



Article (refereed) - postprint

Moe, S. Jannicke; Schmidt-Kloiber, Astrid; Dudley, Bernard J.; Hering, Daniel. 2013 The WISER way of organising ecological data from European rivers, lakes, transitional and coastal waters. *Hydrobiologia*, 704 (1). 11-28. 10.1007/s10750-012-1337-0

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1 Title: The WISER way of organising ecological data from European rivers, lakes, transitional and 2 coastal waters 3 Authors: S. Jannicke Moe¹, Astrid Schmidt-Kloiber², Bernard J. Dudley³, Daniel Hering⁴ 4 5 6 1) Norwegian Institute for Water Research, Gaustadalléen 21, NO-0349 Oslo, Norway 7 2) University of Natural Resources & Life Sciences, Department Water, Atmosphere, Environment, 8 Institute of Hydrobiology & Aquatic Ecosystem Management, Max Emanuel-Straße 17, 1180 Vienna, 9 Austria 10 3) Centre for Ecology & Hydrology, Bush Estate, Penicuik, Midlothian, EH26 0OB, United Kingdom 11 4) University of Duisburg-Essen, Faculty of Biology, Aquatic Ecology, Universitätsstraße 5, D-45141 12 Essen, Germany 13 14 Corresponding author: Jannicke Moe. 15 E-mail: jmo@niva.no, telephone: +47 908 98 108, telefax: +47 22 18 52 00 16 17 Abstract. The implementation of the Water Framework Directive (WFD) has required intense 18 research in applied aquatic ecology in Europe, and thus created challenges for data management in 19 international research projects. In the project WISER (Water bodies in Europe: Integrative Systems to 20 assess Ecological status and Recovery), biological and environmental data from rivers, lakes and 21 coastal waters in 26 European countries were collated. More than one million records of biological 22 observations were stored in the project's central database, representing phytoplankton, macrophytes, 23 macroalgae, angiosperms, phytobenthos, invertebrates and fish. The central database includes new 24 data from the WISER field campaign in lakes and coastal waters during 2009-2010 (more than 6,000 25 biological samples from 58 waterbodies in 14 countries). The purpose of this paper is to provide an 26 overview of the data collated within WISER, in order to facilitate future re-use of these data by other 27 scientists. More specifically, the objectives are: (1) to describe the data management in WISER, (2) to 28 describe the structure and content of the WISER central database, and (3) to share experiences and 29 give recommendations for data management in large ecological research projects. 30 31 Key words: EU Water Framework Directive (WFD); data management; databases; taxonomy; 32 intellectual property rights; metadata

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34 Introduction

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36 The implementation of the Water Framework Directive (WFD; European Commission, 2000) has 37 required intense research in applied aquatic ecology in Europe, and thus created challenges for data 38 management in international research projects. As specified by the WFD, the assessment of the quality 39 of rivers, lakes and coastal ecosystems must be based on biological indicators. Previously, the 40 monitoring of aquatic ecosystems was focussed on abiotic water quality and mainly limited to 41 physico-chemical variables. Therefore, many EU member states have recently developed national 42 classification systems for assessment of ecological status of water bodies based on phytoplankton, 43 macrophytes, invertebrates and fish (Birk et al., 2012a). Moreover, the WFD has required 44 intercalibration of national classification systems among countries in geographical regions with similar 45 waterbody types (Birk et al., 2012b).

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47 A major consequence of the WFD has been the acquisition of large amounts of biological information 48 on the status of European surface waters, information that may improve our knowledge of the structure 49 of the communities inhabiting these ecosystems. The need for development, validation and 50 intercalibration of biological classification systems compliant with the WFD has triggered large-scale 51 European research projects, such as REBECCA (http://www.environment.fi/syke/rebecca) and 52 WISER (http://www.wiser.eu). Other EU projects have focussed on the challenges of implementing 53 the WFD under climate change (e.g. Euro-Limpacs and REFRESH; http://www.refresh.ucl.ac.uk). 54 Within such large international research projects, extensive amounts of ecological data have often 55 been generated or collated from various sources including previous project data, on-going national 56 monitoring programmes, and new field surveys. These data have been stored in large databases 57 comprising information on hundreds or thousands of water bodies, including the AQEM/STAR taxa 58 database for river biota (Furse et al., 2006), the REBECCA lake phytoplankton and macrophyte 59 databases (Moe et al., 2008), and Baltic sea data in the CHARM project 60 (http://www2.dmu.dk/1_viden/2_miljoe-tilstand/3_vand/4_charm/charm_main.htm). Some databases

61 resulting from these projects are maintained and used actively after the termination of the original

62 project, e.g. the Taxa and Autecology Database for Freshwater Organisms

63 (http://www.freshwaterecology.info; Schmidt-Kloiber & Hering, 2012).

64

65 Potentially, data from previous research projects could contribute significantly to other objectives in 66 addition to those of the WFD, e.g. for monitoring the effects of emerging stressors, for improving our 67 knowledge of species distributions and species invasions, for understanding broad-scale drivers 68 shaping community assemblages, and for Habitats Directive/Natura 2000 species inventories and 69 biodiversity records. There is considerable interest in using such data beyond the lifetime of the 70 individual project. Nevertheless, many of these ecological databases have a very limited afterlife. As 71 pointed out by Beniston et al. (2012), much effort is often expended in the initial phases of each new 72 project to collate existing data generated in previous projects, which are often difficult to access, 73 buried in the grey literature or lost on inaccessible databases. At the same time, difficulties in 74 obtaining data represent barriers to policy-relevant research, on topics such as climate change impacts, 75 water quality or biodiversity protection (Beniston et al., 2012).

