

1 Surface $p\text{CO}_2$ and hydrography in the dense water formation 2 area of the southern Adriatic

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11 Abstract.

12 The rising CO_2 concentration in the atmosphere leads to an increase in CO_2 uptake by the ocean and to significant
13 changes in seawater chemistry. These changes, in turn, exert profound effects on marine ecosystems across
14 multiple trophic levels. The Mediterranean Sea is considered a hotspot for climate change. Despite such relevance,
15 observations and studies on its carbonate system remain limited, especially in regions that play a crucial role in
16 regulating air-sea CO_2 exchange such as intermediate and dense water formation areas. The southern Adriatic Sea,
17 a key site for dense water formation in the eastern Mediterranean, hosts the EMSO ERIC and ICOS ERIC South
18 Adriatic observatory (EMSO-E2M3A), operated by the Italian National Institute of Oceanography and Applied
19 Geophysics (OGS). This facility allows the study of physical and biogeochemical dynamics in the deepest area of
20 the Adriatic Sea. The suite of sensors deployed on the surface buoy allows for the characterization of water mass
21 properties, biogeochemical cycles, dense water formation process, and ocean acidification, particularly in relation
22 to carbon sequestration dynamics. Here, time series of meteorological data (e.g., wind speed, wind direction), sea
23 surface physical parameters (e.g., temperature, salinity), dissolved oxygen and partial pressure of CO_2 ($p\text{CO}_{2\text{sw}}$)
24 and pH from 2014 to 2024 will be presented (<https://doi.org/10.13120/y2hw-1j63>, Cardin et al., 2025b). In
25 particular, quality check, correction and post-processing methods applied to the data will be discussed. The
26 validated surface dataset provides a consistent $p\text{CO}_{2\text{sw}}$ time series for the Adriatic Sea, with values and seasonal
27 variability in agreement with previous observations across the Mediterranean. Associated temperature, salinity,
28 oxygen, and wind measurements reproduce expected regional patterns, confirming the robustness and suitability
29 of the presented dataset for further biogeochemical and climate-related analyses.

31 1. Introduction

32 The concentration of CO_2 in the atmosphere has rapidly increased from around 280 parts per million (ppm) at the
33 beginning of the Industrial Revolution in 1750, to 427 ppm in February 2025 (<http://co2.earth/>). This increase is
34 the primary driver of the intensification of the ocean CO_2 sink, which has increased from $1.2 \pm 0.4 \text{ GtC yr}^{-1}$ in the
35 1960s to $2.9 \pm 0.4 \text{ GtC yr}^{-1}$ in the period 2014 - 2023 (Friedlingstein et al., 2025). However, the net air-sea CO_2
36 flux is a highly dynamic process exhibiting significant spatial and temporal heterogeneity driven by complex
37 natural and anthropogenic processes (Takahashi et al., 2009; Friedlingstein et al., 2025).

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38 This accelerated oceanic CO₂ uptake is the direct cause of changes in seawater chemistry commonly referred to
39 as ocean acidification (OA). These changes are associated with a reduction in seawater pH and carbonate ion
40 concentrations, and an increase in dissolved CO₂, dissolved inorganic carbon and bicarbonate ions (Orr et al.,
41 2015). OA poses a significant threat to marine ecological communities (e.g., Gattuso and Hansson, 2011; Riebesell
42 et al., 2013; IPCC, 2021), which rely on specific ranges of key carbonate chemistry parameters for their survival.
43 Continuous, high-quality ocean carbon data are therefore essential to monitor these changes, predict future
44 impacts, and contribute to the biogeochemical Essential Ocean Variables (EOVs) framework of the Global Ocean
45 Observing System (GOOS).

46 The Mediterranean Sea is a recognized climate change hotspot (e.g., Zittis et al., 2019; Urdiales-Flores et al.,
47 2023; Lazoglou et al., 2024). The unique hydrological and biogeochemical characteristics of the Mediterranean
48 Sea waters (Alvarez et al., 2023) enhance the uptake and transfer of CO₂ to depth more efficiently than the global
49 ocean (Schneider et al., 2010; Hassoun et al., 2015), with anthropogenic CO₂ having already penetrated all major
50 water masses of the basin (Touratier and Goyet, 2011; Hassoun et al., 2015; Inghrosso et al., 2017). Research has
51 shown that the Mediterranean Sea is already experiencing negative pH trends (e.g., Hassoun et al., 2015;
52 Kapsenberg et al., 2017; Cantoni et al., 2024; Garcia-Ibanez et al., 2024), often with a wider range than those
53 observed in the Atlantic Ocean. However, reliable biochemical and biological carbonate system data remain
54 limited (Hassoun et al. 2022), and comprehensive OA data are still sparse, not easily accessible and often not
55 scalable. Within the Mediterranean, the southern Adriatic Sea is a particularly critical region, serving as the
56 primary site for dense water formation in the eastern Mediterranean (Robinson et al., 2001). About 82% of the
57 Adriatic Dense Water (AdDW) is formed by winter convection (Inghrosso et al., 2017), while the remaining part
58 has its origin on the northern Adriatic shelf and in the middle Adriatic (Ovchinnikov et al., 1985; Bignami et al.,
59 1990; Malanotte-Rizzoli, 1991). The Northern Adriatic Dense Water (NAdDW) is formed in winter, due to the
60 cooling of the entire water column caused by E-NE wind (named Bora). Winter convection and intense Bora
61 winds produce the densest (potential density anomaly, $\sigma_\theta = 29.2 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) water mass in the Mediterranean Sea
62 (Malanotte-Rizzoli, 1991; Artegiani et al., 1997). These meteorological and oceanographic conditions which
63 favour heat loss, can also favour CO₂ dissolution when surface water is undersaturated with respect to the
64 overlying atmosphere (Cantoni et al., 2024). The NAdDW is partially collected in the middle Adriatic and partly
65 flows southward to the deepest part of the southern Adriatic, ventilating the deep southern Adriatic Pit (Cardin et
66 al., 2011; Cantoni et al., 2016; Le Meur et al., 2025). Previous studies have demonstrated that NAdDW enriched
67 in CO₂ water mass cascades in the southern Adriatic deepest layers and mixes with ambient waters, leading to
68 substantial modifications of the CO₂ content of AdDW (Cantoni et al., 2016; Inghrosso et al., 2017). Additionally,
69 Inghrosso et al. (2017) provided the first observational evidence of the role of southern Adriatic dense water
70 formation in the sequestration of anthropogenic CO₂, capturing conditions indicative of vertical convection and
71 CO₂ accumulation at intermediate depths. These findings highlight the importance of sustained observations for
72 understanding carbon dynamics in this dense water formation region. In this context, the physical and
73 biogeochemical properties of the southern Adriatic Sea (SAd) are monitored through coordinated open-ocean
74 observations, including research vessels, moorings, and autonomous platforms such as ocean gliders and Argo
75 floats. Here, meteorological, physical and biogeochemical data collected by the EMSO ERIC and ICOS ERIC
76 South Adriatic observatory named EMSO-E2M3A, operated by the Italian National Institute of Oceanography
77 and Applied Geophysics (OGS) will be presented. EMSO-E2M3A is part of the European Multidisciplinary

