MISELA: High-frequency sea-level analysis global dataset

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Abstract. Sea-level observations provide information on a variety of processes occurring over different temporal and spatial scales that may contribute to coastal flooding and hazards. However, global research of sea-level extremes is restricted to hourly datasets, which prevent quantification and analyses of processes occurring at timescales between a few minutes and a
10 few hours. These shorter period processes, like seiches, meteotsunamis, infragravity and coastal waves, may even dominate in low-tidal basins. Therefore, a new global 1-minute sea-level dataset - MISELA (Minute Sea-Level Analysis) - has been developed, encompassing quality-checked records of nonseismic sea-level oscillations at tsunami timescales (T<2h) obtained from 331 tide-gauge sites (https://doi.org/10.14284/456, Zemunik et al., 2021b). This paper describes data quality control procedures applied to the MISELA dataset, world and regional coverage of tide-gauge sites and lengths of time-series. The
15 dataset is appropriate for global, regional or local research of atmospherically-induced high-frequency sea-level oscillations, which should be included in the overall sea-level extremes assessments.

1 Introduction

Extreme sea-level events represent a major hazard in coastal zones and have an immediate impact on the coasts, unlike processes acting on longer timescales such as the rise of the mean sea-level, which leaves much more time to adapt (Menéndez
20 and Woodworth, 2010). The sensitivity of the coastal zone infrastructure and population to extreme sea levels emphasizes the need for investigation of their sources and characteristics, estimation of their incidence and strengths, cataloguing of historical events, assessments of their behaviour under the future climate, development of warning systems and ultimately arranging possible adaptation measures to these phenomena. However, these attempts are significantly limited by the availability of sea-level data in terms of resolution, coverage and quality.

25 Tide gauge observations provide information on a wide range of oceanographic phenomena, including extreme events associated with tsunamis, storm surges and other causes of sudden coastal inundations. It has been recognized long ago that well-organised and accessible sea-level databases are a prerequisite for gaining knowledge on sea-level extremes (e.g. Vafeidis et al., 2008; Hunter et al., 2017) and, consequently, for the management of coastal hazards. However, no quality-checked global sea-level datasets afford sufficiently high temporal resolution to cover periods at which – in addition to extraordinary
30 events like tsunamis – a variety of processes may contribute substantially to, or even dominate the overall sea-level extremes

(Vilibić and Šepić, 2017). Many research activities have been based on 1-minute sea-level records, mainly being focused on specific regions known for frequent occurrence of meteotsunamis or high-frequency sea-level oscillations, such as the Mediterranean Sea (e.g. Šepić et al., 2015), Sicily (e.g. Šepić et al., 2018; Zemunik et al., 2021a), the Adriatic Sea (e.g. Šepić et al., 2016), the Balearic Islands (e.g. Marcos et al., 2009), the Finnish coast (e.g. Pellikka et al., 2014), the Great Lakes (e.g.

35 Šepić and Rabinovich, 2014; Bechle et al., 2016), the U.S. East Coast (e.g. Pasquet et al., 2013), the Chilean coast (e.g. Carvajal et al., 2017), Japan (e.g. Heidarzadeh and Rabinovich, 2021), Australia (e.g. Pattiaratchi and Wijeratne, 2014), the Caribbean (Woodworth, 2017) and many others.

Accessible global sea-level datasets differ in both sampling and latency, following the needs of the scientific and user communities, from quantification of climate changes and sea-level rise (e.g. Jevrejeva et al., 2006) through studying of sea-

40 level extremes (e.g. Menéndez and Woodworth, 2010). Global sea-level datasets coming from tide gauge observations are dominantly assembled and archived in the following data centres and datasets:

1. Permanent Service for Mean Sea Level (PSMSL, https://www.psmsl.org), providing monthly and annual mean values of sea-level for ca. 1550 stations, mainly being used in climate sea-level studies (Holgate et al., 2013);

2. British Oceanographic Data Centre (BODC, https://www.bodc.ac.uk), handling hourly and higher resolution global
45 sea-level data in section International sea-level data (GLOSS/WOCE/CLIVAR data) for ca. 215 stations in delayed-mode (up to a year), during which the centre performs inspection and quality control, in addition to the UK tide gauge network and historical BPR (bottom pressure recorder) data;

3. Global Extreme Sea Level Analysis dataset (GESLA, http://www.gesla.org, Woodworth et al., 2016, 2017), containing global sea-level data with an hourly or higher (e.g. 10 or 15-min) resolution at the majority of 1355 tide
50 gauges, however the quality control has not been undertaken centrally but relies on procedures undertaken by data providers;

4. University of Hawaii Sea Level Centre (UHSLC, https://uhslc.soest.hawaii.edu), distributing both preliminary quality-checked data in fast-mode (1-2 months) for ca. 290 stations and fully quality-checked hourly sea-level dataset through Joint Archive for Sea Level (JASL) (Caldwell et al., 2015) for ca. 515 stations, in cooperation with NOAA
55 National Centers for Environmental Information (https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/metadata/landing-page/bin/iso?id=gov.noaa.nodc:JIMAR-JASL);

5. Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission Sea Level Station Monitoring Facility (IOC SLSMF, http://www.ioc-sealevelmonitoring.org) hosted by the Flanders Marine Institute (VLIZ), providing raw global sea-level data for ca. 1100 stations with a minute or higher resolution in real- or near-real time and designed for operational purposes.

60 Convincingly, only the last dataset contains global sea-level records coming from tide gauges measuring at a minute resolution, however the disadvantage is that there is no possibility of undertaking quality control in real-time, therefore these raw records may contain many different problems (UNESCO, 2020). It should be noted here that some services freely share their 1-min data through specific databases, but covering national coastlines or limited areas, like NOAA Tides and Currents dataset (https://tidesandcurrents.noaa.gov). In order to override these issues and provide a consistent global-scale dataset of research

quality, the Minute Sea-Level Analysis (MISELA) dataset was developed and will be presented in this paper. MISELA contains delayed mode 1-minute quality-checked and high-pass filtered (2-hour cut-off period) sea-level records from a large number of tide gauges worldwide for a period from 2004 to 2019. Having access to a global dataset of 1-minute sea-level data may accelerate the research on various high-frequency sea-level phenomena such as seiches, meteotsunamis, infragravity and coastal waves (e.g. Monserrat et al., 2006; Yankovsky, 2009; Pellikka et al., 2014; Pattiaratchi and Wijeratne, 2015; Dodet et al., 2019), which cannot be researched using hourly measurements.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 the sources of the data used for the MISELA dataset and the quality control procedure are thoroughly described. Section 3 presents the MISELA dataset, the global and regional coverage of the quality-checked time-series and the basic statistics of the dataset. The paper finishes with the data availability statement and discussion on applications, perspectives and possible improvements of the MISELA dataset.