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77 A key barrier to the use of previously generated data is that scientists who produce the data may be 78 unwilling to share them, due to strong traditions, competition for funding and other circumstances 79 (Beier et al., 2007; Costello, 2009). However, there may be several more practical and technical 80 reasons. Institutional barriers can be a major obstacle to data access, where data are not centralised but 81 are stored in various formats with little compatibility (Beniston et al., 2012). Even if data are 82 accessible, lack of proper data documentation and dissemination after the termination of the project 83 impedes re-use of the data (Refsgaard et al. 2007). Other restrictions on data access include: (i) 84 improper data organisation (e.g., in poorly linked spreadsheets rather than in a relational database) 85 may inhibit efficient data extraction; (ii) there is no contact person responsible for answering requests, 86 (iii) there is no service for extraction of data from the database (such as a user interface or a person to 87 handle data extraction upon request); (iv) there is insufficient documentation specifying analytical 88 methods, sources, taxonomy etc.; (v) there is uncertainty regarding the intellectual property rights of 89 the data for further use.

Ecological status and Recovery), attempts were made to build upon experiences from former projects
and improve the usability of the project's data. A data service team was therefore established, aimed at
both facilitating the data flow within the project, and providing information about the availability of
these data for other scientists. Consequently, a publicly available metadatabase
(http://www.wiser.eu/results/meta-database) was developed to provide information on data sources
used in WISER, as well as many other relevant datasets hosted by the project partners. The
metadatabase holds key information about each data source, such as intellectual property rights (IPR)
and contact information for data owners (for more information see Schmidt-Kloiber et al., this issue).
The purpose of this paper is to provide an overview of the data collated within WISER, in order to
facilitate future re-use of these data by other scientists. More specifically, the objectives are:
1) to describe data management in WISER,
2) to describe the structure and content of the WISER central database, and
3) to share experiences and give recommendations for data management in large ecological research
projects.
Data management in WISER
The principles of data flow in the WISER project broadly reflected the structure of the project
organisation (see Hering et al., this issue), as illustrated in Figure 1. Two overarching data categories
were defined: 'background data' were from previous research projects, national monitoring
programmes etc., and 'foreground data' were collected in the field during the project. The base unit of
the data flow is termed 'dataset'. A dataset typically corresponded to a single data file (e.g. an MS
Access database or an MS Excel workbook) from one data provider. A list of more than 100
background datasets were identified as available to WISER before the project was initiated (see

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119 Two groups of work packages (WPs) were defined according to their role in the data flow structure 120 (Figure 1). Group 1 comprised WPs that collected foreground and/or background data for their own 121 use, from lakes (WPs 3.1-3.4), transitional/coastal waters (WPs 4.1-4.4) or rivers (WP 5.1; background 122 data only). The lakes and transitional/coastal WPs each worked on a single biological quality element 123 (BQE), while WP5.1 included all river BQEs (see Table 1 for more details). The foreground data 124 comprised one dataset per work package. Group 2 consisted of WPs working with the integration of 125 multiple BQEs, for example the comparison of responses of different BQEs to pressure gradients (see 126 (see Hering et al. (2012) for more details), and which had data needs overlapping with WPs in Group 127 1. Potential data sources for Group 2 included the new foreground datasets collected by Group 1, as 128 well as the large number of registered background datasets. A major task for the data service team was 129 therefore to facilitate data flow from Group 1 to Group 2, in order to minimise duplication of work on 130 compilation, harmonisation and processing of the same datasets within different WPs.

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132 In each Group 1 WP, a WP data manager was responsible for compiling the relevant foreground 133 and/or background datasets (i.e., for a single biological quality element) into a WP database (Figure 134 1). The WP data manager was also responsible for quality checking and extraction of data for users 135 within the WP. Examples of scientific results from the use of each WP database can be found in the 136 references in Table 1, as well as in the synthesis papers for lakes (Solheim, 2012) and for 137 transitional/coastal waters (Borja et al., 2012). All WP databases were delivered to the data service 138 team, which subsequently compiled these into the central database (CDB). Group 2 WPs that needed 139 data from the central database received the requested data as an MS Access database or extracted into 140 another preferred data format. In order to facilitate the data flow, a common WISER database structure 141 was developed (see below), which all WPs were encouraged to use. All templates, tools and guidelines 142 for data management were therefore based on the common database structure. Nevertheless, more 143 pragmatic solutions for data flow were sometimes required due timing mismatches between data 144 delivery from Group 1 and data needs by Group 2.

146 Structure of the WISER central database

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148 The structure of the central database was designed to meet the needs of several different research 149 problems within the project (see Hering et al., this issue): (i) combination of data across different 150 BQEs, (ii) combination of biological with environmental data, (iii) combination of data from different 151 water categories (i.e. rivers, lakes and transitional/coastal waters), (iv) usability of data for hierarchical 152 uncertainty analysis, (v) combination of data from the WISER field campaign (foreground) with other 153 data (background), and (vi) linkage of data to information in the metadatabase. 154 155 The CDB had a hierarchical structure with tables corresponding to the hierarchical levels of the 156 WISER field campaign, each related in a one-to-many relationship to the next: dataset, waterbody, 157 station, sample, and value. A full description is given in the WISER Data Dictionary 158 (http://www.wiser.eu/results/central-database). Each dataset (as defined under Data management in 159 WISER) was assigned a unique identifier (DatasetID) and was represented by a unique record in the 160 metadatabase. The DatasetID was thus critical for linking the data to key information about the data, 161 such as data owners and intellectual property rights (IPR). Some of the large international databases 162 available to WISER comprised several sections (e.g. countries) with different data owners and thus 163 different IPR. In order to facilitate the storage and tracking of IPR information in such cases, one 164 single object (such as a database) could be defined as multiple datasets in the WISER metadatabase 165 (Schmidt-Kloiber et al., this issue).