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78 Seafloor and Water Column (EMSO) - South Adriatic Regional Facility - (EMSO ERIC) and of the Integrated
79 Carbon Observation System (ICOS) networks. It has been in operation since 2006 representing the longest open-
80 ocean time series in the whole Adriatic making it an ideal site for the investigations of several physical (Bensi et
81 al., 2013, 2014; Cardin et al., 2020; Amorim et al., 2024; Le Meur et al., 2025) and biogeochemical processes
82 (Ingrosso et al., 2017) in the whole water column, as well as air-sea interactions. The time series presented here
83 represents an important resource to understand physical and biogeochemical changes occurring in the region, the
84 OA and the biological responses of planktonic organisms, and to evaluate biogeochemical model performance. A
85 potential use of this time series will also be discussed, in particular related to the calculation of sea-air CO₂ flux
86 and the associated uncertainties. Ultimately, this dataset and its potential applications will contribute to assess the
87 role of the southern Adriatic in regulating CO₂ exchange and to quantify the carbon stored in the deep layers.

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88 2. Material and methods

89 2.1. Study area

90 The southern Adriatic (SAd) is the deepest part of the Adriatic Sea, with the southern Adriatic Pit (SAP) reaching
91 maximum depths of approximately 1250 m (Figure 1a). This area is featured by a quasi-permanent cyclonic
92 circulation, and dense water formation takes place at the centre of the gyre through winter open-ocean convection
93 (Ovchinnikov et al., 1985; Gačić et al., 1997) contributing to the eastern Mediterranean thermohaline circulation
94 (Robinson et al., 2001). Different water masses can be distinguished in the SAd: i) the Adriatic Surface Water
95 (AdSW) is a relatively fresh and warm water mass, which originates from the Po River runoff and flows southward
96 along a narrow coastal layer of the western Italian shelf and exits through the Strait of Otranto; ii) the Ionian
97 Surface Water (ISW), entering the basin in the eastern part of the Otranto Strait, can be found in the upper part of
98 the water column; iii) Eastern Intermediate Water (EIW) which is not a water mass per se, but the combination of
99 Levantine Intermediate Water (LIW) and Cretan Intermediate Water (CIW; Schroeder et al., 2024); iv) the
100 Adriatic Deep Water (AdDW), which represents one of the main components of deep waters for the whole Eastern
101 Mediterranean basin (Schlitzer et al., 1991; Roether and Schlitzer, 1991; Schroeder et al., 2024), and occupies the
102 bottom layer of the SAP. The hydrological and biogeochemical dynamics of the SAd are strictly linked to that of
103 the Ionian Sea (IS) by means of the Bimodal Oscillating System (BiOS) that changes the circulation of the North
104 Ionian Gyre (NIG) from cyclonic to anticyclonic and vice versa, on decadal time scale (Gačić et al., 2011;
105 Civitaresse et al., 2023). The anticyclonic phase of the NIG leads to the entrance of the Atlantic Water, which
106 decreases the salinity and the density of the AdDW. The cyclonic phase brings warm and salty EIW and Levantine
107 Surface Water in the basin increasing the salinity (and density) of the outflowing AdDW into the IS that gradually
108 impairs the cyclonic NIG, eventually reversing it to an anticyclone.

