool. The titration occurs at pH < 4.5 leading to a removal of all
23 carbonate species by outgassing of CO₂. The precision is ± 1.1 mol kg⁻¹ with an accuracy of
24 ± 8 mol kg⁻¹. In a more complex “closed-cell technique” a broader pH range is used and no
25 CO₂ escapes yielding an accuracy of ± 0.8 mol kg⁻¹ with a precision of ± 4.4 mol kg⁻¹.

26 **6.3 Nutrient Sensor**

27 COSYNA uses commercially available nutrients analysers on FerryBoxes for long term
28 investigations of the nutrients ammonia, nitrite, nitrate, phosphate, and silicate which are
29 important parameters regarding eutrophication. However, as small-scale processes often
30 require faster sensor response times, a flow-through system was developed for the fast



1 determination of ammonia and phosphate based on sequential injection analysis (SIA) causing
2 a chemical reaction of both species with a reagent that can be detected by fluorescence (Frank
3 et al., 2006). The detection limits are $0.3 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for phosphate and $1 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for ammonia.
4 180 samples can be processed per hour and analyte.

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

11 **6.4 Flow-through Spectral Light Absorption Measurements**

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

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

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



1 **6.5 Molecular Observatory**

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

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

20 **6.6 Zooplankton Sampling**

21 In addition to phytoplankton distributions, the heterogeneities of the spatio-temporal
22 zooplankton community assemblage are a key environmental parameter. Based on the
23 established Lightframe On-sight Keyspecies Investigation technique (LOKI; Schulz et al.,
24 2010), an imaging head for autonomous, moored operations was developed and attached to
25 the COSYNA Underwater-Node System. A 360°-open flow chamber ensures optimal flow.
26 The data are transferred to shore in near-real time.

27 LOKI combines several features bringing it close to the feasible borders set by the laws of
28 optics (Schulz, 2013). These are an integrated flash unit providing sufficient light for short
29 shutter times of $< 30 \mu\text{s}$ to avoid motion blurring, very high resolution of $< 15 \mu\text{m pixel}^{-1}$ to
30 resolve fine taxonomical characteristics, and a depth of field of several millimetres. This was
31 achieved by using two optical cones (Fig. 22). The first one is attached to the camera housing
32 and allows adjustment of the focal plane at a certain distance from the camera, while the



1 tapering enhances water exchange in the flow chamber. The opposite cone houses a high-
2 power LED flash unit. The LEDs are arranged circular and off-axis to provide indirect and
3 homogenous illumination resulting in high-resolution images of minute specimens and a large
4 depth of field. The operation time is, however, limited by bio-fouling (Fig. 22).

5 **6.7 Active- and Passive Sampling Tools**

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

10 For passive sampling, a Chemcatcher Metal (Petersen et al., 2015b) as well as DGTs have
11 been used, while blue mussels (*mytilus edulis sp.*) have been applied as active sampling
12 devices. After a deployment period of several weeks, the samples are analysed with
13 conventional analytical laboratory methods. In contrast to spot sampling, passive samplers
14 allow to measure the more representative time weighted average water concentrations (TWA).
15 Passive sampling data also provide information about the biologically available trace element
16 fraction of the analysed water body (Booij et al., 2016). Besides the measurement of
17 contaminant body burdens, the application of mussels as active sampling devices allows also
18 the analysis of potential biological effects induced by the contaminants present in the
19 surrounding water. This is done with an analysis of the up and down regulation of specific
20 proteins, whose expressions are related with certain detoxification mechanisms.

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

28 A continuous flow box has been developed to overcome bio-fouling problems as well as to
29 minimize effects of changing currents on the sampling rate, as it allows the integration into
30 FerryBox systems (Petersen et al., 2015b) for passive sampling during ship cruises to obtain
31 TWA contaminant data.



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

6 **6.8 Radiometric Ocean Colour Measurements**

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

11 As part of COSYNA, the applicability of different low altitude hyperspectral radiometer
12 installations was investigated. Measurement poles at Spiekeroog (Fig. 23) and in the Alfacs
13 Bay (Ebro Delta, Mediterranean) were outfitted with TriOS RAMSES hyperspectral
14 radiometers. Underway observations were performed from research vessels Otzum and
15 Heincke, the latter with a permanent installation of a twin remote sensing reflectance setup to
16 account for different sun angles along the track.

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



1 **6.9 Temperature Sensor for Sediments**

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

7 For these investigations, a vertical temperature sediment profiler was developed. The self-
8 contained probe measures the temperature of intertidal sediments between at depths of 0.02
9 m, 0.1 m, 0.2 m, 0.3 m, and 0.4 m. Two electrodes located about 2 cm above the sediment
10 indicate whether the tidal flats are wet or dry. The probe was deployed close to the Hörnum
11 measurement pole (Section 5.1.1) where sea water temperatures were measured (Onken et al.,
12 2010).

13 **7 Modelling and Data Assimilation**

14 Observations – and even automated observation networks – are limited by the fact that we
15 cannot measure everywhere and at all times, which is in particular a challenge given the
16 coastal ocean's strong variability. One of the distinguishing features of COSYNA lies
17 therefore in the integration of observational data into models in order to close the spatial and
18 temporal gaps of the observations and to calculate energy or matter fluxes. Model studies are
19 also essential for identifying regions with high sensitivity or variability in certain quantities
20 that warrant the deployment of measurement devices. On the other hand, state-of-the-art
21 numerical models of coastal dynamics require monitoring data to reasonably manage large
22 model uncertainties. The observations are used to bring models closer to the “real” state of the
23 ocean, either by verifying model output or by assimilating them into models. These data sets
24 should be representative and coherent. In order to continuously provide accurate pre-
25 operational coastal ocean state estimates and forecasts, COSYNA integrates near-real time
26 measurements in numerical models in a pre-operational way that is meant to improve both
27 historical model runs and forecasts.

28 In this context, COSYNA has explored different techniques to assimilate data into models.
29 Satisfactory assimilation results were achieved when 2D-data fields were available, such as
30 derived from HF radar or satellite observations. The assimilation of data from single locations
31 or sections usually only influences the immediate vicinity of the locations where the



1 observations were made and has limited value for greater spatial extensions. Data assimilation
2 based on physical values is generally more easily achieved than with biogeochemical
3 quantities. The successful assimilation products of COSYNA encompass surface currents,
4 significant wave height, period and wave direction, as well as temperature.

