

# A Global Ocean Observing System (GOOS), delivered through enhanced collaboration across regions, communities, and new technologies

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28 **Abstract**

29 Since OceanObs'09, the Global Ocean Observing System (GOOS) has evolved from its traditional  
30 focus on the ocean's role in global climate. GOOS now also encompasses operational services and

31 marine ecosystem health, from the open ocean into coastal environments where much of the world's  
32 population resides. This has opened a field of opportunity for new collaborations—across regions,  
33 communities, and technologies—facilitating enhanced engagement in the global ocean observing  
34 enterprise to benefit all nations.

35 Enhancement of collaboration is considered from the perspectives of regional alliances, global  
36 networks, national systems, in situ observing, remote sensing, oceanography, and meteorology.

37 Reinvigoration of GOOS Regional Alliances has been important in connecting the power of this  
38 expanded remit to the needs of coastal populations and the capabilities of regional and national  
39 marine science communities. An assessment of progress is provided, including issues/challenges with  
40 the current structure, and opportunities to increase participation and impact.

41 Meeting the expanded requirements of GOOS will entail new system networks. The Joint Technical  
42 Commission for Oceanography and Marine Meteorology Observations Coordination Group has been  
43 working with some communities to help assess readiness, including high frequency radars, ocean  
44 gliders, and animal tracking. Much more needs to be done, with a range of strategies considered.  
45 Other opportunities include partnering with programs such as the Global Ocean Acidification  
46 Observing Network, engaging with mature and emerging national ocean observing programs, and  
47 learning from multinational projects such as Tropical Pacific Observing System 2020 and AtlantOS,  
48 which are bringing renewed rigor to the design and operation of regional observing systems.

49 Consideration is given to the expansion and advancement that is coming in both in situ and remote  
50 sensing ocean observation platforms over the next decade. In combination they provide the potential  
51 to measure new Essential Ocean Variables routinely at global scale.

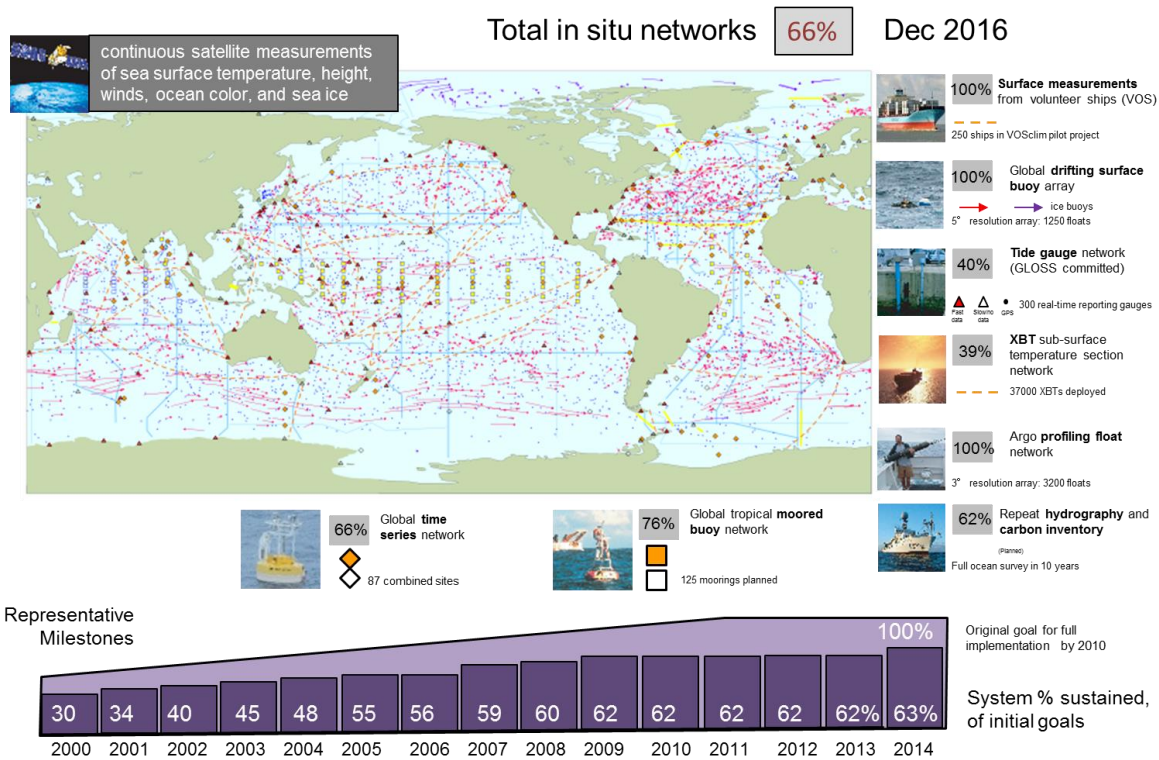
52 Opportunities provided by the World Meteorological Organization Integrated Global Observing  
53 System (WIGOS) in fostering a comprehensive and integrated approach across meteorology and  
54 oceanography are also considered. The focus of WIGOS on providing accurate, reliable and timely  
55 weather, climate, and related environmental observations and products sits well with the expanded  
56 requirements of GOOS, in climate, operational services, and marine ecosystem health.

## 57 **1 The changing context for GOOS - from OceanObs'09 to OceanObs'19**

58 The genesis of the Global Ocean Observing System (GOOS) lies in the need to understand the  
59 ocean's role in global climate. In response to calls from the Second World Climate Conference, the  
60 Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (IOC) created GOOS in March 1991 (Jager and  
61 Ferguson, 1991). The first International Conference on the Ocean Observing System for Climate was  
62 held in San Rafael, France in October 1999 ('OceanObs'99') (Drinkwater et al., 1999).

63 Tremendous progress was made in our ability to observe the ocean globally between the creation of  
64 GOOS in 1991 and the second International Conference on Ocean Observing held in Venice in  
65 September 2009 (OceanObs'09) (Anderson, 2010). Examples include the Argo global profiling float  
66 array and virtual constellations of satellites measuring sea surface temperature, ocean color  
67 radiometry, ocean surface topography, and ocean surface vector winds.

68 Notwithstanding these achievements, implementation of GOOS in situ networks had plateaued at  
69 approximately 60% of design by the late 2000s (Figure 1).



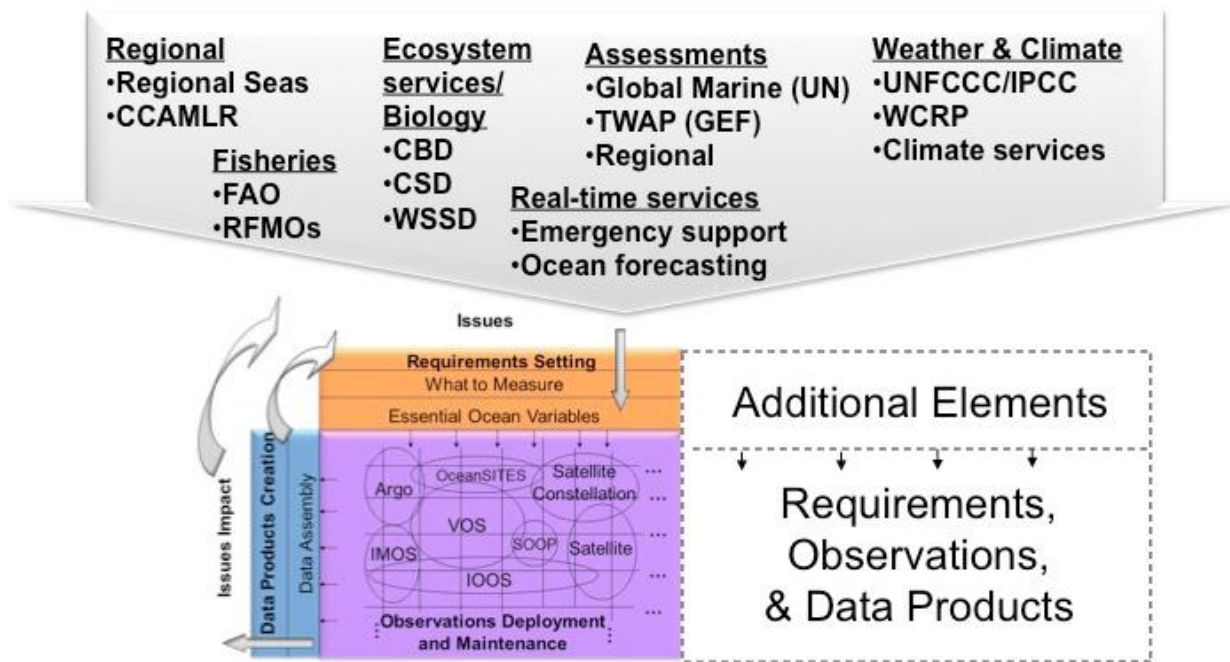
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71 **Figure 1. Implementation of GOOS in situ networks versus ‘design’ (IOC-UNESCO, 2018).**

72 Recognizing that GOOS needed to address requirements beyond the ocean’s role in global climate, a  
 73 key recommendation from OceanObs’09 was for international integration and coordination of  
 74 interdisciplinary ocean observations. The OceanObs’09 sponsors commissioned a Task Team to  
 75 respond to this challenge, leading to the development of *A Framework for Ocean Observing*, released  
 76 in 2012 (Lindstrom et al., 2012).

77 The Framework for Ocean Observing applied a systems approach to sustained global ocean  
 78 observing. It used Essential Ocean Variables (EOVs) as the common focus and defined the system  
 79 based on requirements, observations, and data and information as the key components. Importantly it  
 80 incorporated both coastal and open ocean observations. Assessment of feasibility, capacity, and  
 81 impact for each of the three system components was based on readiness levels, i.e., concept, pilot,  
 82 and mature.

83 It is the expansion of requirements for GOOS beyond weather and climate that is most significant in  
 84 the context of this paper. Regional and global ocean assessments, fisheries management, ecosystem  
 85 services, and real-time services have become drivers for GOOS over the last decade (Figure 2).  
 86



87

88 **Figure 2. Framework for Ocean Observing, societal drivers for the next decade (Lindstrom et**  
 89 **al., 2012).**

90 GOOS now seeks to coordinate observations around the global ocean for three critical themes:  
 91 climate, operational services, and marine ecosystem health (GOOS, 2018a). This has opened up a  
 92 field of opportunity for new collaborations to be formed—across regions, communities, and  
 93 technologies—facilitating much enhanced engagement in the global ocean observing enterprise.

94 The governance of GOOS needed to change in response to these expanded requirements; therefore, a  
 95 three-tiered governance model was implemented. A multinational steering committee was established  
 96 to provide oversight (tier one). Scientific expert panels were formed to guide system requirements.  
 97 Pre-existing structures were evolved to create discipline-based panels, providing scientific oversight  
 98 on physics, biogeochemistry, and biology/ecosystems (tier two). Efforts were also made to connect  
 99 with and reinvigorate observation coordination groups involved in implementation at global and  
 100 regional scales (tier three): the Joint Technical Commission for Oceanography and Marine  
 101 Meteorology (JCOMM) Observations Coordination Group (OCG) and the GOOS Regional Alliance  
 102 (GRA) Council. The Chairs of JCOMM OCG and the GRA Council became ex-officio members of  
 103 the GOOS Steering Committee. Finite lifetime observing system development projects (called GOOS  
 104 pilot projects) were also introduced as a way of increasing the readiness of the observing system.  
 105 Under this revised governance model, the GOOS Project Office has responsibility for facilitating  
 106 collaboration between the three tiers.