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167 The waterbody table was based on the waterbody concept underlying the WFD, which breaks the 168 network of rivers, lakes and coastal waters down into base units of waterbodies that should be 169 monitored, classified and (if necessary) restored. In principle all waterbodies that are reported to EU 170 under the WFD have a unique national code, but in practice waterbodies are often recorded with 171 different codes in different datasets. In the WISER CDB all waterbodies were stored with the 172 waterbody code originally given in the source dataset. For some waterbodies there was much 173 environmental information available, especially related to the WFD waterbody typology (e.g. levels of

altitude, lake surface area or river catchment area), on which ecological status classification systems
often depend. All environmental information that was not associated with a sampling date was stored
in a separate table related to the waterbody table, in order to limit the size of the more fundamental
waterbody table.

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179 Harmonization of the waterbody coding, i.e. to identify common waterbodies from different data 180 sources, was a major challenge. Such harmonization was required because some of the data analysis in 181 Group 2 was based on integrated data from several BQEs (i.e. from different WP databases). For 182 example, the analysis of cross-taxon responses to stress gradients in streams and lakes (Angeler et al., 183 2012) required raw data from 3-4 BQEs from the same waterbody. The foreground data from the field 184 campaign contained only a limited number of waterbodies (Table 1B), which could easily be 185 harmonised. In the background data, however, a waterbody could appear in several different datasets 186 with different coding. Moreover, geographic coordinates were sometimes missing, which rendered 187 reliable identification of the waterbodies impossible. Consequently, waterbody coding was harmonised 188 only for a subset of the background data, i.e. for lakes in countries from where 3 or 4 BQEs were 189 reported (Belgium, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Lithuania, Latvia, Netherlands, Norway, 190 Poland, Romania, Sweden and UK) as well as for all river stations. 191

192 The station table contained only the most basic information regarding the sampling location, such as 193 station code, station name, and geographical coordinates. A station was regarded as the spot location 194 where the sample was taken and could be characterised by coordinates. A station always belonged to a 195 single waterbody, whereas a waterbody could contain more than one station.

196

197 Biological and environmental samples were stored in separate tables, as relationships between

198 biological and environmental samples within a dataset could be complex (both one-to-many and

199 many-to-one). To find a consistent way of defining a 'sample' for all biological groups, in terms of

200 unique combinations of other sampling information, was a critical task. Analysis of data for several

201 BQEs combined typically involved calculation of a biological index value for each sample, therefore a

202 common definition of the 'sample' level was necessary for data analysis in Group 2 (Angeler et al., 203 2012). Moreover, an unambiguous definition of biological samples was also needed for a consistent 204 uncertainty analysis of index values for the different BQEs (e.g. (Balsby et al., 2012; Carvalho et al., 205 2012; Dromph et al., 2012; Dudley et al., 2012b; Mascaró et al., 2012) which in turn was required for 206 assessing confidence in classification results (Clarke, 2012). However, the sampling methods varied 207 substantially among BQEs: for example, phytoplankton was sampled in bottles, macrophytes in 208 transects, fish in net campaigns lasting several days and in different locations. Therefore the database 209 structure was developed in close communication with all WP data managers, in order to ensure that 210 the sample table contained all fields required for a unique definition of 'sample' for all BQEs (i.e., a set 211 of records containing no more than one observation per taxon). As a result, the definition of unique 212 biological samples across all BQEs was a unique combination of the following fields: station, sample 213 date, upper and lower sample depth, sample location (e.g. habitat), sample method, sample type (i.e. 214 BQE), and replicate number. For definition of unique environmental samples, the same set of fields 215 was used except sample method. Any information about methodology used for collection and analysis 216 of the individual samples that were included in the WP databases, were stored in the sample tables. 217 Additional methodological information for the original datasets may be found in the metadatabase, 218 under "Sample specification". 219 220 Code lists were developed for the most important fields in the database and distributed to all WPs, to 221 allow for standardisation of the content of the CDB. All code lists are included in the WISER data

dictionary (http://www.wiser.eu/results/central-database). Taxonomic code lists were developed by
each WP and combined in the CDB. The complete taxonomic code list also provides a link to the

taxonomic codes of freshwaterecology.info.

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226 Content of the WISER central database

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228 The WISER central database was composed of WP databases compiled by WPs 3.1-5.1 (Figure 1).

229 The content was therefore determined by the data sources that these WPs selected for their own

objectives. Some WP databases contained additional information that was eventually not included in
the CDB, e.g. data on climate, land use and other environmental pressures. More information about the
content of individual WP databases can be found in the references listed in Table 1.

233

234 The CDB contains data from 26 countries (Figure 2), with over one million records of biological 235 values, most of which are species observations with an abundance measure. Summary statistics 236 (numbers of countries, stations, samples etc.) for each biological quality element are given in Table 1. 237 The background data (Table 1A) included 49 datasets, mostly from lakes and rivers as well as fish in 238 transitional/coastal waters. The background data comprised approximately 100,000 biological samples 239 from over 6000 waterbodies in 26 countries, and 70,000 environmental samples from these 240 waterbodies (including chlorophyll-a). The foreground data (Table 1B) included all the data collected 241 in lakes, transitional and coastal waters during the WISER field campaign and delivered to the data 242 service team by the end of 2011. The field campaign resulted in almost 30,000 biological records from 243 over 6,000 samples from 58 waterbodies in 14 countries. In addition, the foreground data contained 244 almost 10,000 samples of environmental data.