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

12 Although there are hundreds of HF radar systems installed worldwide, their operational use in
13 numerical models, in particular at sub-tidal periods, is not well established. The assimilation
14 of HF radar data is a challenge due to irregular data gaps in time and space, inhomogeneous
15 observational errors, as well as inconsistencies between boundary forcing and observations.
16 Furthermore, due to the high sampling frequency of typically several times per hour, it is
17 difficult for the model to reach equilibrium between two time steps. Therefore, the Spatio-
18 Temporal Optimal Interpolation (STOI) filter has been developed by Stanev et al. (2015). It
19 enables a blending of model simulations from a free run and radar observations by extending
20 the classical Kalman analysis method to time periods of at least one tidal cycle by using the
21 Kalman analysis equation.

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

27 The validation of the model and the physical interpretation of the results showed the good
28 skills of STOI not only in the area covered by HF radar observations but also outside it,
29 revealing its upscaling capabilities (Stanev et al., 2015). By using HF radar data in the STOI
30 system, homogeneous and continuous 2D-current fields were thus generated over the entire
31 model area. The quality is superior to a free model run, demonstrating that data assimilation
32 can enhance coastal ocean prediction capabilities by making use of observations and



1 modeling, which is an essential aspect of an operational system. The combination of HF radar
2 data and numerical model results can therefore also provide a deeper insight into the German
3 Bight dynamics and provide useful indications where further model developments
4 (improvements) are needed.

5 COSYNA also provides a pre-operational wave-forecast based on the WAM Cycle 4 wave
6 model (release WAM 4.5.3; Komen et al., 1994; Guenther et al., 1992). The computational
7 system consists of a regional WAM for the North Sea with a spatial resolution of ~5 km and a
8 nested-grid with a spatial resolution of 900 m for the German Bight. Wind fields and
9 boundary information are provided by the German Weather Service (DWD) derived from
10 their regional wave model EWAM. A number of wave parameters such as significant wave
11 height, period, and total wave direction are calculated (Staneva et al., 2015). It is continuously
12 providing hindcasts and forecasts since December 2009. Daily at 0:00 UTC and 12:00 UTC, a
13 24 h regional forecast is issued for the North Sea and a local one for the German Bight. As an
14 example, a typical wave height distribution with low values close to the coasts and higher
15 values off shore is shown for the German Bight for 21 April 2010 (Fig. 25).

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

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



1 Using an ecosystem model that includes turbidity fields, estimated from Scanfish observations
2 (Section 5.9), and accounts for the acclimation capacity of phytoplankton, lateral variability in
3 chlorophyll-*a* can be reproduced to a remarkable degree (Fig. 26; Wirtz and Kerimoglu,
4 submitted). However, these reconstructed pelagic patterns decouple from benthic respiration
5 patterns. Vertical deposition of freshly produced material greatly varies within the coastal
6 ocean. In a few, mostly deeper regions, deposition prevails over resuspension, leading to
7 depositional hotspots.

8 Vertical structures in nutrient concentration are key to understand whether, when, and where
9 phytoplankton blooms form after storm events (Su et al., 2015). Vertical structures in
10 chlorophyll-*a* below the meter scale (thin layers) as recently observed by gliders and Scanfish
11 (Sections 5.2, 5.9) as a persistent feature indicate that a considerable amount of primary
12 production takes place unnoticed from satellite observations and, as a consequence, also from
13 many modeling studies. A model validation using COSYNA data thus helps to significantly
14 improve estimates of total primary production of the German Bight.

15 **8 Data Management and Data Products**

16 **8.1 Data Management**

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

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



1 Another important aspect of CODM is the use of standardised metadata that are adapted for
2 the use in direct web service requests (Fig. 27). Two types of metadata are used in CODM:
3 For observations, the first type describes an observational platform, its sensors, and observed
4 properties, the second type describes the observed data.

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

12 The observational data have to pass a number of automated and supervised tests, before they
13 become publically accessible in the data portal. Depending on the test results for range, stuck
14 values, spikes, and – for some parameters – gradients quality flags are assigned to the data.
15 The procedures and quality flags are in line with international guidelines (Breitbach et al.,
16 2016; SeaDataNet, 2010).

17 CODM is a publically available Open Data portal. There are no restrictions or fees for
18 downloading and using the data, but CODM requires a basic user registration. Users are asked
19 to provide country of origin, a user category, and the city. No other personal information is
20 mandatory. Users are also asked to acknowledge COSYNA as data source in their
21 publications. The majority of users are in the science sector followed by administration (Fig.
22 29).

23 **8.2 Data Products**

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

27 a) High-resolution time series at fixed positions: Meteorological, oceanographic, water
28 quality, and biological parameters are continuously observed at the measuring poles (Section
29 5.1) Spiekeroog, Hörnum Deep, and Elbe, the research platform FINO3 (Section 5.1.2), and at
30 the stationary FerryBox systems in Cuxhaven and Helgoland (Section 5.4).



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

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

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

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

15 The pre-operational COSYNA wave forecast model system runs twice a day and provides a
16 72 h forecast on the regional scale for the North Sea and on the local scale for the German
17 Bight. Significant wave height, period, and total wave direction are calculated (Staneva et al.,
18 2014).

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

23 **9 Outreach and Stakeholder Interaction**

24 COSYNA aims to make scientific data, results, and data products publically available by
25 reaching out to different target groups and users, such as the scientific community, potential
26 users in business enterprises and authorities, and to the general public. To serve this purpose,
27 COSYNA publishes several print products in German and English that are publically
28 available for download at the COSYNA website, or can be ordered. Flyers and more
29 comprehensive brochures provide an overview of the goals, approaches, activities, and results
30 of COSYNA. The annual progress reports are intended for COSYNA partners and users and
31 describe selected results and activities of the various working groups and subprojects within



1 COSYNA. Newsletter and product fact sheets provide COSYNA partners and users as well as
2 interest groups or the general public with information on activities, events, or data products.

3 COSYNA maintains the website www.cosyna.de that informs about motivation, approach,
4 observations, modelling, products, and outreach activities. The COSYNA data portal is linked
5 to that web site and provides access to data download and visualisation. On average, the
6 COSYNA website has been visited by more than 500 different external visitors per month.