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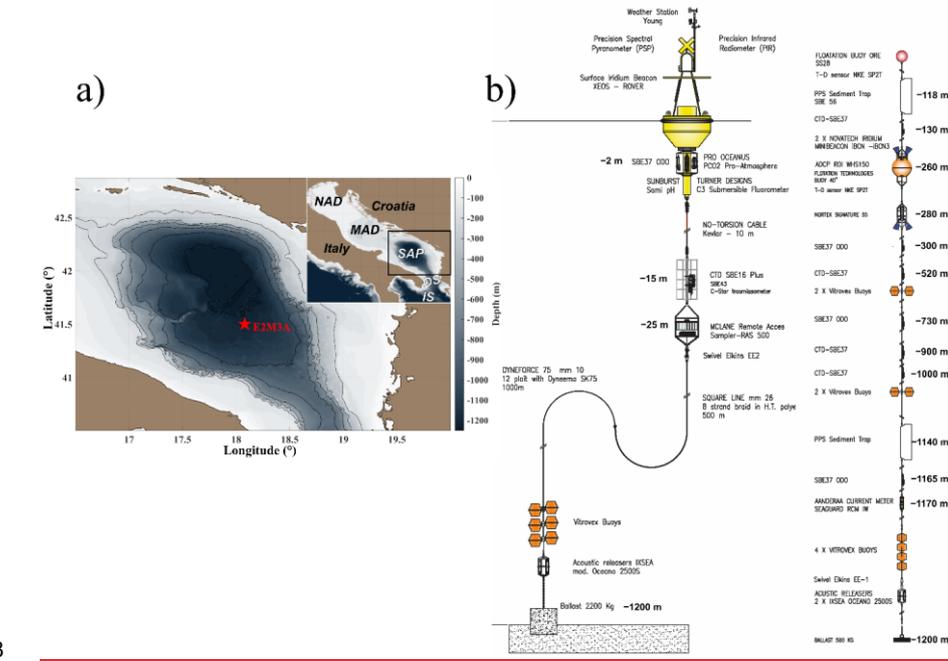
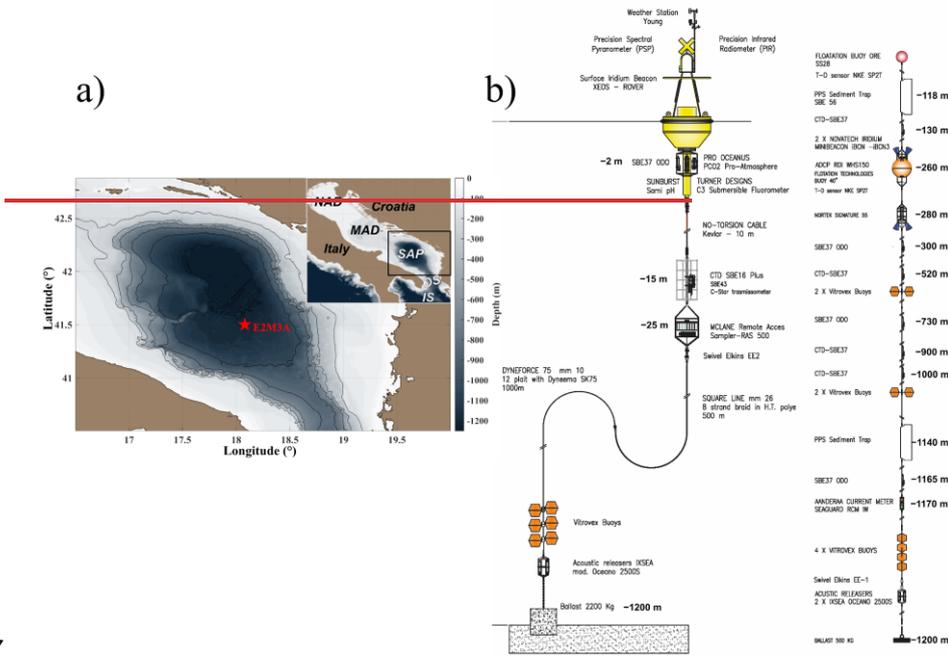
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109 The physical and biogeochemical data presented here were measured by surface sensors deployed at the EMSO-
110 E2M3A regional facility. The site is located in the center of the SAP (nominal position 41.5053°N, 18.0806°E;
111 Figure 1a) and it is composed of two independent mooring lines (Figure 1b). The primary mooring line hosts a
112 surface buoy allowing real-time transmission of meteorological, and ocean surface hydrological and
113 biogeochemical data. The secondary mooring is composed of an array of sensors positioned at several depths
114 aimed at measuring physical and biogeochemical parameters, from the seafloor to the upper layer (Cardin et al.,
115 2025a). Further information on the site can be found in Bozzano et al. (2013) and Ravaioli et al. (2016).

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120 **Figure 1. a)** Map of the study area with the location of EMSO-E2M3A station (nominal position 41.5053°N, 18.0806°E)
121 represented by the red star moored in the South Adriatic Pit. Geographical indications of the Southern Adriatic Pit (SAP), the
122 Otranto Strait (OS), Ionian Sea (IS), Middle Adriatic (MAD) and northern Adriatic (NAD) are provided. b) Scheme of the
123 surface buoy and of the deep mooring with the depths of the different instruments.

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124 2.2. Data collection and quality check

125 Time series from autonomous sensors at key locations are fundamental components of the GOOS
126 (<https://www.ioc.unesco.org/>). They provide a continuous view of the temporal behaviour of the system on long-
127 term baselines, enabling the measurement of a wide range of interrelated variables, promoting the sharing of data,
128 as demonstrated by international initiatives such as MonGOOS (The Mediterranean Oceanographic Network for
129 the Global Ocean Observing System), OceansITES and FixO3 (Fixed point Open Ocean Observatory network,
130 FP7 EUProject). Nevertheless, the data, acquired by sensors on ocean observing infrastructures, require quality
131 controls according to defined standards to serve as reliable reference points. In the next sections, a detailed
132 description of the data quality procedures applied to the data will be discussed.

