



## 1 **Unveiling the Deep Ocean warming: observed bottom ocean dataset across Mediterranean Sea**

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### 9 **Abstract**

10 The deep ocean was long assumed to be in a quasi-stationary state, and therefore excluded from studies  
11 on climate variability. The awareness of the unsteady state of the deep ocean is a fairly recent  
12 achievement, but despite its pivotal role in the assessment of climate variability, the understanding of  
13 abyssal ocean dynamics remains largely unknown, primarily due to the scarcity of observations. This is  
14 why any observations below 2000 meters depth, although poor or widely dispersed, constitute valuable  
15 knowledge that is mandatory to enhance and make available.

16 This work presents validated oceanographic time series collected by benthic multidisciplinary  
17 observatories across key locations in the Mediterranean Sea region. It includes details on the data  
18 processing and quality control methods used to ensure reliability and aims to deliver high-quality data, as  
19 well as standardization in the quality control procedures for deep-sea measurements.

20 The dataset provides a comprehensive description of seafloor observations collected over different time  
21 periods during the past decade, contributing to the long-term characterization and understanding of  
22 abyssal ocean variability in the region.

23

### 24 **Short Summary**

25 We present a set of long-term, high-resolution oceanographic datasets collected by benthic observatories  
26 across the deep Mediterranean Sea. These datasets provide valuable insight in the study of deep ocean  
27 dynamics and its possible impact on climate variability. By applying standardized post-processing and  
28 quality control procedures, we ensure the data's reliability and usability for further analysis and model



29 validation. This contribution addresses critical gaps in deep-sea monitoring and supports efforts aligned  
30 with the UN Decade of Ocean Science.

31 **1 Introduction**

32  
33 The deep ocean is the largest, yet least observed, component of the Earth's climate system. For decades,  
34 it was assumed to be a quasi-stationary environment (*Stommel and Arons, 1960; Munk, 1966*) and thus  
35 was largely excluded from global monitoring strategies. The unsteady state of the deep ocean is a quite  
36 new achieved knowledge (*Ferrari et al. 2016, MacKinnon et al, 2017, Polzin and McDougall, 2011*) that  
37 emphasizes the significance of abyssal processes in redistributing heat and energy, thereby influencing  
38 surface climate variability.

39 Recent findings (*Talley et al 2016., Desbruyères et al. 2016, Artale et al., 2018*) show that, all over, the  
40 deep ocean is far from being a stable environment; rather, it is an active part of the climate system,  
41 exerting measurable impacts on decadal time scales. The deep sea is indeed a highly complex and  
42 interconnected environment. The whole water column is in continuous vertical exchange up to the surface  
43 and with the atmosphere, as well as laterally with surrounding ocean basins, guided by morphological  
44 constraints. Given the crucial role of the oceans in absorbing planetary energy imbalance (93%) (*Rhein  
et al., 2013*), understanding how and on what timescale deep-water masses redistribute this energy is  
45 essential for assessing long-term climate variability and ocean circulation dynamics (*Lo Bue et al., 2021*).  
46 Deep sea variability and the impacts of climate change on it are difficult to interpret, and it is difficult to  
47 disentangle the different contributions given the small number of available observations, as well as  
48 discriminate between local variability and climate change. These knowledge gaps are reflected in current  
49 global climate models, where abyssal processes are not well-represented, leading to important biases in  
50 the global climate variation estimates. Global climate models need observations for model design, tuning,  
51 and validation, so it is straightforward that the under-observed deep ocean results in being poorly  
52 represented (*Heuzé et al. 2022*). Recognition of observation as a critical element for ocean health and  
53 planet sustainability boosted observing efforts since 2000, but this has almost exclusively concerned the  
54 surface ocean (*Visbeck, 2018*). Therefore, the capacity to comprehend and quantify the energy  
55 redistribution in the deep ocean and its effects on climate variability will remain underestimated until  
56 enhancements in systematic monitoring across a substantial volume of (deep) ocean are achieved. Despite  
57 the development of several global ocean observing programs over the past decade, such as ARGO,  
58 OceanSITES, GO-SHIP, OOI, ONC, and EMSO, providing continuous deep ocean monitoring, they still  
59 only cover a limited and scattered portion of the vast ocean (*Levin et al. 2019*). Currently, just 6% of  
60



61 hydrographic observations extend below 2100 m in depth (*de Lavergne et al. 2016*), while the global  
62 mean ocean depth exceeds 4000 m.

63 As suggested by the UN decade (Howell, 2021), there is an urgent need to fill the knowledge gap about  
64 the deep ocean. This requires a collaborative, synergistic effort that places priority on enhancing  
65 observation networks and monitoring programs across various domains as well as delivering  
66 standardized, high-quality datasets to support both process studies and model development. High-  
67 resolution, long-term datasets are essential not only for understanding deep ocean variability but also for  
68 reducing biases in global climate models, which currently lack robust parameterizations for abyssal  
69 processes (Heuzé et al., 2022).

70 In this context, we present a collection of validated, long-term oceanographic datasets acquired by benthic  
71 observatories deployed at key sites across the deep Mediterranean Sea. These observatories provide  
72 unique data for sampling strategies, heterogeneity, location, and endurance. The aim is to facilitate  
73 knowledge sharing and promote a harmonized approach to deep-sea monitoring that supports broader  
74 scientific efforts in climate research, model validation, and new ocean insight.

75

## 76 **2 Data acquisition system**

77 Accurate and continuous deep-sea monitoring requires advanced data acquisition systems capable of  
78 withstanding extreme conditions and capturing a broad range of environmental variables over extended  
79 periods. In this sense, benthic multidisciplinary observatories, such as GEOSTAR-type system (Favali et  
80 al. 2006; Favali et al., 2009, Favali et al., 2013) (Fig. 1), are essential tools, integrating physical, chemical,  
81 and geophysical sensors to acquire high-resolution data in challenging deep-ocean conditions, where  
82 pressure, oxidation and temperature can affect the functioning of the system itself.

83 Benthic observatories can be broadly categorized into two types: autonomous (standalone) and cabled  
84 systems. The choice between these configurations depends on monitoring objectives, site accessibility,  
85 power and data requirements and logistical constraints.

86 Autonomous systems are designed to operate without external power or data transmission infrastructure.  
87 Powered by onboard lithium batteries, these systems store data locally until physical recovery. Low-  
88 power electronics are used to optimize battery life, and sensor data are timestamped using high-precision  
89 rubidium clocks and stored in a central internal memory. Special attention is paid to sensor placement to  
90 minimize interference from the frame structure and to ensure optimal sampling conditions. Depending on  
91 the mission configuration, autonomous systems can operate for periods up to one year (*Embriaco et al.,*  
92 *2014; Marinaro et al., 2006; Favali et al., 2006; Beranzoli et al., 1998*). The autonomous nature of these  
93 systems makes them particularly valuable for deployments in remote areas where establishing a



94 continuous power or data connection is impractical. However, their reliance on limited battery life and  
95 local data storage means that they require periodic recovery and maintenance, limiting their ability to  
96 provide real-time data.

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100 **Figure 1:** Example of a GEOSTAR-type observatory integrating multidisciplinary sensors. The image shows the NEMO-SN1  
101 benthic observatory during the GNNDT-1 campaign (2002–2003).

102

103 Cabled observatories, by contrast, are connected to shore stations via electro-optical submarine cables,  
104 allowing for real-time data transmission and continuous power supply. A cabled observatory such as  
105 NEMO-SN1(*Favali et al., 2013, Giovannetti et al., 2016*) incorporates an electro-optical jumper and a 28  
106 km-long submarine cable that connects the system to a dedicated onshore acquisition system. This setup  
107 enables uninterrupted data collection, remote control of sensors, and real and near-real-time quality  
108 control (depending on the type of data acquired). Time synchronization is achieved via a GPS signal  
109 received at the shore station, ensuring high temporal accuracy across all measurements. Cabled systems  
110 are ideal for deep long-term monitoring in accessible regions requiring high-frequency, real-time data.  
111 Table 1 summarizes the observatories, deployment sites, and sensor configurations described in this study.