2 Data and methods

2.1 Sources of data

The main source for constructing the MISELA dataset is the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission Sea Level Station Monitoring Facility (Flanders Marine Institute (VLIZ) and Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (IOC), 2021), which provides raw sea-level data received in real-time from more than 160 providers that presently operate approximately 935 tide gauge stations. However, the network of tide gauges contains some stations which are in disrepair (total number of the IOC stations is ca. 1100).

The IOC database has been established following the disastrous 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami (Chlieh et al., 2007), after which UNESCO, through IOC, coordinated efforts in developing regional tsunami warning systems (Amato, 2020). The main objective of the facility is to inform users about the status of station availability and performance (Aarup et al., 2019). This includes displaying the tide gauge station metadata and regularly checking the operational status of all stations, as well as contacting operators regarding non-operating stations. Another important objective is a display service through which one can undertake quick visual inspection of the raw data in a selected half-daily, daily, weekly or monthly period during which the chosen station was operational (IOC, 2012). It is also possible to download the data for the whole operational period. However, any research use of these data would require additional processing (e.g. quality control), in order to properly prepare and involve data in statistical analyses and avoid misleading results and conclusions (Aarup et al., 2019).

As real-time data are mostly used for operational purposes, the IOC data have not undergone any quality control procedure and are shared "as received" from providers (see http://www.ioc-sealevelmonitoring.org/disclaimer.php). Expectedly, many time-series are of bad quality with spikes, shifts, drifts and other errors which are due to malfunctions of instruments (Fig. 1), being dependent on the real-time quality control procedures set up by the operators and on the quality of sensors and instrumentation on the sites. The majority of the tide gauges are providing data with a 1-minute frequency of sampling, yet some of them are still recording on a multi-minute timescale and are thus not included in the MISELA dataset. Further, some

stations have multiple sensors (e.g. pressure, radar and bubbler sensors) to provide cross-calibration between measurements. Each of the stations comes with an information on a reference code, location and country of the tide gauge, contacts of the local agency operating the station, geographic position, type of sensor for measurement and sampling rate, etc.

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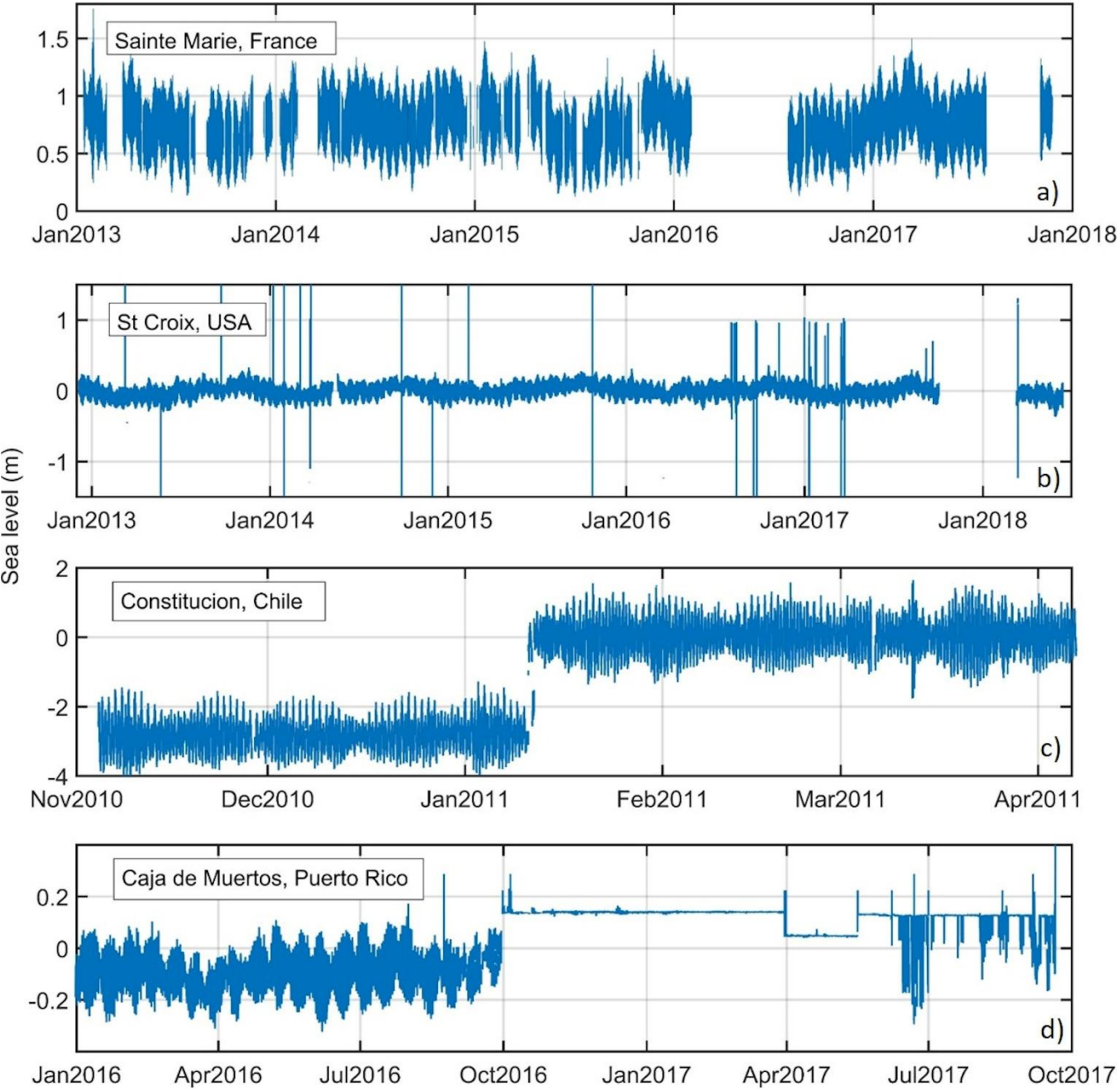
Figure 1: Examples of measured 1-min sea-level series containing different problems with the data: a) gaps, b) spikes, c) shifts, and d) spurious oscillations in time series.