245

246 The number of biological samples and records was unevenly distributed among countries, water 247 categories and BQEs (Figure 3). The number of samples may not be directly comparable across 248 different BOEs, since very different sampling methods are used for e.g., phytoplankton versus fish. 249 The number of records represents the total number of taxa (usually species level) in all samples 250 combined. Data from rivers were relatively balanced for the different BQEs, but dominated by central 251 Europe (Figure 3a). Data from lakes were dominated by phytoplankton and fish in northern and 252 central-European countries (Figure 3b), while coastal/transitional data were dominated by 253 macroalgae/angiosperms and fish from central- and southern-European countries (Figure 3c). 254 255 The total number of taxa per country was typically 2-3 orders of magnitude higher than the average

number of taxa per sample from the respective country (Figure 4). The 'taxon' here represents the

257 highest taxonomic resolution available for each record, which was usually species. Within each BQE,

258 the average number of taxa per sample was relatively stable across countries, although the numbers 259 may vary with an order of magnitude in some cases. The total number of taxa per country was more variable across countries. However, it should be noted that the total number of taxa for a country tends 260 261 to increase with the total number of samples. Therefore, a high number of recorded taxa for a country 262 do not only reflect species richness, but also the amount of data delivered from this country. In 263 general, the highest taxon richness per country was found for river macroinvertebrates (>1000 taxa for 264 a few central-European countries) and for lake phytoplankton (300-1000 taxa for many countries). 265 Other more conspicuous peaks in taxon richness probably reflect that certain countries provided a 266 large number of samples from a particular BQE to the database (for example, data on 267 transitional/coastal macroinvertebrates from Spain and fish from France).

268

269 The environmental data were also unevenly distributed among WPs (Table 1), and were strongly 270 dominated by water samples taken for coastal phytoplankton. However, since environmental data 271 collected for one BQE could also be used for analysis of other BQEs in the same waterbody (for the 272 set of waterbodies where coding was harmonised across BQEs), the availability of environmental data 273 for each BQE was somewhat less skewed than what appears from Table 1. For rivers, the following 274 environmental parameters have the highest number of records in the CDB (in descending order): 275 orthophosphate, conductivity, nitrite, pH, water temperature, oxygen saturation (all >5000 records), 276 followed by nitrate, ammonia, total phosphorus, chloride, alkalinity, oxygen and BOD5 (all >2000 277 records). For lakes, the most common the environmental parameters in the CDB were (in descending 278 order): total phosphorus, chlorophyll a, water temperature, total nitrogen, pH, conductivity, Secchi 279 depth and oxygen (all >40,000 records), followed by water colour, alkalinity, dissolved inorganic 280 phosphorus, chemical oxygen demand, turbidity, dissolved inorganic and organic nitrogen, and 281 orthophosphate (all >20,000 records). For transitional/coastal waters, the most common environmental 282 parameters were salinity, water temperature, oxygen, oxygen saturation, conductivity (all >2000 283 records); pH, chlorophyll a, total nitrogen, total phosphorus, nitrate, ammonia and orthophosphate (all 284 >100 records).

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286 Future use of WISER data

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288 The data service team intended to make the WISER central database publicly available as far as 289 possible via a web-based tool, i.e. all datasets where the IPRs would allow unconditional downloading 290 and further use. However, the majority of the datasets that were finally stored in the CDB have IPRs 291 that are too strict to allow unmonitored distribution; e.g. the data owners have requested to be offered 292 co-authorship in publications or to be informed about further use of the data. It would therefore have 293 been irresponsible to make these data publicly available, as it would have been infeasible to follow up 294 each data download and check that the IPRs are respected in each case. Further, using data collected 295 for a different purpose may require more knowledge of the individual datasets than the information 296 currently available in the metadatabase. It is therefore recommended that further use of the WISER 297 data involve collaboration with scientists from the WISER consortium.

298

299 For scientists who are interested in using the WISER data, the following approach is recommended. 300 Scientists who are interested in a substantial part of the total WISER CDB (e.g., all lakes data) should 301 contact the WISER data service team (authors of this paper). Scientists who are interested in all data 302 for a single biological quality element (e.g., phytoplankton in lakes) should contact the respective WP 303 data manager (see Table 1; further contact information is given in the data dictionary). Scientists who 304 are interested in a single dataset (e.g., phytoplankton in Norwegian lakes) should contact the respective 305 contact person listed in the metadata query output (http://www.wiser.eu/results/meta-database). Note 306 that the metadatabase contains information and contact details for twice as many datasets as are stored 307 in the WISER central database (see Schmidt-Kloiber et al., this issue for more details).

308

309 Concluding remarks and recommendations

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The main purpose of this paper was to inform about the structure and content of the WISER central database, in order to facilitate further scientific use of this very comprehensive data resource. A second purpose was to share experiences of the WISER data service team, which might be relevant for other

314 research projects involving compilation and multiple uses of ecological data. Some technical 315 recommendations for data compilation are provided by Moe et al. (2008). In the following, the 316 experiences of the data service team and highlighted and a series of recommendations are offered for 317 other environmental projects.

318

1) Overview of data sources. The initial mapping of available data sources from the very beginning of
the project's preparatory phase was an important first step. A preliminary overview of the available
datasets allowed all partners to indicate their data needs in a consistent way in the project proposal.
This information in turn enabled the data service team to map the overlapping data needs, and on this
basis elaborate a data management plan which was presented and discussed at the first project
meeting.

325

326 2) Information on intellectual property rights (IPR). Based on lessons learned from previous 327 projects, information on IPR and contact information of data providers were requested for each dataset 328 from the very beginning of the project and stored in the metadatabase. As mentioned, the IPR rules 329 imposed by data owners were ultimately rather strict, usually requiring that data owners must be 330 contacted for each new use of the data. Although all IPR information was available from the publicly 331 available metadatabase throughout the project, project partners often struggled with finding and 332 following the specific IPR criteria for the datasets they had used. In hindsight, we would recommend 333 that only datasets for which there is no requirement to contact data owners should be distributed within 334 the project. (We would nevertheless recommend users to contact the data owners, who will often be 335 able to contribute with additional documentation and knowledge).