107 In this paper we discuss progress in enhancing collaboration to meet the expanded requirements of  
 108 GOOS in climate, operational services, and marine ecosystem health. Collaboration is considered  
 109 among national systems, regional alliances, and global networks, in situ observing and remote  
 110 sensing, and oceanography and meteorology.

111 The role of GRAs is considered in section 2. GRAs are particularly important for incorporating both  
 112 coastal and open ocean observations, and for engaging with the users of operational services and the  
 113 beneficiaries of marine ecosystem health. Efforts to build capacity within the GRA Council since  
 114 OceanObs'09 are ongoing.

115 The need for GOOS to embrace new observations and data is considered in section 3. The expanded  
116 requirements of GOOS in 2019 will not be met by a system designed in the 1990s. New EOVs for  
117 biogeochemistry (e.g., oxygen), and biology/ecosystems (e.g., zooplankton biomass and diversity,  
118 fish distribution, and abundance), need to be measured by platforms and sensors with the requisite  
119 level of technological readiness. Expanding spatial coverage of physical observing into coastal  
120 oceans requires additional technologies (e.g., high frequency (HF) radars, ocean gliders). Global  
121 coordination of these additional networks presents a challenge for JCOMM OCG and others. That  
122 said, the fact that several GRAs are already operating some of these networks provides a basis for  
123 multinational coordination that can be leveraged. Partnerships with programs such as the Global  
124 Ocean Acidification Observing Network (GOA-ON) and other programs centered around EOVs  
125 rather than platforms provide another opportunity. The need for new data and information systems  
126 and products is also a significant issue.

127 The importance of harnessing national efforts is considered in section 4. Most investment in global  
128 ocean observing comes through national programs and to some extent has been engaged through the  
129 GRA Council and JCOMM OCG (e.g., in the United States, Australia, European Union). In other  
130 cases, mature and emerging national programs have not yet been engaged in GOOS through existing  
131 intergovernmental mechanisms (e.g., in India, Canada, South Africa). In addition, multinational  
132 projects such as Tropical Pacific Observing System (TPOS) 2020 and AtlantOS are bringing renewed  
133 rigor to the design and operation of regional observing systems. Some of these systems are funded on  
134 a project basis with limited consideration given to sustaining them. How these systems are governed  
135 on an ongoing basis will be significant in a GRA context. Harnessing national efforts and regional  
136 collaborations is considered to be a major opportunity for GOOS in the coming decade.

137 Section 5 considers the great expansion and advancement that is coming in both in situ and remote  
138 sensing ocean observation platforms (e.g., unmanned surface vehicles, new advanced satellites). In  
139 combination, they provide the potential to measure new EOVs routinely at global scale. Enhanced  
140 collaboration between the in situ and remote sensing communities will deliver many benefits.  
141 Efficiencies will be gained through evaluation of requirements in an integrated manner. Effectiveness  
142 will be increased through development of blended products.

143 Section 6 considers the opportunities provided by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO)  
144 Integrated Global Observing System (WIGOS) in fostering a more comprehensive and integrated  
145 approach across meteorology and oceanography. Enhanced collaboration between these communities  
146 will allow end users to understand observational data more completely—and be assured that  
147 observations have been quality monitored and problems identified and fixed. Easier incorporation of  
148 partner networks and expansion of observations available will enable more comprehensive products  
149 to be generated for users. The focus of WIGOS is on provision of accurate, reliable and timely  
150 weather, climate, water and related environmental observations and products. This sits well with the  
151 expanded requirements of GOOS in climate, operational services, and marine ecosystem health.

152 Section 7 outlines the way ahead. Significant effort has been expended by the GOOS community  
153 over the last decade in setting requirements, specifying EOVs, improving observations coordination,  
154 and reinvigorating GRAs. We argue that the focus now needs to shift to ensuring the ocean observing  
155 system clearly demonstrates and is widely recognized for its fundamental role in delivery of climate  
156 services, weather prediction, regional and global ocean assessments, fisheries management,  
157 ecosystem services, and real-time services.

158 **2 Think global, act local – challenges and opportunities in collaborating across GOOS**  
159 **Regional Alliances**

160 There has been a concerted effort over the past decade to reinvigorate the GRAs in response to  
161 challenges and opportunities identified at OceanObs’09, and through development of the Framework  
162 for Ocean Observing. Several initiatives have been undertaken to increase understanding and  
163 awareness, enhance collaboration, and build capacity. While good progress has been made, much  
164 more needs to be done in the coming decade if GRAs are to realize their potential in contributing to  
165 the vision and mission of GOOS.

166 **2.1 What are GRAs?**

167 GRAs identify, enable, and develop sustained GOOS ocean monitoring and services to meet regional  
168 and national priorities, aligning the global goals of GOOS with the need for services and products  
169 satisfying local requirements (IOC-UNESCO, 2013). Historically, the GRAs were introduced as a  
170 way to integrate national needs into a regional system and to deliver the benefits of GOOS strategy,  
171 structure, and programs at a regional and national level. The first GRA was formed in 1994, and the  
172 most recent addition was in 2014. There are now thirteen GRAs (see Table 1).

173 The leads of each GRA come together to form a GRA Council, which elects a Chair for a two-year  
174 term, with a second term allowed. The Council can also elect a Deputy Chair to assist the Chair. A  
175 GOOS Regional Forum is held every two years, organized by the Chair with support from the GOOS  
176 Project Office. Between forum meetings, an action agenda is progressed through regular  
177 teleconferences. The GRA Council Chair is an *ex officio* member of the GOOS Steering Committee.

178 **2.2 How the GRAs are governed**

179 There is significant heterogeneity in the governance and funding of GRAs. Six GRAs are formed  
180 under IOC sub-commissions or related intergovernmental structures. Four are formed under  
181 memorandums of understanding. One is an international nonprofit association, and two are funded  
182 national government programs.

183 **Table 1: Summary of GRA governance structures (GOOS, 2018b)**

GRA Name	Region	Governance structure
Black Sea GOOS	Black Sea	Memorandum of Association
EuroGOOS	Europe	International nonprofit association under Belgian law, fee-based membership
GOOS Africa	African continent	Under IOC Sub-commission for Africa and adjacent island states
GRASP	South America, Pacific Coast	Under Permanent Commission for the South Pacific (CPPS)
IMOS	Australia	Federal funding as a national research infrastructure
IOCARIBE GOOS	Caribbean	Under IOC Sub-commission for the Caribbean (IOCARIBE)
IO-GOOS	Indian Ocean	Memorandum of Association
IOOS	U.S.	Federal funding supported by legislation
MONGOOS	Mediterranean	Memorandum of Association
NEAR-GOOS	North East Asia	Under IOC Sub-commission for Western Pacific (WESTPAC)
OCEATLAN	South America, Atlantic Coast	Memorandum of Understanding
PI-GOOS	Pacific Islands	Under Pacific Islands Applied Geoscience Commission and Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environment Programme (since 2009)
SEA-GOOS	South East Asia	Under IOC Sub-commission for Western Pacific (WESTPAC)

184

185 Most GRAs can access funding only through ad hoc projects, if at all. Only IOOS and IMOS have  
 186 program budgets, with EuroGOOS having a member fee base.

187 Recent efforts across the GRAs have recognized this heterogeneity and taken a multifaceted approach  
 188 to enhancing collaboration across regions, communities, and technologies. In this section we consider  
 189 initiatives undertaken by the GRA Council to increase understanding and awareness, increase  
 190 collaboration, and build capacity. As GOOS expands to include new observing networks (section 3)  
 191 and better embrace national and multinational capabilities (section 4), the potential contribution of a  
 192 strengthened GRA network to the GOOS vision and mission is increasingly being recognized.  
 193 Consideration will need to be given as to whether the current GRA structure is fit for this purpose.

194 **2.3 GRA initiatives since OceanObs'09**

195 Since OceanObs'09, the better resourced GRAs have taken greater responsibility for leadership  
 196 within the GRA Council. IOOS was elected Chair for 2012 and 2013, and again for 2014 and 2015

197 with IMOS as Deputy Chair. IMOS was elected Chair for 2016 and 2017, with EuroGOOS as Deputy  
198 Chair. EuroGOOS was elected Chair for 2018 and 2019, with IO-GOOS as Deputy Chair. The  
199 intention has been to create a forum where those who are responsible for implementing regional  
200 ocean observing systems have the chance to exchange ideas, develop best practices, and work closer  
201 together.

### 202 **2.3.1 Assessments of GRAs**

203 An important step was the completion of self-assessments by GRAs during 2012. These assessments  
204 included basic information on governance and management, societal benefit areas being addressed,  
205 types of observation technologies being operated, and data management arrangements. The  
206 assessments were summarized and discussed at GOOS Regional Forum VI in 2013, providing a basis  
207 for identifying priorities to increase collaboration and build capacity (Fischer and Willis, 2013).

208 The assessments dispelled the notion that GRAs supported only the coastal component of GOOS,  
209 highlighting that several GRAs had evolved to meet a wide range of societal challenges related to  
210 both the coastal and open ocean observations. They revealed that GRAs had been active in embracing  
211 new networks (see section 3), consistent with the expanded vision and mission of GOOS. Five GRAs  
212 were operating HF radar networks, seven were operating ocean gliders, five were operating animal  
213 tagging programs, and six were operating ocean acidification networks. The assessments also  
214 highlighted the operational modeling capacities within GRAs.

215 With support from the GOOS Steering Committee (via the U.S. National Aeronautics and Space  
216 Administration [NASA]), an external review and analysis of all of the detailed inputs to the GRA  
217 assessments was then undertaken (GOOS, 2015). The review report was presented at the GOOS  
218 Regional Forum VII in 2015 and included a number of actions and recommendations for the GRA  
219 Council and the GOOS Project Office (GOOS, 2017).

### 220 **2.3.2 Mapping ocean observing assets**

221 Catalyzed by the assessment, a global inventory of ocean observing assets was established based on  
222 metadata and data supplied from GRAs. A key motivation was to encourage use of international  
223 metadata and data exchange standards across the GRAs consistent with the GOOS Regional Policy.  
224 The asset map includes most platform types and most ocean regions. It is updated periodically and  
225 maintained by the European Marine Observations and Data Network (EMODNet). The number of  
226 platforms displayed on the asset map has increased three-fold between the 2015 and 2017 GOOS  
227 Regional Forum meetings.

### 228 **2.3.3 Development of an ocean modeling inventory**

229 In order to promote a value chain approach to ocean observing, the GRAs also compiled an inventory  
230 of operational ocean modeling activities. Information on the spatial extent and parameters output  
231 (state variables) of each model was provided using an internet-based mapping tool (EuroGOOS,  
232 2018). GRAs can update this resource as new models for their region are developed providing useful  
233 guidance to users contemplating the use of such models.

### 234 **2.3.4 GOOS pilot projects**

235 The GOOS Steering Committee has identified focused, finite lifetime development projects (GOOS  
236 pilot projects) as an effective way to drive the development of the global ocean observing system—  
237 both for redesigning mature observing systems and for expanding the observing system into new  
238 areas. The Tropical Pacific Observing System (TPOS) 2020 project was an early example. Initially it



239 appeared that GOOS pilot projects would be selected by the Steering Committee or developed  
240 through the Expert Panels. At the GOOS Regional Forum VII in 2015, it was proposed that GRAs  
241 also develop and propose GOOS pilot projects (GOOS, 2017).