Furthermore, 13 stations operated by the Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI, https://en.ilmatieteenlaitos.fi/) and situated on the east coast of the Baltic Sea are included in the MISELA dataset. The 1-minute sea-level records are available from 2004
105 and have been already used in several regional studies on meteorological tsunamis along the Finnish coast (e.g. Pellikka et al., 2014; Jylhä et al., 2018). The FMI data are not included in the IOC SLSMF database. Finally, sea-level data from four stations in the Adriatic Sea were provided by the Institute of Oceanography and Fisheries (IOF, https://acta.izor.hr/wp/en/). These stations, except Split, can also be found in the IOC SLSMF dataset, but only after October 2018, whereas the IOF provided the data from May 2017 onwards.

2.2 Quality control (QC) procedures
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The first step in the development of the MISELA dataset was implementing a procedure that reads and stores data from the IOC SLSMF portal for the period from the beginning of the station activity until June 2018. After obtaining the sea-level time-series from the IOC, FMI and IOF stations, for further processing, we selected stations having at least a 2-year-long series and containing no more than 30% of data gaps. As the dataset is intended to be applicable for statistical analyses of high-frequency
115 sea-level processes, we choose a length of 1.4 year (70% of 2 years) as a threshold, because short time series or those overly intermitted with data gaps would not significantly contribute to the research. For stations having multiple sensors we selected the series being the longest or with the lowest percentage of data gaps. These gaps are not interpolated with the data of the other sensors at the same station, as it appeared that the sensors may measure different the intensity of the sea-level oscillations at a minute timescale. Datum and clock shift were also not treated, as requiring information which is not available at the IOC
120 SLSMF. The stations having data records of very low quality (spikes that are distributed throughout most of the time series and appear on an hourly or multi-hourly basis, obvious incorrect records like spurious oscillations produced by malfunctions of instruments), spotted by visual checking, were also not taken into the processing. Along with 13 FMI and 4 IOF stations, 314 stations were selected from the IOC satisfying the above conditions, constituting 331 time-series in total.

The dataset required further processing as it contained numerous data quality problems (Fig. 1). First, the series were detided
125 by removing all significant tidal components using the Matlab software package T_Tide (Pawlowicz et al., 2002) in order to allow for simpler visual inspection of the residual signal. The automatic quality control procedures included removing of out-of-range values, i.e. values 50 cm differing from one neighbouring value or 30 cm differing from both neighbouring values (in case of the FMI stations 20 cm differing from one or 15 cm differing from both neighbouring values). The automatic spike detection procedure was continued by applying the methodology described by Williams et al. (2019), removing the values that
130 deviate three standard deviations from a spline fitted using a least-squares method. After the automatic control, remaining spikes were detected and removed by visual scanning of all records. In this time-consuming process, each series was inspected over 15-day-long windows, and spurious spikes and isolated data that have passed through the automatic procedures were manually removed. During these quality control steps, a considerable amount of data has been removed, in particular at the beginning or end of the time series. Therefore, the MISELA's time-series might be shorter (down to 1.5 years) or have
135 percentage of gaps higher than 30%, when compared to the raw series. Unlike the existing automatic quality control systems

SELENE (EuroGOOS DATA-MEQ working group, 2010) and Automatic Tide Gauge Processing System from the NOC (Williams et al., 2019), our approach introduced manual procedure as well, given the great variety of data problems coming from a wide range of operators, operating procedures and sea-level sensors. Not all problems (e.g. spikes, spurious oscillations, stucks of instruments) were removed properly and thus a more robust approach than provided by the fully automated system, was required, yet taking a lot of efforts and time.

The next step in creating the MISELA dataset was to exclude sea-level records observed during seismic tsunamis, since the applications are directed towards research on atmospherically-induced sea-level oscillations, which has been an emerging field during the last decades (e.g. Pattiaratchi and Wijeratne, 2015; Vilibić et al., 2021). Using the NGDC/WDS Global Historical Tsunami Database (https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/hazard/tsu_db.shtml), we listed all tsunamis from 2006 to 2018 and deleted several days of data (depending on the tsunami intensity) during each recorded tsunami at all stations in the area. To restrict to the high-frequency sea-level signal only, the final step included digital filtering of the data by the high-pass Kaiser-Bessel filter (Thomson and Emery, 2014; Šepić et al., 2015; Vilibić and Šepić, 2017) with a cut-off period of 2 hours. Therefore, the applications of the MISELA dataset are designed exclusively for researching atmospherically-induced sea-level oscillations at the tsunami timescales. However, the dataset might be combined with other existing datasets (at hourly resolutions) that are available by the known databanks (like these listed in Section 1). Prior to the filtering, linear interpolation of gaps shorter than one week was carried out, as the digital filtering requires a continuous time-series. While a great majority of data outliers have been removed from the records, some have undoubtedly remained in the data as the visual control is subject to errors and omissions and is subjective to a certain extent. It should be highlighted that sea-level data from the IOC SLSMF database up to June 2015 was downloaded, quality-controlled, processed and analysed by Vilibić and Šepić (2017), here extended by June 2018, further controlled following common quality control procedures and gathered into the MISELA dataset. The complete process of the quality control (QC) procedure is illustrated in Fig. 2, while Fig. 3 demonstrates three examples of sea-level series before and after applied procedures.
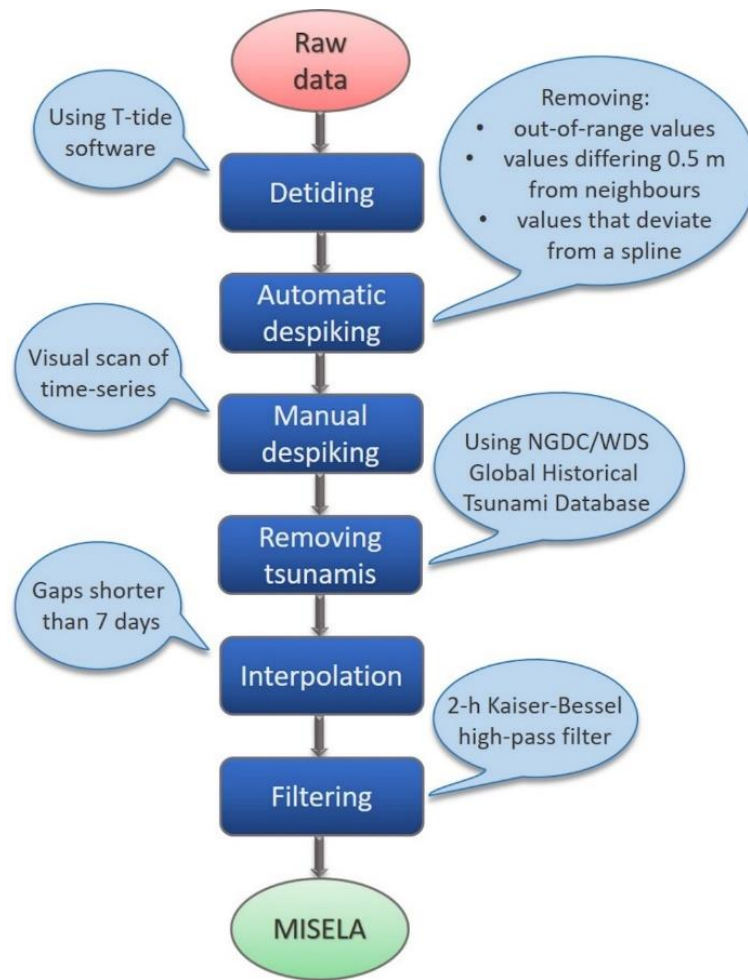
Figure 2: The diagram of the data processing.