112

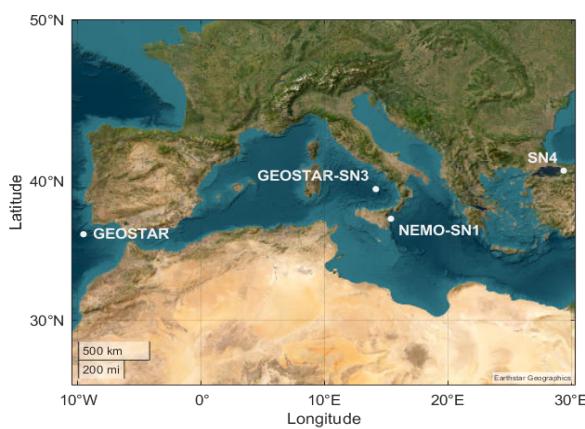


### 113 3 Dataset, processing, and quality control

114 Monitoring the deep sea presents significant challenges, from instrument deployment and data recovery  
115 to ensuring the accuracy, quality and comparability of measurements, primarily due to its remote and  
116 extreme environment. Harsh environmental conditions, logistical complexity, and technological  
117 variability across observatories result in heterogeneous datasets requiring robust processing and  
118 harmonization. This section outlines the datasets, their characteristics, and the quality assurance (QA),  
119 the standardized post-processing, and quality control (QC) procedures adopted to enhance data integrity,  
120 reliability, and interoperability.

#### 121 3.1 Datasets

122 Between 2002 and 2014, eight long-term multidisciplinary time series were collected by four different  
123 benthic observatories strategically located across the Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 2). Each observatory hosts  
124 a wide array of geophysical sensors. However, for the purposes of this paper, we focus only on those  
125 measuring physical and biogeochemical parameters, notably: temperature, conductivity, pressure,  
126 turbidity, and ocean currents. Sensor operation varied across deployments, with sampling intervals  
127 depending on the sensor type and mission objectives. A central data acquisition unit guarantees time  
128 synchronization among sensors that operate with different sampling intervals, ranging from hourly to a  
129 frequency as high as 5 Hz. Table 1 provides a summary of each observatory, including deployment  
130 periods, sensor types and models, sampling frequencies, and overall data acquisition efficiency. Below,  
131 we present a detailed description of the datasets acquired at each site.



132  
133 **Figure 2: Location of the benthic multidisciplinary observatories: GEOSTAR (Gulf of Cadiz), GEOSTAR-SN3 (Tyrrhenian Sea),**  
134 **NEMO-SN1 (Ionian Sea), and SN4 (Marmara Sea), (© 2025 Google Earth).**



135

136 **NEMO-SN1** observatory (Western Ionian Sea, 2100 m), located ~25 km off the coast of Eastern Sicily  
137 (37.5° N, 15.4° E), yielded two different monitoring campaigns: October 2002–February 2003 and June  
138 2012–June 2013 (*Favali et al. 2006, Favali et al. 2011, Favali et al. 2013*). The first deployment included  
139 a CTD probe (SBE 37SM) sampling every 12 minutes, and an acoustic punctual current meter (Falmouth  
140 3D-ACM) operating at 2 Hz. This sensor payload was then improved for the second campaign (2012–  
141 2013) by adding an ADCP (RDI WorkHorse, 600kHz), sampling current profiles every 30 minutes. Also,  
142 a new punctual acoustic current meter (Nobska MAVS-3 3-axis) replaced the previous one, maintaining  
143 the same sampling frequency, while the sampling rate of the CTD was changed to 1 sample per hour. This  
144 site is a key transition zone for water mass exchange between the Levantine Basin, Adriatic Sea, and  
145 Western Mediterranean, and plays a central role in deep thermohaline circulation of the Eastern  
146 Mediterranean (*Malanotte-Rizzoli et al., 1997; Lascaratos et al., 1999; Gacic et al., 2010, Budillon et al.*  
147 *2010*).

148 **GEOSTAR-SN3** (Southern Tyrrhenian Sea, 3320 m), located on the Marsili abyssal plain (39.5° N,  
149 14.2° E), GEOSTAR-SN3 represents the first long-term pilot deployment at this site. This observatory  
150 was implemented to act as the main node of an underwater network of deep-sea observatories (*Favali et*  
151 *al. 2009*). It operated in two consecutive missions: 2003–2004 and 2004–2005. The observatory was  
152 equipped with a CTD (SBE 16plus), a transmissometer (Chelsea Alphatracka II), an ADCP (RDI  
153 WorkHorse 300 kHz), and a point current meter (Falmouth 3D-ACM), all sampling at hourly intervals,  
154 except for the last sensor that operated at 2 Hz. Due to the presence of the Marsili Volcano, which  
155 represents one of the largest European underwater volcanoes of the Plio-Pleistocene age, this area is key  
156 for addressing both geophysical and oceanographic topics (*Beranzoli et al. 2009*).

157 **GEOSTAR** (Gulf of Cadiz, Iberian Sea, 3200 m), an updated version of the GEOSTAR seafloor  
158 observatory, was then deployed between 2007 and 2010 near shore in the Gulf of Cadiz (Iberian Sea -  
159 36.4°N, 9.5°W). This deployment was part of the CE NEAREST project (Integrated observation from  
160 NEAR shore sourcES of Tsunami: Towards an early warning system) (*Favali et al. 2009*), which aimed  
161 to enhance the near-real-time detection of signals through a multiparameter seafloor observatory designed  
162 to characterize potential sources of tsunamis, contributing to the development of a prototype Early  
163 Warning System (EWS). From an oceanographic perspective, this site is significant for monitoring  
164 interaction between the North Atlantic current and the Mediterranean outflow, contributing to the  
165 oceanographic characterization of a key interbasin exchange zone (*Alves et al. 2011, García-Lafuente et*  
166 *al. 2006, Ochoa et al. 1991*). The sensor suite included a CTD (SBE 16plus), a turbidimeter (Wet Labs



167 ECO BB), an ADCP (RDI WorkHorse 300 kHz) sampling every 10 minutes and a punctual current meter  
168 (Nobska MAVS-3) sampling at 5 Hz.

169 **SN4** (Marmara Sea, 166 m), deployed along the North Anatolian Fault in the Gulf of Izmit (40.7° N,  
170 29.4° E), SN4 monitored seismic activity and its coupling with environmental parameters. Campaigns  
171 were conducted in 2009–2010 and 2013–2014, with durations of 5 and 7 months, respectively. Although  
172 SN4 is one of the smallest GEOSTAR-class observatories, its instrumentation includes both geophysical  
173 and oceanographic sensors (*Favali et al. 2009, Marinaro et al. 2006*), hosting CTD (SBE 16plus), a  
174 turbidimeter (Wet Labs ECO NTU), an oxygen optode (AADI 3830), and a point current meter (Nobska  
175 MAVS-3), with sampling frequencies ranging from 1 sample every 10 minutes (CTD, turbidity) to 1 Hz  
176 (oxygen) and 5 Hz (currents). The observatory's purpose is to investigate potential correlations between  
177 seismic activity and gas methane emissions in the surrounding environment, given the area's status as an  
178 active seismic zone (*Embriaco et al., 2014*).

179

### 180 **3.2 post-processing and quality control**

181 The long-term deployment of observatories, along with the evolution of instrumentation over the years,  
182 has resulted in variability in data formats and metadata structures. Consequently, a tailored post-  
183 processing procedure for each observatory was required to face these discrepancies. To provide a more  
184 reliable comparison for future dissemination and usage of the data, in compliance with the FAIR  
185 (Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, and Reusable) principles for data sharing, the post-processing  
186 workflow consisted of several steps: converting raw data into usable formats, harmonizing metadata, and  
187 applying quality checks. Preliminary analysis was always conducted, as the first step, to evaluate the data  
188 storage efficiency (Table 1). The raw data extracted from the deck unit were converted into a readable  
189 format using custom-designed software tailored for each specific observatory, whereas certain types of  
190 data, such as ADCP data, required conversion using the manufacturer's software. Each dataset underwent  
191 post-processing utilizing specific multi-step standardized procedures following the manufacturer's  
192 recommendation. This process enhances the accuracy, reliability, and interpretability of the raw data,  
193 refining its quality and facilitating better interpretation. The QC procedures were guided by  
194 recommendations from international frameworks such as GOOS (*IOC, 2010; Pouliquen et al., 2011*) and  
195 QUARTOD (*Bushnell et al., 2019*). Tests included checks for time consistency, value ranges, rate of  
196 change, and internal consistency across sensors. Data were flagged based on severity and usability  
197 (Table 2), with bad or missing data replaced by NaNs to maintain data integrity.