336

3) Centralised vs. decentralised data management. Originally a more centralised data management
was suggested for the project, but early feedback from project partners revealed that Group 1 WPs
preferred to manage their own data independently of a central database. The two-step data compilation
procedure with both WP databases and a central database was planned accordingly (Figure 1). This
decentralised data management was more flexible and efficient for Group 1, and contributed to the

high scientific productivity (see examples in Table 1). On the other hand, this solution may have
compromised and delayed the data delivery to Group 2 relative to the original plan. The best solution
for other projects will depend on the aims and resources of the project; for more discussion of cost and
benefits of project databases see Moe et al. (2008) and Refsgaard et al. (2007).

346

347 4) 'High tech' vs. 'low tech' solutions. Assistance with data compilation and data extraction was 348 generally offered in two ways: a 'high tech' option where the data service team developed database 349 tools with user interfaces (e.g. the WISER data extraction tool; (e.g. the WISER data extraction tool; 350 Dudley et al., 2012a), and a 'low tech' alternative where data extraction etc. was performed upon 351 demand and in dialogue with the data users. The 'low tech' solutions were often preferred by the data 352 users; therefore the development of more advanced tool-based solutions was given lower priority in 353 this project (even though more advanced solutions could have facilitated future use of the data). 354 Hence, before investing resources in developing tools and user interfaces for data users, establishing 355 whether partners are interested and willing to use such tools can be worthwhile.

356

357 5) Coordination of data management. Large research projects will normally experience delays and 358 other deviations from the work plan, and the data management strategy may need to be adapted in the 359 light of the progress. The WISER project had rather ambitious plans for data flow given the tight time 360 schedule, and therefore required close communication with all data managers and frequent update of 361 data management plans. For example, it was discovered that information for waterbody classification 362 based on the new WISER field data (Group 1) would not be available in time for a planned analysis of 363 integrated classification using all four BOEs (Group 2); therefore alternative data sources were used 364 instead (Caroni & van den Bund, this issue). The central coordination of data management was clearly 365 beneficial for WISER and is recommended for other research projects with shared use of data.

366

In conclusion, to ensure adaptive data management in research projects with composite and
overlapping data needs like WISER, some degree of central coordination of the data flow is
recommended, including a proper metadatabase. The time required for this task can easily be

370 underestimated; therefore sufficient resources should be allocated from the beginning of the project. A 371 data management period of e.g. three months after the official termination of the project can be useful, 372 allowing time for harmonising data, completing metadata and placing the data on a public data 373 repository. This investment will facilitate future re-use of the project's data by project partners as well 374 as other scientists. Finally, we support the recommendation of Beniston et al. (2012) for easier access 375 to data and information in water- and climate-related sciences: the establishment of a general well-376 defined and easily accessible 'clearinghouse' of relevant and structured data and metadata, which 377 explicitly includes data produced by EU-funded and related projects.

378

379 Acknowledgments

380 We thank Roar Brænden, Jan Karud, Jörg Strackbein and Robert Vogl for constructive discussions and

technical advice. All WP data managers (Table 1) are acknowledged for collaboration and delivery of

data to the central database. The WISER project was funded by the European Union under the 7th

383 Framework Programme, Theme 6 (Environment including Climate Change), contract no. 226273. We

- 384 thank Christian Feld, Laurence Carvalho and two anonymous reviewers for helpful comments to the
- 385 manuscript.
- 386

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503 504	Figure captions
505	Fig. 1 Conceptual diagram of data flow in WISER. For more information about the different work
506	packages (WPs), see Hering et al. (2012)
507	
508	Fig. 2 Geographic coverage of the WISER central database for rivers (a), lakes (b) and
509	transitional/coastal waters (c). Countries labelled with 2-letter iso country code are represented in the
510	database
511	
512	Fig. 3 Number of samples and records, respectively, for each biological quality element from rivers
513	(a), lakes (b) and transitional/coastal waters (c), in the WISER central database. The number of records
514	equals the number of taxa per sample summarised for all samples. Each bar displays the number of
515	both foreground and background samples (or records, respectively), from each country. Note the
516	logarithmic scale of the y-axis
517	
518	Fig. 4 Number of taxa per country and average number of taxa per sample, respectively, for each
519	biological quality element from rivers (a), lakes (b) and transitional/coastal waters (c), in the WISER
520	central database. Vertical lines show ± 1 standard deviation. Note the logarithmic scale of the y-axis
521	

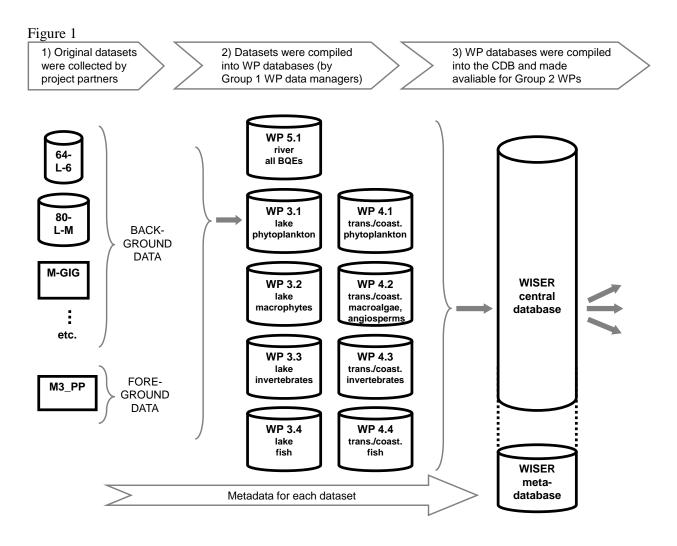
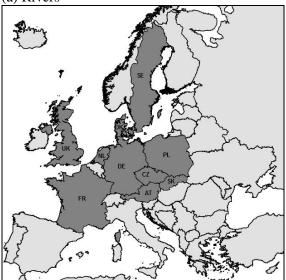