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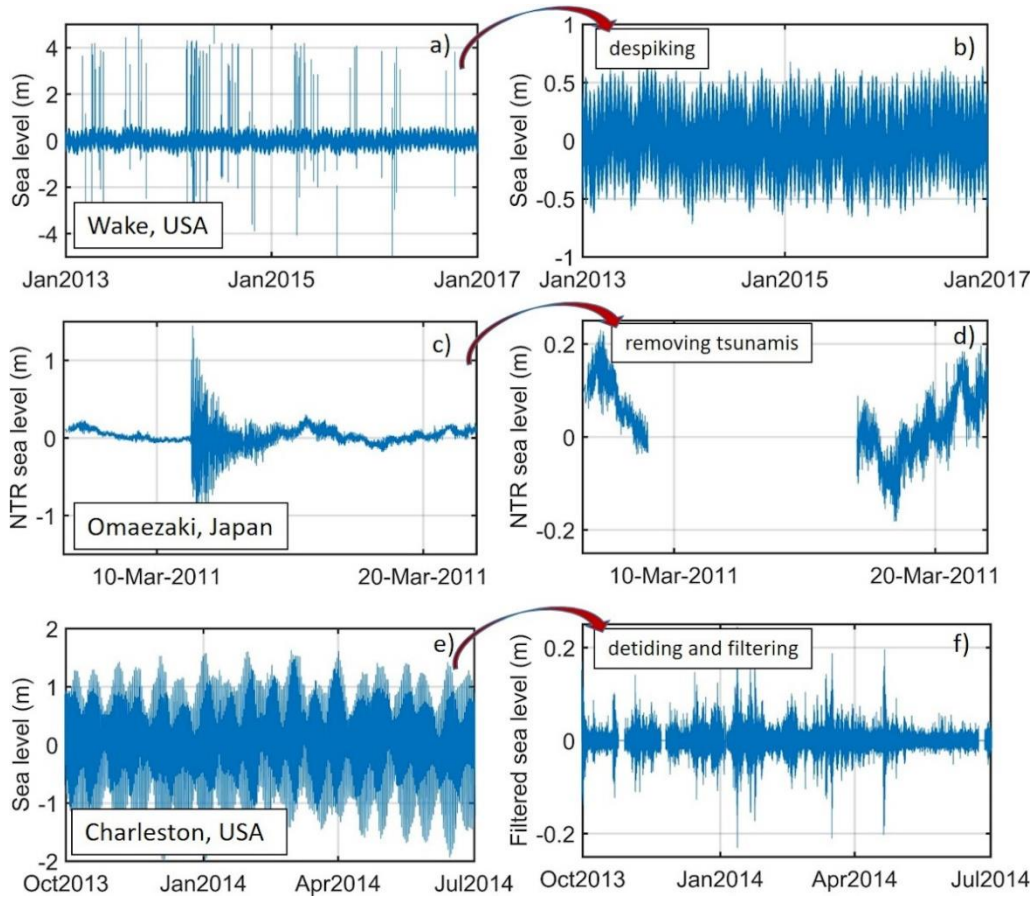
Figure 3: Examples of three time-series a), c), and e) before and b), d) and f) after processing. NTR stands for the non-tidal residual.

3 Description of the MISELA dataset

The MISELA dataset contains 331 data files in the NetCDF format, each corresponding to high-frequency sea-level time-series from one tide gauge. The file contains three variables: time, nslott (nonseismic sea-level oscillations at tsunami

165 timescales, Vilibić and Šepić, 2017) and QC, along with global attributes including the station code, geographic position of the station, origin of data and contact person for the dataset. Table 1 shows an example of a MISELA file with the station name "abas". This is a 4-letter station code taken from the IOC Sea Level Station Monitoring Facility website, therefore one can easily find additional metadata about each IOC station if needed (e.g. location, country, local contact, type of sensor, etc.). The FMI and IOF stations differ from the IOC stations in having a full name of the station location in the title of the files (e.g.

170 helsinki, degerby, velaluka, starigrad) instead of a shorter code name. The variable time is represented in the unit of minutes since 2000-01-01 00:00:00 UTC with the sea-level value noted in the same row of the variable nslott and the corresponding quality control flag of the data in the variable QC. The dimension of the variables provides quick information on record length, considering that approximately half a million data points represent a one-year-long record. The variable nslott is the final

product obtained after the whole process of quality control and contains the sea-level time-series filtered with a high-pass filter
175 (cut-off period of 2 hours).