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 201 **Table 1: Overview of the benthic observatories, including site location, deployment period, sensor types and**  
 202 **models, sampling frequency, and acquisition efficiency.**

Observatory name, depth, and geographical site	Acquisition period	Sensor type	Sensor model	Sampling frequency	Sensor efficiency (%)
NEMO-SN1 (2100 m) Western Ionian Sea	2002-2003 and 2012-2013	CTD	SBE 37 SM	1 sample/12'	100% (2002-2003) 95.3% (2012-2013)
		CURRENT METER	Falmouth 3D-ACM (2002-2003) Nobska MAVS-3 (2012-2013)	2Hz	99.9% (2002-2003) 98.4% (2012-2013)
		ADCP	RDI WH 600 kHz	2 samples/h	98.7% (2012-2013)
GEOSTAR SN3 (3320m) South Tyrrhenian Sea	2003-2004 and 2004-2005	CTD	SBE 37 SM	1 sample/h	99.5% (2003-2004) 98.5% (2004-2005)
		TRANSMISSOMETER	Chelsea Alphatracka II	1 sample/h	99.5% (2003-2004) 98.5% (2004-2005)
		CURRENT METER	Falmouth 3D-ACM	2Hz	100% (2003-2004) 99.9% (2004-2005)
		ADCP	RDI WH 300 kHz	1 samples/h	100% (2003-2004) 99.7% (2004-2005)
GEOSTAR (3200) Gulf od Cadiz	2007-2008 and 2009-2010	CTD	SBE16plus	1 samples/h	91.4% (2007-2008) 96.1% (2009-2010)
		TURBIDIMETER	Wet Labs ECO BB	1 samples/h	91.4% (2007-2008) 96.1% (2009-2010)
		CURRENT METER	Nobska MAVS-3	5Hz	90.5% (2007-2008) 36.8% (2009-2010)
		ADCP	RDI WH 300 kHz	1 sample/h	90.5% (2007-2008) 36.8% (2009-2010)
SN4 (166 m) Marmara Sea	2009-2010 and 2013-2014	CTD	SBE16plus	1 sample/10'	99.5% (2009-2010) 99.7% (2013-2014)
		TURBIDIMETER	Wet Labs ECO BB	1 sample/10'	99.5% (2009-2010) 99.7% (2013-2014)
		CURRENT METER	Nobska MAVS-3	5Hz	99.9% (2009-2010) 17.7% (2013-2014)
		OXYGEN	AADI Optode 3830	1 Hz	99.9% (2009-2010)

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206 **3.2.1 post-processing**

207 The first stage aimed to collect, convert, and verify the data gathered by different acquisition systems,  
 208 considering the diverse types of sensors and the relative data format, to enhance the quality and reliability  
 209 of the collected information. A thorough post-processing phase was undertaken to refine and further  
 210 validate the data. This involved primarily an inspection of the efficiency of the sensors and their proper  
 211 functioning through meticulous post-calibration and validation procedures to ensure the integrity of the



212 data, providing a solid foundation for subsequent analysis and interpretation. Table 1 reports the  
213 efficiency for each sensor and mission elaborated, where the overall acquisition efficiency is calculated  
214 as the percentage of data recorded on the total acquisition load. The efficiency of the oceanographic  
215 sensors was generally very high, with a few exceptions, most notably in the Marmara Sea (Table 2), where  
216 the Nobska MAVS-3 sensor stopped functioning relatively early in the mission. Subsequently, several  
217 checks were performed to verify timestamp validity, ensure alignment of multivariable measurements,  
218 and assess instrument efficiency.

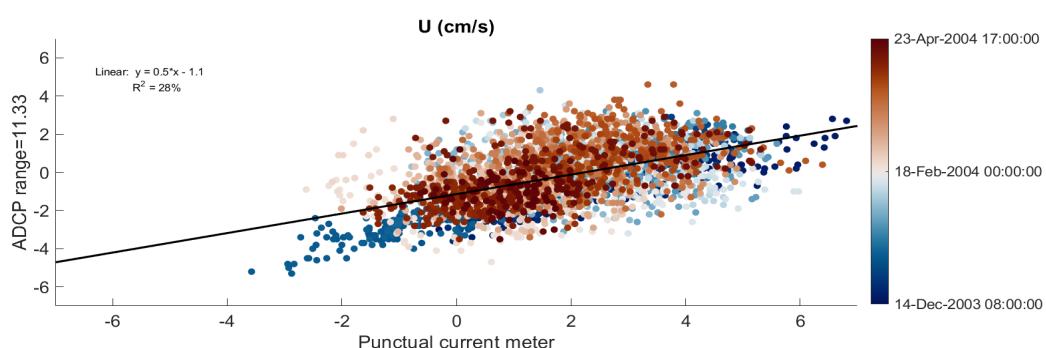
219 **Table 2: Definitions of quality flags applied to datasets. Missing and Bad data (flag 9) are not retained**  
220 **and replaced in the new QC datasets with NaNs.**

Code	Definition
1	Good data
3	Suspect data potentially correctable or high-interest data
9	Missing value or bad data

221

222 Moreover, cross-correlation techniques were employed to verify internal consistency, particularly  
223 between current meters and ADCPs. For instance, the horizontal velocity component (U) measured by  
224 the punctual current meter and by the ADCP deployed at GEOSTAR-SN3 during the 2003-2004 mission  
225 showed reasonable agreement ( $R^2 = 0.28$ ), as illustrated in Figure 3.

226



227 **Figure 3: Comparison of the horizontal (U) velocity components from punctual current meter and ADCP at GEOSTAR-SN3 (2003–**  
228 **2004). To match these two different types of data we considered the hourly time series.**



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232 This consistency was observed despite differences in their operating principle, measurement accuracy and  
233 installation height. The ADCP profiles a section of the water column above the observatory (up to 20 –  
234 30 m in this example), while the punctual current meter captures velocity closer to the sensor itself, close  
235 to the bottom. This comparison helps confirm the reliability of the collected data.

236

### 237 **3.2.2 Quality Control Procedures**

238 Before any QC procedure can be meaningfully applied, however, rigorous Quality Assurance (QA) is  
239 essential to ensure that the sensors themselves provide measurements within expected accuracy and  
240 stability ranges. In these cases, QA included pre-deployment sensor calibration and in situ verification  
241 through dedicated CTD casts conducted both immediately before the observatory deployment and after  
242 recovery. These steps establish the baseline performance of each instrument, allow the identification of  
243 sensor drift or malfunction. Ensuring robust QA is fundamental, as even the most sophisticated QC  
244 procedures cannot fully compensate for poorly calibrated or improperly functioning sensors; rather,  
245 effective QA provides the foundation upon which reliable real-time and delayed-mode QC can be built.  
246 Whether performed in real-time or in delayed mode, QC data is crucial for ensuring the accuracy,  
247 reliability, and consistency of the data collected. For cabled observing systems, real-time QC serves as an  
248 invaluable tool for assessing, monitoring sensor performance and developing possible real-time  
249 applications. It also helps prevent the storage and analysis of erroneous data, while enabling prompt  
250 corrections that can minimize data gaps or inaccuracies during critical monitoring periods.

251 In contrast, delayed mode QC provides a more comprehensive review to improve data accuracy. It  
252 involves comparing measurements with reference datasets, historical records, or model outputs, allowing  
253 the detection and correction of errors missed during real-time processing. Sensor recalibration and cross-  
254 referencing with nearby instruments are commonly applied. By applying advanced statistical and tailored  
255 threshold-based techniques (e.g. range tests, spike and outlier detection), together with time series  
256 methods (e.g. low-pass/high-pass filtering, trend analysis, autocorrelation), delayed mode QC can  
257 effectively address issues such as missing data, spikes, and sensor drift, thereby substantially enhancing  
258 overall data quality. Since deep ocean data is often collected over extended periods, delayed mode QC  
259 plays a crucial role in identifying and correcting inconsistencies caused by sensor degradation or  
260 calibration drift. This is especially important for long-term environmental studies, where maintaining  
261 consistency across datasets is essential for reliable trend analysis and meaningful comparisons.



262 All datasets here described, whether collected through stand-alone or cabled system, have been processed  
263 in delayed mode with the aim of archiving the dataset for long-term use and sharing high-quality data  
264 with the scientific community.  
265 Following QUARTOD (QA/QC for Real-Time Oceanographic Data) recommendations (*Pouliquen et al.*  
266 2011), a QC protocol was customized for each sensor type and designed to be as automated as possible.  
267 Data that failed one or more tests were either flagged or removed according to the test rules. Missing or  
268 bad (removed) data were substituted with NaNs, while preserving their corresponding timestamps to  
269 maintain a regular temporal grid in the dataset. Custom thresholds were defined for regional and seasonal  
270 variability based on climatological data from the Mediterranean Sea (Table 3).  
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Table 3: Example of regional thresholds used in quality control tests for the Mediterranean Sea, including seasonal and climatological variability.