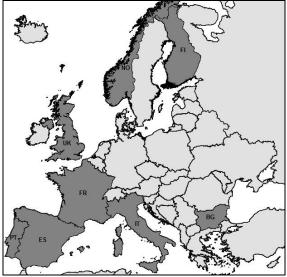
Figure 2 (a) Rivers



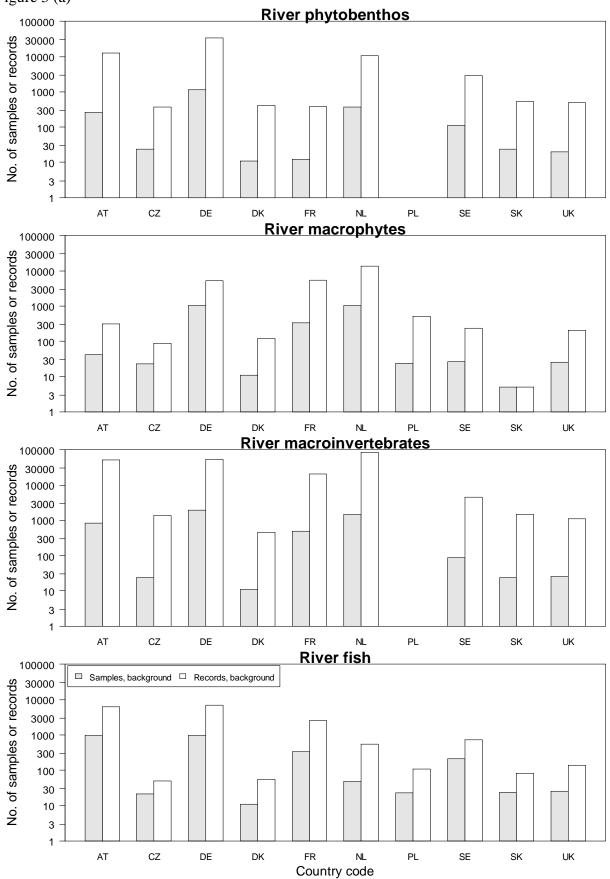
(b) Lakes

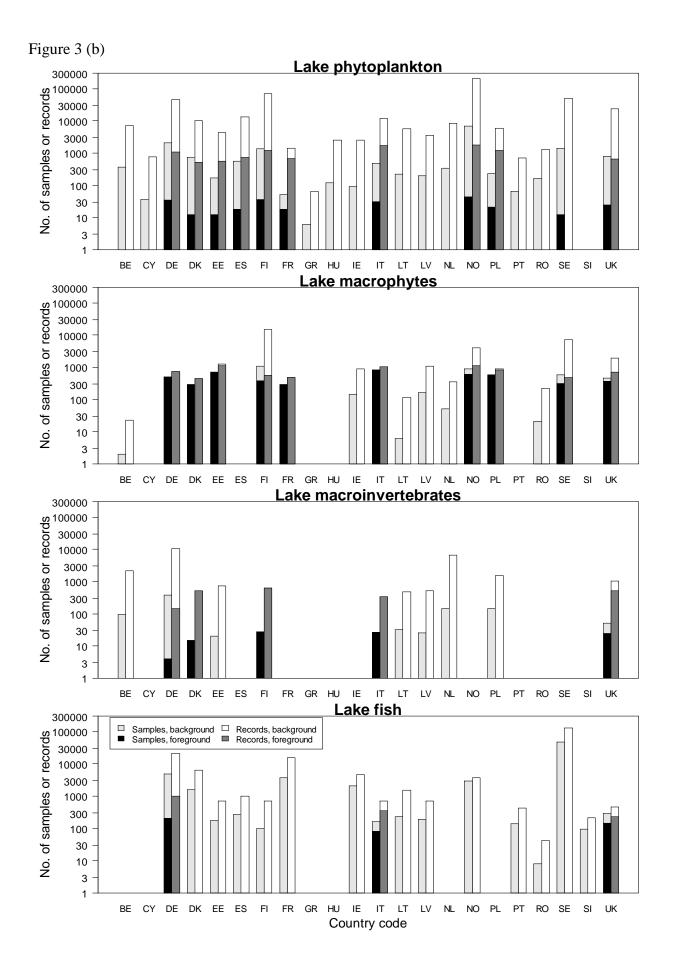


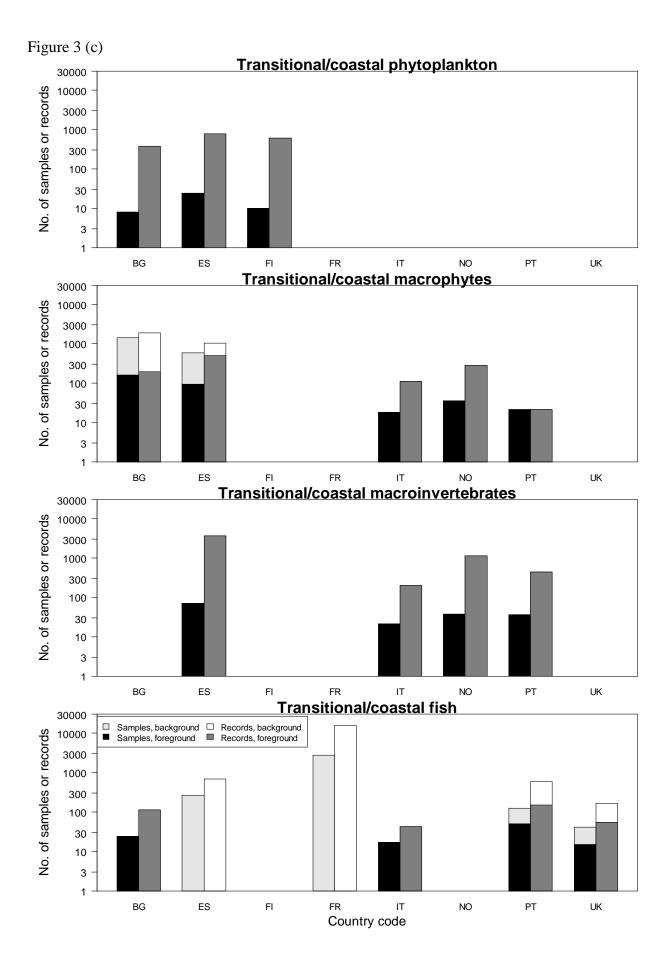
(c) Transitional/coastal waters

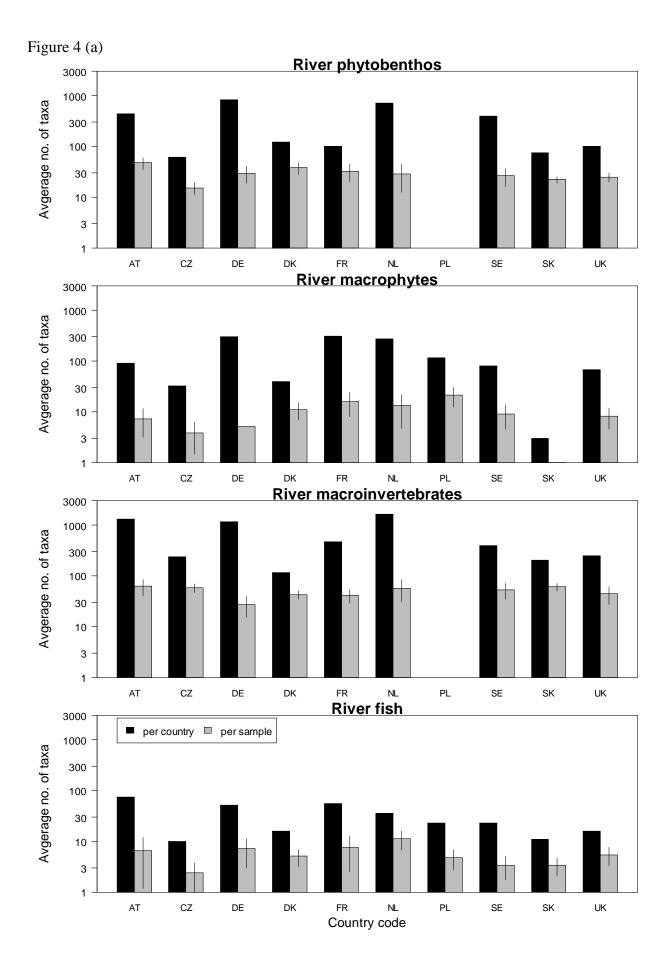


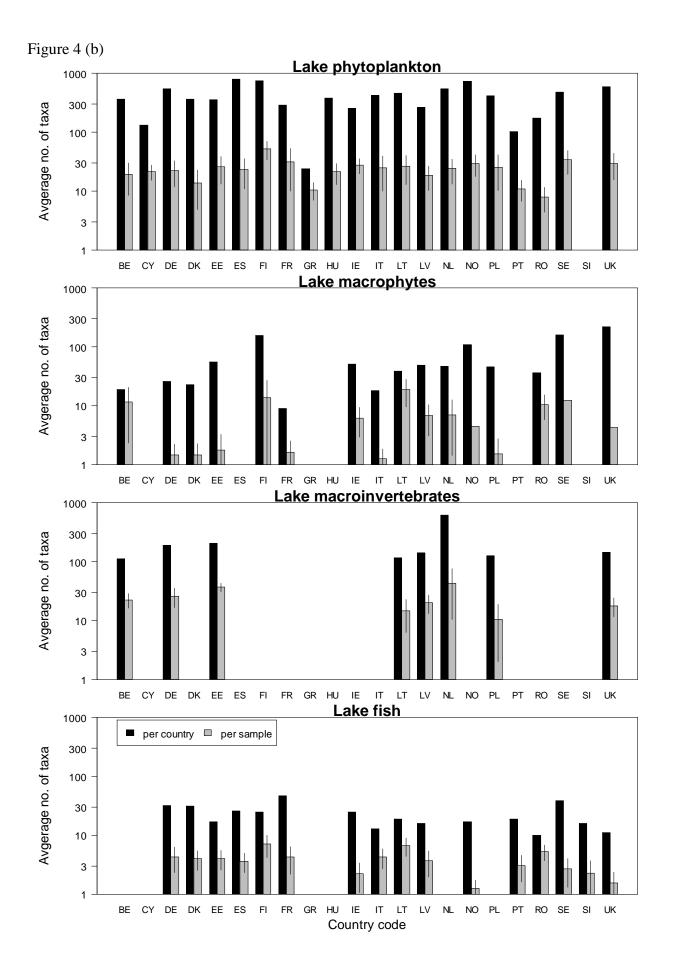












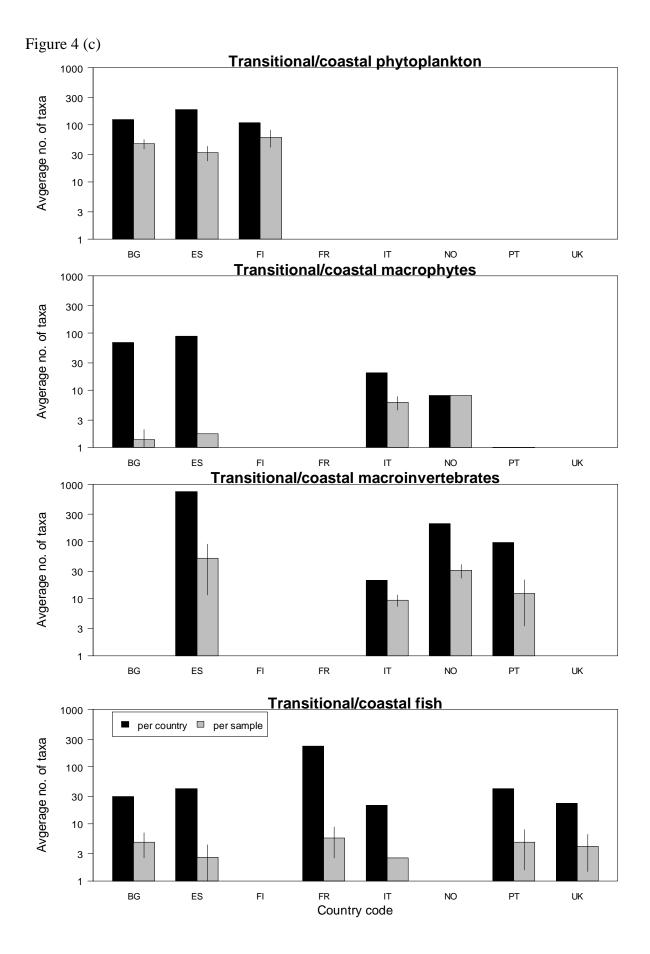


Table 1 Summary content of the WISER central database: number of countries, waterbodies, stations, biological samples and records and environmental samples and records for each biological quality element (BQE). The counts of waterbodies and stations include only those containing biological samples (not including chlorophyll-a). The counts of environmental data include only waterbodies that contain biological data in the same WP database. (a) Background data from national monitoring data, previous research projects etc. (b) Foreground data from the WISER field campaign 2009-2010. Cited publications provide examples of the scientific use of each WP database. More information on the individual datasets constituting each WP database can be found at: http://www.wiser.eu/download/WISER_Dataset_IPR_overview.xls.zip

(a)										