242 The GRA Council saw this as being a particularly important development. It is impossible to identify  
243 priorities benefiting all GRAs because of their significant heterogeneity. It is much more plausible  
244 for subsets of GRAs with different levels of capability and capacity to come together around issues of  
245 common interest. GOOS pilot projects provide a mechanism to do this.

246 During late 2015/early 2016 the first GRA pilot project was developed. MONGOOS and GOOS  
247 Africa (with support from IOOS and EuroGOOS) developed a MEditerranean Sea-level Change And  
248 Tsunamis (MESCAT) project. Its aims were to (a) create a tide gauge network covering all coasts of  
249 the Mediterranean Sea, (b) make sea level projections and impact studies in the Mediterranean Sea,  
250 and (c) develop capacity in North African nations to operate and maintain the network. The GRA  
251 Council also identified opportunities to develop similar multi-GRA pilot projects in the Caribbean  
252 and in the Pacific Islands.

253 The GOOS Steering Committee approved MESCAT as a GOOS pilot project in June 2016; however,  
254 it has yet to secure funding (GOOS, 2016).

## 255 **2.4 Concluding remarks**

256 Notwithstanding progress over the last decade, significant heterogeneity in the governance and  
257 funding of GRAs continues to provide challenges.

258 Several GRAs are founded on governance agreements that do not easily allow the addition of new  
259 partners. Stakeholder feedback suggests that GOOS needs to become more inclusive of ocean  
260 observing efforts relevant to its expanded vision and mission, and more creative in facilitating  
261 expansion and growth. This is particularly the case for biological EOVs and for continental shelf and  
262 coastal marine systems, where societal benefit is highest.

263 Opportunities do exist to address this challenge. Taking advantage of the GOOS Steering Committee  
264 meeting held in Colombia in June 2018, a GOOS South American Regional Workshop was  
265 organized to discuss regional projects and national strategies on marine monitoring in this region  
266 (GOOS, 2018c). The workshop was acknowledged as an historic event that gathered key players and  
267 communities from across South America who share a common interest in realizing the vision and  
268 mission of GOOS, and whose plans are thus well aligned with the decadal strategy of GOOS. It  
269 highlighted the fact that significant capability exists within the region that is not currently engaged  
270 with the GRA structures. We must understand the impediments and work to remove them.

271 Scarcity of funding to support multinational ocean observing efforts and genuine capacity  
272 development within nations is also serious challenge. The GRA Council has shown it is capable of  
273 developing projects to address regional priorities and develop national capacity – projects that are  
274 worthy of endorsement by the GOOS Steering Committee. However, if there are no mechanisms to  
275 fund such projects, the contribution of some GRAs towards the vision and mission of GOOS will  
276 continue to be heavily constrained.

277 It is hoped that the United Nations Decade of Ocean Science for Sustainable Development will  
278 provide new opportunities to address this challenge.

279 **3 The need new observations and data, biological and coastal, to meet expanded**  
280 **requirements for GOOS**

281 GOOS now seeks to coordinate observations around the global ocean for three critical themes:  
282 climate, operational services, and marine ecosystem health. To address these expanded requirements,  
283 new observations and data are clearly needed. This is especially true for the measurement of  
284 biological EOVs and for extending GOOS from the open ocean into continental shelf and coastal  
285 systems.

286 **3.1 Bringing new observing technologies and networks into GOOS**

287 The ocean observing networks currently recognized as being part of GOOS are shown in Figure 1  
288 (section 1). There are other ocean observing networks in operation around the globe that can measure  
289 physical, biogeochemical, and biological EOVs across relevant time and space scales. GOOS needs  
290 to develop effective and efficient mechanisms to assess the readiness of new networks and facilitate  
291 their inclusion in the global system. These are not yet fully in place.

292 Here, the term ‘networks’ refers to capabilities to observe the ocean and includes both collaborative  
293 frameworks of people as well as observing technologies and data management practices from  
294 national observing systems. These are a different kind of ‘global’ network for GOOS. They do not  
295 necessarily have a global design, like Argo or satellite virtual constellations. There are ‘global’  
296 networks where national/regional programs use common technologies to answer common questions  
297 and are coming together to share, learn, build capacity, and work to common data standards enabling  
298 interoperability where required.

299 As noted in section 2, multiple GRAs are operating HF radar networks, ocean gliders, animal tagging  
300 programs, and ocean acidification networks. The GRA Council has advocated for formal inclusion of  
301 these networks into GOOS.

302 **3.1.1 High frequency radar**

303 The Global High Frequency Radar Network (GHFRN) was established in 2012 as part of the Group  
304 on Earth Observations (GEO) to promote HF radar technology. At that time there was no opportunity  
305 to integrate this activity in GOOS. HF radar networks produce hourly maps of ocean surface currents  
306 within 200 kilometers of a coastline. The technology is becoming a standard component of regional  
307 ocean observing systems, and the growth of the network remains steady with approximately 400  
308 stations currently operating and collecting real-time surface current information. However only 2% of  
309 the world’s coastline is currently measured with this technology. There are approximately 281 sites  
310 reporting to the GEO list as of 2018. Approximately 140 installations are active in the Asia-Pacific  
311 region, and this number is expected to grow with new installations in the Philippines and Vietnam.  
312 The number of organizations displaying surface current information on the GHFRN web page has  
313 also increased from seven in November 2016 to thirteen today.

314 The GHFRN is aiming to standardize data formats across the regions, develop quality control  
315 standards and emerging applications of HF radar measurements, and accelerate the assimilation of  
316 the surface current measurements into ocean and ecosystem models. Participation in JCOMM OCG  
317 has been important in furthering these data goals. The GRA Council has advocated for inclusion of  
318 HF radar as an observing element within GOOS and helped to facilitate development of a Network  
319 Specification Sheet for approval by the GOOS Steering Committee. However, this is yet to be  
320 achieved.

### 321 **3.1.2 Ocean gliders**

322 Underwater ocean gliders serve as a unique and versatile observation platform. They can conduct  
323 sustained autonomous subsurface ocean data collection in critical data-sparse areas that prove  
324 challenging for other observation platforms. As glider operations at institutional and national levels  
325 have grown and matured, the benefits and opportunities of regional and international collaboration  
326 have been recognized.

327 Regionally, glider operators have come together to form user groups such as Everyone’s Glider  
328 Observatory (EGO) and the Underwater Glider User Group (UG2) to share best practices, improve  
329 operational reliability and data management, and work together to improve glider monitoring, ocean  
330 observing, and development of the glider platform. Internationally, the OceanGliders group has  
331 evolved to serve this purpose. The OceanGliders group has formed task teams to focus international  
332 glider efforts in the priority areas of boundary currents, storms, water transformation, polar regions,  
333 and data management. The GRA Council is supporting these efforts, and the OceanGliders group is  
334 engaging with JCOMM OCG as an emerging network. It is expected that ocean gliders will  
335 eventually become recognized as an observing element within GOOS given their ability to collect  
336 biophysical measurements at a range of scales.

### 337 **3.1.3 Animal tracking**

338 The GOOS Biology and Ecosystems Panel was formed during 2013. By 2018, the panel had  
339 specified nine, new biological EOVs for GOOS. These include ‘fish abundance and distribution’ and  
340 ‘marine turtles, birds, mammal abundance and distribution.’ Animal tracking technologies (both  
341 acoustic and satellite) are widely used across the globe and can provide sustained observing of  
342 species distribution and abundance.

343 The Ocean Tracking Network (OTN) provides a global acoustic receiver infrastructure in all of the  
344 world’s five oceans (<http://oceantrackingnetwork.org/>). With investment by the Canadian  
345 government matched through international partnerships and collaborations, OTN has deployed over  
346 2,000 acoustic tracking stations (receivers) globally and tracks over 130 commercially, ecologically,  
347 and culturally valuable aquatic species.

348 Satellite tracking is being coordinated through the MEOP consortium, which stands for Marine  
349 Mammals Exploring the Oceans Pole to Pole (<http://www.meop.net/>). MEOP brings together several  
350 national programs to produce a comprehensive quality-controlled database of oceanographic data  
351 obtained in polar regions from instrumented marine mammals.

352 Several GRAs operate animal tracking programs and are working to support international animal  
353 tracking data standardization. The community is now engaged with JCOMM OCG as an emerging  
354 network under the title of ‘Animal-borne instrumentation.’

### 355 **3.1.4 Global Ocean Acidification Observing Network (GOA-ON)**

356 The Global Ocean Acidification Observing Network (<http://goa-on.org/>) is a collaborative  
357 international approach to document the status and progress of ocean acidification in open-ocean,  
358 coastal, and estuarine environments, to understand the drivers and impacts of ocean acidification on  
359 marine ecosystems, and to provide spatially and temporally resolved biogeochemical data necessary  
360 to optimize modeling for ocean acidification.

361 GRAs with ocean acidification (OA) programs focus their OA activities through GOA-ON and the  
362 GOA-ON Data Explorer. The data explorer provides access and visualization to ocean acidification  
363 data and data synthesis products being collected around the world from a wide range of sources,  
364 including moorings, research cruises, and fixed time-series stations.

365 GOA-ON attended the GOOS Regional Forum VIII in 2017 (GOOS, 2017). It is developing ‘GRA-  
366 like’ regional networks, including OA-Africa, North American hub, Pacific Island hub, Arctic hub,  
367 WESTPAC, and Australia. Furthermore GOA-ON adheres to GOOS data principles, and the global  
368 data portal is built on the foundation of the U.S. IOOS data portal. Opportunities were identified for  
369 GRAs to assist GOA-ON in building its regional networks, and for GOA-ON to assist GRAs in  
370 bringing non-traditional partners into the GOOS enterprise.

### 371 **3.1.5 Other networks**

372 Several other initiatives are underway to address gaps in global observing capability, and to find  
373 efficiencies in and opportunities for the integration of sustained biological observations. These  
374 include the Group on Earth Observations’ Marine Biodiversity Observation Network (MBON).  
375 MBON is prioritizing observations of marine life to address specific user needs, identifying and  
376 integrating those observations where feasible, addressing data management challenges to ensure  
377 broad accessibility of these data, and developing products that overlay biological observations with  
378 physical and biogeochemical observations to describe impact of ecosystem change on living  
379 communities. MBON funded partners and collaborators are actively supporting development of  
380 specification sheets and implementation plans for the full complement of GOOS Biology and  
381 Ecosystem variables.

382 Other cost-effective instruments have been developed and used in coastal ocean monitoring, e.g.  
383 FerryBox systems and shallow water Argo profiles (with oxygen and Chl-a measurements). For the  
384 purpose of environment assessment, a significant amount of chemical and biological observations are  
385 made in coastal waters and delivered offline, mostly not shared with the operational oceanography  
386 community. Further optimization of existing coastal observational networks and integration between  
387 different monitoring communities is needed

## 388 **3.2 Observations coordination, and data assembly and exchange**

389 It is encouraging to see that JCOMM OCG has identified HF radar, ocean gliders and animal-borne  
390 instrumentation as emerging networks. These networks aspire to a global mission, and JCOMM OCG  
391 can provide advice and rigor in developing the policies, processes, and systems required to achieve  
392 this.

393 There will, however, be a limit to the scope of JCOMM OCG activities. For example, the GOOS  
394 Biology and Ecosystems Panel has specified new biological EOVs covering hard corals, seagrasses,  
395 macroalgae, and mangroves. It is difficult to see how observations coordination for global networks  
396 required to measure these EOVs could ever be done through JCOMM OCG.