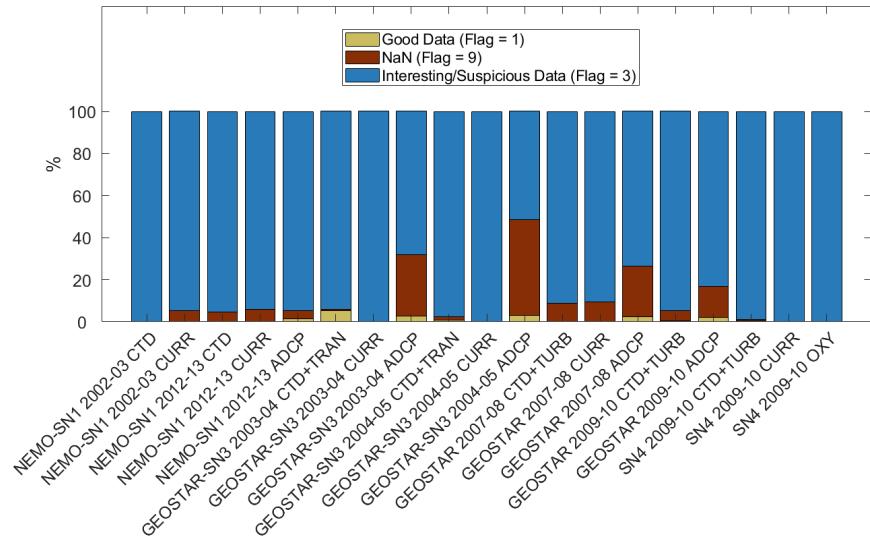
SITE	VARIABLE	RANGE
Ionian Sea and Tyrrhenian Sea	Temperature	13-14 ° C
	Conductivity	4-5 S/m
	Current Speed	0-20 cm s <sup>-1</sup>
Marmara Sea	Temperature	14-16 ° C
	Conductivity	4-5 S/m
	Current Speed	0-40 cm s <sup>-1</sup>
Cadiz Gulf	Temperature	2-3 ° C
	Conductivity	2-4 S/m
	Current Speed	0-20 cm s <sup>-1</sup>

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279 These measures ensured that flagged data reflected real anomalies rather than environmental variability.  
280 Figure 4 provides an overview of the quality of the seafloor observatory data after applying the post-  
281 processing and the QC procedure using flags defined in Table 2.  
282



283

284 **Figure 4: Data quality distribution across observatories and sensors after QC. Data quality flags as percentages for all processed**  
285 **datasets. Bars indicate observatory name, campaign years, and sensor type. Flag codes: 1 = good, 3 = suspect, 9 = missing/removed**

286

287

288 The QC procedure was carried out through a stepwise sequence of tests, such as:

289 **Time check** - The test concerns missing timestamps requires that the observation date and time are  
290 sensible and cover the whole campaign duration with the frequency of the instrument. Missing data are  
291 typically detected and flagged. In some cases, the acquisition system automatically inserts a standard out-  
292 of-range value (e.g., '999') in the raw data to indicate a malfunction; these values are identified and  
293 replaced with NaNs.

294 **Out of range test** - Removing any measurements that exceed the output-range thresholds assigned  
295 individually to each sensor

296 **Gross Range test** - The global range test evaluates each observed value against the full spectrum of  
297 physically plausible measurements, encompassing both the extreme conditions expected in the oceans  
298 and the operational limits of the sensors. Any value that falls outside this predefined range is automatically  
299 flagged or removed, ensuring that clearly erroneous measurements are excluded from subsequent  
300 analyses.



301 **Percent Good (ADCP only)** - This test uses the beams' percent good, which indicates what fraction of  
302 the pings were accepted for a given ensemble. The percent good test determines whether the data that are  
303 being returned are sufficient to provide the required data quality. For Teledyne RDI ADCPs, when the  
304 coordinate frame is not set to beam coordinates, the Percent Good test applies to the percentage of good  
305 three and four beam solutions, i.e., the percentage of data for which the sensor has rejected none or only  
306 one beam.

307 **Error velocity test (ADCP only)** - Uses error velocity, which derives from the four-beam geometry of  
308 an ADCP, each pair of opposing beams providing two independent measurements of velocity. The error  
309 velocity can be treated as an indicator of errors for each depth bin. Threshold specification from the sensor  
310 manufacturer.

311 **Regional/Seasonal range test** - This is a variation on the gross range test, where the thresholds are  
312 adjusted to seasonal averages (e.g., climatological ranges, expected variability from the measured region).  
313 Table 4 provides an example of specific ranges for observations from the Mediterranean Sea.

314 **Spike test** - This test checks for single value spikes usually due to an electrical signal from the sensor,  
315 relative to adjacent data points. Spikes consisting of more than one data point are difficult to capture, but  
316 their onset may be flagged by the following Rate of change test.

317 **Rate of change** – This test inspects the time series for a time rate of change that exceeds a threshold. The  
318 observed quantities can change substantially over short periods in some locations, hindering the value of  
319 this test, so the thresholds have been chosen carefully and tailored based on the sensor's operational limits  
320 and location. This test is equivalent to removing outliers, i.e. data over three standard deviations from the  
321 mean. In the case of dissolved oxygen measurements, because of its dynamic nature, this test does not  
322 involve outliers' removal but flagging.

323 **Flat line** - A common sensor failure mode can provide a data series that is nearly a flat line suggesting  
324 sensor failure. This test checks for a continuously repeated observation of the same value. Since in the  
325 deep sea there is generally little variability, this kind of test is performed for flagging suspicious data  
326 since it cannot be considered necessarily bad in this specific case.

327 **Sensor Tilt** (for current meter and ADCP) - Current sensors must be aligned within an expected range of  
328 tilt angles to properly measure horizontal and vertical currents. For fixed-mounted sensors, as in the case  
329 of seafloor observatories, this test serves to verify that there has not been a misalignment or an unexpected  
330 platform motion in time. In the case of ADCP measurements, this test can be replaced with a rate of  
331 change test performed along the vertical (i.e., along depth instead of time).



332 **Echo Intensity** (ADCP only) - If a beam reflects off a boundary, then the echo intensity increases from  
333 the previous bin. The test checks for echo intensities that may indicate interaction with the surface,  
334 bottom, or in-water structures.

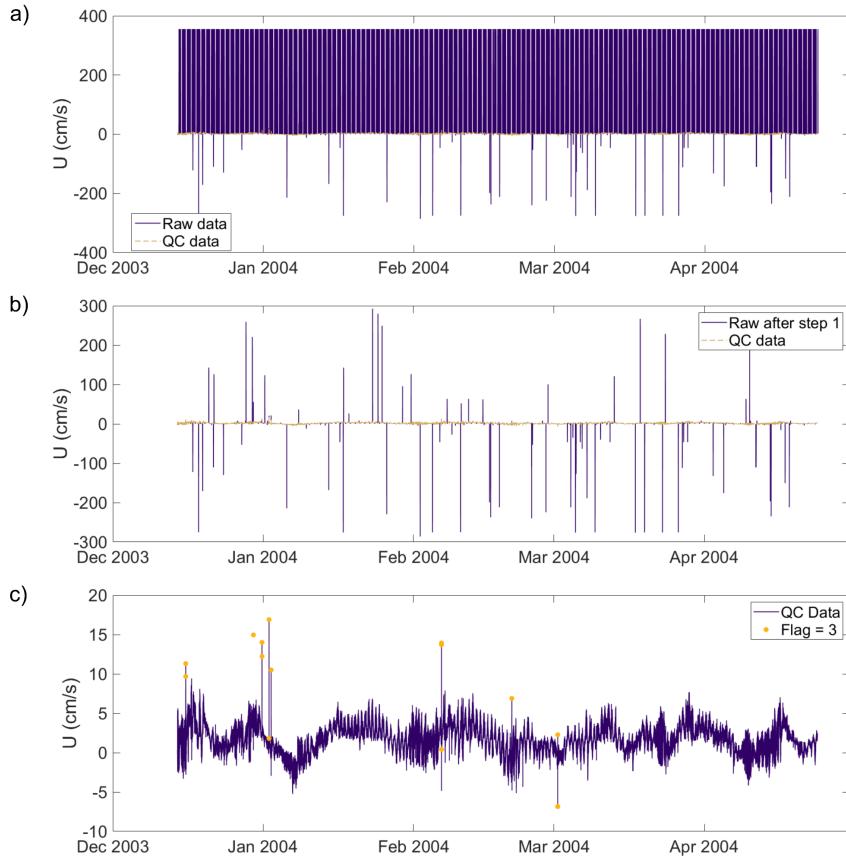
335 **Current gradient** (ADCP only) - The current speed is expected to change at a gradual rate with depth.  
336 This test checks for excessive current speed/direction changes in the vertical profile.