Table 1. Example of a data file in the MISELA dataset.

File name:	abas
Format:	NetCDF
Global attributes:	
Station code	abas
Latitude	44.02 degree N
Longitude	144.29 degree E
Original data	http://www.ioc-sealevelmonitoring.org/station.php?code=abas
Abstract	This file is a part of the MISELA (Minute Sea-Level Analysis) dataset containing 1-minute quality-checked sea-level records from 331 tide gauges worldwide. The dataset is appropriate for global, regional or local research of atmospherically-induced high-frequency sea-level oscillations.
Contact	Petra Zemunik Institute of Oceanography and Fisheries, Split, Croatia zemunik@izor.hr
Variables:	
time	Size: 3276018 x 1 Datatype: double Long name: time Units: minutes since 2000-01-01 00:00:00 UTC Resolution: 1 min Start/end time: 21-Mar-2012 23:43:00 14-Jun-2018
nslott	Size: 3276018 x 1 Datatype: single Long name: nonseismic sea level oscillations at tsunami timescales Units: m

QC	Size: 3276018 x 1
	Datatype: int8
	Long name: quality-control (QC) flags
	Flags: 0 removed or non-existing data
	         1 good data
	         2 interpolated data
	         3 interpolated or removed data due to seismic tsunami

time	*nslott*	*QC*
6428143	2.0816682e-17	1
6428144	0.0030234202	1
6428145	0.012026043	1
6428146	0.0089078695	1
6428147	-0.00043109810	1
6428148	0.0025091446	1
6428149	0.0023286000	1
6428150	0.0021272700	1
6428151	-0.0072948458	1

Figure 4 shows that stations included in the MISELA dataset cover many of the World's coasts. The tide gauge network is denser in the areas having a long history of sea-level monitoring, in particular at the tsunami timescale, like the Mediterranean Sea, both the East and West Coasts of the US and the coasts of Chile and Australia. Additionally, many island countries and
180 archipelagos have well-developed network of tide gauges such as Japan, New Zealand, the Aleutian Islands, the Hawaii and the Caribbean. However, some areas, including the east coast of South America and the entire African coast, the Middle East, the Indonesian and Russian coasts, are still underrepresented in the IOC SLSMF, presumably due to under-investment in sea-level monitoring or due to data-sharing restriction policies. In general, the Northern Hemisphere dominates over the Southern Hemisphere in terms of spatial coverage (70% of stations are in the Northern Hemisphere), particularly the zone between 30
185 and 60°N that contains 137 densely deployed stations spreading over the coasts of North America, Europe and Japan.
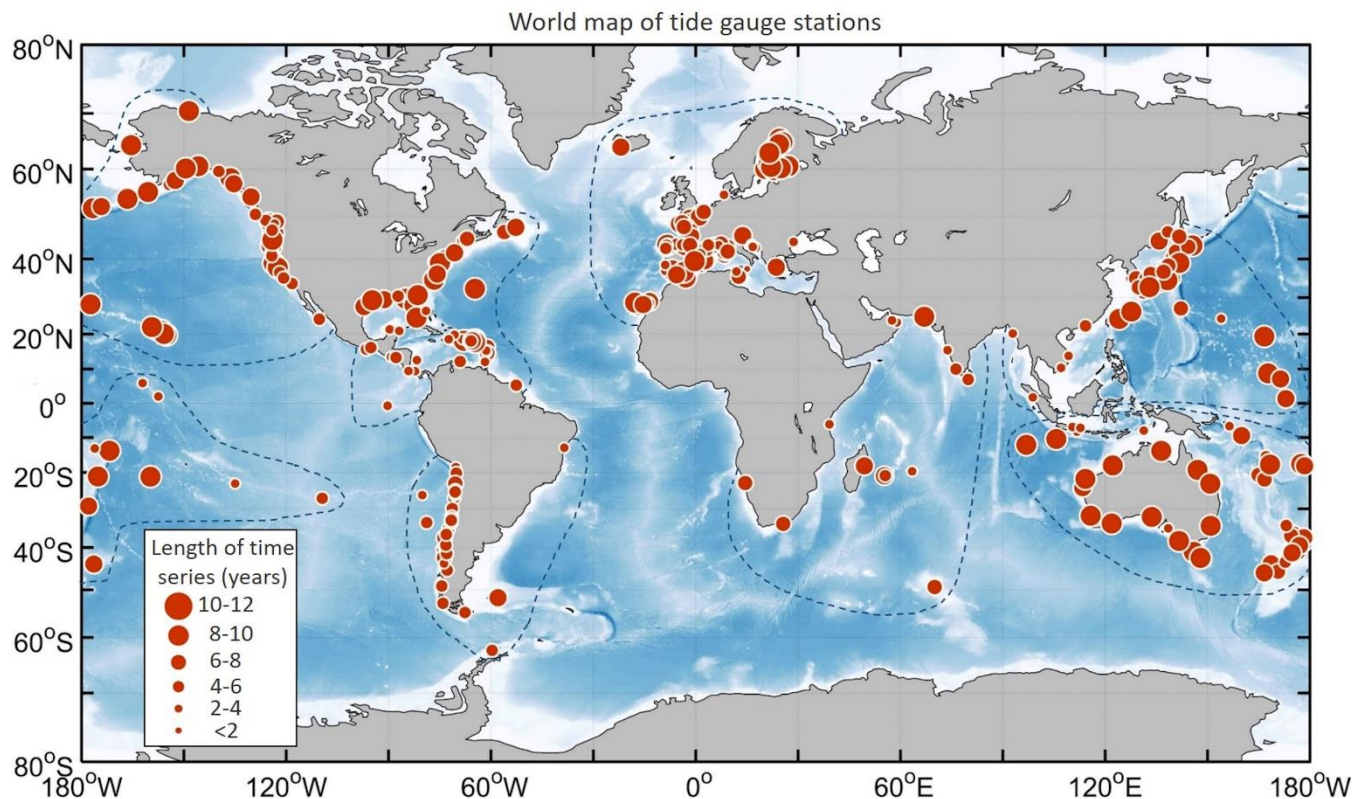
Figure 4. The world map of the MISELA station locations. The size of the circle is proportional to the length of the time-series. The borderlines between different macro-regions is indicated (EU – Europe, CNEA – The Central and North-East Americas, NWH – North-West America and Hawaii, EA – East Asia, ASWA - Africa and South-West Asia, ANSA - Australia, New Zealand and South
190 **Asia, SSA – Southern South America, CSP - Central and Southern Pacific).**