397 Additional, complementary observations coordination mechanisms will be required, though care  
398 needs to be taken in avoiding network-specific approaches that fail to realize the benefits of an  
399 integrated, biophysical observing system. A clear focus on outcomes and societal benefit will be the  
400 key. To use but one example, measuring hard coral cover as an EOVI will be enormously valuable.  
401 Providing the tools to monitor and manage coral bleaching, however, will require the integration of

402 satellite sea surface temperature (SST) and in situ sampling technologies, as well as numerical  
403 modeling and forecasting.

404 Related to the above, new observing technologies and networks aspiring to become part of GOOS  
405 must develop robust and sustainable mechanisms for data assembly and exchange. It is significant  
406 that the HF radar, ocean gliders, and animal-borne instrumentation ‘emerging networks’ are all  
407 working on data standardization within their communities. This should be strongly encouraged and  
408 supported.

409 The JCOMM Open Access Global Telecommunication System (GTS) pilot project is an exciting  
410 development that has potential to greatly enhance oceanographic data assembly and exchange. On  
411 one hand, the rigor and robustness of the GTS sets a standard for which the oceanographic  
412 community can aim. On the other hand, many in the oceanographic community currently find it  
413 difficult to get data into and out of the GTS, limiting its broader utility. The Open Access GTS pilot  
414 project aims to retrieve newly inserted data from the GTS, decode it from the Binary Universal Form  
415 for the Representation of meteorological data (BUFR) format, add the data and metadata to a  
416 database, and provide access via web-accessible tools and visualizations.

417 Expansion of GOOS to encompass biological EOVs and continental shelf and coastal marine systems  
418 presents some distinctive challenges in terms of data access, assembly, and exchange. The Ocean  
419 Biogeographic Information System (OBIS) is working with the GOOS Biology and Ecosystems  
420 Panel on these challenges. OBIS aims to provide a global, open-access data and information  
421 clearinghouse on marine biodiversity for science, conservation, and sustainable development.

422 In summary, adequate investment in global observations coordination and data assembly/exchange  
423 will be essential to realizing the opportunities provided by new collaborations across regions,  
424 communities, and technologies.

## 425 **4 Harnessing the power of national capabilities and multinational collaborations**

426 Most investment in global ocean observing comes through nation-states. This manifests through  
427 cooperative investment by multiple nations in international programs and through investment in  
428 national programs with broader reach. International programs such as Argo and satellite virtual  
429 constellations have traditionally been the focus of GOOS. Here we focus on investments in national  
430 programs with broader reach, to better harness the power of national capabilities and multilateral  
431 collaborations.

432 Consideration is given to national programs already engaged as GRAs, in the United States,  
433 Australia, and Europe. In other cases, investments are being made into national programs that are not  
434 currently aligned with GRAs in India, South Africa, Canada, and South America. In addition,  
435 multinational projects such as the Tropical Pacific Observing System (TPOS) 2020 and AtlantOS are  
436 bringing renewed rigor to the design and operation of basin-wide observing systems. Governance of  
437 these basin-wide systems on an ongoing basis raises questions about regional alliances of the future.

### 438 **4.1 National capabilities and regional alliances**

439 Since OceanObs’09, the GRA Council and GOOS Steering Committee have increasingly recognized  
440 the value of engaging with strong national programs that meet the requirements of the GOOS  
441 Regional Policy (IOC-UNESCO, 2013).

#### 442 **4.1.1 Current GRAs**

443 As Chair of the GRA Council from 2012-15, the leadership demonstrated by IOOS has been crucial  
444 in reinvigoration of the GOOS Regional Alliances. IOOS has partnered with nations in adjacent  
445 waters, invested in new technologies and networks (and supported them in contributing to a global  
446 mission), and embraced international data standardization. It has shown how a national program can  
447 operate as a regional alliance to support the vision and mission of GOOS.

448 Australia's Integrated Marine Observing System (IMOS) is the newest GRA. IMOS was established  
449 in 2007 and has benefited greatly from the thinking that emerged from OceanObs'09 and through  
450 development of the Framework for Ocean Observing. IMOS was recognized as a GRA in 2014.

451 EuroGOOS is the European component of GOOS. It brings together 42 member-institutions and five  
452 regional ocean observing systems within Europe. EuroGOOS works closely with MONGOOS (in the  
453 Mediterranean) and Black Sea GOOS. A community-driven coordinating framework for Europe's  
454 ocean observing capacity is currently under development. The European Ocean Observing System  
455 (EOOS) will link the disparate components of the ocean observing system and promote shared  
456 strategies, infrastructure development, data standardization, open access, and capacity building.

#### 457 **4.1.2 Opportunities to strengthen the GRAs**

458 As noted in section 2, the GRAs are not homogeneous in their makeup. In some cases, mature ocean  
459 observing networks exist within IOC member countries that are not yet part of the GOOS enterprise.

##### 460 **4.1.2.1 India**

461 India plays a major role in IO-GOOS, a GRA focused at basin scale in the Indian Ocean. India,  
462 however, also has a very mature national Ocean Observing Network (OON), operating Argo floats,  
463 XBTs, current meters, wave rider buoys, tsunami buoys, tide gauges, ship-based weather stations,  
464 and a mooring network. The collective ocean observing capability of the Indian National Centre for  
465 Ocean Information Services (INCOIS), National Institute of Ocean Technology (NIOT), Earth  
466 System Science Organization (ESSO), and related organizations is globally significant. A  
467 presentation on India's OON was delivered at the GOOS Regional Forum VIII in 2017, and IO-  
468 GOOS is now Deputy Chair of the GRA Council. These are small but hopefully significant steps in  
469 better engaging India's national capability in the GOOS enterprise.

##### 470 **4.1.2.2 South Africa**

471 GOOS Africa is a GRA that has a massive amount of ocean to observe, yet it is currently unfunded.  
472 Considering the oceans around the African continent at regional level, so as to take advantage of  
473 national strengths, may be one way to move forward. The South African Environmental Observation  
474 Network (SAEON) covers both terrestrial and marine environments. It includes a marine-offshore  
475 systems (Egagasini) node and a coastal (Elwandle) node. The Sentinel coastal site for long-term  
476 ecological research consists of 100 in situ instruments collecting data (mostly delayed mode)  
477 continuously since 2008. Including SAEON as a GRA would encourage government support,  
478 technical support from other GRAs, setting of requirements and standards, support for the  
479 measurement of EOVs, and access to calibration facilities.

##### 480 **4.1.2.3 North America**

481 Within North America, only U.S. IOOS is formally part of the GRA Council. Canada has significant  
482 capability in ocean observing, through programs such as the Ocean Tracking Network (OTN), Ocean

483 Networks Canada (ONC) and MEOPAR. Canada has embarked on a process to establish a Canadian  
484 IOOS, and they are planning to cooperate with U.S. IOOS as part of a larger North America GRA.

485 Mexico currently does not have a government-wide ocean observing system but has been developing  
486 its ocean observing capacity through the Consortium of Institutions for Marine Research (CIIMAR).  
487 CIIMAR and the U.S. IOOS's Gulf of Mexico Regional Association have signed a memorandum of  
488 understanding and exchange expertise in data management.

#### 489 **4.1.2.4 South America**

490 In South America there are three GRAs, which represent joint efforts of countries and institutions to  
491 integrate national needs into regional systems. The GRAs aim to develop and implement operational  
492 ocean monitoring systems based on data sharing and enhancing capacity development. In this region,  
493 representation on the GRA Council has generally been through naval institutions. There are,  
494 however, several mature programs/projects operating in South America at the subnational, national,  
495 or regional level that could strengthen and expand the ocean observing capabilities in the region and  
496 be integrated into GOOS. The recent GOOS South American Regional Workshop (see section 2.4)  
497 recommended that regional IOC structures (the GRAs) be revitalized to incorporate a larger  
498 multidisciplinary observing community and to improve their communication to all stakeholders,  
499 capitalizing on opportunities (Miloslavich et al., 2018).

## 500 **4.2 Alliances of the future**

### 501 **4.2.1 AtlantOS**

502 In May 2013, the EU, Canada, and the United States signed the Galway Statement on the Atlantic  
503 Ocean Cooperation, with the stated goal of “advancing a shared vision on an Atlantic Ocean that is  
504 healthy, resilient, safe, productive, understood and treasured so as to promote the well-being,  
505 prosperity, and security of present and future generations” (Geoghegan-Quinn et al., 2013). One of  
506 the efforts the European Union funded was AtlantOS. It has the goal of transitioning a loosely  
507 coordinated set of existing ocean-observing activities into a fit-for-purpose Integrated Atlantic Ocean  
508 Observing System (IAOOS). AtlantOS will conclude in 2019, and while there have been good  
509 discussions on a design and framework of an IAOOS, a funded, sustained system is not a result of  
510 this effort. There has been a concern that AtlantOS was too focused on the North Atlantic, which  
511 resulted in the Belem Statement being signed in July 2017 to strengthen the successful partnership  
512 with the European Commission and the Department of Science and Technology of Brazil and South  
513 Africa (Moedas et al., 2017). While this agreement has not directly resulted in a funded project, it has  
514 set up another convening forum to discuss issues in the southern Atlantic.

### 515 **4.2.2 TPOS 2020**

516 The TPOS 2020 Project will evaluate, and where necessary change, all elements that contribute to the  
517 current configuration of TPOS based on a modern understanding of tropical Pacific science (Legler  
518 and Hill, 2014). It is a focused, finite term project established in 2014 in response to deterioration of  
519 the tropical moored buoy array in the Pacific in 2012-2014. While TPOS 2020 provides an  
520 opportunity to evaluate new technologies to enhance and redesign the observing system in this  
521 important region, its ongoing governance is yet to be worked out. A TPOS Resources Forum has  
522 been established to consider the issues of long-term funding and governance.

### 523 **4.2.3 The Southern Ocean Observing System (SOOS)**

524 SOOS is an international initiative of the Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research and the  
525 Scientific Committee on Oceanic Research (SCOR) (Rintoul et al., 2010). SOOS was officially  
526 launched in 2011. In the Antarctic region, scientific activities are guided by international treaties and  
527 organizations outside the IOC system. Furthermore, the SOOS project office has limited funding and  
528 needs to focus its efforts on the highest priorities. For these reasons, SOOS participation in the GRA  
529 Council has not yet been realized.

### 530 **4.3 Concluding Remarks and Recommendations**

531 There are several issues to consider if we are to harness fully the power of national capabilities and  
532 multinational collaborations within the global ocean observing system. The benefits of being part of  
533 GOOS need to be much more apparent to countries, institutions, and programs. GOOS needs to  
534 become more inclusive, with effective and efficient mechanisms to facilitate new partners and  
535 partnerships. And, the challenge of sustained funding must be addressed.

536 GOOS is part of the United Nations system with representation from individual countries. The Group  
537 on Earth Observations (GEO) is an intergovernmental voluntary organization that operates through  
538 member nations and participating organizations with a focus of the use of earth observations (air,  
539 land, and sea) within the policy arena. What both organizations share is the fact that implementation  
540 is based on national contributions and efforts. They are both convening bodies, and alignment with  
541 them can help bolster national efforts. Further, neither GOOS nor GEO are funding bodies in their  
542 own right, but nations, and in particular the European Union, use both of these organizations as  
543 mandates for their annual funding calls. GEO has evolved to align its work program through  
544 flagships, initiatives, community activities, and foundational tasks, all of which are articulated  
545 through plans that span two years. It is recommended that an implementation planning approach be  
546 adopted by GOOS in moving forward, providing clearer pathways for engagement.