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133 2.2.1. Meteorological data

134 Meteorological high-frequency (hourly) data were collected by Young (R.M. Young Company) sensors on the
135 meteorological station located on the surface buoy. These data include: air temperature (°C), wind speed (m/s),
136 wind gust (m/s), wind direction (°deg), air pressure (hPa), relative humidity (%) and long and short wave radiation
137 (W/m²). Horizontal wind speed and direction have been measured by a Wind Monitor-MA (model 05106), with
138 manufacturer stated accuracy of ± 0.3 m/s and ± 3 degrees respectively, pressure is measured by a barometric
139 pressure sensor (model 61402V) with manufacturer stated digital accuracy of 0.2 hPa (at 25°C) and 0.3 hPa (-
140 40°C to +60°C) and analog accuracy of 0.05% of analog pressure range, and relative humidity and air temperature
141 were measured by a Relative Humidity/Temperature Probe (model 41382VC) with manufacturer stated accuracy
142 equals to $\pm 0.1\%$ (at 23°C) and $\pm 0.3^\circ\text{C}$ (at 23°C) respectively. Data have been corrected and quality controlled
143 following the procedure described in Cardin et al. (2014). This procedure consists of a series of tests on the data
144 to identify erroneous and anomalous values to establish if the data have been corrupted. Checks on individual or
145 consecutive data points provide information for instrument errors, and checks on regional ranges, consistency
146 with physical limits of the data (spikes), rate of change, and stationarity of data were also performed. No editing
147 of invalid data and replacement of missing data are performed, but only a flag is given to the data at each of the
148 automatic quality control checks.

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149 2.2.2. CTD data

150 Temperature (°C), salinity (Sal) and dissolved oxygen (DO, $\mu\text{mol/kg}$) high-frequency data (hourly) were collected
151 by a CTD (Conductivity-Temperature-Depth) SeaBird SBE 37-ODO probe at 2 m depth. The SBE 37-ODO is a
152 high-accuracy conductivity and temperature recorder that includes an Optical Dissolved Oxygen (DO) sensor
153 (SBE63). The instrument has a manufacturer stated accuracy of $\pm 0.002^\circ\text{C}$, ± 0.003 mS/cm and \pm
154 0.1% of full scale, for temperature, conductivity and oxygen respectively. The data underwent an initial quality
155 control as described in Cardin et al. (2014). First, a physical range test is applied to the data to control the physical

156 significance of each parameter. Given the general increase in salinity in the SAP, as reported by Amorim et al.
157 (2024) and Le Meur et al. (2025), a modified salinity threshold than Cardin et al., (2014) was applied (39.5 instead
158 of 39). Despiking was then performed to highlight the values having a difference with neighbouring values greater
159 than the defined threshold. Finally, a rate of change test was performed as the final step of the initial quality control
160 procedure. While despiking identifies isolated outliers that differ significantly from the neighbouring values, the
161 rate of change identifies fluctuations that are too rapid. After this step, linear interpolation was applied to data
162 gaps greater than 6 hours. While the first quality control consisted of statistical analyses, the second quality control
163 procedure focused on the comparison between SBE 37-ODO time series and reference data collected during
164 oceanographic cruises. For temperature and conductivity (salinity), fourteen corrected CTD casts performed near
165 EMSO-E2M3A from 02/11/2015 to 31/10/2024 were used. The CTD casts were corrected according to the post-
166 processing methods suggested by the manufacturer (SeaBird software). These CTD casts were taken as reference
167 as they have a higher accuracy and higher vertical resolution than the data measured by the SBE 37-ODO. The
168 time series were compared with the reference CTD casts to detect any offset, which, if present, was added to the
169 time series. Another type of error that can affect a time series and needs to be corrected is the drift of the
170 instrument. Particular attention should be paid to the natural variability and trend of the different variables
171 characterizing the dynamics occurring in the area. In this case, the drift was calculated considering both short time
172 periods, and the entire time span of the SBE 37-ODO time series. Calculating the drift only over a short time
173 scale, that may result from an episodic physical process, is not representative of the long-term natural trend. DO
174 ($\mu\text{mol/kg}$) data were quality checked by comparing the probe data with DO ($\mu\text{mol/kg}$) from discrete samples
175 collected at the EMSO-E2M3A station. Samples for the determination of DO were collected in calibrated 50 ml
176 bottles and DO was determined by the Winkler potentiometric titration method (Oudot et al., 1988). The precision
177 of the measurements was evaluated on three to five replicates collected from the same Niskin bottle, and was, on
178 average, 0.08%. Before the comparison with reference seawater samples, post-processing of DO data follows the
179 same quality control procedures applied to temperature and conductivity (salinity). However, an additional quality
180 control step for DO was introduced before the second quality control to account for the adjustment time of the
181 oxygen sensor at switch-on. It consisted of fitting a double exponential function and flagging initial values that
182 deviated significantly from the long-term behavior. The comparison was possible with a limited number of
183 samples, which revealed a mean difference between DO from discrete samples and DO measured by the probe of
184 $-9.36 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ (-0.21 mL/L) with a maximum difference of $-10.35 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ (-0.232 mL/L). Further information
185 on the correction methods applied can be found in Bensi et al., (2012, 2014), Cardin et al. (2020), Amorim et al.,
186 (2024) and Le Meur et al., (2025).

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187 2.2.3. Sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$

188 Since 2014, a Pro-Oceanus CO_2 -Pro sensor has provided high-frequency (every 4 hours) autonomous
189 measurements of $p\text{CO}_2$ in water ($p\text{CO}_{2\text{sw}}$, μatm) at a depth of approximately 2 meters. In 2023, a Pro-Oceanus
190 CO_2 -Pro ATM sensor was deployed, allowing high-frequency (every 4 hours) continuous measurements of
191 $p\text{CO}_{2\text{sw}}$ and atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ ($p\text{CO}_{2\text{atm}}$, μatm) in alternating mode. Pro-Oceanus CO_2 sensors measure dissolved
192 CO_2 with a semi-permeable membrane, allowing CO_2 in the gas phase to equilibrate with the surrounding water.
193 The 'wet' CO_2 concentration ($x\text{CO}_2$, ppmv) is then detected by an infrared sensor, and the $p\text{CO}_{2\text{sw}}$ (in μatm) is