337 An example of the QC procedure is shown in Figure 5, using the horizontal velocity component measured  
338 by the punctual current meter on GEOSTAR-SN3 during the 2003–2004 mission. The raw data initially  
339 contained numerous spikes, out-of-range values, and outliers, making interpretation difficult (Figure 5a).  
340 Applying only the out-of-range test significantly improved data clarity (Figure 5b) and completing the  
341 full QC process resulted in a clean and accurate representation of the eastward velocity component (Figure  
342 5c). All tests were conducted within the valid measurement range for the instrument, as specified in Table  
343 4. These QC procedures, excluding the tilt test, were also applied to CTD probes, turbidimeters, and  
344 transmissometers. For CTD data, derived quantities were calculated using the international TEOS-10  
345 (*Thermodynamic Equation of SeaWater, 2010*) subroutines (*McDougall and Barker, 2011*), including in-  
346 situ salinity (S, PSU), absolute salinity (SA, g/kg), conservative temperature (CT, °C), potential  
347 temperature ( $\theta$ , °C), and in-situ density ( $\rho$ , kg/m<sup>3</sup>).

348 For dissolved oxygen measurements, the same QC procedures were used, with a modified rate-of-change  
349 test to account for the dynamic nature of oxygen in the marine environment.

350 The ADCP measurements required a slightly different approach compared to the other sensors due to  
351 their operational differences. Figure 6 shows an example of the QC steps applied to the velocity magnitude  
352 measured by the ADCP mounted on SN3 observatory during the 2003-2004 acquisition campaign.

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354  
355 **Figure 5: Quality control procedure applied to the eastward velocity component measured by the punctual current meter at**  
356 **GEOSTAR-SN3 (2003–2004). (a) Raw data showing outliers; (b) intermediate results after range and spike tests; (c) final cleaned**  
357 **dataset after applying full QC protocol.**

358 This sensor measures current time series across various depth ranges, up to  $\sim 20$  m from the top of the  
359 observatory. Consequently, visual inspection of the raw dataset is more difficult to interpret, as can be  
360 seen in Figure 6(a), noisy data is not immediately evident in the raw data. The two panels of Figure 6(a)  
361 have been limited to a single month to better highlight the differences between the raw and the quality  
362 checked data, particularly in the upper ranges where the measurements are noisier. Figure 6(b) displays  
363 detailed data extracted from two different depths at 5.33 and 20.33 m above the sensor, highlighting more  
364 clearly the effects of the QC procedures. Each depth range is tested for ranges, spikes, outliers, flat lines,  
365 and tilt, like the other sensors. Additionally, the rate of change in the vertical direction, the percentage of  
366 data acquired using three or more beams, echo intensities to account for spurious ping interactions, and  
367 the velocity error range are also evaluated.  
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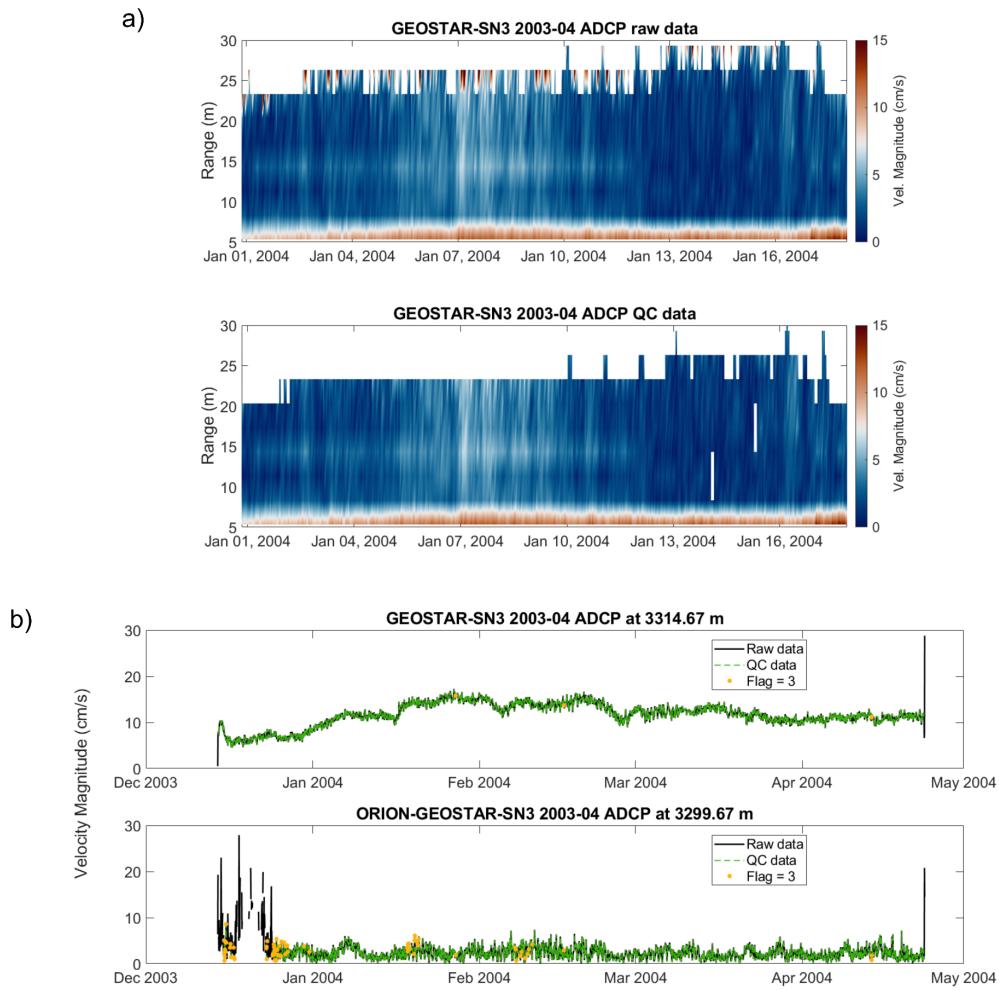
Table 4: Statistical parameters computed for time series from all observatories, including sensor type and campaign details.

Observatory name	Acquisition campaign	Sensor	Variable	Minimu m	Maximu m	Mean	Standard deviation
NEMO-SN1	2002-2003	CTD	T (°C)	13,71	13,77	13,75	0,01
			C (S/m)	4,648	4,656	4,652	0,001
			Depth (dbar)	2102,8	2110,7	2109,7	1,8
		Current meter	U (cm/s)	-17,7	10,8	-2	1,9
			V (cm/s)	-5,2	24	7,8	3
			W (cm/s)	-12,5	20,2	-0,6	1
	2012-2013	CTD	T (°C)	13,74	13,82	13,76	0,02
			C (S/m)	4,656	4,665	4,658	0,002
			Depth (dbar)	2060,1	2060,8	2060,5	0,1
		Current meter	U (cm/s)	-12,1	8,9	-1,4	1,4
			V (cm/s)	-15,9	7,1	-3	1,9
			W (cm/s)	-7,4	7,8	0,5	0,6
GEOSTAR-SN3	2003-2004	ADCP	U (cm/s)	-19,9	20	-2	3
			V (cm/s)	-19,9	20	-4,1	3,4
			W (cm/s)	-19,7	17,9	-0,3	1,1
		CTD	Echo average (cnt)	43	130,4	51,6	3,1
			T (°C)	13,52	13,61	13,54	0
			C (S/m)	4,631	4,697	4,681	0,007
	2004-2005	Transmissometer	Depth (dbar)	3401,2	3401,9	3401,6	0,1
			Beam attenuation (m <sup>-1</sup> )	0,344	0,398	0,363	0,015
			U (cm/s)	-6,8	16,9	1,7	1,6
		Current meter	V (cm/s)	-13,2	14,4	2,3	1,8
			W (cm/s)	-18,3	15,8	-0,9	1,3
		ADCP	U (cm/s)	-27,4	28,6	-1,6	4,6
			V (cm/s)	-29,9	23,3	0,1	2,5
			W (cm/s)	-23,4	7,4	-0,7	0,7
		CTD	Echo average (cnt)	43,2	59,8	44,1	0,6
			T (°C)	13,53	13,55	13,54	0,01
			C (S/m)	4,661	4,671	4,666	0,003
		Transmissometer	Depth (dbar)	3401,2	3401,9	3401,6	0,1
			Beam attenuation (m <sup>-1</sup> )	-0,072	0,008	-0,051	0,02
			U (cm/s)	-15,9	16,4	1,2	1,4
		Current meter	V (cm/s)	-15,9	19,8	2,3	1,7
			W (cm/s)	-17,2	15,4	-1,3	1
			U (cm/s)	-19,4	19,9	0,4	3,2
		ADCP	V (cm/s)	-19,5	20	-0,8	0,6
			W (cm/s)	-8,7	9,1	-0,7	0,6
			Echo average (cnt)	42,6	45,3	43,5	0,3