Figure 5 shows a close-up of station-populated areas, revealing densely distributed tide gauges on the coasts of the Western Mediterranean and Europe, the Finnish coast, the Gulf of Mexico, the Caribbean Islands, the US East and West Coast and the Japanese and Chilean coasts, indicating that there exists a satisfactory coverage for regional investigations.
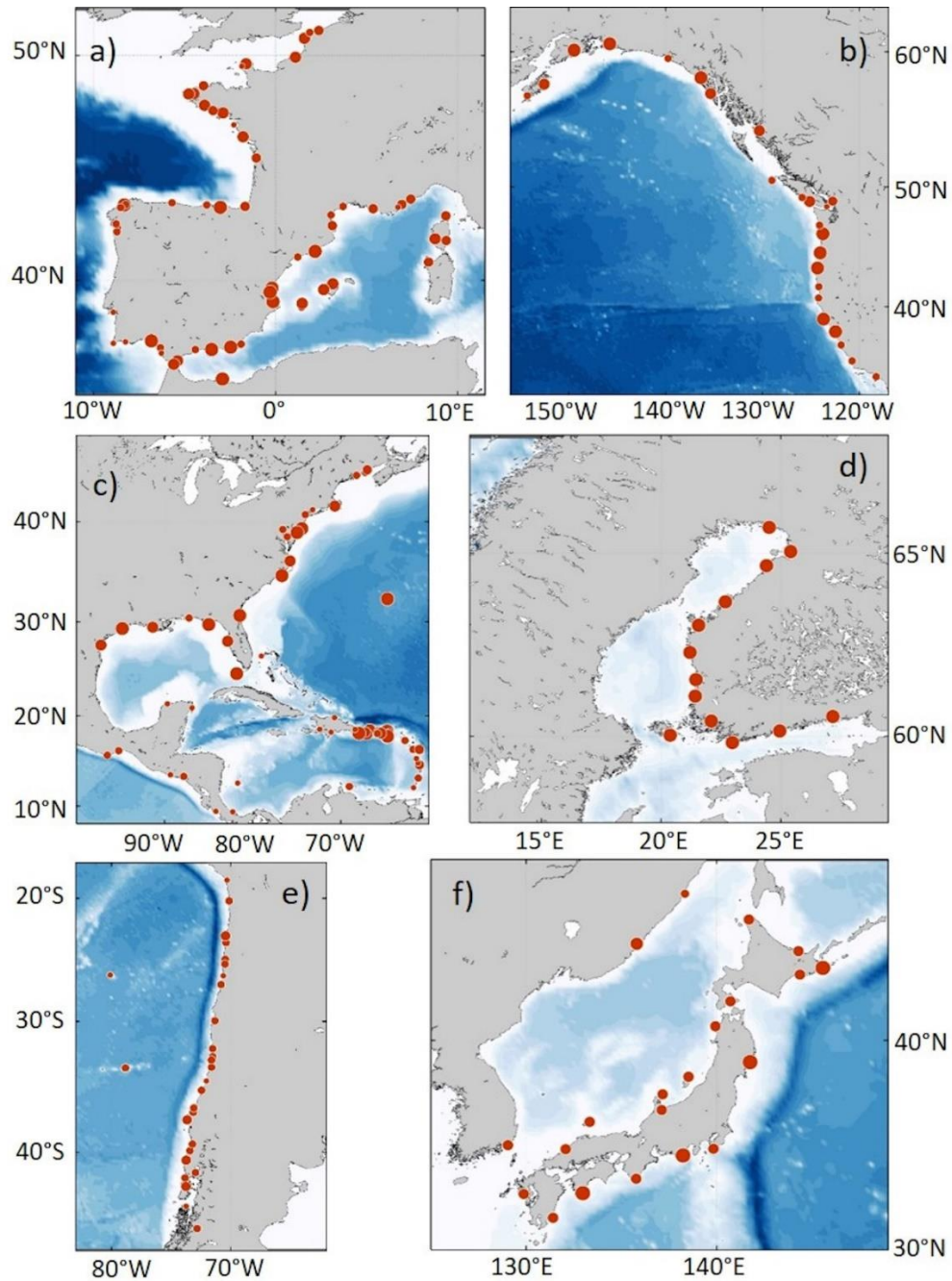
Figure 5. Zoom to station-populated areas: (a) The Western Mediterranean and the Western Europe, (b) the US West Coast, (c) the Caribbean, the Gulf of Mexico and the US East Coast, (d) the Finnish coast, (e) the Chilean coast, and (f) the Japanese coast.

In total, the MISELA dataset contains 2303 station-years of data spanning between 2004 and 2019, with an overall average record length of nearly 7 years, but varying from only 1.5 years at some stations to 12 years at others. Longer records (>10 years) are primarily located in the Baltic and Australia, while shorter ones (<4 years) are grouped in Chile, Central America

and Indonesia. An important contribution to the overall dataset comes from densified sub-systems such as the Mediterranean, Japan, Gulf of Mexico and New Zealand in which records of various lengths can be found.

For regional statistics, we classified stations into 8 macro-regions: Europe (EU), Central and North-East Americas (CNEA), North-West America and Hawaii (NWH), East Asia (EA), Africa and South-West Asia (ASWA), Australia, New Zealand and South Asia (ANSA), Southern South America (SSA) and Central and Southern Pacific (CSP). Table 2 shows that in average the longest time-series (8.3 years) are available for the stations of NWH, followed by the ANSA and EU regions (7.8 and 7.4 years), while shortest-averaged records are found in the SSA and ASWA regions (5.1 and 5.8 years). Interestingly, some of the longest individual records are found in the ASWA region that mostly has shorter time-series (Fig. 6b).

Table 2. Number of stations and the mean length of time-series (in years) in each macro-region and globally.