547 While GOOS has evolved within the last ten years and has begun to have a more inclusive focus,  
548 partnering is an area in which there must be continued focus. In advocating for emerging networks  
549 and pilot projects, the GRA Council found that GOOS processes were either unclear or did not yet  
550 exist. GOOS should continue to strongly endorse new partners and partnerships, which will in turn  
551 help the national efforts to sustain funding.

552 Sustained funding is sometimes equated with transition from research to operational systems. In  
553 reality, there are few examples of research to operational transition resulting in sustained funding.  
554 Here we suggest an alternative nomenclature of sustained and experimental observations, providing  
555 an overall roadmap that connects the various observing efforts, along with a community-wide  
556 consistent message on the importance of ocean observing.

557 IOOS has long-term funding within the U.S. government and is considered an operational ocean  
558 observing system that supports research. The U.S. contribution to Argo is within the research arm of  
559 the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and has long-term funding in  
560 support of operational forecasting. Within Australia, IMOS was established as a research  
561 infrastructure, but through long-term funding and open data access, it has been able to support both  
562 research and operational needs. Within Europe there has been a recognition that, while ocean  
563 observing data and information are required to meet many societal challenges—from food security,  
564 to climate change, ecosystem health, or water management—the European in situ ocean observing  
565 capacity is still fragmented and broadly not sustained. While the space-borne ocean observations are



566 funded through the Copernicus program, in situ observations are supported through numerous short-  
567 term projects, with no guarantee of a long-term sustainability. Europe has embarked on establishing  
568 the EOOS in order to address this dichotomy.

569 It is recommended that GOOS adopt the following nomenclature to help advance discussion of  
570 sustained funding:

- 571 • Sustained observations: measurements taken routinely that are committed to  
572 monitoring on an ongoing basis. These measurements can be for public services or for  
573 Earth-system research in the public interest.
- 574 • Experimental observations: measurements (taken for a limited observing period) that  
575 are committed to monitoring for research and development purposes. These  
576 measurements serve to advance human knowledge, explore technical innovation,  
577 improve services, and in many cases, may be first-of-their-kind.

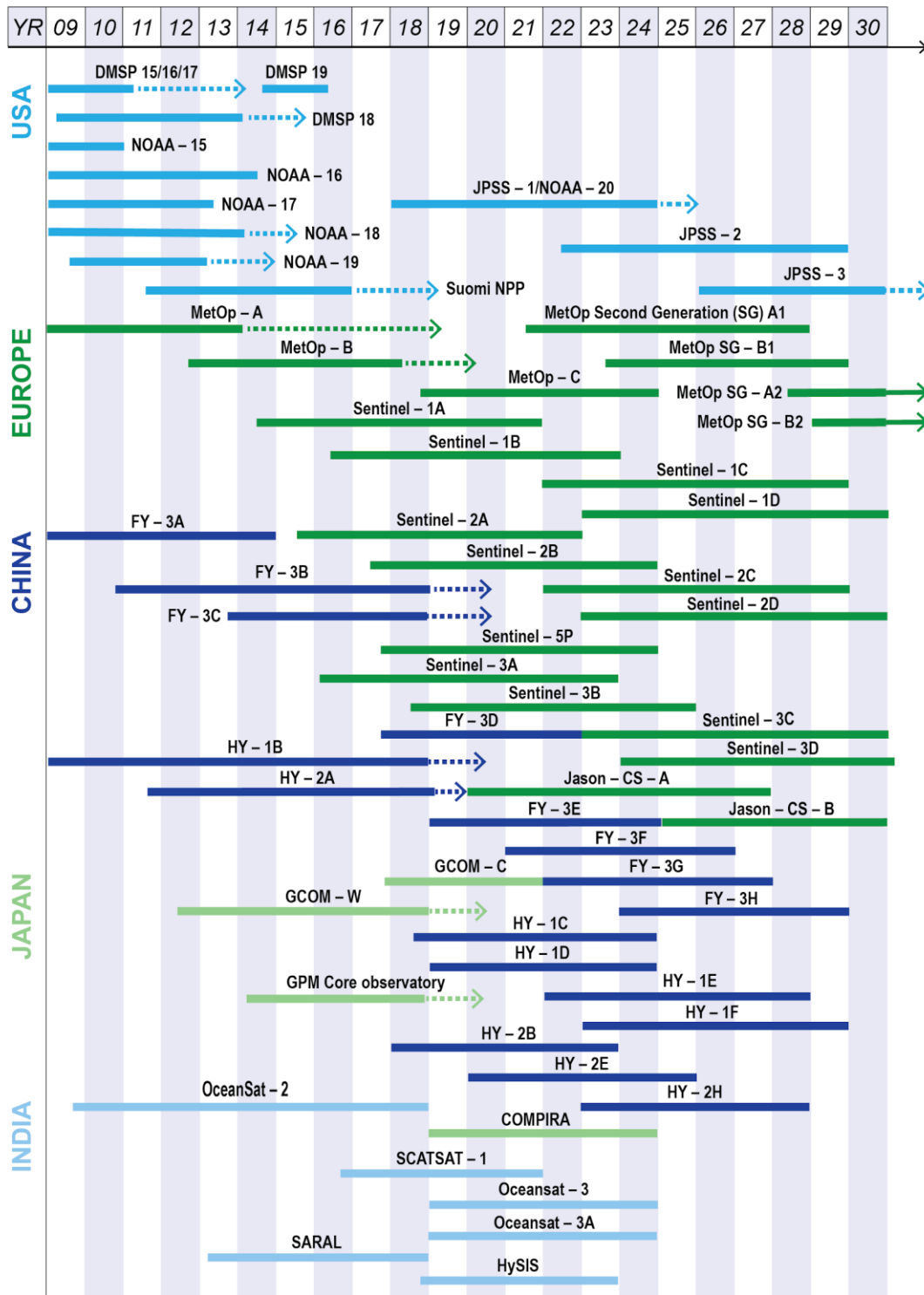
578 In this way nations could continue to seek different types of funding sources as appropriate and be  
579 recognized as observations that need to be sustained over a long period. This can also be helpful in  
580 communicating a consistent message to prospective funding agencies.

## 581 **5 GOOS as a mechanism for partnership between global satellite and in situ programs,**

582 In the past decade, ocean observations have made great strides in expanding EOVS from in situ,  
583 satellite and other remote sensing platforms, as well as in improving accuracy and spatial-temporal  
584 resolutions and coverage. In part, the ocean observing system design, implementation, and product  
585 generation are guided by the integration of satellite and in situ observations for maximizing benefits  
586 and minimizing costs. This section reviews the progress made in those areas and envisions future  
587 improvements in anticipation of new capabilities.

### 588 **5.1 Satellite oceanographic observations and product development and service**

589 Earth-observing satellites have been operated by individual countries for their national needs and  
590 priorities. International collaborations have also been forged, driven by both scientific/application  
591 needs and cost constraints. The constellation of satellites launched jointly and/or separately by  
592 different countries have recently shown added value to resolve finer and shorter time scale variability  
593 of the ocean and atmosphere when data from multiple satellites flying concurrently are merged  
594 together. This highlights the importance of international coordination to ensure the continuation of  
595 the constellation of Earth-observing satellites, and the consistent quality control and timely open  
596 access of the data. As an example, the operational polar-orbiting satellites operated by several  
597 countries are sketched in Fig. 3 for two decades spanning the OceanObs'19.



598

599 **Figure 3. A schematic sketch of major operational polar-orbiting satellites, showing the wealth**  
 600 **of data from which blended products can be generated in response to increased needs on**  
 601 **spatial-temporal resolutions and accuracy for research and societal applications. (Data are**  
 602 **mined from WMO Observing System Capability Analysis and Review Tool [OSCAR] as of Oct**  
 603 **15, 2018: <https://www.wmo-sat.info/oscar/satellites>.)**

604 As the satellite technology advances, more advanced sensors for more essential ocean and  
 605 atmospheric variables are added. For example, the new NOAA Joint Polar Satellite System satellites

606 are equipped with advanced sensors and include: 1) the Advanced Technology Microwave Sounder  
607 (ATMS, for measuring moisture and temperature); 2) the Cross-track Infrared Sounder (CrIS, for  
608 monitoring moisture and pressure); 3) the Ozone Mapping and Profiler Suite (OMPS, for measuring  
609 ozone levels; 4) the Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS, for observing weather,  
610 climate, oceans, nightlight, wildfires, ice movement, and changes in vegetation and landforms); and  
611 5) the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES).

612 In addition to the world's operational weather and ocean satellites, some space agencies also operate  
613 research-oriented, Earth-observing satellites. For example, NASA (U.S.) has been running various  
614 research Earth Observing System (EOS) satellites since the 1980s. Many of these satellites are joint  
615 missions with NOAA and other international partners like European Space Agency (ESA), such as  
616 the Jason altimeter satellites. These satellites measure essential climate and Earth environmental  
617 variables such as radiation, clouds, water vapor, and precipitation, the oceans states, greenhouse  
618 gases, land-surface hydrology and ecosystem processes, glaciers, sea ice, and ice sheets, ozone and  
619 stratospheric chemistry, and natural and anthropogenic aerosols ([https://eosps.nasa.gov/mission-  
620 category/3](https://eosps.nasa.gov/mission-category/3)). Some near-future missions include the Surface Water Ocean Topography mission to  
621 make a global survey of Earth's surface water, giving scientists the first comprehensive view of  
622 Earth's freshwater bodies from space and much more detailed measurements of the ocean surface  
623 than ever before.