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Observatory name	Acquisition campaign	Sensor	Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
GEOSTAR	2007-2008	CTD	T (°C)	2,44	2,68	2,58	0,04
			C (S/m)	3,244	3,267	3,258	0,004
			Depth (dbar)	3254,3	3257,8	3256	0,8
		Turbidimeter	Turbidity (NTU)	-0,095	0,631	-0,017	0,037
			U (cm/s)	-18,3	10,2	-0,3	2,2
		Current meter	V (cm/s)	-15,7	17,3	-2	2,6
			W (cm/s)	-9,1	14,9	-0,6	0,7
		ADCP	U (cm/s)	-29,1	28,1	-0,7	3,7
			V (cm/s)	-29,2	28,9	-1,7	3,6
			W (cm/s)	-9,1	10,6	-0,4	0,5
			Echo average (cnt)	44,6	49,1	46,3	1
	2009-2010	CTD	T (°C)	2,48	2,67	2,61	0,03
			C (S/m)	3,246	3,264	3,258	0,003
			Depth (dbar)	3227,6	3231,3	3229,4	0,8
		Turbidimeter	Turbidity (NTU)	-0,076	0,543	-0,023	0,039
			U (cm/s)	-9	11,3	0,1	0,6
		Current meter	V (cm/s)	-11,3	10	-0,6	0,5
			W (cm/s)	-12,4	19,1	0	0,2
		ADCP	U (cm/s)	-29,6	28,5	-0,8	4,1
			V (cm/s)	-29	29,8	0,1	3,7
			W (cm/s)	-8,1	11,7	-0,5	0,5
			Echo average (cnt)	44,7	52,3	47,1	1,6
SN4	2009-2010	CTD	T (°C)	14,42	15,83	14,66	0,15
			C (S/m)	4,637	4,798	4,665	0,017
			Depth (dbar)	166,5	167,2	166,9	0,1
		Turbidimeter	Turbidity (NTU)	0,923	48,398	3,719	4,083
			U (cm/s)	-39,4	26,6	-1,5	4,4
		Current meter	V (cm/s)	-29,1	25,3	-0,4	2,3
			W (cm/s)	-29	11,9	-0,4	1,3
		Oxygen meter	O <sub>2</sub> (μmol/l)	5,1	103,1	39,1	9,2
	2013-2014	CTD	T (°C)	14,49	15,76	14,81	0,16
			C (S/m)	4,647	4,791	4,685	0,018
			Depth (dbar)	167,1	167,6	167,3	0,1
		Turbidimeter	Turbidity (NTU)	0,712	82,346	4,447	7,433
			U (cm/s)	-30,9	6,2	-1,4	3,7
		Current meter	V (cm/s)	-15,7	9,4	0,2	2,1
			W (cm/s)	-1,6	4,9	0,3	0,6



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378 **Figure 6: Quality control of ADCP velocity magnitude data at GEOSTAR-SN3 (2003–2004). (a) Color map of current magnitude**

379 across depth for January: top panel = raw data; bottom = QC-checked. (b) Time series from two depth bins (5.33 m on the top panel

380 and 20.33 m bottom panel): black = raw, green = quality-checked, yellow = flagged.

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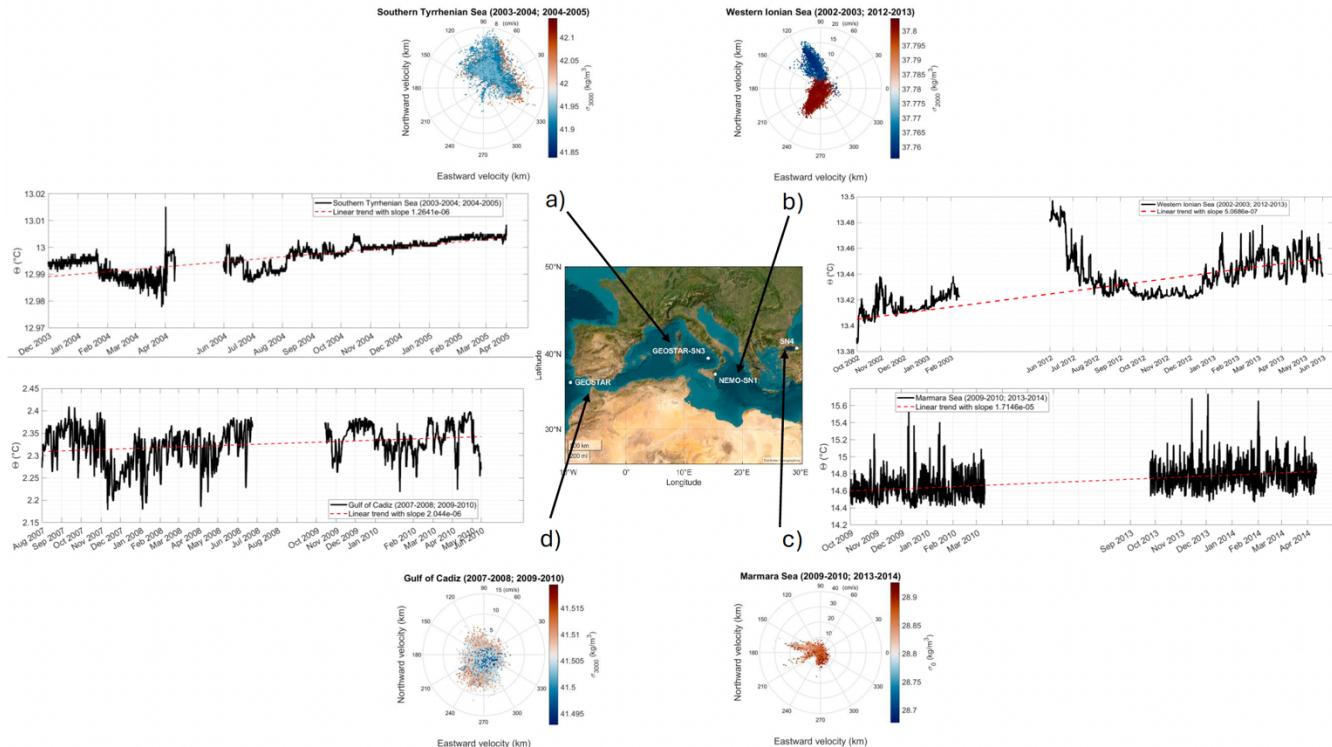
## 383 4 Results

384 Although the acquired datasets pertain to several EOVS, the results reported here primarily concern  
385 temperature data, intending to provide some benchmarks of the deep layer state over the last decade across  
386 the Mediterranean Sea, from the Sea of Marmara to the Cádiz area. After post-processing a QC validation  
387 routine has been performed, potential temperature and density anomaly data derived following TEOS-10



388 international standards (<https://teos-10.org/>), exhibit interesting variability at all sea-bottom sites  
389 monitored during these years (Figure 7).

390



391

392 **Figure 7:** Temperature time series and corresponding current hodographs, along with potential density anomalies (calculated  
393 relative to in situ pressure), reveal a warming trend and variability observed in the Tyrrhenian Sea (a), the Ionian Sea (b), the  
394 Marmara Sea (c), and the Gulf of Cádiz (d) across the Mediterranean region (map at the center © 2025 Google Earth).