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194 calculated by multiplying this concentration by the total pressure, in millibars (mbar), within the instrument's gas
 195 stream:

$$197 \quad pCO_{2sw} = xCO_2 \times \frac{P}{1013.25} \quad (1)$$

198 Long-term signal stability of the data is achieved by an automatic zero compensation function that removes CO₂
 199 from the system at regular intervals and records a new CO₂ baseline value. Both sensors (CO₂-Pro and CO₂-Pro
 200 ATM) have a manufacturer stated accuracy of ± 5 µatm. As the first step in the data quality control procedure, the
 201 auto-calibration values following the automatic zero adjustment were discarded. If no stability of the
 202 measurements was detected, also the second and, in some cases, the third values after the automatic zero were
 203 removed. In addition, outliers resulting from sensor malfunctions or maintenance operations were removed.
 204 Calibration by vendors and pre and post deployment checks of the sensors were regularly performed at the in-
 205 house laboratory at OGS, the Calibration and Metrology Center (CTMO), to ensure the quality of the
 206 measurements presented here. Additionally, reference water samples of pH and total alkalinity were collected near
 207 the sensor for the calculation of pCO_{2sw}. These samples were collected during the annual visits to the EMSO-
 208 E2M3A observatory. Calculations were performed using the CO2SYS software (Pierrot et al., 2006) with the
 209 carbonic acid equilibrium constants (K1 and K2) from Lueker et al. (2000), the dissociation constant for HSO₄
 210 from Dickson et al. (1990) and the borate dissociation constant from Lee et al. (2010). The pCO_{2sw} from discrete
 211 samples (pCO_{2sw@samples}, µatm) was matched with the closest hourly pCO_{2sw} from sensor (pCO_{2sw@probe}, µatm)
 212 resulting in the comparison of seven data points in the period 2015 - 2024 (Table 1). When matching within this
 213 short time interval was not possible, a comparison between the pCO_{2sw@sample} and the pCO_{2sw@probe} with a
 214 difference of a few days (no more than one week) was performed. To ensure comparability, pCO_{2sw@probe} was
 215 adjusted to the temperature measured at the time of seawater sampling, which was also used for the determination
 216 of pCO_{2sw@probe}, according to Takahashi et al., (1993):

$$219 \quad pCO_{2sw@Tadj} = pCO_{2sw@probe} \times \exp^{(0.0423 \times (T_{probe} - T_{sample}))}$$

220 (2)

221 where pCO_{2sw@Tadj} (µatm) is the pCO_{2sw} probe value adjusted for the temperature difference, pCO_{2sw@probe} is
 222 the pCO_{2sw} measured by the probe (µatm), T_{probe} is the temperature (°C) measured by the SeaBird SBE 37-ODO
 223 during the acquisition of the pCO_{2sw@probe} and T_{sample} is the temperature (°C) measured by the CTD casts during
 224 the collection of the discrete samples.

225 **Table 1.** Comparison between pCO_{2sw} from discrete samples (pCO_{2sw@sample}, µatm) and pCO_{2sw} from probe (pCO_{2sw@probe},
 226 µatm). The difference is calculated as pCO_{2sw@sample} - pCO_{2sw@probe}.

Date	pCO _{2sw@samples} (µatm)	pCO _{2sw@probe} (µatm)	Difference (µatm)
20/10/2014	328.11	361.23	-33.12

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29/10/2015	381.46	382.63	-1.17
29/07/2017	486.74	480.40	6.34
08/10/2018	381.26	397.50	-16.34
19/10/2019	399.33	379.15	20.18
30/10/2022	383.45	420.90	-37.45
05/12/2023	361.00	364.64	-3.64

230
231 In three out of seven cases, the accuracy of the measurements falls within either the manufacturer's stated accuracy
232 ($\pm 5 \mu\text{atm}$) or the target accuracy defined by the ICOS network for Fixed Ocean Stations ($\pm 10 \mu\text{atm}$,
233 <https://www.icos-otc.org/>). In all other cases, these criteria were not met. However, during the recent ICOS Ocean
234 Thematic Centre (OTC) $p\text{CO}_2$ inter-comparison experiment (Steinhoff et al., 2025), it was demonstrated that
235 deviations of around 15 - 20 μatm can be expected by membrane sensors, particularly under conditions of
236 increasing temperature. Additionally, in the two cases of very high deviation, biofouling-likely developing during
237 the spring/summer period could be identified as a probable contributing factor for this difference. Indeed
238 continuous monitoring and maintenance of open ocean fixed observatories is often constrained by available
239 infrastructure, and strict ship time windows influenced by several factors such as weather conditions (Coppola et
240 al., 2016). Additionally, in 2020, $p\text{CO}_{2\text{sw}}$ measurements were acquired by two Unmanned Surface Vehicles
241 (USVs) from Saildrone Inc. (USA) during the ATL2MED demonstration experiment around the EMSO-E2M3A
242 observatory (Martellucci et al., 2024a; 2025). One of the saildrone was equipped with an ASVCO2 system
243 developed by PMEL (NOAA's Pacific Marine Environmental Laboratory). This system fed seawater in a bubble
244 equilibrator (Friederich et al., 1995), and the partially dried $x\text{CO}_2$ is measured with an infrared detector (LI-COR
245 820 CO_2 gas analyser). A two-point calibration was used, where the first is a reference gas from NOAA/ESRL,
246 while the second is air purged for CO_2 . Detailed description of the correction, adjustment and quality of $p\text{CO}_{2\text{sw}}$
247 Saildrone data can be found in Martellucci et al. (2024a). A similar trend (significant correlation coefficient of
248 0.77, p -value < 0.01) and a constant offset of 16 μatm between the Saildrone and EMSO-E2M3A data were
249 reported, providing an additional line of evidence for the reliability of this dataset.
250 Due to the limited number of reference water samples and their incomplete representation of the full CO_2 annual
251 cycle, no corrections to the $p\text{CO}_{2\text{sw}}$ data were applied.