WP	BQE	Countries	Water-	Stations	Biol.	Biol.	Envir.	Envir.	Data manager	Scientific
			bodies		samples	records	samples	records		publications
5.1	River phytobenthos	9	795	1 580	1 963	61 598	6 148	134 332	Andreas Melcher, Martin Seebacher	(Dahm et al., 2012; Feld et al.,
	River macrophytes	10	683	1 959	2 557	25 927				2012; Haase et al., 2012)
	River macroinvertebrates	9	1 380	3 281	4 911	217 501				2012)
	River fish	10	805	2 247	2 617	17 376				
3.1	Lake phytoplankton ¹⁾	21	2063	2193	16 238	463 837	63 426	383 941	Birger Skjelbred, Geoff Phillips	(Järvinen et al., 2012; Maileht et al., 2012)
3.2	Lake macrophytes	12	1571	1 613	1 724	27 773	0	0	Bernard Dudley	(Mjelde et al., 2012)
3.3	Lake macroinvertebrates	8	179	628	870	23 016	0	0	Jürgen Böhmer	
3.4	Lake fish	16	2005	47 292	64 690	185 343	0	0	Stéphanie Pedron, Simon Causse	(Argillier et al., 2012)
4.2	Transitional/coastal macroalgae and angiosperms	2	32	62	1831	2 306	3	3	Rosa G. Novoa	(Mascaró et al., 2012)
4.4	Transitional/coastal fish	4	57	1 912	2778	17 003	3 022	14 366	Anne Courrat , Mario Lepage	(Alvarez et al., 2012)
Total		26	6748 ²⁾	62 767	100 179	1 041 680	72 599	532 642		

(b)

WP	BQE	Countries	Water- bodies	Stations	Biol. samples	Biol. records	Envir. samples	Envir. records	Data manager	Scientific publications