7 Furthermore, COSYNA has developed an interactive app with versions for iPad and other
8 tablet PCs as well as Android and iOS based smartphones. The app provides explanatory texts
9 and pictures describing the observing systems, instruments, models and products, as well as
10 the COSYNA partners. Near real-time data for several platforms are available. COSYNA is
11 also presenting the app in permanent exhibits in museums, or temporarily at public events or
12 trade shows.

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

24 **10 Conclusions and Outlook**

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



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

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

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

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

30 New partners are joining COSYNA: GEOMAR in Kiel and the Franzius-Institute for
31 Hydraulic, Estuarine, and Coastal Engineering at the University of Hannover have recently
32 agreed to become COSYNA partners. For the future, discussions with international partner



1 will be sought and international cooperation will be intensified – in particular with the
2 countries bordering the North Sea.

3 While COSYNA has evolved into a well-established integrated pre-operational observing
4 system, research will become more central to defining COSYNA's endeavors. Utilizing the
5 combined expertise of its various partner institutions, COSYNA's science foci will include
6 biogeochemical cycles from rivers to the North Sea and the Northern Atlantic, the role of
7 wind farms for physical, biogeochemical, and biological processes in the coastal ocean as
8 well as associated engineering questions, Land – Wadden Sea – North Sea exchange
9 processes with an extensive experiment spanning from the Netherlands, along the German
10 coast to Denmark involving physics and biogeochemistry, and exploration of the possibilities
11 and challenges associated with citizen science.

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1 Table 1. Standard COSYNA observables.

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

2

3 Table 2. Fixed platforms used in COSYNA. Abbreviations: M: meteorology, P: physical

4 oceanography, B: biogeochemistry. For abbreviations of the partner institutions see Section 1.

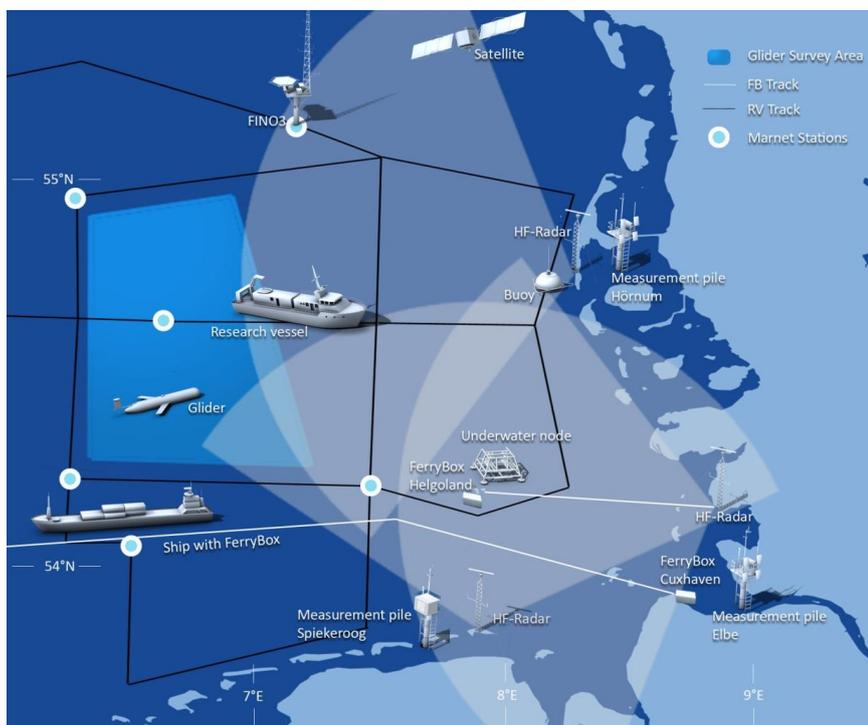
Platform	Years	Position	Mean tidal range [m]	Parameters	Partners
Pole Hörnum Deep	2002-2013 (Mar-Nov)	54°47.6'N 008°27.1'E	2.3	M, P, B	HZG
Pole Elbe Estuary	2012-2013 (Mar-Nov)	53°51.5'N 008°56.6'E	2.8	M, P, B	HPA, HZG
Pole Spiekeroog	2002-now (year round)	53°45.0'N 007° 40.3'E	2.8	M, P, B	ICBM
FerryBox 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



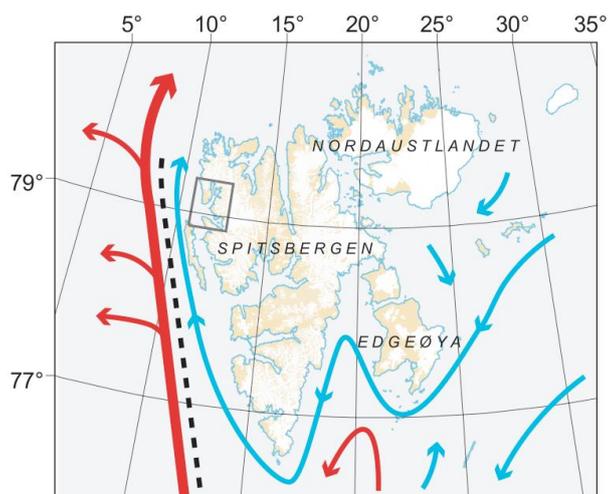
1 Table 3. Moving Platforms used in COSYNA. Time resolution is given between repeated
 2 measurements at the same location. Abbreviations: M: meteorology, P: physical
 3 oceanography, B: biogeochemistry; S: water surface, U: upper water column, FC: Full water
 4 column. The abbreviations of the partner institutions are explained in Section 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
HF radar	S	20 min.	P	HZG
Satellites	S	2 times in 3 days	B	HZG
Ship surveys	FC	months	M, P, B	HZG