252 2.2.4. pH data

253 Hourly pH data were obtained from a SAMI-pH sensor deployed at a depth of 2 meters, covering a two-year
254 period from 2015 to 2016. The instrument uses a high-accuracy colorimetric method, in which seawater is pumped
255 through the sensor and mixed with a pH-sensitive indicator solution (meta-Cresol Purple). According to certified
256 reference material (CRM) intercomparisons, the sensor provides an accuracy of ± 0.003 pH units and a precision
257 of about 0.001 pH units. Calibration by vendors and pre deployment checks of the sensor were performed by the
258 OGS CTMO facility. Discrete samples in the region were also collected in 2015, but no cruises were conducted
259 in the region in 2016. Water samples for validation were collected in 250 mL borosilicate bottles and preserved
260 with mercury chloride (HgCl_2) to prevent biological activity. Samples were stored in the dark and kept cool until

261 laboratory analysis at the OGS facilities. Total scale pH (pH_T) was determined spectrophotometrically following
262 the standard operating procedure SOP 6b described in Dickson et al. (2007). Analyses were performed using a
263 Cary 100 Scan UV-Visible spectrophotometer with a 10 cm pathlength cylindrical quartz cell and a purified 4
264 mM m-Cresol Purple indicator dye. Prior to measurement, samples were equilibrated to 25°C, then subsampled
265 by siphoning through a Tygon tube to avoid gas exchange, ensuring no headspace was present in the cuvette. pH_T
266 was measured immediately after sub-sampling. The precision of the measurements was evaluated on three to five
267 replicates collected from the same Niskin bottle, and was, on average, 0.01%. During the analysis, the temperature
268 of the samples was controlled using a thermostatic cell holders inside the spectrophotometer, connected to a
269 circulation criothermostat (LAUDA RE415) and monitored with a digital thermometer (VWR Traceable). The
270 mean difference between the three discrete samples and the probe measurements was equal to -0.05 pH units. No
271 further correction to the time series was applied.

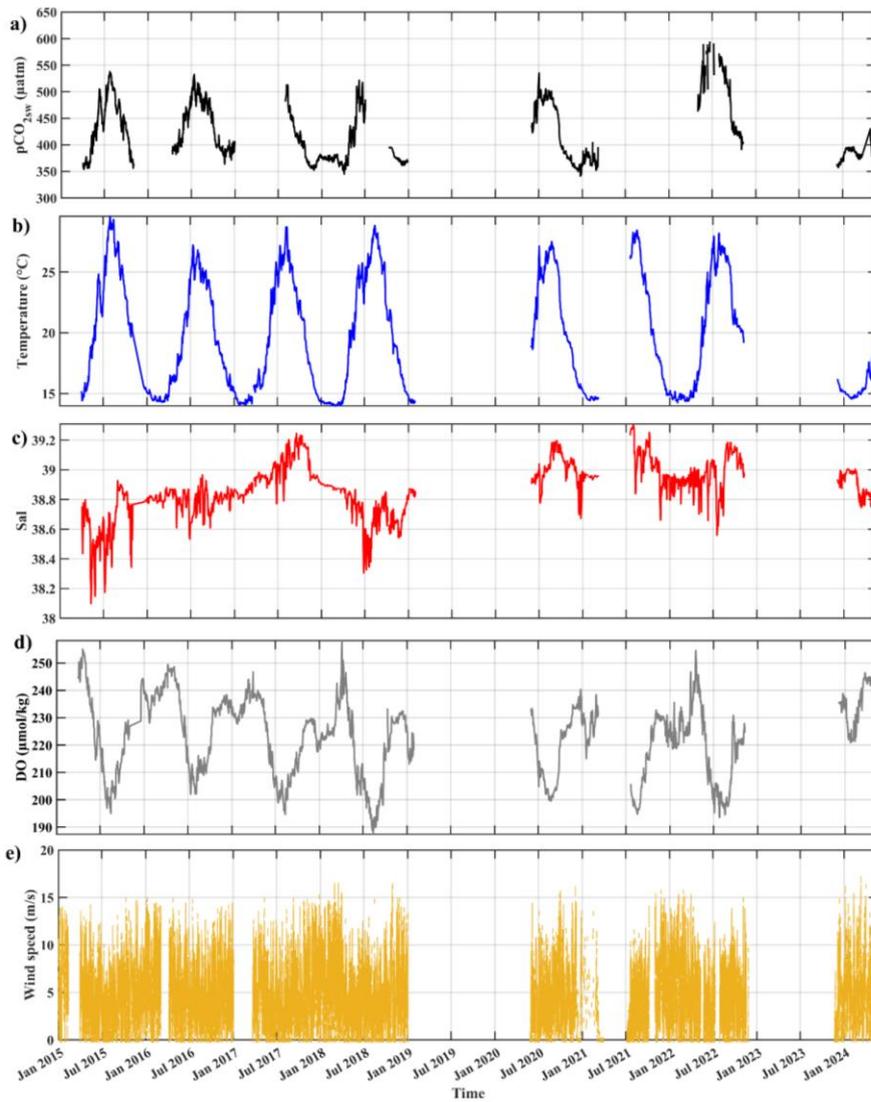
272 3. Robustness and seasonal consistency of the dataset