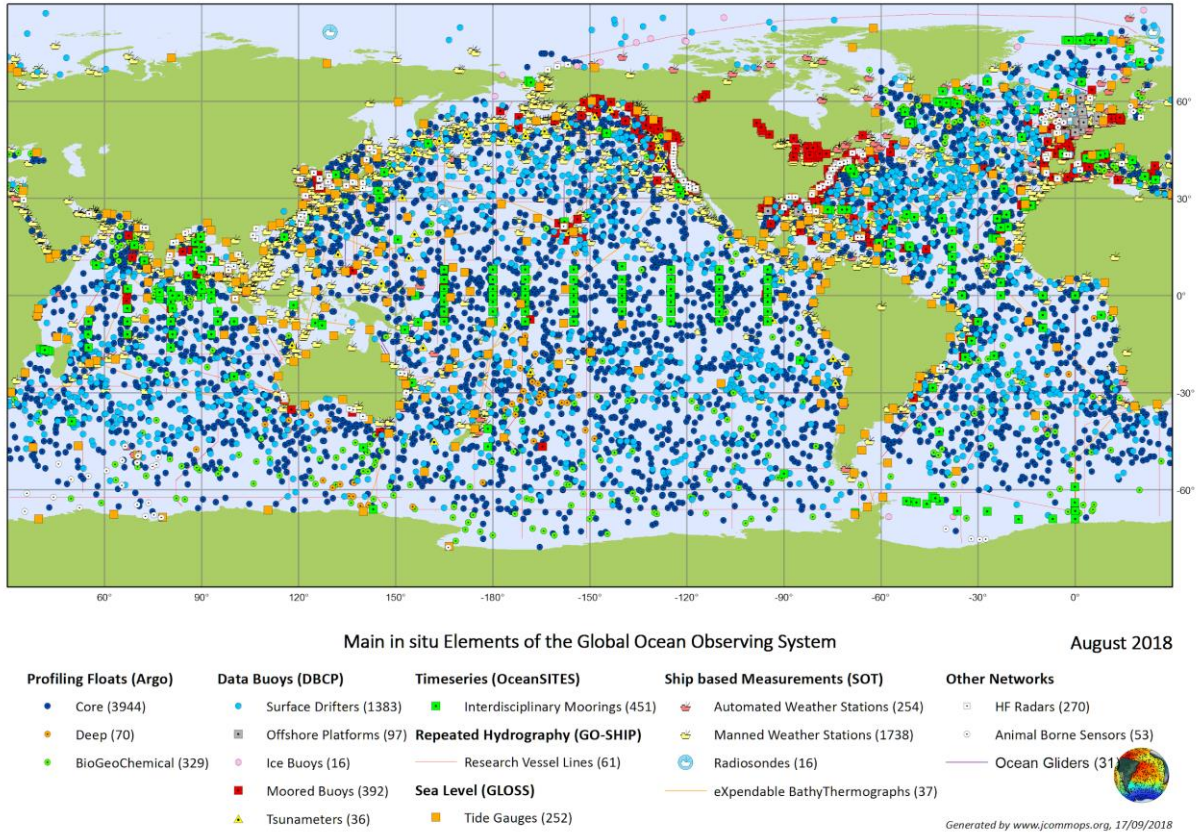
624 Complementary to polar-orbiting satellites, Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellites  
625 (GOES) provide more continuous monitoring of the Earth's environment, ensuring a constant  
626 surveillance for severe weather conditions (e.g., tornadoes, flash-floods, hail storms, and hurricanes).  
627 Started in 1975, the latest U.S. GOES generation is the GOES-R series with more advanced sensors  
628 on four satellites planned: GOES-R/GOES-16 launched in 2016; GOES-S/GOES-17 launched in  
629 2017; GOES-T planned for 2020; and GOES-U planned for 2024.

630 In Europe, a systematically coordinated Earth-observing and monitoring program called Copernicus  
631 (The European Earth Observation Programme) is managed by the European Commission and  
632 consists of two major components: the space component performed by the European Space Agency  
633 (ESA), and the in situ component performed by the European Environment Agency and EU  
634 countries. The space component consists of two groups of satellites: the Copernicus dedicated  
635 satellites (the six "Sentinels Satellites") and the Contributing Missions, roughly thirty satellite  
636 missions that are operated by national, European, or international organizations.

637 In Asia, the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) manages the Japanese Earth Observation  
638 Satellites, including the current Global Change Observation Mission-Climate/Water (GCOM-C,  
639 GCOM-W), the Global Satellite Mapping of Precipitation (GSMaP), and AMSR-E. The Indian Space  
640 Research Organization operates Indian's Earth Observation Satellites, include OceanSat-1/2 and  
641 SCATSAT (provide wind vector data products for weather forecasting, cyclone detection and  
642 tracking services to the users), INSAT-3D/3DR, the Satellite with ARGOS and ALTIKA (SARAL, a  
643 joint Indo-French satellite mission for ocean surface altimetry measurements). In China, the Chinese  
644 Meteorological Agency (CMA) operates the weather satellites, the Fengyun series, and the Chinese  
645 State Oceanic Administration (SOA) operates oceanographic satellites, the Haiyang series. In 2018,  
646 China-France Oceanography Satellite (CFOSAT) will be launched to study ocean surface winds and  
647 waves.

## 648 **5.2 In situ oceanographic observations and product development and service**

649 In addition to coordinated regional observing systems such as the GOOS Regional Alliances (GRA)  
 650 discussed earlier, some global systems focus on ocean surface systems that are linked to  
 651 oceanographic satellite observations. Internationally, the WMO/IOC JCOMM serves as a focal point  
 652 for coordinating worldwide in situ observations and data management. A snapshot of the worldwide  
 653 observing system monitored by the JCOMM Observing Program (JCOMMOPS) is shown in Fig. 4.



654  
 655 **Figure 4: A snapshot of global ocean observations generated by JCOMMOPS (JCOMM, 2018).**

656 Major ocean surface observing platforms include ships, moored and drifting buoys (including surface  
 657 drifters of the Global Drifter Program), Argo floats, gliders, and newer autonomous surface vehicles.  
 658 Ships have the longest history of observations, starting in 1662 and collected in the International  
 659 Comprehensive Ocean-Atmosphere Data Set (Freeman et al., 2017). Surface drifting buoys became  
 660 abundant in the late 1970s (Freeman et al., 2017) and sustained with a global requirement (Zhang et  
 661 al., 2009). Argo floats became abundant in the 1990s with profiling measurements including surface  
 662 segments. Although Argo floats originally focused on ocean physical properties including  
 663 temperature and salinity, inclusion of other parameters, such as biogeochemical variables, had been  
 664 called for and coordinated at the OceanObs'09 (Claustre et al., 2009; Gruber et al., 2010).  
 665 Biogeochemical (BGC)-Argo floats with those sensors have been increasing since then with  
 666 international participations (<http://biogeochemical-argo.org>). The Southern Ocean Carbon and  
 667 Climate Observations and Monitoring project has demonstrated successful application of BGC-Argo  
 668 floats at a basin-scale and has been responsible for much of the recent expansion of biogeochemical  
 669 profile data. As of October 8, 2018, there are 10,413 O<sub>2</sub> profiles obtained by 313 sensors/floats, 3,692  
 670 NO<sub>3</sub> profiles by 135 sensors, 2,481 pH profiles by 104 sensors, 7,244 Chl-*a* and suspended particles  
 671 by 209 sensors, and 2,949 downwelling irradiance profiles by 60 sensors.

672 These data are collected in near-real-time and delayed mode for ocean and weather forecasts, climate  
673 research, and monitoring/societal applications. Many global ocean observing systems, such as the  
674 moored buoys from the TAO/TRITON, RAMA, PIRATA, OceanSITES, and ship data from  
675 SOOP/VOS/VOSclim, GO-SHIP, are included above and reported to forecast centers via GTS  
676 streams. Among the most recent additions to GTS streams are from unmanned surface vehicles, of  
677 which Sairdrones are the most highly instrumented platforms. Sairdrones provide high quality  
678 oceanic and atmospheric observations and currently have a range of more than 16,000 nautical miles  
679 with endurance of up to 12 months. The NOAA-Sairdrone partnership has conducted four missions in  
680 the Arctic region, two missions for the Tropical Pacific Observing System (TPOS), one fisheries  
681 survey mission on the west coast of North America, and test missions in the Southern Ocean. The  
682 Sairdrone platform is a truly integrated system, equipped with a suite of sensors measuring  
683 meteorological, oceanographic, physical, and biogeochemical variables.

### 684 **5.3 Community and international collaborations**

685 As Earth's climate and environmental conditions are without national boundaries, international  
686 coordination is intrinsically needed to be successful. In fact, at the very beginning of the U.S. weather  
687 satellite missions, Dr. Harry Wexler, the key person in developing the TIROS satellites, had proposed  
688 and promoted the idea of a World Weather Watch from 1959, and served as the lead negotiator for  
689 the U.S. in talks with the U.S.S.R. concerning the joint use of meteorological satellites. Now, under  
690 the Committee on Earth Observation Satellites (CEOS, established in 1984), the current 60  
691 participating agencies operate 156 satellites including ocean observing satellites. CEOS is the  
692 mechanism that brings these organizations together to collaborate on missions, data systems, and  
693 global initiatives that benefit society as a whole, while aligning with their own national and agency  
694 missions and priorities. On the in situ observations, the WMO/IOC JCOMM is a key organization in  
695 coordinating international marine observations. Closer collaboration between CEOS, JCOMM and  
696 GOOS needs to be forged.

### 697 **5.4 Blended satellite and in situ products and services**

698 Application needs for ocean and weather forecasts, scientific research and assessments, and societal  
699 applications require increasingly higher spatio-temporal resolution, accuracy and coverage. However,  
700 observations by each individual system have limitations, thus products generated by blending multi-  
701 resource observations have been needed and produced. Product resolutions are constrained by  
702 available observational data, as shown in the sampling study of Zhang et al. (2006) for multi-satellite  
703 blended sea winds (Zhang et al., 2006). Also, bias correction is a key step in generating blended  
704 products: as a case for integrating satellite and in situ ocean observations for SST, Zhang et al. (2009)  
705 simulated required in situ data density to reduce satellite SST biases to a sufficiently small level  
706 (Zhang et al., 2009).

707 Bias corrections are needed not only between satellite and in situ observations (Reynolds et al., 2002)  
708 but also between in situ observations themselves (Smith et al., 2008; Huang et al., 2017; Huang et al.,  
709 2018) or between satellite observations themselves (Yang et al., 2016). In Huang et al. (2017), a  
710 systematic ship-buoy SST offset of about 0.12 °C was found and corrected before merging the ship-  
711 buoy SSTs into a gridded dataset. Similarly, a systematic Argo float SST and buoy SST offset of  
712 about -0.03 °C was found and corrected, and in Huang et al. (2018), the relative roles of Argo floats  
713 and moored/surface drifting buoys are analyzed.

714 Various groups have established databases for quality monitoring of in situ and satellite data and  
715 blended products (e.g., NOAA's in situ SST quality monitor [*iQuam*]; Xu and Ignatov, 2014) and

716 SST quality monitor [sQuam; Dash et al., 2010]). At the Group for High Resolution SST (GHRSSST),  
717 data from multiple sources are used to generate the GHRSSST Multi-product Ensemble (GMPE)  
718 SSTs. POES and GOES blended SSTs are produced at NOAA (Maturi, 2010). NOAA's Coast Watch  
719 and Ocean Watch program collects and serves satellite observational data (sea surface temperature,  
720 sea surface height, sea surface salinity, sea surface winds, and sea surface ocean color), together with  
721 in situ data quality monitoring.

722 For biogeochemical variables, Amin et al. (2015) assessed GOES satellite-based ocean color  
723 products using in situ networks (Amin et al., 2015). Land et al. (2018) used a database of satellite in  
724 situ matchups to generate a statistical model of satellite uncertainty as a function of its contributing  
725 variables for ocean color chlorophyll-*a* and showed that most errors are correctable biases (Land et  
726 al., 2018). Martínez-Vicente et al. (2017) examined the differences among phytoplankton carbon  
727 (*C<sub>phy</sub>*) estimations from six satellite ocean color algorithms by comparison with in situ estimates,  
728 and large (>100%) biases have been found (Martínez-Vicente et al., 2017). Under the European's  
729 Copernicus Ocean Colour Climate Change Initiative (OC-CCL), chlorophyll product was compared  
730 to the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service products and GlobColour reanalysis  
731 products. Ocean carbon examples include the validation of NASA Orbiting Carbon Observatory  
732 satellite data by in situ, moored CO<sub>2</sub> observations (Chatterjee et al., 2017) and creation of surface  
733 seawater pCO<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> flux maps from observation-based algorithms applied to satellite SST and  
734 color (Feely et al., 2006; Landschützer et al., 2016).