5



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

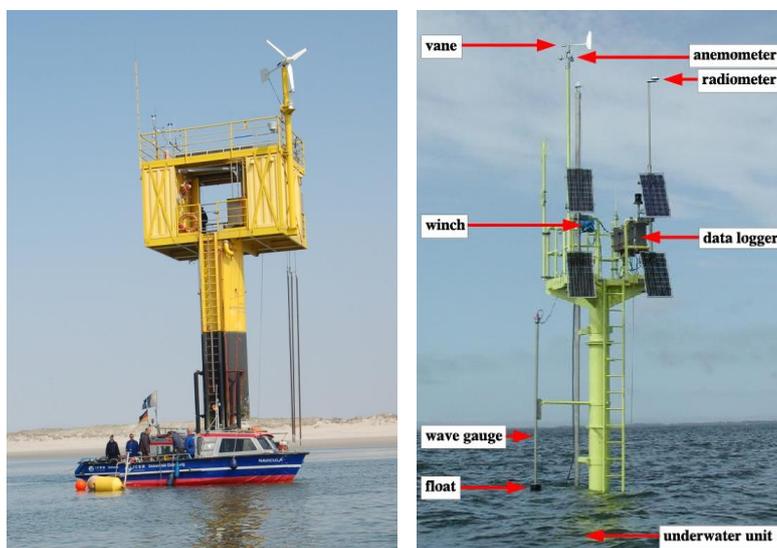


4
 5 Fig. 2. Spitsbergen with Kongsfjord (small rectangle) at the west coast of Svalbard. Arrows
 6 indicate the warmer Atlantic water masses (red) from the West Spitsbergen current and by
 7 colder less saline Arctic water (blue) from the East Spitsbergen (Cottier et al., 2005).



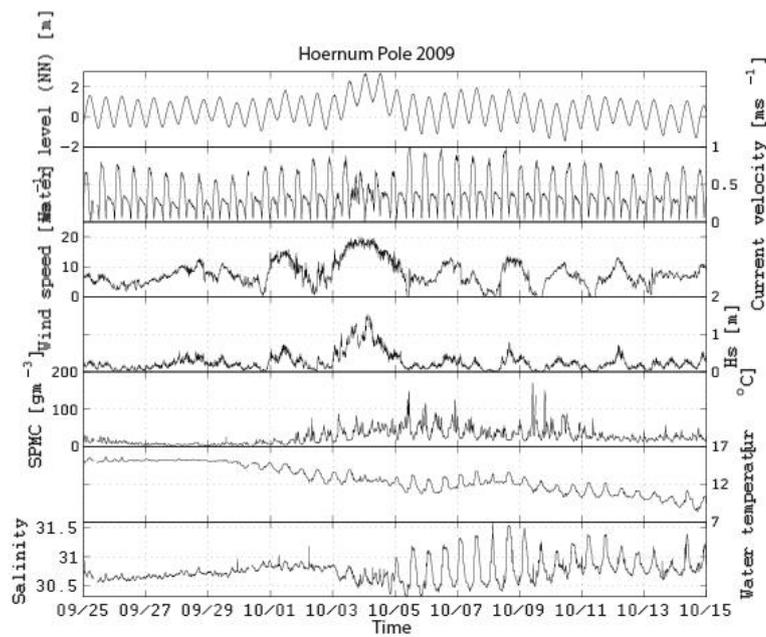
1

2 Fig. 3. Research village Ny-Ålesund. 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

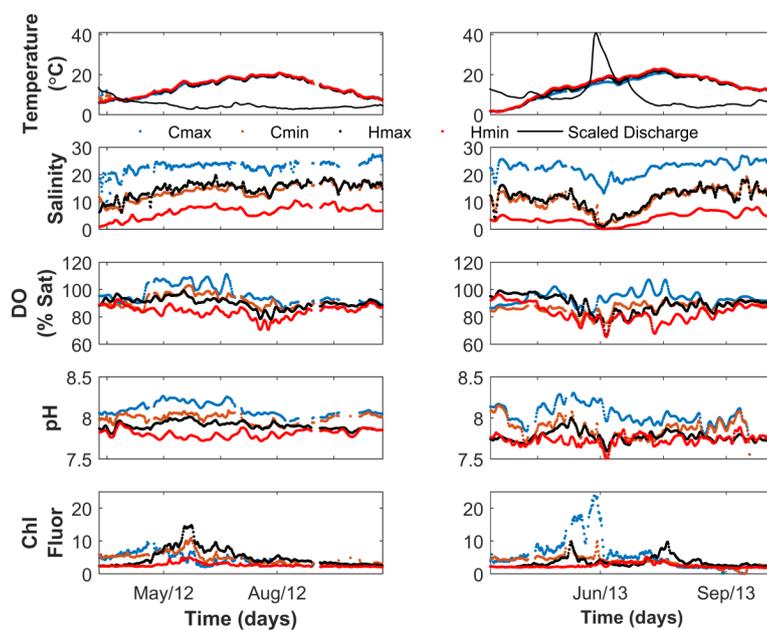
6 Fig. 4. The measuring poles at Spiekeroog and in the inner Hörnum tidal basin.



1

2 Fig. 5. Time-series of the measuring pole in the Hörnum tidal basin showing one week of data
3 with a sampling frequency of 10 min.

4



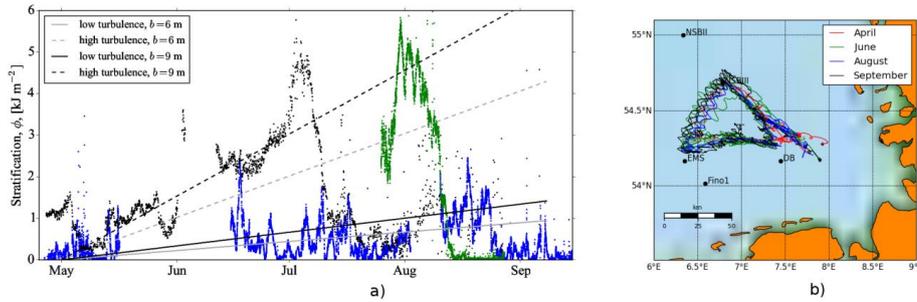
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2 Fig. 6. Time series of the stationary FerryBox located at Cuxhaven at the Elbe river mouth for
3 2012 (left panels) and 2013 (right panels). Top to bottom: water temperature and Elbe river
4 discharge ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) at Neu Darchau station scaled by dividing it by 100 (thin black line),
5 salinity, dissolved oxygen saturation, pH, chlorophyll-a fluorescence. Shown are the
6 Cuxhaven values at low tide (brown, Cmin), high tide (blue, Cmax) and from the Elbe estuary
7 measurement pole at low tide (red, Hmin) and high tide (black, Hmax).
8



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10 Fig. 7. Ocean Glider surfacing to submit data to shore. The glider is equipped with CTD,
11 optical sensors, and an additional turbulence sensor.