273 The surface dataset presented here has been carefully corrected (physical data) and validated (meteorological,
274 pCO_2 and pH data), as described in the previous sections, and all data are publicly available
275 (<https://doi.org/10.13120/y2hw-1j63>, [Cardin et al., 2025b](#)). Data gaps were due to maintenance operations,
276 malfunctioning of the sensors and/or the removal of measurements that failed the quality-control procedures
277 described in previous sections. The resulting $\text{pCO}_{2\text{sw}}$ time series (Figure 2a) falls within the expected range of
278 variability for the region. Both the values and seasonal amplitudes are consistent with previous observations in
279 different regions of the Mediterranean Sea (e.g., Pecci et al., 2024; Garcia-Ibañez et al., 2024; Frangoulis et al.,
280 2024; [Coppola et al., 2020](#); [Merlivat et al., 2018](#)) and in the Adriatic Sea (e.g., Turk et al., 2010; Cantoni et al.,
281 2012; Ingrosso et al., 2016; Urbini et al., 2020; Cantoni et al., 2024). Lower values are observed in winter, with
282 $\text{pCO}_{2\text{sw}}$ concentrations ranging between 350 and 400 μatm , mainly due to the cooling of the sea surface layer.
283 However, during periods of winter convection and enhanced vertical mixing, $\text{pCO}_{2\text{sw}}$ increases, as observed
284 between December and February in the 2017–2018, 2020–2021, and 2023–2024 periods. In contrast, summer
285 values were around 500 μatm , and in 2022 rise above 550 μatm , closely following surface warming and
286 stratification. Alongside $\text{pCO}_{2\text{sw}}$, other physical and biogeochemical parameters measured at the site further
287 describe the surface layer dynamics. Temperature reflects the seasonal alternation between winter mixing and
288 summer stratification, with values ranging, on average, from 14.87 °C in winter to 25.39 °C in summer (Figure
289 2b). Particularly high temperatures were recorded in 2015, when summer maxima reached 29.6 °C in July. In the
290 following years, summer temperatures remained close to the seasonal average. Interestingly, winter minima
291 showed a gradual increase over time, from values near the seasonal average in the period 2016 - 2019 to an average
292 of around 15.04 °C starting from 2021. Overall, surface temperatures appear slightly higher than those reported
293 for the northwestern Mediterranean (Garcia-Ibañez et al., 2024), especially during the summer months. Marked
294 interannual variability characterizes salinity (Figure 2c), with maximum values exceeding 39 in several years (for
295 instance in 2017, 2020, 2021 and 2022) consistent with previously reported values in the SAP (e.g., Mihanović et
296 al., 2021; Menna et al., 2022). These salinity values are typically higher than those observed in the central
297 Mediterranean (e.g., [Lampedusa site](#), Pecci et al., 2024) or the northwestern Mediterranean (Garcia-Ibañez et al.,
298 2024) reflecting the influence of warm, saline waters of Levantine/Cretan origin entering the area (see Sect. 2.1).
299 Oxygen concentrations follow the expected seasonal dynamics (Figure 2d): lower values are shown during winter

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300 mixing, when ventilation dominates, followed by an increase (first peak in the time series) that corresponds to the
301 post-convection bloom. In summer, oxygen concentration decreases again due to respiration processes (e.g.,
302 Martellucci et al., 2024b). Finally, DO increases again at the end of summer (second peak in the time series) due
303 to a smaller bloom occurring in the region during late summer/autumn. Wind speed data (Figure 2e) are also
304 consistent with the regional mean values (e.g., Turk et al., 2010; Pecci et al., 2024) and underline the role of
305 atmospheric forcing in sustaining vertical exchanges, particularly in winter. Mean wind speed value was 5.12 m/s
306 but being frequently higher than 10 m/s. Nevertheless, here an assessment of the main wind regimes in the southern
307 Adriatic was not performed as it was beyond the scope of this manuscript.
308

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309
 310 **Figure 2.** Time series of sea surface a) partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO_{2sw} in μatm); b) Temperature ($^{\circ}C$); c) Salinity (Sal); d)
 311 dissolved oxygen (DO in $\mu mol/kg$); and e) Wind speed (m/s). The variables were measured in the period 2015 - 2024 at EMSO-
 312 E2M3A observatory. Periods of missing data were due to maintenance operations, malfunctioning of the sensors and/or the
 313 removal of measurements that failed the quality-control procedures described in Sect. 2.2..
 314

315 A summary of the main biogeochemical and hydrographic variability reported in other Mediterranean regions
 316 from fixed ocean stations in **recent years** is provided in Table 2.

317
 318 **Table 2.** Summary of pCO_{2sw} and hydrographic variability in other oceanographic regions of the Mediterranean sea.