	Number of stations	Mean length of time-series (years)
World	331	6.96
Europe (EU)	90	7.39
Central and North-East Americas (CNEA)	63	6.27
North-West America and Hawaii (NWH)	39	8.27
East Asia (EA)	34	6.89
Africa and South-West Asia (ASWA)	14	5.78
Australia, New Zealand and South Asia (ANSA)	44	7.88
Southern South America (SSA)	35	5.12
Central and Southern Pacific (CSP)	12	6.53

Most of the sea-level observations in the MISELA dataset were made after 2011, when many tide gauges were installed or added to the IOC Sea Level Station Monitoring Facility as a reaction to the disastrous 2011 Japan Tohoku earthquake and tsunami (Simons et al., 2011; Fig. 6a). The expansion of the sea-level network in 2012 is particularly evident for the regions of EA, CNEA and NWH, while numerous stations were added to SSA in 2013. The region of EU continuously has the highest number of stations among all macro-regions. All macro-regions show a positive trend in the number of active stations over the period 2006-2018. It should be highlighted here that we have obtained records from the IOC stations for the period from as early as 1 January 2006, when the portal started operating, up to 14 June 2018 at the latest, when we have last downloaded the data. Unfortunately, we have not downloaded sea-level time series after this date due to extensive time needed for performing quality control of the data. Nonetheless, most stations have been installed or started providing data later than January 2006 and some have been uninstalled or stopped providing data earlier than June 2018, therefore these contain shorter records. Only records from the 4 IOF stations end in December 2019 and records from the 13 FMI stations start in January 2004 (the EU region), which results in a lower number of stations at the beginning and at the end of the whole MISELA period (2004-2019, Fig 6a).
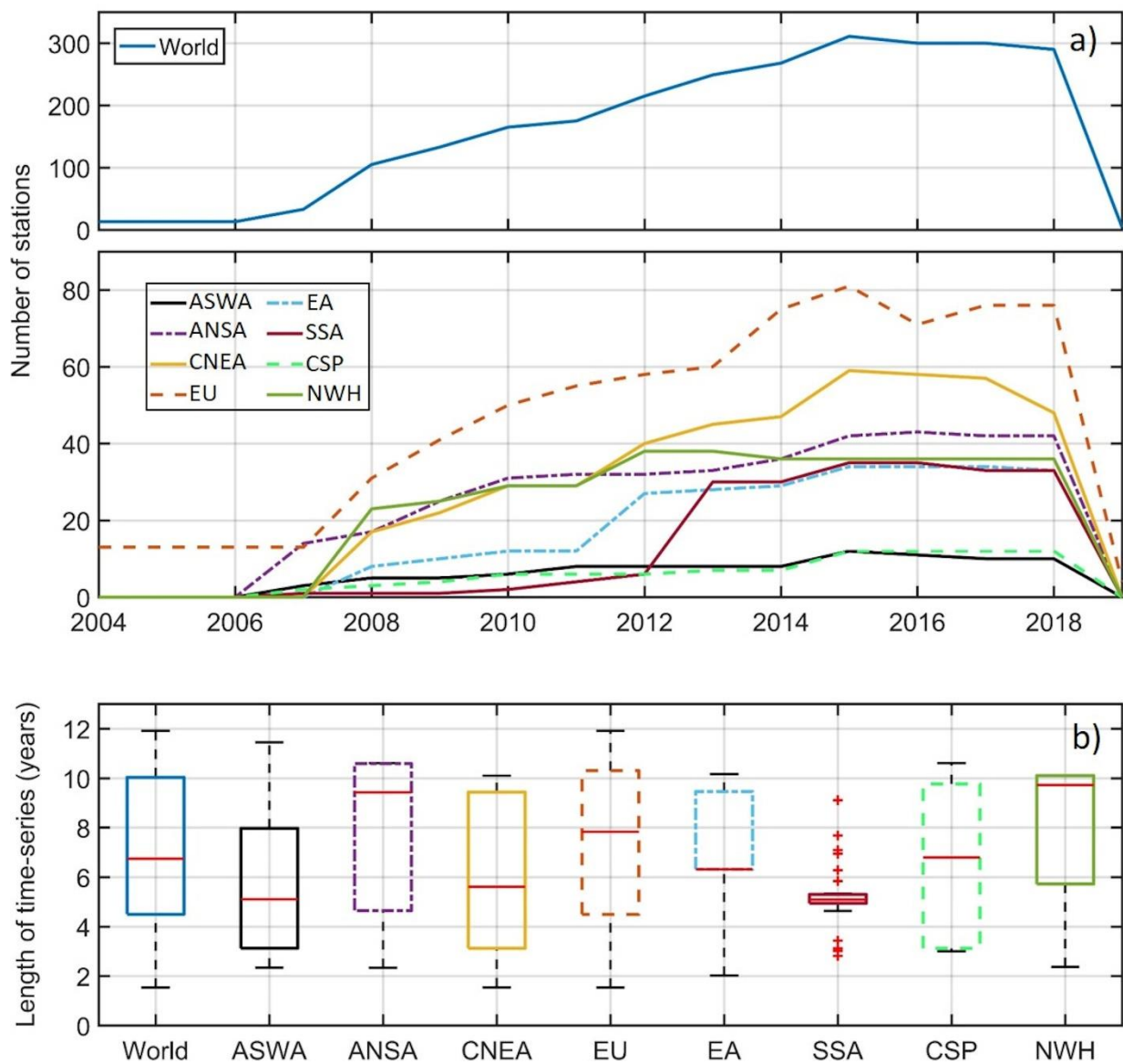
Figure 6. (a) Number of stations in a year between 2004 and 2019, and (b) boxplots of the length of the time-series in each macro-region and globally (lowest, 25th, 50th, 75th percentile and highest values, with outliers as red pluses).

4 Data availability

The data described in this manuscript can be accessed through the Marine Data Archive of the Flanders Research Institute (VLIZ) at https://doi.org/10.14284/456 (Zemunik et al., 2021b).