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Fig. 8. Left panel: Glider observations showing the build-up of stratification in 2012 and 2014. The stratification is expressed as the energy required to fully mix the water column. It is computed as $\theta(t) = \int_0^H [\rho_{mix} - \rho(z, t)]gz dz$, where H is the water depth, ρ the density, g the gravitational acceleration, and z and t the vertical coordinate and time (Carpenter et al., 2016). Right panel: glider tracks in 2012.

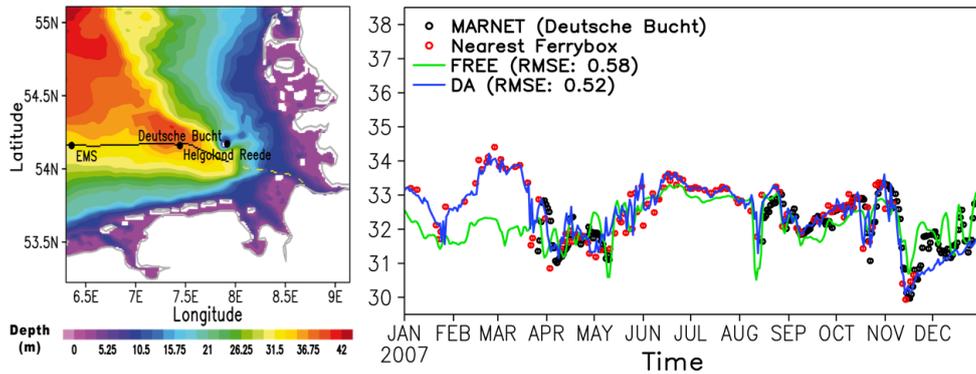


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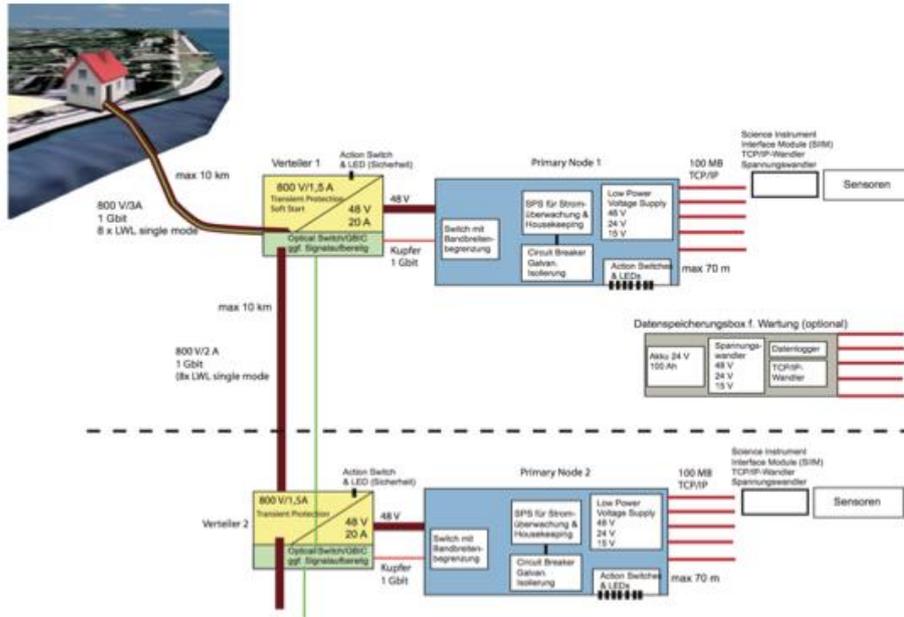
Fig. 9. HF radar system in the German Bight with its three stations in Büsum and on the isles of Sylt and Wangerooge. The right panel shows an example of the 2D-current field derived from overlapping radar signals.



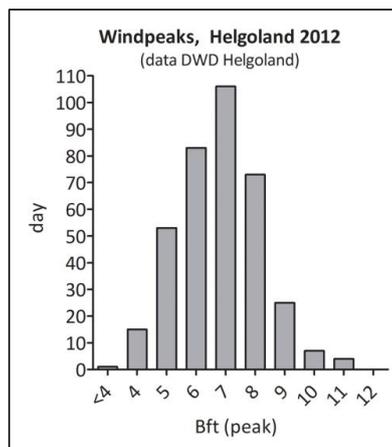
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 2 Fig. 10. Map of FerryBox routes and stationary platforms equipped with FerryBoxes.



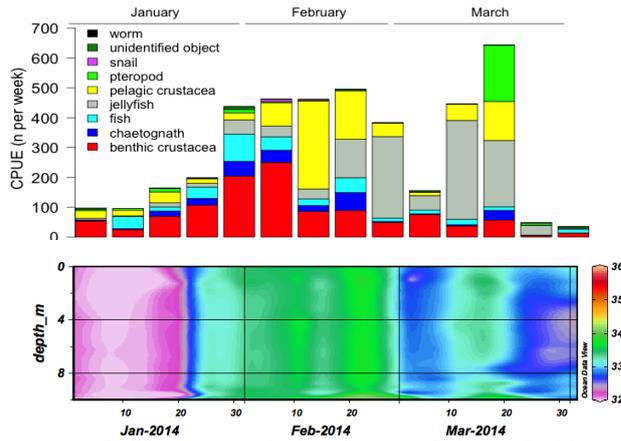
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 4 Fig. 11. Left panel: Topography of German Bight and FerryBox track. Right panel:
 5 Comparison of simulated sea surface temperature from a free model run and a run with data
 6 assimilation (DA) against MARNET and nearest FerryBox observations (Grayek et al., 2011).



1
 2 Fig. 12. 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 primary node, (4) sensors attached to first node, (5) cable connection (max. 10 km) to a
 5 second underwater node, and (6) second underwater node. A third node can be connected.