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Observational site	Time span	pCO _{2sw}	Hydrography	Dissolved oxygen	Wind speed	References
Lampedusa Oceanographic Observatory (Central Mediterranean sea)	December 2021 - June 2023	Seasonal variability: 350 µatm (winter) and 525 µatm (summer)	Salinity ranges: 36.9 - 38.2 Sea surface temperature ranges: 16°C (winter) and 29°C (summer)	-	Wind speed ranges: between 0 m/s and 15 m/s	Pecci et al., 2024
L'Estartit Oceanographic Station and the Blanes Bay Microbial Observatory (Northwestern Mediterranean Sea)	January 2010 - August 2019	Seasonal variability (fCO ₂): 350 µatm (winter) and 500 µatm (summer)	Salinity ranges: no clear seasonal cycle, values around 37.9 ± 0.3 Sea surface temperature ranges: 13°C (winter) and 23°C (summer)	-	-	Garcia-Ibañez et al., 2024
BOUSSOLE and DYFAMED sites (Ligurian Sea)	1995-1997 and February 2013 - February 2015	Seasonal variability (fCO ₂): 350 µatm (winter) and > 550 µatm (summer) in the 2013 - 2015 period	Mean salinity: values around 38.21 ± 0.03 (1995 - 1997) and 38.19 ± 0.02 (2013 - 2015) Sea surface temperature ranges: 13°C (winter) and 27°C (summer)	-	-	Coppola et al., 2020; Merlivat et al., 2018
POSEIDON fixed platform (Eastern Mediterranean Sea)	January 2020 - May 2023	Seasonal variability: 350 µatm (winter) and ~500 µatm (summer)	Salinity ranges: 39 - 39.6 Sea surface temperature ranges: 15.3°C (winter) and 28.3°C (summer)	-	-	Frangoulis et al., 2024
Gulf of Trieste (Northern Adriatic Sea)	2007-2008; 2008 - 2009; 2011-2013; 2014-2017	Seasonal variability: 220 µatm (winter) and between 475 µatm and 500 µatm (summer)	Salinity ranges: 36 - 37.5 but strong influence of rivers (values < 36) Sea surface temperature ranges: 8°C (winter) and between 26 and 29.5°C (summer)	Dissolved oxygen range: 270 µmol/kg (winter) and around 200 µmol/kg (summer)	Wind speed ranges: between 0 m/s and 15 m/s	Turk et al., 2010; Cantoni et al., 2012; Ingrosso et al., 2016; Urbini et al., 2020; Cantoni et al., 2024

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319
320 Overall, the consistency of seasonal and interannual patterns, and their alignment with well-known physical and
321 biogeochemical drivers such as convection, stratification, and biological activity, strongly support the reliability

322 of the dataset. These results reinforce the robustness of the observations and provide a solid basis for further
323 scientific interpretation.

324 4. Extended and potential future applications of the dataset: calculation of atmospheric carbon flux (FCO₂)

325 The dataset presented here can be used to describe physical and biogeochemical properties of surface water in the
326 SAP, as well as to estimate the atmospheric carbon flux (FCO₂). This is essential for evaluating the role of the
327 SAP as a potential carbon source or sink across various temporal scales. Ensuring the reliability of air–sea CO₂
328 flux calculations requires careful evaluation of atmospheric pCO₂ and wind speed data, as different
329 parameterizations may need to be applied and some input data recalculated to meet the requirements of the FCO₂
330 formulation. In particular, different parameterizations of the gas transfer velocity could yield divergent results.
331 Equally important is the quality of pCO_{2sw} data from sensors. As reported in Steinhoff et al. (2025), it is essential
332 to have a certain degree of knowledge and expertise to produce and interpret optimal quality data, especially for
333 membrane-based systems (such as the submersible Pro-Oceanus sensors) that are easier to operate in the field but
334 require critical understanding of the instrument’s characteristics for data processing. Careful validation and quality
335 control of these input parameters are therefore essential. Addressing these methodological considerations is a
336 prerequisite for producing credible flux estimates and, ultimately, for advancing the understanding of carbon
337 dynamics in the SAP.

338 5. Data availability

339 Data described in this work are freely available at the National Oceanographic Data Center (NODC) of the
340 National Institute of Oceanography and Applied Geophysics (<https://doi.org/10.13120/y2hw-1j63>, [Cardin et al.,](#)
341 [2025b](#)).

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343 6. Conclusions

344 High frequency observations from fixed stations, such as surface buoys and/or moorings, play a crucial role in
345 assessing the regional variability of the carbon cycle in the Mediterranean Sea across different time scales. The
346 dataset presented here provides a comprehensive resource for exploring the biogeochemical and physical
347 dynamics of the sea surface in the dense water formation area of the southern Adriatic Sea. For the first time,
348 high-frequency observations of meteorological, hydrographic and seawater pCO₂ and pH data are presented. In
349 addition, the methods used to perform quality control (QC) of the data and possible improvements are discussed.

350 QC is particularly important for pCO_{2sw} data as many challenges (such as strict ship time windows) were faced in
351 the region as discussed in Sect. 2.2. Making this time series available for the first time is a significant advancement,
352 particularly considering the strategic importance of the region as a key dense water formation area and for air-sea
353 interaction which are fundamental mechanisms for the capture and storage of atmospheric CO₂. Thus, this dataset
354 provides a valuable example for estimating local surface hydrological and biogeochemical dynamics based on
355 high-resolution regional observations with a high degree of accuracy. This dataset could be also used to
356 characterize carbon flux at the surface in the SAP using only in situ observations, explicitly estimating
357 uncertainties associated with the input variables for CO₂ flux calculations (Sect. 4). In particular, uncertainty
358 related to key parameters such as atmospheric pCO₂ and wind speed, which are typically derived from other

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359 observatories or retrieved from models (Ulises et al., 2023). However, some of the data ($p\text{CO}_{2\text{atm}}$) currently cover
360 only limited time periods, making data integration necessary to ensure consistency in flux estimates.

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362 **Author contribution.**

363 CD: data curation, investigation, validation, writing (original draft), writing (review and editing),
364 conceptualisation, formal analysis, software. AR: investigation, writing (review and editing), conceptualisation.
365 GCi: data curation, investigation, validation, writing (review and editing), conceptualisation. MG: data curation,
366 investigation, validation, writing (review and editing), conceptualisation. GCo: investigation, writing (review and
367 editing), conceptualisation. GS: data curation, writing (review and editing), validation, software. SK: data
368 curation, writing (review and editing), validation, software. JLM: data curation, validation, writing (review and
369 editing), software. VC: funding acquisition, project administration, data curation, investigation, validation, writing
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