3.1	Lake phytoplankton ³⁾	10	29	94	186	10 047	976	3 107	Birger Skjelbred, Jannicke Moe	(Carvalho et al., 2012)
3.2	Lake macrophytes	10	28	159	4 848	7 497	0	0	Bernard Dudley	(Dudley et al., 2012; Karus & Feldmann, 2012)
3.3	Lake macroinvertebrates	5	12	30	96	2 159	31	31	Oliver Miler, Mario Brauns	
3.4	Lake fish	3	14	310	430	1 587	0	0	Stéphanie Pedron	(Argillier et al., 2012)
4.1	Transitional/coastal phytoplankton	3	5	18	42	1 755	0	0	Karsten Dromph	(Dromph et al., 2012)
4.2	Transitional/coastal macroalgae and angiosperms	5	15	65	328	1 112	8 357	25 521	Rosa G. Novoa	(Marbà et al., 2012; Orfanidis et al., 2012)
4.3	Transitional/coastal macroinvertebrates	4	11	61	165	5 408	56	559	Karl Norling	(Borja et al., 2011)
4.4	Transitional/coastal fish	4	7	71	213	361	213	803	Anne Courrat	(Alvarez et al., 2012)
Total		14	58 ²⁾	808	808	6 308	29 926	9 633		

This database also contains background data on chlorophylla a from 6532 waterbodies, 10 090 stations and 72 823 samples.
 The total number of waterbodies is lower than the sum across all WPs, because some waterbodies were recorded in more than one WP database.

3) This database also contains foreground data on chlorophylla a from 32 waterbodies, 103 stations and 237 samples