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397 Temperature trends measured between 2002 and 2013 at all monitored deep sites are consistently positive,  
398 in agreement with the global warming trend reported by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change  
399 (IPCC, 2013). Although the statistical weight varies among sites depending on the length of the  
400 observation period, the annual rate of temperature increase, calculated for all datasets using least-squares  
401 linear fits to hourly measurements, remains within the same order of magnitude, ranging from  $+0.011\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$   
402 year $^{-1}$  in the Tyrrhenian Sea to  $+0.018\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  year $^{-1}$  in the Gulf of Cadiz and  $+0.047\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  year $^{-1}$  in the Ionian  
403 Sea. The higher value observed in the Ionian Sea reflects the fact that it was derived from two time series  
404 collected a decade apart, providing a coherent and reliable estimate of a decadal-scale warming process.

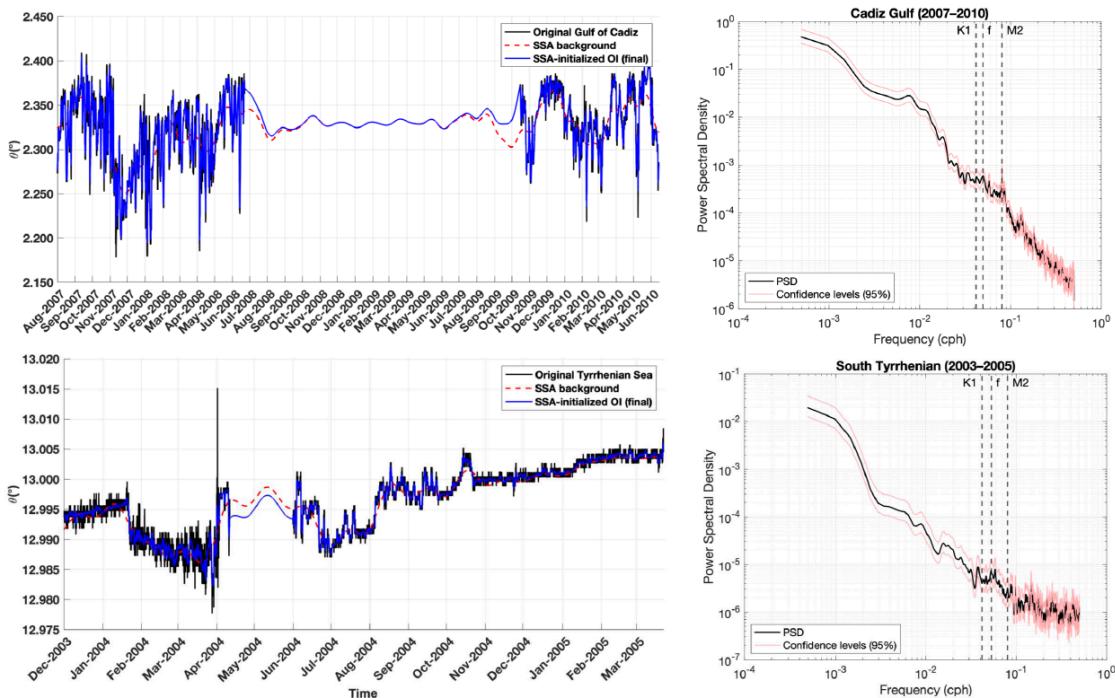


405 The only exception is the Marmara Sea, where the rate is an order of magnitude higher ( $+0.15 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C year}^{-1}$ ),  
406 likely due to its shallower depth (166 m).  
407 At all sites, temperature data reveal notable internal variability, but the recorded variations are not directly  
408 comparable as they result from differences in monitoring periods and local characteristics; therefore, they  
409 have to be assessed on a case-by-case basis. As for the NEMO-SN1 case in the Ionian Sea, where the  
410 variability recorded over one decade is not a simple warming signature but a real change of the deep-  
411 water masses (Malanotte-Rizzoli *et al.*, 1999; Hainbucher *et al.*, 2006; Artale *et al.* 2018). This is evident  
412 looking at the current hodograph, also showing potential density anomaly ( $\sigma^2$ , calculated with reference  
413 pressure of 2000 dbar) (Figure 7b). In ten years, it reveals a change of  $\Delta\sigma^2 = 0.05 \text{ kg/m}^3$ , which is four  
414 times bigger than the usual range of inter-annual variability expected at these depths in the Ionian bottom  
415 water. Along with changes in thermohaline properties, the current hodograph for the Ionian Sea also  
416 reveals a clear shift in the direction of prevailing currents (Giambenedetti *et al.*, 2024), offering a rare  
417 snapshot of water mass redistribution. This shift may be attributed to the alternating advection of dense  
418 water masses that the Ionian basin receives from the Adriatic or Aegean Sea, which could sustain the  
419 better-known decadal reversals (BIOS) occurring in the upper-layer circulation (Gacic *et al.*, 2010). This  
420 is an example of how the variability of the deep layer, generally assumed to be a stationary state  
421 environment, can instead feed internal processes impacting properties of the water masses and circulation  
422 dynamics.  
423 Despite their scientific importance, deep-ocean time series remain sparse in both time and space.  
424 Therefore, developing techniques to handle data gaps and maximize the information content of existing  
425 records is essential. All time series here reported contain missing data, with gap lengths varying according  
426 to maintenance needs, technological refurbishments, or ship availability. To address these discontinuities,  
427 a combination of Singular Spectrum Analysis (SSA) and Optimal Interpolation (OI) was applied to  
428 selected time-series (Figure 8), demonstrating an effective approach to mitigate data gaps and fully exploit  
429 the available observations.  
430 SSA is a fully data-driven, nonparametric method particularly suitable for time series with relatively long  
431 and continuous gaps, as it does not require a priori assumptions that might introduce artificial oscillations  
432 (Ghil *et al.*, 2002; Kondrashov and Ghil, 2006; Beckers and Rixen, 2003). The approach involves two  
433 main steps: (i) SSA extracts the dominant deterministic components, such as trends, seasonal and tidal  
434 oscillations, and low-frequency variability, providing a continuous background estimate across missing  
435 intervals; and (ii) OI is then applied to the detrended and SSA-backgrounded residuals, optimally merging  
436 observed data with the reconstructed background field based on their covariance structure.  
437 This SSA–OI approach combines the signal reconstruction capability of SSA with the statistical  
438 optimality of OI, effectively filling both short and long gaps while preserving the realistic variance and



439 autocorrelation structure of the original record. Through this process, missing segments were  
440 reconstructed by identifying and interpolating the dominant modes (6 mode) associated with physical  
441 oceanographic variability, thereby ensuring the temporal coherence and dynamical consistency of the  
442 reconstructed time series. Beyond data reconstruction, this approach enhances the performance of  
443 subsequent analyses, such as Power Spectral Density (PSD) estimation. As shown in Figure 8, the  
444 warming signal in the reconstructed time series (Figure 8, left part) is consistent with its spectral  
445 counterpart (Figure 8, right part). The alignment of the observed signal (black line) within the 95%  
446 confidence band (red line) confirms the robustness of the spectral estimate. Focusing on the deep-water  
447 component, both spectra display dominant energy at low frequencies, reflecting the slow and persistent  
448 variability typical of long-term warming processes evident in the reconstructed series. Distinct peaks at  
449 tidal and inertial frequencies are also apparent, though with different amplitudes, indicating that these  
450 processes remain active even at great depth and may contribute to the redistribution of accumulated  
451 thermal energy.

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453

454 **Figure 8.** Time series from the Gulf of Cádiz (upper left) and the Tyrrhenian Sea (lower left) showing original data with gaps (black),  
455 SSA-based background estimation (red dashed line), and the reconstructed signal (blue line). Corresponding spectra (upper and  
456 lower right) highlight dominant low-frequency energy, indicating slow, persistent variability associated with long-term warming  
457 recorded.