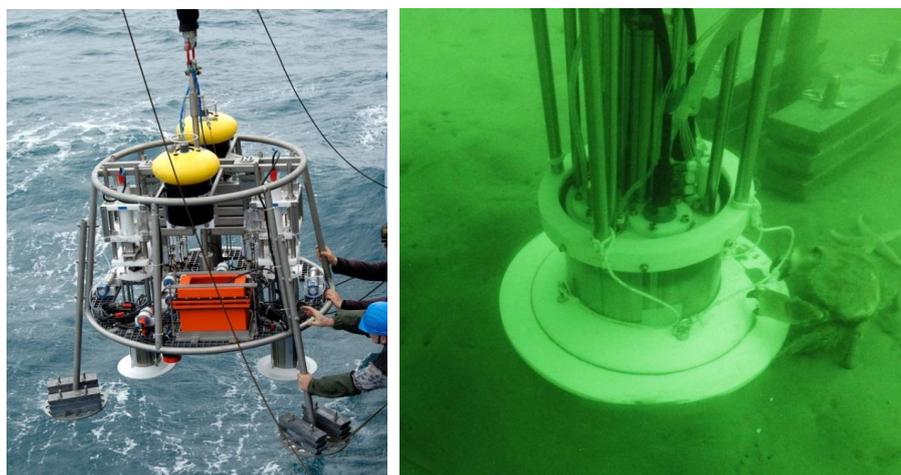
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 7 Fig. 13. Number of days per year with windpeaks above a certain wind force at the island of
 8 Helgoland (Source: Deutscher Wetterdienst).



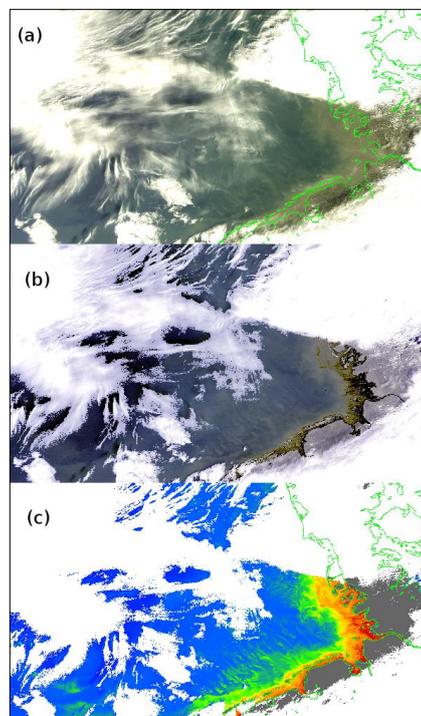
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 2 Fig. 14. Upper panel: The temporal abundances of the main biota groups assessed with a
 3 stereo-optic sensor attached to the Underwater-Node System in Spitsbergen. Lower panel: the
 4 temporal pattern of the temperature during the same time period measured with a vertical
 5 profiling CTD at the underwater node system.



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 7 Fig. 15. Deployment of landers a) SedObs (Photo by C. Walcher, AWI) and b) NuSObs.



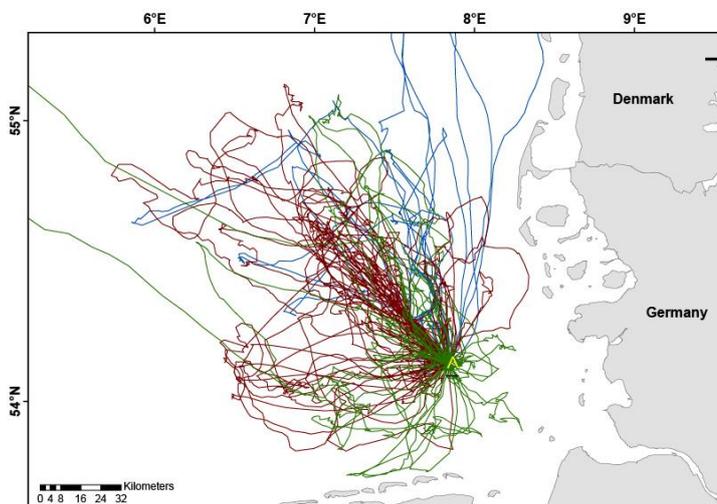
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2 Fig. 16. Left panel: lander FLUXSO deployed for autonomous sampling in June 2015; right
3 panel: sampling chambers in mobile fine sand at 25 m depth.



4
5 Fig. 17. Satellite scene of the German Bight taken on 2012-03-10 by MERIS. a) Radiance in
6 atmosphere; b) reflectance at the bottom of the atmosphere (after atmospheric correction); c)
7 chlorophyll concentration showing filaments of *phaeocystis* blooms along the west- and east-
8 Frisian coast.



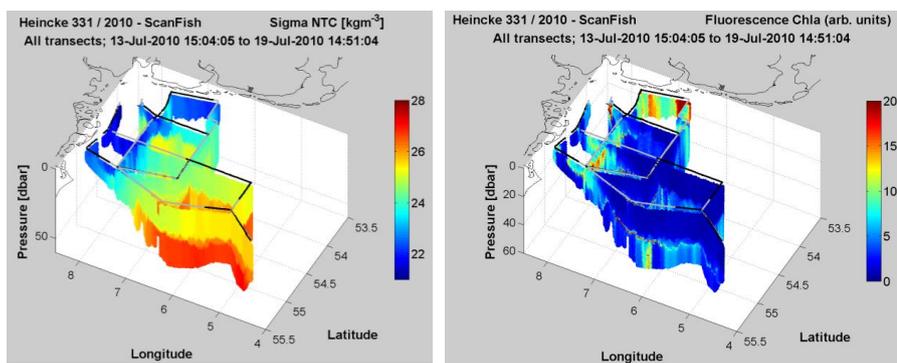
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2 Fig. 18. Solar-powered GPS data logger attached to a tail of a Northern Gannet (Photo: J.
3 Dierschke).