## 735 **5.5 Concluding Remarks and Recommendations**

736 Looking to the next decade, we foresee great expansion and advancement in both in situ and remote  
737 sensing ocean observation platforms, with the expansion of EOVs (e.g., biogeochemical variables  
738 observed routinely). Blended products can be improved through consideration of the new and  
739 improved satellite and in situ systems. This whitepaper invites the in situ and remote sensing  
740 observation communities to work more closely to suggest approaches for improvements of the ocean  
741 observing system and EOV products through an integrated, multi-platform perspective. Specifically:

742 **Recommendation:** GOOS should serve as an agent to strengthen the ties between oceanographic  
743 space and in situ observation systems to maximize benefits and minimize cost.

744 **Recommendation:** In coordination with WMO/IOC JCOMM, CEOS and others, GOOS should pay  
745 particular attention to development and improvement of EOV-based products that integrate across  
746 various ocean-observing systems. Additional needs include historically consistent data records for  
747 monitoring and assessing environmental changes, and extending physical climate data records to  
748 biogeochemical and ecosystem variables.

## 749 **6 Integrating marine and ocean observations into the Global Observing System**

750 As noted earlier in this paper, GOOS collects essential data for monitoring and improving  
751 understanding of our oceans and climate to provide operational services (prediction of ocean-related  
752 hazards such as tsunamis, storm surges, and high waves) and in the last decade has expanded into  
753 marine ecosystem services. In particular GOOS data are essential for weather forecasts that are  
754 critical for the safety of life at sea (severe weather and waves) and coastal protection (storm surges  
755 and wave overtopping), and climate change services that support adaptation and mitigation policies.  
756 WMO is one of the sponsors of GOOS, and its members, through many of their National  
757 Meteorological and Hydrological Services (NMHS), provide observations for GOOS (primarily from  
758 ships and buoys) and are users of GOOS data. Virtually all products and services generated by

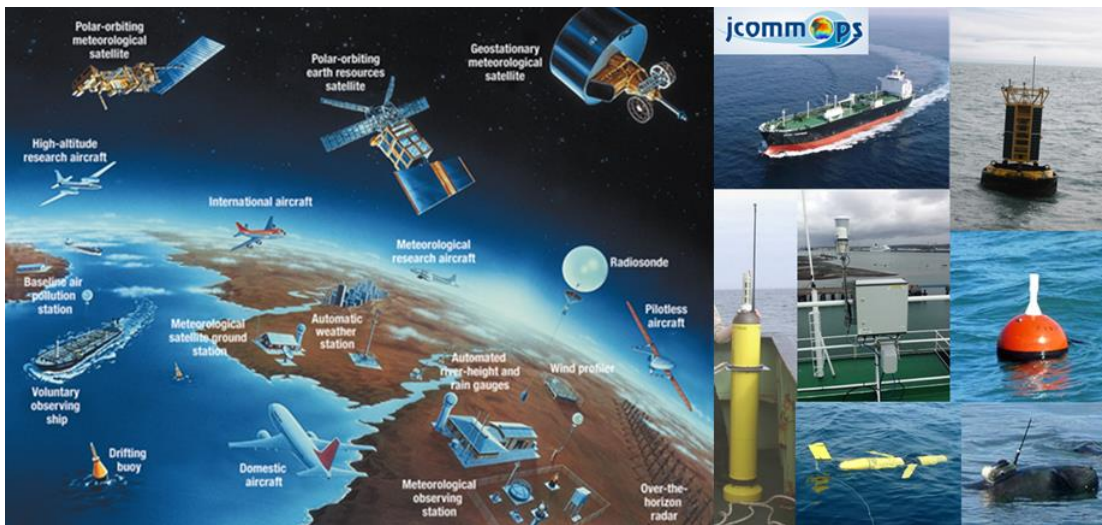
759 NMHS rely on data from across various domains: land, sea, and air, whether measured in situ or  
760 remotely sensed (e.g., from space). This has led to the WMO Global Observing System (GOS) of the  
761 World Weather Watch (WWW) Programme, which has over the years developed in an incremental  
762 way and is now evolving into the WIGOS.

## 763 **6.1 WIGOS – the WMO Integrated Global Observing System**

764 In 2013 the Implementation Plan for the Evolution of Global Observing Systems (EGOS-IP) was  
765 published. EGOS-IP set out the plan for developing the WMO Global Observing Systems covering  
766 the period 2012–2025 and their role within the collective WMO Integrated Global Observing System  
767 (WIGOS) “system of systems” (WMO, 2013). WIGOS provides a framework for all the WMO-  
768 sponsored and co-sponsored observing systems, encompassing both in situ and remotely sensed  
769 observations—within which GOOS is an important component. The implementation of WIGOS is  
770 one of seven strategic priorities of the WMO and aims to foster the evolution of its observing  
771 systems, many of which have evolved independently, into a more comprehensive and integrated  
772 system. This will provide a more consistent system for the delivery of weather, climate, water, and  
773 related environmental observations and products generated by WMO members and programs and  
774 make major contributions to the Global Earth Observation System of Systems (GEOSS).

775 The component observing systems of WIGOS are: (a) the GOS of the WWW Programme, (b) the  
776 observing component of the Global Atmosphere Watch Programme, (c) the WMO Hydrological  
777 Observing System of the Hydrology and Water Resources Programme, and (d) the observing  
778 component of the Global Cryosphere Watch, including both surface-based and space-based  
779 components, as illustrated in Figure 5. This includes all the WMO contributions to co-sponsored  
780 systems (such as GOOS, Global Climate Observing System [GCOS] and Global Terrestrial  
781 Observing System [GTOS]), and to the Global Framework for Climate Services (GFCS) and the  
782 GEOSS.

783 However, for marine and ocean observations under the GOOS, it is important that all contributions  
784 are linked into WIGOS, regardless of whether those observations are made by WMO members. This  
785 includes observations made both at the sea surface and at depth from ships, buoys, tide gauges,  
786 profiling floats, as well as from emerging networks and platforms such as autonomous vehicles,  
787 animal borne sensors and HF radar. WMO is a partner with IOC in JCOMM and plays a key role in  
788 coordinating the sustained ocean observing system and its attendant data management structure, as  
789 well as ensuring appropriate links into and consistency with WIGOS.



790

791 **Figure 5. (Left) schematic of the components of the WMO Global Observing System and (right)**  
 792 **of the Global Ocean Observing System that contribute to WIGOS.**

793 The key elements of WIGOS are: improving standardization, interoperability, and data compatibility;  
 794 data discovery; availability of data and metadata and archiving; network design; planning and  
 795 optimized evolution; and quality monitoring and management. Further information on WIGOS is  
 796 available in the *Guide to WIGOS* (WMO, 2017).

797 **6.1.1 WIGOS Identifiers**

798 To do this, it is essential to identify each observing platform (or station); this will be achieved  
 799 through the specification of new, unique WIGOS identifiers that overcome many of the limitations  
 800 (non-unique or changing with time) of previous identification schemes, such as WMO numbers or  
 801 ship's call signs. In particular, WIGOS IDs will allow the relevant metadata to be ascribed to  
 802 platforms, even when the characteristics of that platform may change with time (e.g., due to changes  
 803 in sensor payload on a moored buoy). For marine and ocean observations, a convention for assigning  
 804 and issuing WIGOS IDs has been agreed upon and will be applied across the JCOMM Observations  
 805 Programme Area, where JCOMMOPS (the JCOMM in situ Observations Programme Support  
 806 Centre) has delegated authority to issue such IDs at the behest of individual WMO members. This  
 807 will avoid confusion, as has occurred for WMO terrestrial observing networks where different  
 808 countries have developed a range of different approaches. In principle, WIGOS IDs can also be  
 809 attributed to a wide range of third-party platforms for consistent identification, even when it is not  
 810 possible (or permitted) to make these observations available through the WMO Information System  
 811 (WIS). Therefore, WIGOS IDs offer a globally applicable approach for identifying all observing  
 812 platforms or stations across all domains.

813 **6.1.1 Data exchange under WIGOS**

814 The WIS is the global infrastructure covering WMO's telecommunications and data management  
 815 functions and is a key element of WIGOS, as it provides an integrated approach for all WMO  
 816 programs. It enables the routine collection and automated dissemination of observed data and  
 817 products, as well as data discovery, access, and retrieval services for all data produced within the  
 818 framework of WMO's programs. It builds upon the long-established GTS for exchange of data under  
 819 the WWW but has been enhanced to permit exchanging large data volumes (such as satellite data,  
 820 fine resolution Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) products etc.) and delivering information to



821 both NMHS and national disaster response authorities. It is worth noting that data exchanged on the  
822 WIS/GTS must be in approved WMO formats where, for observational data, BUFR (Binary  
823 Universal Form for the Representation of meteorological data) is the standard. BUFR allows a wide  
824 range of data types (not just meteorological) and variables to be exchanged in a highly compressed  
825 manner, where BUFR templates are being developed to allow for the growing number of  
826 marine/ocean data types that are becoming available. BUFR enables observational data to be  
827 exchanged at high precision, with attendant metadata and quality flags.

828 For medium range (out to several weeks ahead) and seasonal forecasting, the use of marine/ocean  
829 data in coupled ocean-atmosphere models has been standard practice for some time; however,  
830 marine/ocean data are becoming more important within the WMO community as NWP centers  
831 transition towards running coupled models also for weather prediction on shorter timescales.  
832 Biogeochemical ocean data from GOOS are also becoming increasingly required as more complete  
833 earth system models coupling the land surface, atmosphere, and ocean are developed for regional  
834 environmental predictions.

### 835 **6.1.2 WIGOS tools**

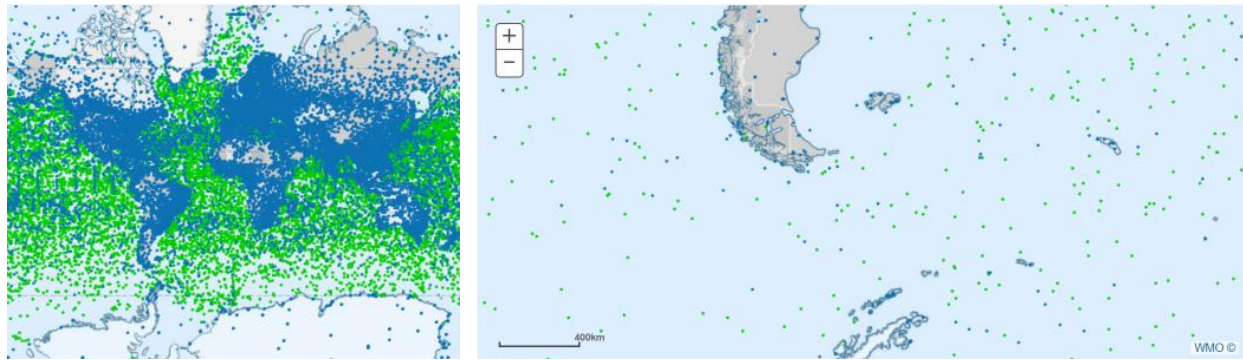
836 Key to the success of WIGOS will be the development of tools such as the WMO Observing Systems  
837 Capability Analysis and Review (OSCAR) and the WIGOS Data Quality Monitoring System  
838 (WDQMS). These will allow end users to understand the observational data more completely and  
839 provide assurance that the observations are quality monitored, where problems are identified and  
840 addressed. OSCAR has three distinct, but interlinked, modules: OSCAR/Surface, OSCAR/Space and  
841 OSCAR/Requirements, which are openly accessible web-based tools<sup>1</sup> available to users, as discussed  
842 below.