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## 459 **5 Data availability**

460 The datasets described in this study can be accessed through the Multidisciplinary Oceanic Information  
461 SysTem (MOIST, <https://doi.org/10.13127/MD/MOIST>, Azzarone *et al.*, 2010) and via the INGV  
462 ERDDAP server (<http://oceano.bo.ingv.it/erddap/index.html>), (Table 5 in Appendix A provides the  
463 complete references for each dataset.). Data and metadata have been formatted into NetCDF (Network  
464 Common Data Form) and comply with Climate and Forecasting (CF) metadata conventions. These  
465 specifications are also aligned with OceanSITES and SeaDataNet vocabularies, ensuring semantic clarity,  
466 long-term interoperability, and machine-readability. Domain-specific metadata attributes are harmonized  
467 using the NERC Vocabulary Server (NVS), which provides authoritative controlled vocabularies for  
468 parameter descriptions, units, and semantic consistency across datasets. Organizational identifiers follow  
469 the European Directory of Marine Organisations (EDMO) and the Research Organization Registry  
470 (ROR), and SPDX is used for licensing. In line with the INGV Data Policy, all datasets are released under  
471 a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY 4.0), allowing free use with  
472 appropriate citation. To be fully compliant with FAIR principles, each dataset is registered and assigned  
473 a Digital Object Identifier (DOI) through the INGV Data Registry (<https://data.ingv.it/>), acknowledging  
474 the efforts of those who contributed to generating the data and products and assuring data availability in  
475 further scientific publications. Multiple datasets are available, each corresponding to a specific  
476 observatory and mission. A comprehensive summary, including DOIs and citation formats, is available  
477 on the MOIST portal for each dataset.

## 478 **6 Conclusions and Perspectives**

479 The implementation of harmonized post-processing and quality control (QC) procedures for deep-sea data  
480 is a key step toward expanding the availability of reliable, high-quality oceanographic observations from  
481 the least sampled regions of the global ocean. Standardizing these methods ensures data accuracy and  
482 consistency while enabling the effective use and sharing of information essential to understanding deep-  
483 sea variability, still among the most poorly characterized components of the climate system. Beyond data  
484 collection, the application of advanced analytical methods proposed in this study minimizes spectral  
485 leakage and enhances the reliability of frequency-domain diagnostics, enabling a more accurate  
486 characterization of dominant variability modes and periodic signals. Furthermore, the reconstruction of  
487 longer and more continuous records increases the resolution and robustness of spectral estimates, allowing



488 a deeper and more comprehensive interpretation of the frequencies associated with the observed  
489 oceanographic processes.

490 Strengthening and extending the deep-ocean observational network, particularly in under-sampled  
491 regions, remains essential to improve both regional process understanding and global climate modeling.  
492 By promoting open access and adherence to FAIR data principles, this effort contributes to the goals of  
493 the UN Decade of Ocean Science, supporting the development of a more integrated, sustainable, and  
494 climate-relevant deep-ocean observing framework.

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515 **Appendix A**

516 **Table 5: Summary of all datasets discussed in the paper, including their DOIs and corresponding citations**

517

Observatory Name and acquisition period	Sensor type	Citation to add in the references
NEMO-SN1 (2002-2003)	CTD	Favali P., Beranzoli L., Etiope G., Marinaro G., Giambenedetti B., Lo Bue N.. CTD dataset with Quality Control (SBE 37-SM @ 1 sample / 12 min) from INGV/NEMO-SN1 seafloor platform during GNDT-SN1 project in Western Ionian Sea site (East Sicily), part of EMSO network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2002-ctd-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2002-ctd-qc</a> , 2024
	Current meter	Favali P., Beranzoli L., Etiope G., Marinaro G., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. Current meter dataset with Quality Control (FSI 3D-ACM @ 2 Hz) from INGV/SN1 seafloor platform during GNDT-SN1 project in Western Ionian Sea site (East Sicily), part of EMSO network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2002-curr-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2002-curr-qc</a> , 2024
NEMO-SN1 (2012-2013)	CTD	Embriaco D., Marinaro G., Giovanetti G., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. CTD dataset with Quality Control (SBE 37-SM @ 1 sample / hour) from INGV/NEMO-SN1 seafloor platform during SMO project in Western Ionian Sea site (East Sicily), part of EMSO network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2012-ctd-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2012-ctd-qc</a> , 2023
	Current meter	Giovanetti G., Marinaro G., Embriaco D., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. Current meter dataset with Quality Control (Nobska MAVS-3 @ 2 Hz) from INGV/NEMO-SN1 seafloor platform during SMO project in Western Ionian Sea site (East Sicily), part of EMSO network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2012-current_meter-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2012-current_meter-qc</a> , 2023
	ADCP	Giovanetti G., Marinaro G., Embriaco D., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. ADCP dataset with Quality Control (RDI WorkHorse 600 kHz @ 2 profile / hour) from INGV/NEMO-SN1 seafloor platform during SMO project in Western Ionian Sea site (East Sicily), part of EMSO network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2012-adcp-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/wis-sn1-2012-adcp-qc</a> , 2023
GEOSTAR SN3 (2003-2004)	CTD	Favali P., Beranzoli L., Etiope G., Marinaro G., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B. (2024). CTD dataset with Quality Control (SBE 16 @ 1 sample / hour) from INGV/GEOSTAR - SN-3 seafloor platform during ORION-GEOSTAR3 project in Southern Tyrrhenian Sea site (Marsili Basin), ORION1 campaign. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2003-ctd-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2003-ctd-qc</a> , 2024
	Transmissometer	Favali P., Beranzoli L., Etiope G., Marinaro G., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. Transmissometer dataset with Quality Control (Ctg Alphatrack II @ 1 sample / hour) from INGV/GEOSTAR - SN-3 seafloor platform during ORION-GEOSTAR3 project in Southern Tyrrhenian Sea site (Marsili Basin), part of ORION network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2003-trans-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2003-trans-qc</a>
	Current meter	Favali P., Beranzoli L., Etiope G., Marinaro G., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. Current meter dataset with Quality Control (FSI 3D-ACM @ 2 Hz) from INGV/GEOSTAR - SN-3 seafloor platform during ORION-GEOSTAR3 project in Southern Tyrrhenian Sea site (Marsili Basin), part of ORION network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2003-curr-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2003-curr-qc</a> , 2024
	ADCP	Favali P., Beranzoli L., Etiope G., Marinaro G., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. ADCP dataset with Quality Control (RDI WorkHorse 300 kHz @ 1 sample / hour) from INGV/GEOSTAR - SN-3 seafloor platform during ORION-GEOSTAR3 project in Southern Tyrrhenian Sea site (Marsili Basin), part of ORION network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2003-adcp-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2003-adcp-qc</a>
GEOSTAR SN3 (2004-2005)	CTD	Favali P., Beranzoli L., Etiope G., Marinaro G., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. CTD dataset with Quality Control (SBE 16 @ 1 sample / hour) from INGV/GEOSTAR - SN-3 seafloor platform during ORION-GEOSTAR3 project in Southern Tyrrhenian Sea site (Marsili Basin), ORION2 campaign. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2004-ctd-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2004-ctd-qc</a> , 2024
	Transmissometer	Favali P., Beranzoli L., Etiope G., Marinaro G., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. Transmissometer dataset (alphatrack II @ 1 sample / hour) from INGV/GEOSTAR - SN-3 seafloor platform during ORION-GEOSTAR3 project in Southern Tyrrhenian Sea site (Marsili Basin), part of ORION network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2004-trans-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2004-trans-qc</a> , 2024
	Current meter	Favali P., Beranzoli L., Etiope G., Marinaro G., Lo Bue N., Giambenedetti B.. Current meter dataset with Quality Control (FSI 3D-ACM @ 2 Hz) from INGV/GEOSTAR - SN-3 seafloor platform during ORION-GEOSTAR3 project in Southern Tyrrhenian Sea site (Marsili Basin), part of ORION network. Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). <a href="https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2004-curr-qc">https://doi.org/10.13127/md/sts-geostar-2004-curr-qc</a> , 2024
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524 **Author contributions.** Concept development and manuscript writing were carried out by NLB and BG, with input from all  
 525 co-authors. Measurements were performed by NLB and GM. Data processing and analysis were conducted by NLB and BG,  
 526 while data curation was handled by BG, DE, PB, CF, and RV. All authors have read and approved the final version of the  
 527 manuscript.

528 **Competing interest.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.



529 **Acknowledgments.** We wish to express our gratitude to all those who, over the past 30 years, have contributed to the  
530 development of deep-sea observatory technology from the preparation and management of several EC projects that enabled  
531 their creation, to their design, construction, and deployment at sea. This achievement was made possible through the combined  
532 efforts of numerous researchers, engineers, and technicians, all united by a shared spirit of experimentation and scientific  
533 curiosity.

534 **Financial support.** This study was developed and financially supported within the framework of the INGV departmental  
535 project MACMAP.

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