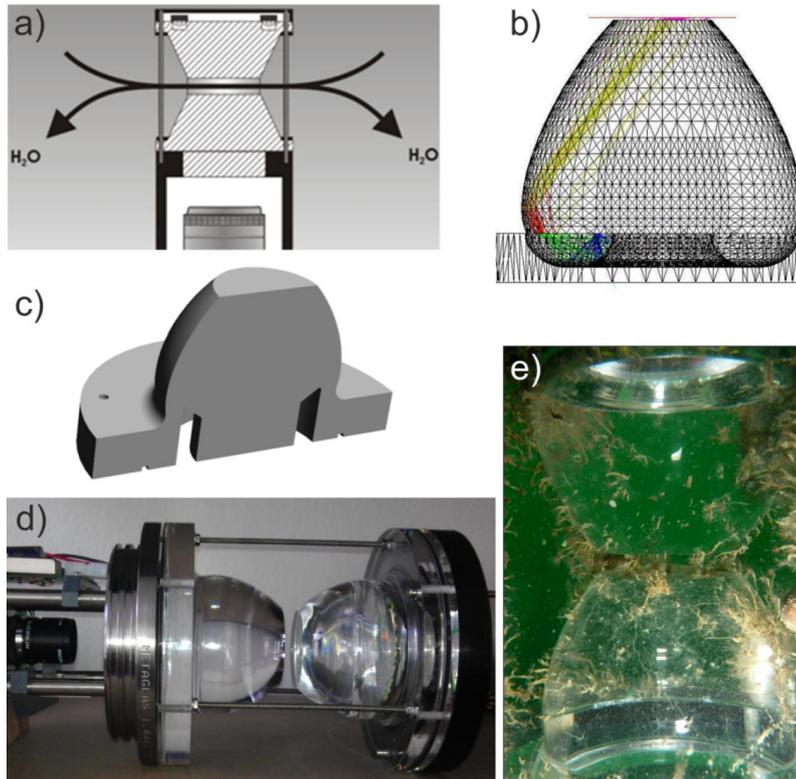
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5 Fig. 19. Foraging flights of three Northern Gannets (*Morus bassanus*) in 2015 starting from
6 Helgoland.



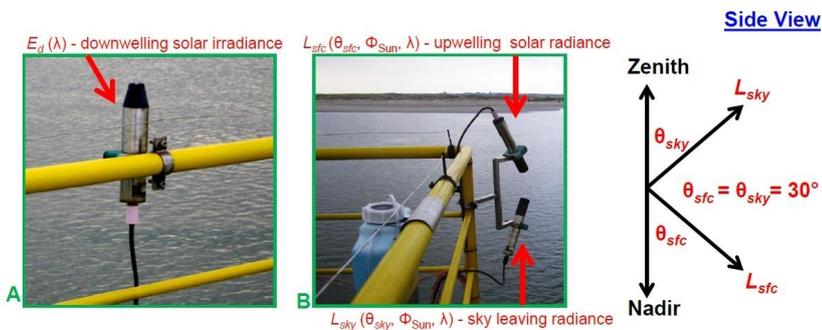
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2 Fig. 20. Scanfish used on regular ship surveys.
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5 Fig. 21. Spatial distribution of σ_T and chlorophyll-*a* observed during RV Heincke Cruise
6 HE331 in July 2010.

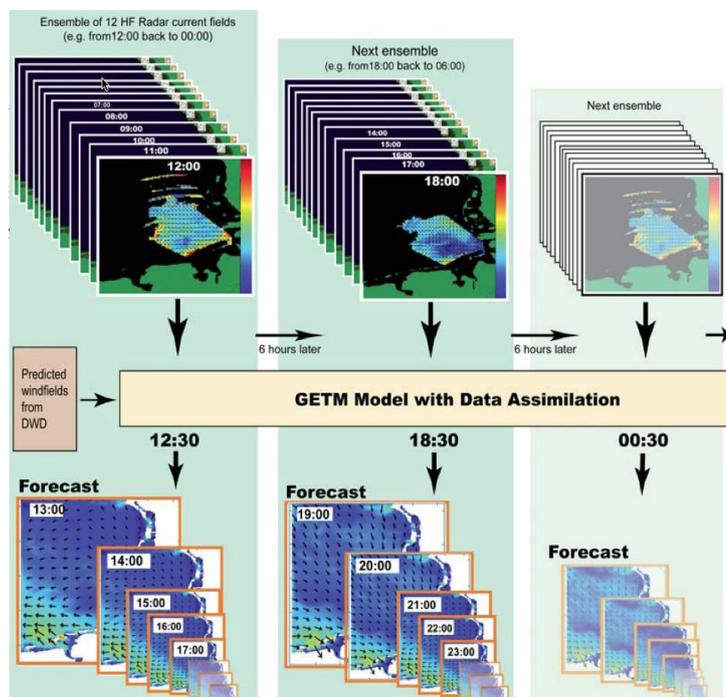


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 2 Fig. 22. Design of the LOKI imaging head for moored operation. a) Schematic overview. b)
 3 Ray-tracing design-model to investigate the best shape to increase efficiency. c) Cross-section
 4 of a 3D-model. The LEDs of the flash unit are positioned 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.

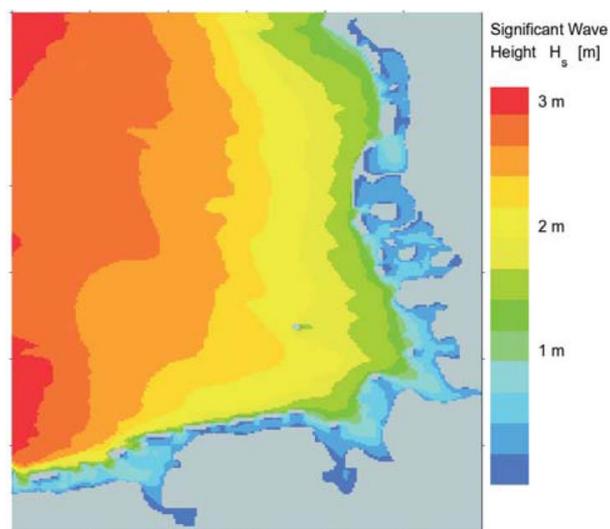


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 10 Fig. 23. Setup of RAMSES radiometers at the Wadden Sea measurement pole Spiekeroog.