#### 843 **6.1.2.1 OSCAR/Surface**

844 OSCAR/Surface is the official repository of metadata on surface-based meteorological and  
845 climatological observations exchanged internationally through the WIS. In the context of WIGOS,  
846 this means non-space-based, so it also includes metadata for subsurface ocean observations; it is  
847 recognized that more specific platform-related metadata are often available for many of the  
848 individual ocean networks (e.g., Argo) through their network-based metadata systems. Nevertheless,  
849 OSCAR/Surface provides for the first time the ability to search for metadata on a multitude of  
850 platforms, whether in the air, at the (land or sea) surface or below the surface, via a zoom-able and  
851 clickable interface, as illustrated in Figure 6. This includes both presently reporting stations (e.g.,  
852 active floats and buoys) and non-reporting (e.g., expired floats and buoys, discontinued stations)  
853 platforms/stations. OSCAR/Surface allows the map to be filtered by network (GOOS, GCOS etc.),  
854 by platform/station type, station name, or WIGOS ID, so it provides a powerful web-based tool for  
855 accessing observational metadata across the full range of observations under WIGOS.

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<sup>1</sup> <https://www.wmo.int/pages/prog/www/wigos/tools.html>



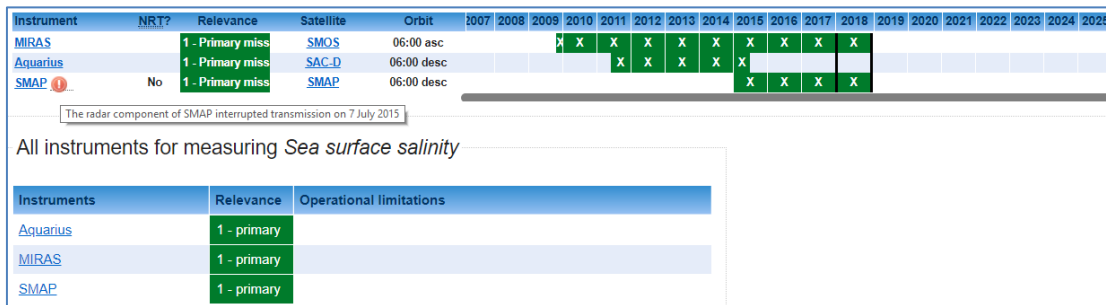
856

857 **Figure 6. OSCAR/Surface graphical maps showing platforms/stations for which metadata are**  
 858 **available via mouse click (land/sea surface in blue, sub-surface in green).**

859 Generating the metadata remains the responsibility of the operators, and for marine and ocean-  
 860 observing platforms and networks, these are submitted to JCOMMOPS through their web-based  
 861 system. In turn, JCOMMOPS is responsible for submitting these data, in line with the WIGOS  
 862 metadata standard to OSCAR/Surface via a machine-to-machine interface, thus relieving the  
 863 operators of this responsibility.

864 **6.1.2.2 OSCAR/Space**

865 OSCAR/Space is a resource provided by WMO in support of earth observation studies and global  
 866 satellite mission coordination. The information provided is maintained by WMO in close cooperation  
 867 with the space agencies and application experts. It provides detailed information on all earth  
 868 observation satellites and instruments and presently contains information on over 200 satellite  
 869 programs, over 500 satellites, and over 700 instruments. It allows the user to generate advanced  
 870 queries on space-based capabilities (e.g., show all satellites planned in the period 2020-2060 in  
 871 geostationary orbit, or show all currently flying instruments of a particular type). It can be used to  
 872 review capability and generate gap analyses by variable and type of mission, as illustrated in Figure 7  
 873 for sea surface salinity, which shows expected end of capability in 2018 with no new missions  
 874 presently planned. The hyperlinks lead to detailed information on the platforms and sensors.



875

876 **Figure 7. OSCAR/Space gap analysis for sea surface salinity.**

877 **6.1.2.3 OSCAR/Requirements**

878 Understanding the various user requirements for observational data is fundamental to the design and  
 879 evolution of an integrated observing system, and the OSCAR/Requirements database provides the  
 880 official repository of requirements in support of the WMO and co-sponsored programs. WMO has  
 881 defined its application areas, a number of which require marine/ocean observations: climate

882 monitoring (including reanalysis), climate science, global NWP, high resolution NWP,  
883 nowcasting/very short range NWP, and ocean applications, each with its own user requirements.

884 The database contains the observational user requirements for around 300 different geophysical  
885 variables expressed in terms of five criteria: horizontal resolution, vertical resolution, observing cycle  
886 (periodicity), timeliness, and uncertainty. For each of these criteria, three values are determined: goal  
887 (the ideal capability above which further improvements are not necessary); threshold (the minimum  
888 requirement to be met to ensure that data are useful); and breakthrough (an intermediate level  
889 between threshold and goal, which, if achieved, would result in a significant improvement for the  
890 relevant application).

891 Where multiple WMO application areas require observations of the same physical variable in the  
892 same domain, they generally have different requirements. The OSCAR/Requirements database  
893 contains technology-free requirements for each of the WMO application areas and is reviewed on a  
894 regular basis to ensure that it remains extant. Assessment of what is feasible compared with the  
895 requirements results in a gap analysis that forms the basis for ‘statements of guidance’ for each  
896 application; these are concise summaries of the gaps and deficiencies in the current capability and  
897 inform decision makers towards the evolution of the observing system. A fourth component,  
898 OSCAR/analysis, a collection of tools and services to support the gap analysis, is still in its infancy.

899 At present, the status of the ocean observing system is assessed by the status of individual networks  
900 against network-based metrics, e.g., spatial coverage of Argo floats or drifting buoys. However, most  
901 users, and the above application areas, are primarily concerned with the availability of data on one  
902 (or more) variables, e.g., surface air pressure and SST for NWP, wind and waves for maritime  
903 operations and coastal flood protection, SST and sub-surface SST for monitoring ocean heat content.  
904 Hence, there is an effort under the JCOMM OCG to develop variable-based metrics, which will be  
905 related to the user requirements of the appropriate application areas as defined within OSCAR.

#### 906 6.1.2.4 **WDQMS**

907 As noted earlier, the WDQMS will help assure end users that the observations are quality monitored,  
908 where problems are identified and addressed. It has three basic functions: quality monitoring,  
909 evaluation, and incident management. WDQMS will use OSCAR/Surface as the source of metadata  
910 that describes the expected accuracy of the observational data. It aims to provide information on  
911 availability, timeliness, and quality of observations to data providers enabling them to take corrective  
912 actions as necessary.

913 Traditionally for marine observations under the WMO GOS, designated WMO monitoring centers  
914 that run global NWP models undertake the quality monitoring. Quality monitoring reports, e.g.,  
915 observation minus model background statistics for VOS and buoy data, for various marine  
916 meteorological variables (surface air temperature and humidity, surface air pressure, wind speed and  
917 direction, and SST) are routinely generated as a by-product of NWP data assimilation systems. The  
918 statistics are typically published monthly. This is possible because there are sufficient observational  
919 data to allow the NWP models to generate a dynamically consistent background field, against which  
920 the most recent surface observations can be assessed. This alerts operators to platforms or stations  
921 generating suspect observations, where they can investigate and take appropriate action (e.g.,  
922 withholding the erroneous data from the GTS until the problem has been remedied).

923 However, this approach is not feasible for subsurface observations, where there are too few  
924 observations available to the ocean models to generate a sufficiently reliable background field.

925 Instead, the observations are used to validate the model, rather than the model background field being  
926 used to assess the quality of the observations. However, for subsurface temperature and salinity  
927 profile data, standard real-time quality control tests have been developed under the Argo program,  
928 and these tests are also applied to other profile data (e.g., from ship-based CTD measurements and  
929 marine mammal-borne sensors) where these data are distributed in real-time (or near real-time).  
930 Similarly, quality control tests have been developed for dissolved oxygen and are being developed  
931 for other biogeochemical variables, which will ensure that any such data distributed on the WIS or  
932 available through network-based GDACs (Global Data Assembly Centers) is of a minimum quality.  
933 However, for climate and scientific applications the collected data are subjected to more stringent  
934 delayed-mode quality checks that can identify whether there are any sensor drifts or offsets that need  
935 to be corrected for.

## 936 **6.2 Concluding remarks**

937 Integrating marine and ocean observations into the WIGOS is an essential activity that will lead to  
938 substantial benefits to the global meteorological community, as it will improve on the delivery of  
939 those data for use in a variety of application areas. Examples of these applications include the use of  
940 more sophisticated coupled ocean-atmosphere models for both shorter term weather forecasts and  
941 prediction of ocean hazards (tropical cyclones, storm surges, etc.) as well as for longer-term seasonal  
942 to climate predictions, and the provision of climate services under the GFCS. WIGOS will also be  
943 critical for climate monitoring; with the 2018 heatwaves and other recent extremes, there is an  
944 enormous societal need to assess the current state of the climate against the climate of the recent past.

945 However, the benefits should not be restricted to the operational meteorological community. Many  
946 scientific studies require a range of ancillary data (i.e., in addition to that which is collected during  
947 research campaigns), and through the WIGOS OSCAR tools, science users have the ability to  
948 interrogate the global data holdings across a wide range of domains to ensure that they can find and  
949 access the best available information. Hence, it is anticipated that WIGOS should benefit the entire  
950 global community that has a need for earth observation data.

951 The “Vision for WIGOS in 2040” is presently being developed, envisaging how WMO members’  
952 user requirements for observational data may evolve over the coming decades. The long-time horizon  
953 is partly driven by the planning and implementation timescales for satellite and weather radar  
954 replacement programs and to ensure the surface-based and space-based components are  
955 complementary.

## 956 **7 The way ahead**

957 GOOS now seeks to coordinate observations around the global ocean for three critical themes:  
958 climate, operational services, and marine ecosystem health. While much has been achieved since  
959 OceanObs’09, more needs to be done in the coming decade if GOOS is to realize its expanded vision  
960 and mission.

961 Within the context of the Framework for Ocean Observing, most of the effort to date has been  
962 focused on ‘inputs’ and ‘processes,’ i.e., setting requirements, specifying EOVs, improving  
963 observations coordination, and reinvigorating GRAs.

964 Focus now needs to shift to ‘outputs’ and ‘outcomes.’ The ocean observing system must clearly  
965 demonstrate and be widely recognized for its fundamental role in delivery of climate services,

966 weather prediction, regional and global ocean assessments, fisheries management, ecosystem  
967 services, and real-time services.

968 In this paper, we have identified a field of opportunity for new collaborations to be formed— across  
969 regions, communities, and technologies. These include strengthened regional alliances, new  
970 observing networks, national ocean observing capabilities, in situ and satellite observations, and  
971 marine meteorology and oceanography.

972 To take advantage of these opportunities, this paper makes a number of suggestions and  
973 recommendations. Overall, the formal mechanisms of GOOS need to become more inclusive of  
974 ocean observing efforts relevant to its expanded vision and mission, and more creative in facilitating  
975 expansion and growth. This will require the formal mechanisms of GOOS to be adequately  
976 resourced.

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## 1102 9 Conflict of Interest

1103 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial  
1104 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

## 1105 **10 Author Contributions**

1106 TM authored section 1. GN, CG, LG, ZW, AMP and TM authored sections 2, 3 and 4. H-MZ, EFB,  
1107 DL, RL, CM, KOB, KS, AS, DZ and YZ authored section 5. JT, SG, SB, EA, LPR, CG, EC, MB, PP  
1108 and AR authored section 6.

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