5 Conclusions and perspectives

230 A new global dataset of high-frequency sea-level oscillations, the MISELA dataset, was specifically designed and created to serve as a tool for coastal hazard assessment, in particular coming from atmospherically-induced high-frequency sea-level oscillations. The ability to study this hazard has, until recently, been restricted by technological and computational limitations on data storage, computational power of data-processing systems and telecommunications of earlier tide gauge technology. Fortunately, the "rate" of the research on high-frequency sea-level oscillations, in particular on meteotsunamis, strongly

235 increased in recent years (Vilibić et al., 2021). It is not certain how will high-frequency sea-level oscillations change under the future climate scenarios. However, there are methods which describe a methodology for estimating their future occurrence rates (Vilibić et al., 2018). Therefore, the importance of having a dataset that may provide the quality-checked global data for coastal studies is inevitable.

The MISELA dataset merges data from different sources to create a consistent dataset, which may serve for researching the

240 magnitude and incidence of moderate and extreme high-frequency sea-level phenomena, like meteotsunamis, on the global scale. The primary motivation stems from the need to gather measurements, standardize them and bring to research-quality level. To this day, none of the existing sea-level databanks has provided global quality-checked dataset with the sampling interval of 1 minute. However, it should be emphasized here that the quality control procedure imposes some limitations on the dataset. Numerous problems (including shifts, drifts and spurious signals) in raw data disabled preparation of high-quality

245 1-min sea-level data of original measurements, but rather forced focusing only on high-frequency part of signal. Filtering of the data removed vertical shifts and drifts from the data that could not be removed by other automatic procedures. This has restricted the use of the MISELA dataset for research of high-frequency processes only. Furthermore, some issues have remained unresolved, for example datum and clock shifts have not been processed, as this would require a tremendous amount of time and information not available at IOC SLSMF, yet we consider these appearing in a low percentage of the overall data.

250 Another future improvement of the dataset can be achieved by filling the data gaps with data from other sensors (where more than one is available), rather than interpolating. However, various sensors may measure differently sea-level oscillations at a minute timescale, due to different averaging method, or the fact that some are installed in steeling well, and others not. The latter requires standardization of data from different sensors in locations where it could be achieved, which also depends upon time, effort and financial investment. Nevertheless, this would be a way to improve the MISELA dataset.

255 Herein, we suggest several components of the future perspective in the research of high-frequency sea-level phenomena. The main component is concerned with an increase of the sampling resolution on numerous tide gauges that retained a lower frequency of sampling. Another component, emphasized by the Global Sea Level Observing System (GLOSS), refers to the installation of tide gauges according to all international standards on coasts where none of them exist at present (IOC, 2012). New tools and technologies for observing and processing sea-level data (e.g. Pérez et al., 2014; García-Valdecasas et al., 2021)

260 enabled instrumentation to reach a standard in sea-level measurements at a minute timescale, therefore contributing to the improvement of existing high-frequency sea-level networks and development of new ones. This also includes the development

of quality control procedures in real-time; however, for scientific purposes, such an automatic quality control may not be enough to reach a fully controlled data product. The recent manual on the quality control of sea-level data (UNESCO/IOC, 2020) has gathered all relevant aspects and recommendations on this topic. In summary, the quality checking must maintain common standards, acquire consistency and ensure reliability and in that way may contribute to processing the data according to 'FAIR' Guiding Principles for scientific data management and stewardship (Wilkinson et al., 2016). Following these principles, all time-series stored in the MISELA dataset have undergone a standardized quality control procedure (described in Sect. 2.2). However, the vast of efforts during the quality control were spent on visual (manual) inspection, as the series suffer from data problems undetectable by automatic procedures. Together with the development of new techniques for quality control and a great effort for standardisation, more procedures can hopefully be automated in the future, hence the amount of time dedicated to visual inspection may be reduced.

In spite of all arguments, there are tide gauges and tide gauge networks having a lower sampling resolution, thus providing data from which high-frequency sea-level oscillations cannot be extracted nor studied properly. For example, the tide gauge network of the United Kingdom is still operating with the resolution of 15 minutes, although such a coarse sampling resolution may strongly affect the estimate of coastal sea-level extremes (Tsimplis et al., 2009). For that reason, Vilibić and Šepić (2017) concluded that the global tide-gauge network should be standardized to sample at the minute resolution and to report, as far as possible, near real-time quality-controlled data. In addition to this, it is mandatory to regularly maintain installed tide-gauge station to keep the quality of the data. Hopefully, that will be the way of global development of future sea-level networks.

There are number of future improvements that can contribute to the evolution of the MISELA dataset. Specifically, some areas have a low station coverage due to meagre sea-level station networks or restrictive data policies, while some regions stand out as having significant development over the past years. For example, a major gap in the provision of data is related to the African coasts (an exception is part of the east African coast and nearby islands where tide-gauge stations were installed following the Sumatra tsunami). This is not a new issue, as attempts have been made to construct a sea-level network in Africa since the last century (IOC, 1997; Woodworth et al., 2007). However, the problem remains in the long-term maintenance. Moreover, the MISELA dataset contains very few stations in the areas of the Middle East, India, Russia and the east coast of South America. The Global Sea-Level Observing System (GLOSS) core network of active tide gauge stations today contains a slightly higher number of stations in these regions, being excluded from the MISELA dataset as they do not meet specific conditions on the length and continuity of the time-series and the resolution of the measurements. In addition, in some of these regions data ownership restricts data exchange (Woodworth et al., 2016), yet we hope that their operators may consider providing 1-minute sea level data to the MISELA dataset. Last but not least, polar regions have always represented a great issue for tide-gauge operations, and their records are highly desirable in all aspects of sea-level research.

In the future, the MISELA dataset can be updated with new data as these become available, which would include an engagement of more human resources necessary for carrying such an extensive quality control procedures, preferably coming from sea-level data centres. Further, putting these activities – which are basically fulfilling the demands coming from the interest of the community doing research on high-frequency sea–level oscillations and meteotsunamis - under the umbrella of

the GLOSS or other sea-level programmes will institutionalize the efforts and results in the product of the improved quality. Extending the time-series can bring more reliable results of the studies. Also, as new tide gauges are being installed, the total number of stations in the MISELA dataset can increase, and a better global coverage can thus be achieved.

Author contributions

300 All authors participated in performing quality control procedures. I.V. and P.Z. developed the concept of the manuscript, P.Z. wrote the initial version of the text, while all authors commented on and revised the text and approved the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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