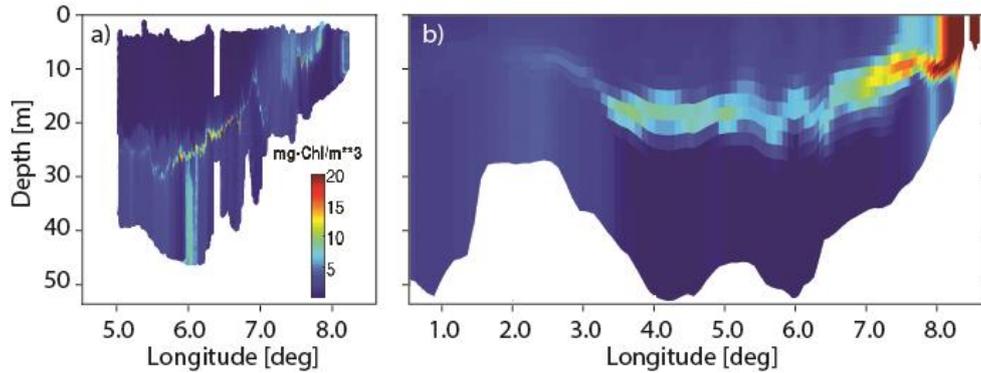
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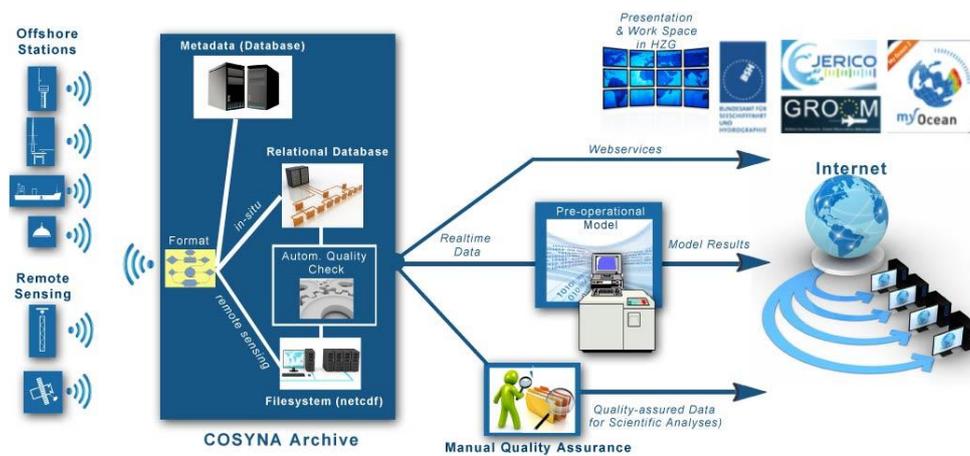
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 2 Fig. 24. The functioning of data assimilation and forecasting in the pre-operational COSYNA
 3 system. HF radar system covering the German Bight. Radial current components are sent to
 4 the HZG data server, where current vectors are calculated and presented on the COSYNA
 5 data portal (Stanev et al., 2015).



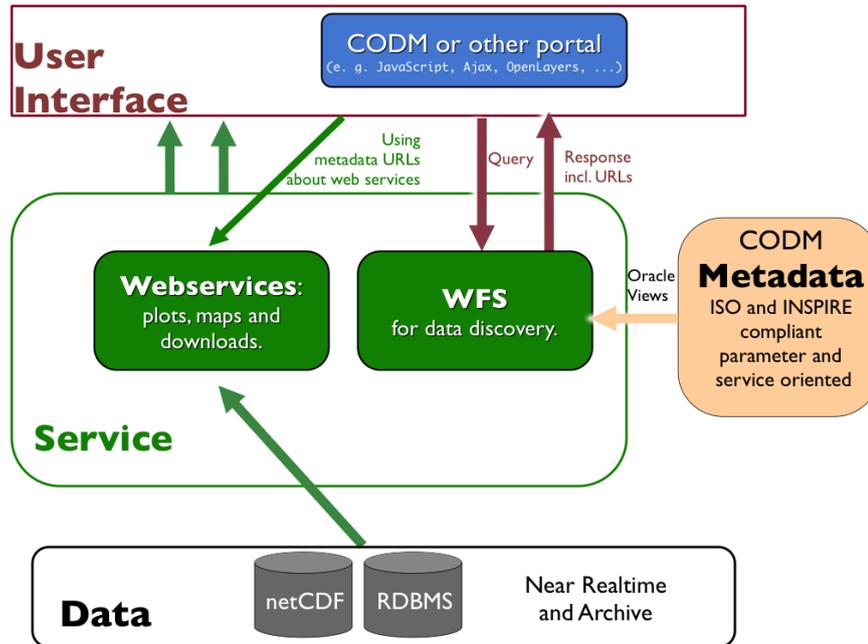
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 7 Fig. 25. Significant wave height calculated for the German Bay on 21 April 2010 with the
 8 WAM wave model used in COSYNA.



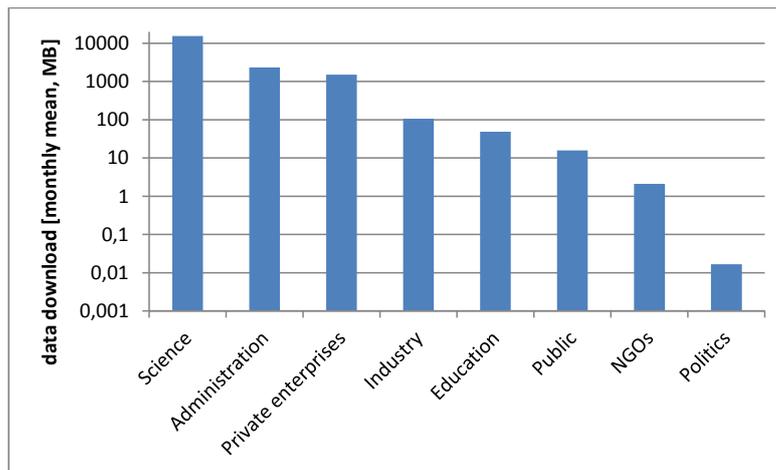
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 2 Fig. 26. Chlorophyll transects around 55°15' latitude in the German Bight
 3 a) observed with a Scanfish in July 2010 (Section 5.9) and b) as result
 4 of a coupled GETM and an adaptive ecosystem model showing a 1-week mean
 5 (Wirtz and Kerimoglu, submitted).



6
 7 Fig. 27: Data Flow in COSYNA.



1
 2 Fig. 28. 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. 29. 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.